

Job Satisfaction among Korean Academics

A Critical Investigation

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to go beyond a simple descriptive analysis and attempt a critical investigation of phenomena related to job satisfaction. Specifically, the purpose of study was to identify the conditions under which Korean academics work; what aspects they valued in relation to their jobs; how satisfied they were with their jobs; the challenges they faced; how these challenges influenced their job satisfaction; and whether or not there were differences in job satisfaction between particular groups based on demographic and institutional factors.

In this study, a qualitative interview and a questionnaire survey were deployed as data collection methods. Twenty-five academics from ten universities in Korea participated in the interview. In addition, 700 questionnaires were sent to academics from fourteen universities and 519 of which were returned. After some of these were deemed unusable, 498 questionnaires were used for the study.

The academics involved in this study exhibited different levels of satisfaction with different job aspects. Generally, they reported being satisfied with their work, academic freedom, recognition, development, interpersonal relationships, and job security. However, they were dissatisfied with their pay and with policy and administration, and were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their working conditions. Overall, they were slightly satisfied with their jobs. Korean academics attached more value to intrinsic aspects, e.g. work, academic freedom, development, and recognition, than to extrinsic aspects, e.g. workload, pay and administration. This was corroborated by the finding that intrinsic aspects were more likely to have a greater impact on overall job satisfaction than extrinsic aspects.

This thesis showed differences in job satisfaction between groups defined on the basis of age, gender, academic discipline, control type, and university location. Older academics exhibited higher job satisfaction than did their younger colleagues. The reason put forth is that older academics enjoy advantageous circumstances in areas such as pay, professional development, and promotions. Female academics reported lower satisfaction with most job aspects and lower overall job satisfaction than did their male colleagues. This gender gap was attributed to the male-dominated culture in academe, heavy family responsibilities, and the lack of support structure. Academic discipline influenced job satisfaction to some extent, which was thought to be attributable to differences in working conditions and culture between academic disciplines. Academics at private universities reported higher pay satisfaction than their counterparts at public universities, whereas academics at public universities reported higher satisfaction with university administration than did their counterparts at private universities. Academics at universities in Seoul reported higher satisfaction with most job aspects, as well as higher overall job satisfaction, than those at universities in provincial areas. This was likely because academics at universities in Seoul enjoyed better conditions than those at universities in provincial areas.

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ACRONYMS

KEDI	Korean Educational Development Institute
KRIVET	Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training
MOE	The Korean Minister of Education, Science and Technology
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific Cultural Organisation
\$	U.S.A. Dollar

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INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER

Background

Higher education is crucial for the survival and advancement of societies. Entire societies, as well as the individuals who live therein, derive benefits from higher education. Higher education plays a key role in the acquisition, advancement, and dissemination of knowledge. As so-called ‘knowledge-based societies’ have come to prevail, higher education is regarded as a more important factor in determining the competitive power of countries than ever before. Higher education makes a contribution to economic development through the education of youth. Institutions of higher education, such as universities, provide workers with the professional knowledge and skills necessary for economic growth. In addition, higher education is essential to the development of democracy. People learn how to think critically and develop a deeper understanding of society through higher education. Finally, higher education is a vehicle for social mobility. Education helps individuals realise their full potential. People can overcome their family backgrounds and move up to higher classes by pursuing higher education. Additionally, they can enjoy improved job prospects if they exhibit outstanding academic performance during their post-secondary education (Tilak, 2009).

While higher education is respected around the world, the fever for higher education among Koreans is particularly notable. Students at the primary and secondary levels of education and their parents place the highest priority on entering prestigious

universities. Most primary and secondary school students take classes provided by private educational institutions or individual tutors in addition to the classes provided by their formal institutions. Thanks to their extraordinary fever for education, Koreans have witnessed a dramatic development in higher education in the short period since the modern education system was established in 1945. In Korea, higher education has entered the so-called “universal stage” proposed by Trow (1973). According to Trow, higher education progresses from the “elite stage” to the “mass stage” to the “universal stage”. He defined the universal stage of higher education as the stage at which over fifty percent of all those of appropriate age attend university.

Despite the striking development of Korean higher education in with regard to quantitative terms, there remains much to be desired in terms of the quality of education. Universities are to be blamed for their low productivity. If some measures were to be taken to enhance the quality of higher education, measures to improve the academic personnel system and practices would have to be a priority. This is because academics play a critical role in determining the quality of higher education. They are involved in advancing and delivering knowledge through activities of teaching, research and public service. Gappa, Austin and Trice (2007) emphasised roles of academics thus:

But college and universities depend on their faculty members’ competence and commitment to increase steadily over time to meet the institution’s ever changing circumstances and goals. For administrative leaders facing constant challenges, energetic, and engaged faculty is their most important resources. Investment in the faculty in the quality of the academic workplace becomes a college’s or university’s most critical strategic choice. (p. 4)

The Statement of the Problem

Job satisfaction is concerned with attitudes or feelings toward work and the work context. Work is one of the most important components of people's lives (England and Harpaz, 1990). Work is significant to people in various ways. People can earn money, establish interpersonal relationships, satisfy their need to be respected, and realise their potential through work. Research on the topic of job satisfaction has been actively conducted across a wide range of fields including industry, business, and the public sector. There are a number of reasons why job satisfaction has drawn so much attention from scholars. First, workers' attitudes and feelings toward their job are crucial to the organisations in question. Job satisfaction has a great impact on individuals' behaviour within their organisations in many ways. Chief among these, job satisfaction is related to productivity, and absenteeism. Although the existing research has not consistently shown a relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, several studies (Bowling, 2007; Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton, 2001) suggested that there is a positive relationship between overall job satisfaction and job performance.

The objectives of universities can be met by taking steps to earn the loyalty of faculty members. Highly satisfied workers are more inclined to be dedicated to their jobs. Universities are labour-intensive organisations, where output depends mainly on academic staff. Gappa *et al.* (2007) posit:

Attention to the well-being of the faculty and to the quality of the academic workplace strengthens the institution's capacity to achieve its mission and maintain its excellence, effectiveness, and health. (p. 4)

In addition, the cost of recruiting and retaining academics makes up a significant portion of university budgets. Satisfied workers are less likely to quit their jobs (Ambrose, Huston, and Norman, 2005; Lee, 1988; Rosser, 2004). Retaining high-quality academics is important for universities given that academics play a crucial role in achieving university objectives. Turnover is inevitable, and even desirable to some extent, as it affords universities the chance to bring new blood into their organisations. However, excessive turnover entails many problems. First of all, universities lose capable academics who have accrued extensive experience. Excessive turnover also imposes high temporal and financial burdens on universities. Universities must invest considerable resources to hire new academics to replace leaving academics. Advertising and extensive hiring processes, which involve multiple screening and interview stages, are expensive and take a long time.

Job satisfaction is also worth consideration from a humanitarian perspective. Job satisfaction has a great impact on employees' health. Satisfied workers are likely to live longer and lead healthier lives (Faragher, Cooper and Cass, 2002; Fisher and Sousa-Poza, 2009). Korea is ranked first among OECD countries in terms of the number of working hours (Lee, 2010). This hardworking culture is seen as one of the main factors contributing to the rapid economic growth achieved in Korea over the past few decades. However, tough working conditions tend to tire people out. Heavy workloads make it hard for people to strike a balance between their professional and personal lives. Korea has one of the lowest birth rates in the world. The birth rate in Korea (1.19) is much lower than in the USA (2.1) and the average of OECD countries (1.73). This low birth rate can be attributed in part to tough working conditions. If this low birth rate continues, Korea's population will start declining in 2018. As a result of the low birth rate, the proportion of the population that is over 65 years old is growing.

An aging society, resulting from a low birth rate, means an insufficient workforce, which hurts the potential for economic growth (Shim, 2004).

It has traditionally been believed that academics at Korean universities enjoy their jobs. Despite not being highly paid in comparison with other professionals, academics have been envied for their tenure, light workloads, flexible work schedules and freedom to pursue their own research interests. Also, Confucian culture, which to this day prevails in Korean society, makes academic life more attractive. Korean society has been greatly influenced by Confucianism, which places high importance on education (Lee, 1999). Additionally, higher education is regarded as having made a huge contribution to the development of society across a wide range of fields, including economics, politics, and culture (MOE, 2006).

Korean higher education has faced unprecedented challenges. First of all, the number of student enrolments has increased over time. However, the development of buildings, equipment, and faculty has not kept pace with the increase in enrolment. Many academics struggle with crowded classrooms, scarce resources, and heavy teaching loads. Additionally, increasingly stringent accountability standards are transforming academic culture and practices. Methods of governance based on collegiality have begun to be replaced by methods based on bureaucratic management. Productivity and efficiency are becoming the first priority in academe, and thus quantity, rather than excellence, is receiving greater emphasis in evaluations of the performance of individual academics, schools, faculties, and entire universities. Moreover, some universities have begun to suffer from enrolment shortages, attributable to continued increases in supply of higher education. Just a couple of decades ago, most universities did not need to worry about enrolment shortages. At that time, Korea suffered from a chronic undersupply of higher education. The

number of institutions was insufficient to meet the demand for higher education. .

As universities and the demographics of academics become increasingly diversified, variation in the status and working conditions of academics is also increasing, both within and between institutions. As a result, job satisfaction seems to vary according to the conditions under which academics work. Some previous studies have focused on differences in job satisfaction between groups defined based on demographic characteristics or the type of institution at which they work. However, no consistent pattern of results has emerged from these studies.

The Purpose of the Thesis

This study aims to identify the extent to which academics at Korean universities are satisfied with their job and the effect that the changes that have recently taken place in higher education have on the job satisfaction of academics.

This study is guided by the following research questions:

- How satisfied are academics at Korean universities with various aspects of their job?
- How satisfied are academics at Korean universities with their job on the whole?
- What is the relationship between satisfaction with various job aspects and overall job satisfaction?
- Is there any significant difference between groups defined according to age, gender, academic rank, field of study, university location, and university control type (public or private)?
- If there are any differences in job satisfaction between the above groups, what

are the reasons for the differences?

- How are the changes happening in higher education influencing the job satisfaction of academics at Korean universities?

Significance of the Thesis

The bulk of research on job satisfaction has been conducted in the industrial and commercial sectors. According to Locke (1976), more than 3,350 primary research articles studying job satisfaction have been published. However, little research has been conducted on the job satisfaction of academics. Employers are very interested in workers' behaviour because it determines the productivity of their organisations. Most studies on job satisfaction have been conducted by academics. However, academics have not paid much attention to the job satisfaction of their own kind. Insufficient research on organisational behaviour, and in particular job satisfaction, has been conducted with respect to the academic environment, regardless of geographic region. Few studies pertaining to the job satisfaction of academics have been undertaken, either in Korea or in other countries.

Being an academic is a unique profession. It differs from other occupations with regard to roles, duties, working conditions, qualifications, terms of employment, and recognition. Academics are given a great deal of freedom and autonomy when conducting research and teaching students. Studies of job satisfaction in the industrial and commercial sectors may not be relevant in the context of higher education, as workers, work and working conditions are different. Thus, it is regrettable that so little research has been conducted on the job satisfaction of academics.

This study is expected to provide information that will be of importance to those who want to gain a better understanding of academics' attitudes and feelings toward their job. The findings of this study will be helpful to administrators and policy makers who are considering taking steps to improve productivity or to attract capable people to their institutions.

The study of academics' attitudes and feelings toward their job is crucial to building a healthy culture within academe. Job satisfaction is influenced by the organisational climate and culture. Active communication and democratic leadership are factors contributing to the job satisfaction of workers. Additionally, how satisfied workers are with their jobs depends on how fairly organisations are managed. This study is expected to provide meaningful data on how to improve communication, the conduct of administrators, and the fairness of treatment of academics.

In Korea, university academics used to be relatively homogenous societies dominated by Korean males. However, demographics of academics have gradually diversified. The proportion of female academics is increasing over time. The number of academics of foreign origin working at Korean universities is also growing. In addition, various alternative employment schemes have emerged, and now co-exist alongside the conventional full-time employment paradigm. To adjust to these changes in faculty composition, more attention needs to be paid to the working conditions within organisations.

Moreover, this study can make a significant contribution to the body of academic knowledge. As mentioned earlier, there has been little research on the job satisfaction of academics. Theories and methods related to the measurement of job satisfaction

have been developed for use in the industrial and commercial areas. However, these theories and measurement methods have not been scrutinised enough with an eye to their relevance in the context of higher education. Theories developed for use in industry should be examined in detail to determine the extent to which they are applicable within academe.

This study is distinguished by the methodologies deployed herein. Most studies of job satisfaction have deployed questionnaires as the main method of collecting data. Questionnaire surveys do, in fact, enjoy numerous advantages. They are cost-efficient and convenient. Additionally, many standardised instruments for measuring job satisfaction have been developed to date. Thus, it takes little time and money to conduct a credible, repeatable questionnaire survey using standardised instruments. However, quantitative research has its limitations. It is not likely to provide rich or deep data that shed light on reasons why academics are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. In this study, however, because both qualitative and quantitative research methods were deployed, meaningful research findings that went well beyond those that could be obtained using a superficial survey were anticipated.

The Organisation of the Thesis

This study consists of eight chapters, except this chapter. Chapter One briefly describes the context of the study. In this chapter, general information on Korea, such as its history, geography, population, economy and culture is presented. Additionally, the education system in Korea is described, with particular emphasis on the higher education system and the academic labour market.

In Chapter Two, the literature pertaining to this field is reviewed. This chapter first presents concepts and theories relating to job satisfaction, and then reviews previous studies on the academic profession. This review includes a survey of previous studies focusing on the nature of academic work, working conditions, salary, employment, and promotion. This chapter also presents the changes taking place in higher education, both across the nation and around the world. Finally, the theoretical framework that guides this study is introduced.

Chapter Three outlines the research methods used in this study. In this chapter, the philosophical considerations underpinning this study are presented, and the research methods are introduced and discussed. The reasons why both qualitative and quantitative research methods were deployed in this study are presented. In addition, the interview and the questionnaire survey, which were the main data collection methods deployed in this study, are explained in detail. Information on the sample selection process, fieldwork, the interview schedule, and the survey instrument is presented. Finally, ethical considerations are discussed. In this chapter, it is asserted that this study follows the research ethics guidelines set forth by British Educational Research Association (2004).

Chapter Four describes the data analysis methods. In this chapter, the two phases of data analysis conducted in this study (the qualitative data analysis phase and the quantitative data analysis phase) are explained in detail. The analysis of the qualitative interview data including the procedure for coding the interview data is explained in this chapter. In addition, the methods used to perform statistical analysis, including the calculation of mean and standard deviation of job satisfaction scores, as well as the use of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare groups defined on the basis

of demographics, are explained.

Chapter Five presents research findings using the qualitative data and the questionnaire data in the context of the research aims. The data are broadly grouped according to themes.

Chapter Six presents a comparison of job satisfaction between particular groups by gender, age, academic discipline, control type of university and university location, using the qualitative and quantitative data.

In Chapter Seven, some topics derived from research findings are discussed in the context of the research questions. This discussion includes a comparison between results of present study and those of previous studies. In additions, this chapter deals with relationships between facet job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction, and recent changes that influence working lives of academics.

In Chapter Eight, the summary of the thesis, implications of the study and recommendations for further research and conclusions are presented.

CHAPTER ONE

Korea and Korean Education

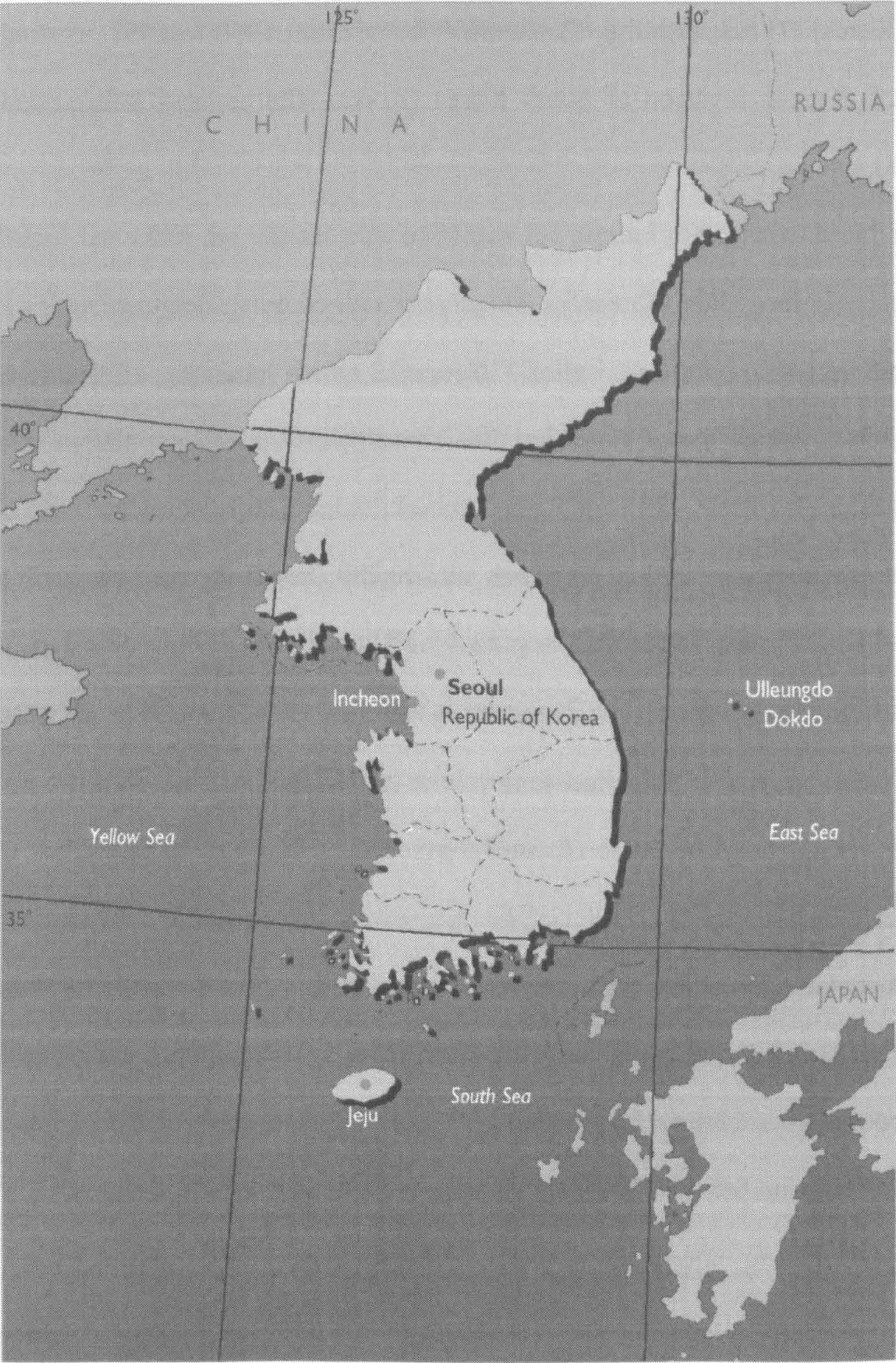
This chapter presents the social and economic context of the study. It begins with general contextual information about Korea, such as the country's geography, population, history, economy, and culture. Thereafter, education in Korea is briefly introduced. The growth of education, the education system, funding for education, and recent major issues are included in this section.

Introduction to Korea

Korea is situated in the eastern part of the continent of Asia, and extends southward from 43°N to 33°N between 124°E and 132°E. Korea shares its northern border with China and Russia. To the east is the East Sea, beyond which neighbouring Japan lies. To the west is the Yellow Sea. In addition to the mainland, Korea includes around 3,200 islands. Korea encompasses a total of 223,098 square kilometres, and is thus similar in size to the U.K. and Ghana. Mountainous terrain accounts for about 70 percent of Korean territory (MOE, 2006).

Until Korea was forced to open to international trade beginning in the 1880s, its leaders adopted an isolationist policy to protect it from western imperialism. Korea was under the rule of Japanese imperialism during the period from 1910 to 1945.

Figure 1.1: A Map of Korea



Source: MOE (2006)

When Korea was liberated from Japanese colonial rule in 1945, the UN decided to establish a trusteeship to govern Korea, by which South Korea was administered by

the U.S.A, and North Korea by the Soviet Union. Consequently, Korea was divided into South Korea (the Republic of Korea) and North Korea (the Democratic People's Republic of Korea). The devastating Korean War lasted from 1950 to 1953, starting with the North Korean invasion of South Korea (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2008).

Koreans are very homogenous ethnically. They speak one common language and use an indigenous phonetic alphabet called "*Hangul*", which consists of fourteen consonants and ten vowels. As of the end of 2007, South Korea's total population was 48,456,369, with a density of 498 people per square kilometre. It is estimated that the population of North Korea at that time was 23,200,238. South Korea (hereinafter referred to as "Korea") saw its population grow by an annual rate of 3 percent during the 1960s, but the growth rate fell to 2 percent in the next decade. In 2005, the rate stood at 0.21 percent, and is expected to decrease to 0.02 percent by 2020. In the 1960s, Korea's population distribution formed a pyramid, with a high birth rate and a relatively short life expectancy. However, the age-group distribution is now shaped like a bell, attributable to the low birth rate and extended life expectancy. The relative number of those aged 15 and less is expected to decrease, while citizens aged 65 and older are expected to comprise 15.7 percent of the total population by 2020 (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2008).

The number of foreigners in Korea, including short-term sojourners, was 1,000,254 in 2007, accounting for 2 percent of the entire population. The rapid growth in the number of foreigners has led to racial and cultural diversification in Korea. By nationality, Chinese make up 44 percent, followed by Americans, who make up 12 percent. Vietnamese comprise the third largest group at 6 percent, followed by

Filipinos (5 percent) and Thais (4 percent). The remainder come mainly from Japan, Taiwan and Indonesia. Among the 724,967 long-term residents, workers make up 56 percent, while 7 percent are students studying in Korea (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2008).

Seoul has been the capital city of Korea for around 600 years. Seoul is one of the largest cities in the world, with a population of over 10 million. Korea has adopted the presidential system of the government. The government consists of three branches: the legislature, the judiciary, and the executive. The nation is divided into sixteen administrative regional units: one capital city, seven metropolitan cities and nine provinces. The president, who is the head of the Korean government, is elected directly by the people for a five-year non-renewable term. There is no national religion in Korea. Politics and religion are strictly separated; freedom of religion is expressly guaranteed according to the constitution. 53.1 percent of the population consider themselves religious. Buddhists form the largest group (43 percent), followed by Protestants (34.5 percent) and Catholics (20.6 percent) (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2008).

Over the past six decades, Korea has scored impressive achievements, both economic and political. Korea has been described as the “East Asian miracle” due to this extraordinary performance. Korea’s startling economic growth began with the adoption of the first Five-Year Economic Development Plan in 1962. From 1962 to 2007, Korea’s GDP increased from \$2.3 billion to \$1.05 trillion, with per-capita GNI soaring from \$87 to \$21,695. Korea's trade volume in 2008 reached \$858 billion. Trade volume in 2007 amounted to \$728 billion, placing Korea 11th in the world (Korean Culture and Information Service Ministry of Culture, 2008). Korea joined the

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1996. Korea's recent history of rapid economic development is attributed to strong governmental support of business, an export-oriented growth strategy, emphasis on high-tech industries, and an abundance of highly-skilled and -educated labour. Korea has recently become known as an IT powerhouse, due in part to its extensive nationwide information infrastructure, which comprises near-ubiquitous broadband Internet access (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2008).

Korean Education

Development of Education

The history of formal education in Korea can be traced back to a national educational institute known as "*Taehak*", which originated in 372 A.D. during the *Goguryeo Dynasty*. The first Korean institution of post-secondary education was *Sungkunkwan*, which was established in 1398 and is based on Confucian teachings. It focused on preparing the youth to be scholars or senior governmental officials. Modern educational institution emerged in the 1880s. Around that time, many private institutions were established across the nation by national leaders or Christian missionaries. The main aim of most such private educational institutions was to educate young people to be future leaders with the goal of achieving national independence. Koreans' access to post-secondary education was severely restricted during the period of Japanese colonial rule. *Kyunsung Imperial University* was the only four-year degree-granting university approved by the Japanese colonial government. However, some junior colleges also existed at that time (MOE, 2006).

The foundation for the modern education system was laid in 1945 after liberation from thirty-five years of Japanese colonial rule. Then, after the establishment of the Korean government in 1948, the formal education system was set forth based on democratic principles according to the Education Law. Because Korea was governed by the U.S.A. during the period from 1945 to 1948 according to the UN trusteeship resolution, the Korean education system was heavily influenced by the U.S.A. The semester system and number of years of study are examples of this influence. *Seoul National University* was the first university to be established after 1945, replacing *Kyusung Imperial University*. In addition, some private educational institutions, having survived the colonial period, were granted university status. In order to promote regional development, a number of national universities were established in various regions from 1951 to 1953. With rapid economic growth, the number of educational institutions and enrolment increased sharply during the 1960s and 1970s. This enrolment explosion was accompanied by overcrowded classrooms, oversize schools, shortages of educational facilities and qualified teachers, and severe competition for university admission. Because economic development was a governmental priority during the 1960s and 1970s, many vocational schools were established during that period in order to cultivate a skilled labour force (MOE, 2006).

In the 1980s, enrolment in traditional post-secondary educational institutions sharply increased. In addition, the emergence of an open university enabled a number of adults to pursue post-secondary education. As the government eased regulations on the establishment of educational institutions and softened enrolment quotas, the number of universities and students increased sharply during the 1990s. Moreover, various measures to improve access to post-secondary education were introduced then. For example, educational leave was introduced (MOE, 2006).

Table 1.1 shows the development of education in Korea in terms of enrolment rates. Enrolment rates indicate the proportion of individuals receiving education at respective levels of education. At the levels of primary, middle, and high school, enrolment rates exceeded 90 percent in 2006. The post-secondary enrolment rate was 67.8 percent the same year.

Table 1.1: Enrolment Rates (Percent)

Year	1980	1990	2000	2006
Kindergarten	4.1	31.6	25.2	31.4
Primary School	97.7	100.5	97.2	96.5
Middle School	73.3	91.6	95.0	96.5
High School	48.8	79.4	89.4	93.6
Post-Secondary	11.4	23.6	52.5	67.8

Source: MOE (2008)

Table 1.2 shows the number of post-secondary institutions and students in 2006. Universities play a major role in post-secondary education in Korea. University students account for 51.6 percent of students enrolled at all types of post-secondary institutions. Those studying at junior colleges make up the second largest group (25.2 percent). The majority of students attend private institutions. The proportion of students enrolled at private institutions was 74 percent.

In Korea, the heavy reliance of higher education on the private sector has made the development of higher education possible. However, the heavy dependence on the private sector has proven an impediment to equitable access. The heavy financial burden of high tuition discourages people from disadvantaged families from going to university (Kim and Woo, 2009).

Table 1.2: Enrolment and Institutions of Post-Secondary Education by Type (2006)

Type	Public		Private		Total	
	Institutions	Students	Institutions	Students	Institutions	Students
University	26	397,352	145	1439,297	171	1,836,649
Junior College	15	38,747	143	858,842	158	897,589
University of Education	11	23,335	-	-	11	23,235
Industrial University	8	86,892	10	102,143	18	189,035
Technical University	-	-	1	196	1	196
Open University	1	290,728	-	-	1	290,728
Cyber University	-	-	17	39,450	17	39,450
Corporate University	-	-	1	62	1	62
Graduate School	-	-	28	276,918	28	276,918
Miscellaneous Schools	-	-	5	1,153	5	1,153
Total	61	921,046	350	2,634,069	411	3,555,115

Source: KEDI (2006)

Table 1.3: Relative Female Student Enrolment at Universities (Percent)

Year	1970	1980	1990	2000	2003	2006
Percent	22.3	22.5	28.5	35.8	36.8	36.9

Source: KEDI (2008)

Male students dominate the classroom demographic at Korean universities. Female student enrolment accounted for only 36.9 percent of total enrolment in 2006. The gender imbalance

has become less severe over time. The proportion of female students increased from 22.3 percent in 1970 to 36.9 percent in 2006. The gender imbalance in enrolment varies considerably according to discipline. Table 1.4 shows that female enrolment is extremely high in the disciplines of nursing (95.7 percent) and home economics (72.3 percent).

Table 1.4: Proportion of Female Post-secondary Students by Discipline (Percent)

Discipline	Linguistics & Literature	Humanities	Social Sciences	Natural Sciences	Engineering	Home Economics	Agriculture
Percent	61.7	48.2	36.9	37.3	12.7	73.2	34.1

(Continued)

Discipline	Marine Biology	Medical Sciences	Nursing	Pharmacy	Arts	Physical Education	Education
Percent	38.4	36.3	95.7	53.9	64.2	23.0	59.8

Source: KEDI (2008)

After these two fields, arts (64.2 percent) and linguistics and literature (61.7 percent) show the next highest female enrolment, followed by pharmacology (53.9 percent) and marine biology (38.4 percent). Enrolment in engineering (12.7 percent) is the lowest.

International comparative data are presented in Table 1.5. According to a study released by the OECD in 2008, the proportion of 25- to 64-year-olds having attained secondary education in Korea is 77 percent, which is 9 percentage points higher than the OECD average. In addition, the proportion of 25- to 34-year-olds who have attaining upper secondary education is 97 percent, which is the highest among all

OECD countries. However, attainment of upper secondary education for the 55- to 64-year-old age group is 37 percent, which is far lower than the OECD average. This is ascribed to the rapid expansion of the education system in Korea in such a short period.

Table 1.5: Population Having Attained Upper Secondary Education by Country (Percent)
(2006)

Country	Age group				
	25 – 64	25 -34	35 – 44	45 -54	55 -64
U.S.A.	88	87	88	89	87
U.K.	69	76	70	67	61
France	67	82	72	61	52
Korea	77	97	90	62	37
OECD average	68	78	72	65	55

Source: OECD (2008)

Table 1.6 presents the proportion of those who have attained post-secondary education according to age group. The proportion of 25- to 64-year-olds who have attained post-secondary education is 33 percent, which is lower than in the U.S.A. (39 percent) and Japan (40 percent) but higher than in the U.K. (30 percent), France (26 percent), and the OECD average (33 percent). Moreover, the proportion of 25- to 34-year-olds who have attained post-secondary education is 53 percent, which is the third highest among OECD countries, after Canada (55 percent) and Japan (54 percent). However, there are significant differences among age groups in Korea. Most conspicuously, while the proportion of 25- to 34-year-olds who have achieved this level of education is 53 percent, the figure is only 11 percent for the

55-64 age group. This shows that enrolment in education increased sharply during the short period.

**Table 1.6: Population Having Attained Post-secondary Education by Country
(Percent) (2006)**

Country	Age group				
	25 – 64	25 -34	35 – 44	45 -54	55 -64
U.S.A.	39	39	41	40	38
U.K.	30	37	31	29	24
France	26	41	27	19	16
Japan	40	54	46	39	23
Korea	33	53	37	19	11
OECD average	27	33	28	24	19

Source: OECD (2008)

The rapid increase in enrolment at all levels of education in the past sixty years in Korea can be attributed to various factors. Guo (2005) suggested that Koreans’ zeal for education laid the foundation for this country’s great achievement in education. Most Koreans believe that they can derive huge benefits from post-secondary education. They think that enrolment in renowned universities leads to better job opportunities and advantages in pay and promotion. Parents are willing to endure a lower standard of living in order to send their children to prestigious universities. Students are required to compete fiercely for the limited number of openings in such universities.

Koreans’ enthusiasm for education has led to the active participation of the private sector in education (Guo, 2005). The government, chronically suffering from a shortage of funds, has not been able to meet Koreans’ high demand for education

through public institutions alone. Consequently, the government induced the private sector to establish educational institutions by providing various incentives such as tax exemptions and governmental subsidies. Numerous private educational institutions were established at the secondary and post-secondary levels of education. Enrolment in private high schools accounted for 53.8 percent of all high-school enrolments. 85.1 percent of all post-secondary institutions are private, and 74.0 percent of all post-secondary students are enrolled at private institutions (KEDI, 2006). In contrast to the important role of the private sector, financial aid from the government is minimal: governmental aid was equivalent to 3.9 percent of the total expenditure of private post-secondary educational institutions in 2003 (See Table 1.13).

The rapid development of the education system in Korea was possible thanks to enthusiastic support from students and their families, as a large portion of the funding for the public education system in Korea comes directly from students and their families. In Korea, the private sector spends an amount equal to 2.9 percent of the national GDP on formal education, while OECD countries spend only 0.7 percent on average. The figure is higher in Korea than in the U.S.A., the U.K., France, and Japan at all levels of education. Notably, the disparity between Korea and these OECD countries is greater for post-secondary education than for primary or secondary education (OECD, 2008).

Regardless, students and their family in Korea are required to bear the financial burden of formal education, including tuition fees, school uniforms, school meals, and so on. Primary and middle school education is free and compulsory in Korea. However, high schools and post-secondary educational institutions charge tuition fees. There is no considerable difference in tuition fees between public and private high schools, as the government subsidises private high schools to a considerable extent.

However, there is a significant gap in tuition fees between public and private universities and junior colleges. Students at private universities are charged more (See Table 1.14).

Moreover, Korean people spend large amounts of money on informal instruction in addition to the burden of formal education. The majority of primary and secondary school students attend private academies or are tutored after school hours. 83.1 percent of primary school students, 75.3 percent of middle school students, and 56.4 percent of high school students receive private instruction (KEDI, 2003). Around \$13 billion was spent on private instruction in 2007 (Hong and Sung, 2008). The prevalence of private instruction is ascribed in large part to tough competition for acceptance into prestigious high schools and universities.

Korea recorded remarkable performance in international tests, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), which is a worldwide test of the scholastic performance of 15-year-old students. Table 1.7 shows that Korea ranked highly in all disciplines covered by the test.

Table 1.7: PISA Ranking of Korea

Subject	Year	
	2001	2003
Reading	6	2
Mathematics	2	3
Science	1	4
Problem Solving	-	1

Source: MOE (2009)

Korea has made great progress in research. Korean researchers published 17,785 papers that were listed in the SCI (Science Citation Index) in 2003, a dramatic

increase on the 5,405 papers published in 1995. Korea ranked 14th in the world in the number of SCI-listed papers. Universities published the majority (76.1 percent) of all SCI-listed papers, followed by governmental institutions (14.1 percent) and private companies (8.1 percent) (KEDI, 2006).

The Education System

Korea has a single-track 6-3-3-4 school system, modelled after that in the U.S.A. This means that the basic school ladder system consists of six years of primary school, three years of middle school, three years of high school, and four years of university. Kindergartens, which are not included in the main education system, provide preschool education for children aged 3 to 5 years old. The main aim of kindergarten education is to provide a good environment for nurturing children and to promote mental and physical development (MOE, 2006).

Normally, children start primary school at the age of six. Primary education is free and compulsory. Primary schools provide general rudimentary education necessary for life. The curricula taught in primary and secondary schools are standardised at the national level. However, both national and local governments are involved in setting the curricula at primary and secondary educational institutions. The Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology sets forth nationwide school curriculum requirements in order to ensure equal opportunity and high quality. Regional education councils have the authority to set forth guidelines on primary and secondary school curricula within the bounds of the national guidelines. Individual primary and secondary educational institutions must use textbooks published or approved by the government. Textbooks must comply with the framework of the national curricula.

English has been taught as a regular subject in primary schools since 1997. Middle school education is also free of charge and compulsory. With few exceptions, students are assigned to the primary and middle schools located nearest their residences. High schools are divided into general schools, vocational schools, and specialised schools, e.g. foreign language, science, and art high schools. Admission into high schools is determined in one of two ways: either by selection or random allocation. High schools charge tuition fees, unlike primary and middle schools (MOE, 2006).

There are many types of post-secondary educational institutions in Korea. According to law, the purpose of post-secondary education is to equip youth with a theoretical background and with the ability to apply such theory in ways that promote the development of human beings. Universities and junior colleges play key roles in post-secondary education in Korea. Universities, universities of education, industrial universities, technical universities, open universities, and cyber universities can grant bachelor's degrees to those who complete 4- to 6-year undergraduate programmes. Junior colleges provide 2- to 3-year vocational programmes leading to associate degrees. Graduate schools provide 2- to 3-year programmes leading to master's or doctoral degrees (MOE, 2006).

Funding for Education

High-quality education would not be available without adequate financial support. According to Table 1.8, in Korea, less money is spent per student at all educational levels than in the U.S.A., the U.K., France, Japan, or the OECD overall. Most conspicuously, the expenditure gap between Korea and other wealthy OECD countries is larger for post-secondary education than for primary or secondary education. The amount spent per student at post-secondary educational institutions in

Korea is *PPP*\$7,606, which is only 32.1 percent of the *PPP*\$24,370 spent in the U.S.A.

Table 1.8: Annual Expenditure per Student (2005) (\$ converted using **PPP* for GDP)

Country	Primary Education	Secondary Education	Post-Secondary Education
U.S.A.	9,156	10,390	24,370
U.K.	6,361	7,167	13,506
France	5,365	8,927	10,995
Japan	6,744	7,908	12,326
Korea	4,691	6,645	7,606
OECD Average	6,252	7,804	11,512

Note: 1) the annual expenditure for primary and secondary education includes the cost of all services, but that for post-secondary education includes only the cost of core services.

2) *PPP* refers to Purchasing Power Parity

Source: OECD (2008)

The source of education funding is another important issue. Sources of education financing can be broadly divided into two categories: public sources and private sources. As education is regarded as being in the public interest, most national governments assume responsibility for educational funding to a greater or lesser extent. Worldwide, there is a wide range of variation in the extent to which the public bears the burden of funding education. In Korea, education relies heavily on private funding. Reliance on private sources of education funding in Korea is higher than in other leading OECD countries at all education levels. The

difference in the extent to which education is privately funded between Korea and these OECD countries is greater at the post-secondary level than at any other level. The proportion of post-secondary education funding that comes from the private sector is 75.7 percent for Korea, compared to 65.3 percent for the U.S.A., 33.1 percent for the U.K., 16.4 percent for France, 66.3 percent for Japan, and 26.9 percent for the OECD as a whole. Korea and Japan are among the countries in which public-sector financial support for education is lowest.

Table 1.9: Public and Private Expenditure on Education (Percent) (2005)

Country	Pre-Primary Education		Primary and Secondary Education		Post-Secondary Education	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
U.S.A.	76.2	23.8	91.0	9.0	34.7	65.3
U.K.	92.9	7.1	83.0	7.0	66.9	33.1
France	95.5	4.5	92.5	7.5	83.6	16.4
Japan	44.3	55.7	90.1	9.9	33.7	66.3
Korea	41.1	58.9	77.0	23.0	24.3	75.7
OECD average	80.2	19.8	91.5	8.5	73.1	26.9

Source: OECD (2008)

Table 1.10 presents the expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP. The wide range of variation in national wealth among countries needs to be considered when making this international comparison. Although less money is spent per student in Korea than in advanced OECD countries such as the U.S.A., the U.K., France, and Japan (See Table 1.8), the expenditure on education is higher in Korea than in these

OECD countries when considered as a percentage of GDP. Expenditure on all educational institutions is 7.5 percent of the GDP in Korea, which is higher than in the U.K. (6.1 percent), France (6.3 percent), Japan (4.8 percent), and the OECD average (5.9 percent), and the same as in the U.S.A. Expenditure on post-secondary education as a percentage of GDP in Korea (2.6 percent) is higher than in the U.K. (1.1 percent), France (1.4 percent), and Japan (1.3 percent), but lower than in the U.S.A. (2.9 percent).

Table 1.10: Expenditure on Education as a Percentage of GDP (Percent) (2003)

Country	All Levels of Education			Primary and Secondary			Post-Secondary Education		
	Public sector	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total
U.S.A.	5.4	2.1	7.5	3.9	0.3	4.2	1.2	1.6	2.9
U.K.	5.1	1.0	6.1	4.0	0.6	4.6	0.8	0.3	1.1
France	5.8	0.5	6.3	4.0	0.3	4.2	1.1	0.2	1.4
Japan	3.5	1.2	4.8	2.7	0.3	3.0	0.5	0.8	1.3
Korea	4.6	2.9	7.5	3.5	0.9	4.4	0.6	2.0	2.6
OECD average	5.2	0.7	5.9	3.6	0.3	3.9	1.1	0.4	1.4

Source: OECD (2008)

Table 1.10 shows that public-sector financial support for post-secondary education in Korea is lower than for primary and secondary education. While the expenditure on primary and secondary education is 3.5 percent of the GDP, the figure for post-secondary education is only 0.6 percent. This means that the public sector spends less on post-secondary education than on primary or secondary education.

Teachers are an important factor determining the quality of education. The ratio of students to teachers is considered a reliable indicator of classroom conditions. In Korea, the ratio of students to teachers is higher, and thus worse, than in other leading OECD countries at all educational levels (See Table 1.11). The disparity in this ratio between Korea and the other countries is especially striking in the case of post-secondary education. While the ratio of university students to teachers is 25.2 in Korea, the ratio is 15.8 in the U.S.A, 17.8 in the U.K., 11.0 in Japan, and 15.5 in the OECD overall.

Table 1.11: Ratios of Students to Teachers by Country (2004)

Country	Kindergarten	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Post- Secondary
U.S.A.	14.5	15.0	15.2	16.0	15.8
U.K.	17.6	21.1	17.1	12.3	17.8
Japan	17.7	19.6	15.3	13.2	11.0
Korea	20.8	29.1	20.4	15.9	25.2
OECD average	14.8	16.9	13.7	12.7	15.5

Source: OECD (2008)

Public and private universities have different financial structures. Table 1.12 and Table 1.13 clarify the difference in funding sources between the two types of universities. The government assumes a large share of the responsibility of funding public universities. In 2003, funds from the government accounted for 62.1 percent of total funding, followed by funds from students (30.1 percent).

Table 1.12: The Financial Structure of Public Universities (Percent)

Source	Year	
	2002	2003
Government	61.0	62.1
Student	30.9	30.1
Other	8.1	7.8
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: KEDI (2006)

Unlike public universities, tuition fees are the largest source of annual income for private universities. Tuition fees accounted for 69.0 percent of all income at private universities in 2003, followed by grants from non-governmental organisations (11.6 percent). However, government grants made up only 3.9 percent of all income in 2003.

Table 1.13: The Financial Structure of Private Universities (Percent)

Source	Year	
	2002	2003
Tuition fees	69.6	69.0
University Foundation	8.4	8.8
Grants from NGOs	11.3	11.6
Government Grants	4.0	3.9
Supplementary Income	2.7	2.7
Non-Educational Income	4.0	4.0
Total	100	100

Source: KEDI (2006)

Table 1.14 shows the actual tuition fees, by discipline, for public and private universities in 2004. Students at private universities were charged more than their counterparts at public universities. This is because private universities rely more heavily on tuition fees as a source of income than public universities. On average, tuition fees at public universities range from 37.2 percent (arts and physical education) to 58.9 percent (medical sciences) of those at private universities.

Humanities and social sciences are the cheapest disciplines, regardless of whether a university is privately or publicly governed. Medical sciences are most expensive at public universities, while arts and physical education are most expensive at private universities.

Table 1.14: Annual Tuition Fees per University Student (2004)

Source	Control Type	
	Public	Private
Humanities & Social Sciences	\$2,081	\$4,195
Natural Sciences	\$2,590	\$5,021
Engineering	\$2,518	\$5,474
Arts & Physical Education	\$2,796	\$5,546
Medical Sciences	\$3,848	\$6,528

Source: KEDI (2006)

The Governance of Post-Secondary Education

MOE is responsible for supervising and guiding post-secondary educational institutions, regardless of whether they are privately or publicly governed. However, MOE supervises public institutions more closely than private ones. The government regulates universities in various ways. Despite efforts on the part of government to soften regulations, administrators at some universities continue to complain that they are hobbled by governmental involvement. Admissions policy is one of the most controversial issues pertaining to government regulations. The so-called “*three nots*” policy of the government has been in force since the 1990s. The policy forbids universities from administering their own entrance exams, discriminating among

applicants based on which high school they attended, or accepting donations in exchange for admission. Numerous complaints about the “*three nots*” policy have been raised. Administrators from prestigious universities claim that the policy hampers universities’ efforts to select students suitable for their curricula (Yang, 2007).

Recently, the way in which the government regulates universities has changed. While the government has granted more autonomy to higher education institutions, measures to ensure accountability for education have also been introduced. The government announced that regulations in diverse areas, such as human resources pertaining to academics, enrolment quotas, administration, and financial management, would be eased or rescinded. In their place, the government is focusing on evaluation as a tool to increase institutional accountability. Post-secondary educational institutions must be evaluated periodically by independent organisations. In addition, they are required to conduct self-reviews and self-evaluations every two years. Another new measure to ensure the high quality of education is the information disclosure system, which was launched in 2008. All universities and junior colleges in Korea are required to post certain key information about their institutions on their websites. The rate of employment of graduates, tuition fees, academics’ research achievements, the number of enrolled students, financial status, and educational facilities are included in the list of information that must be made open to the public according to the system (MOE, 2007c). These new measures are expected to make the post-secondary education environment more competitive.

Chancellors represent post-secondary education institutions and supervise academics and administrative staff. The organisation of governing bodies differs between public and private universities. Private post-secondary education institutions have boards of

trustees, which have the authority to make decisions on a wide range of managerial affairs such as financing, human resources issues, and financial management. In contrast, there is no separate board of trustees at public post-secondary institutions. Instead, Chancellors of public post-secondary institutions have the authority to make decisions on school affairs. Both public and private post-secondary education institutions have various consulting bodies, such as academics' human resources committees and academic affairs committees, which make recommendations to chancellors or boards of trustees (Hwang, 2010).

Internationalisation of Education

The number of Korean students studying abroad has risen sharply in the past three decades. 159,903 Korean students studied abroad at post-secondary education institutions in 2003. 61.4 percent of them were taking degree courses, while 38.6 percent were registered in non-degree language courses (KEDI, 2006). The U.S.A., Canada, and China are the most popular countries among expatriated Korean students in 2007 and Koreans spent \$5.2 million on overseas studies (Jeong, 2007).

The number of foreign students studying in Korea is also growing steadily, having increased 44.5 percent to 16,832 in 2004 from 11,646 in 2001. Most of them are enrolled in universities' academic degree programmes. They are from Asian countries such as China (8,677 persons), Japan (2,232 persons), Taiwan (688 persons), the U.S.A. (586 persons), Vietnam (457 persons), and Mongolia (356 persons) (KEDI, 2006). According to research conducted by the OECD (2008), foreign students account for 0.7 percent of total enrolment at post-secondary educational institutions in Korea, which is far below the average of OECD countries (9.6 percent).

Relationships between Education and the Labour Market

The employment rate for graduates of all type of post-secondary education institutions in 2006 was 84.2 percent for junior college graduates and 67.3 percent for university graduates (See Table 1.15). The following table shows the employment rates of graduates in recent years.

Table 1.15: Employment Rates of Graduates (Percent)

Year	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Junior College	74.2	79.4	81.0	80.7	79.7	77.2	83.7	84.2
University	60.9	56.0	56.7	60.7	59.2	56.4	65.0	67.3

Source: MOE (2008)

Concerns regarding the quality of post-secondary education have been raised in industrial and commercial areas, where the majority of graduates find work. Employers complain that graduates lack appropriate skills and knowledge. They add that universities should pay more attention to teaching mathematics and market principles and to ensuring that students master English and Chinese (Grubb *et al.*, 2006). The government encourages universities to adapt their curricula to make them more relevant to the labour market, forge stronger relationships with industry, and improve their teaching methods in consideration of the needs of the industrial sector. The government has recently taken various measures to strengthen cooperation between universities and industry.

Students enrolled in universities in the provinces, which are not located in Seoul area, accounted for 62.0 percent of all students in 2004. Those universities in the provinces suffer from various disadvantages (Kim and Lee, 2006; Oh, 2007; Park, 2004; Ryu,

2003). Above all, those universities, particularly small private regional universities, find it harder to recruit desirable students than universities in Seoul. The reason why universities in the provinces are not as popular as those in Seoul is that graduates of universities in the provinces are unfavoured in the labour market. Oh (2007) suggested that considerable pay differences exist between graduates from universities in the Seoul and those from regional universities. According to him, graduates from universities in the provinces are paid 11.5 percent less than those from universities in Seoul. In addition, regional universities have disadvantages pertaining to the educational environment. Academics at regional universities receive less research funding. In 2003, seventy-one universities in Seoul received \$876 billion, accounting for 52 percent of all funding, while universities in the provinces received \$800 billion, accounting for 48 percent thereof. Taking into account the number of academics at universities in Seoul and in provincial areas, the gap in research funding is apparent. While 21,031 academics were working in Seoul, 28,441 academics were working at universities in provinces. On average, academics at universities in Seoul received \$41,600, while those at universities in the provinces received an average of \$28,100 (KEDI, 2006).

Academics in Korea

Faculty Composition

There are 54,331 academics at 171 universities nationwide. In addition to these academics, there are other kinds of academic staff, who either teach or conduct research at 4-year institutions of higher education. They include 60,938 part-time lecturers, 7,292 adjunct academics, 5,283 emeriti professors, and 11,897 academics who fall into other categories (KEDI, 2008). There are considerable differences in

employment status between normal academics and the other kinds of academic staff. Normal academics are engaged in all of the traditional roles of academics, including teaching, research, service for the public, administrative work, and decision-making at administrative levels ranging from departmental administration to top-level administration. Moreover, they expect to be reappointed or promoted after successfully completing their terms. Those without tenure expect to be awarded tenure, thus securing them the guaranteed employment until they reach the mandatory retirement age of 65 (Lee, 2003).

Meanwhile, the other kinds of academic staff are either part-time or employed on a fixed-term contract basis. They have no claim to reappointment, promotion, or tenure upon completion of their contracts. They have few opportunities of assuming administrative posts. Furthermore, most of them are excluded from taking part in administrative decision-making within universities (Lee, 2003).

Table 1.16: Academics by Gender and Control Type (Number and Percent) (2007)

Control Type	The Number of Male (Percent)	The Number of Female (Percent)	Total
Public University	12,119 (88.4)	1,584 (11.6)	13,703
Private University	32,609 (80.3)	8,019 (19.7)	40,628
Total	44,728 (82.3)	9,603 (17.7)	54,331

Source: KEDI (2008)

Men dominate the makeup of academics at universities. They account for 82.3 percent of all academics at universities across the nation. The proportion of female academics at individual universities varies according to whether a university is public or private. Table 1.16 shows that the proportion of female academics at public universities is

lower than at private universities. While female academics account for 11.6 percent of all academics at public universities, their representation is 19.7 percent at private universities.

According to Table 1.17, the proportion of female academics has been growing steadily. Since affirmative action for the appointment of female academics was implemented at public universities in 2003, the rate of an increase in the representation of female academics at public universities has been increasing. The proportion of female academics at public universities increased from 8.0 percent in 1990 to 9.0 percent in 2002, which is 1 percent point, while increased from 9.2 percent in 2003 to 11.6 percent in 2007, or 2.4 percentage points.

Table 1.17: Proportion of Female Academics to All Academics (Percent)

Year	1970	1980	1990	2000	2002	2003	2005	2007
Public	2.7	5.3	8.0	8.5	9.0	9.2	10.7	11.6
Private	13.5	13.8	13.6	15.7	16.5	16.9	18.2	19.7
Total	9.5	10.9	11.8	13.7	14.5	14.9	16.2	17.7

Source: KEDI (2008)

The proportion of female academics varies across academic disciplines too.

Table 1.18: Representation of Women in Faculty by Discipline

Discipline	Linguistics & Literature	Humanities	Social Sciences	Natural Sciences	Engin eering	Home Economics	Agricult ure
Percent	29.8	21.0	10.0	16.2	3.3	90.9	8.5

(Continued)

Discipline	Marine biology	Medical Sciences	Pharmacol ogy	Arts	Physical Education	Education	Total
Percent	5.6	21.9	28.6	34.0	23.2	33.0	17.6

Source: KEDI (2008)

Female academics are the minority in all disciplines, with the exception of home economics. Aside from home economics, women comprise more than 30 percent of all faculty members in the disciplines of arts and education. Engineering (3.3 percent) is the discipline in which women are least represented, followed by agriculture (8.5 percent) and marine biology (5.6 percent).

2,529 foreign academics were working at Korean universities in 2007. 26 of them were at public universities and 2,182 at private universities. Compared to developed countries such as the U.S.A. (15 percent), the proportion of foreign academics is very low. The proportion of foreign academics is lower at public universities (0.18 percent) than private universities (5.4 percent). The lower percentage of foreign academics at public universities would be in part because foreigners were not eligible for employment as full-time academics at public universities until 1999. The number of foreign academics has been growing as part of a recent trend of internationalization of higher education (Choi, 2008).

Academics at Korean universities are aging. Academics ranging in age from 40 to 50 make up the largest portion of all academics, followed by the age group from 50 to 59. Those younger than 40 years old account for only 22.3 percent of all academics. The proportion of those aged 50 or over grew from 29.5 percent in 2000 to 40.1 percent in 2007. Various factors explain the aging academic sector. First, academics start their careers later in life. It takes a longer time for young people to find full-time academic posts than before. Even after they earn doctorate degrees, they have to wait for a longer time to get full-time academic jobs. It is usual for doctoral graduates to complete post-doctorate courses or work as part-time faculty members for a considerable period of time before being offered full-time academic jobs. Another reason why it takes longer time for new academics to be hired would be the chronic

imbalance in the academic labour market. The supply greatly exceeds the demand for new academics (Jeon and Kim, 2007).

The age distribution of academics at English universities is presented in Table 1.19. In 2007 Korean academics under age 40 (17.8.percent) comprise a smaller portion of all faculty than their counterparts in England (23 percent). This means that Korean academics typically start their careers in academe at older age.

Table 1.19: Academics by Age in Korea (Percent)

Year	Age				
	Under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or Over
2000	0.3	24.6	45.6	21.8	7.7
2007	0.5	17.3	41.2	32.7	8.3

Source: KEDI (2008)

Table 1.20: Academics by Age in England, 2007 (Percent)

Age	Under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or Over
Percent	2	21	35	33	8

Source: Higher Education Funding Council for England (2008)

Excluding university chancellors, full-time academics can be classified into four distinct categories based on academic rank. Table 1.21 shows that the distribution of academics by rank is shaped like a reverse pyramid. Nearly half of all academics nationwide hold the rank of professor. Public (62.5 percent) and private universities (44.8 percent) differ greatly in the proportion of academics holding the rank of

professor. Until a couple decades ago, academics at Korean universities were divided roughly equally according to rank. The ratio of academics in the upper two ranks to those in the lower two ranks increased from 0.86 in 1983 to 3.61 in 2007 (Lee, 2003). The rapid increase in this ratio is ascribed in part to governmental deregulation. The government repealed regulations that set forth quotas governing the distribution of academics by rank so that public and private universities could enjoy greater flexibility.

Table 1.21: Academics by Rank in Korea, 2007 (Percent)

Control Type	Chancellor	Professor	Associate Prof.	Assistant Prof.	Lecturer
Public	N	62.5	18.1	16.6	2.6
Private	N	44.8	21.9	20.1	12.8
Total	N	49.3	20.9	19.2	10.2

Note: “N” indicates a negligibly small number

Source: KEDI (2008)

Some issues regarding the concentration of academics in upper ranks have been raised. Academics holding high ranks are likely to be exempted from mandatory performance assessments, as most of them are tenured and have already reached the highest rank. Freedom from compulsory assessments can lead to decreased motivation to improve teaching effectiveness and research productivity. Another concern is the growing financial burden on universities. Academics holding higher ranks are likely to be paid more than lower-ranked ones (Lee, 2003). The relative number of academics holding higher ranks is much higher in Korea than in England. The percentage of academics holding the rank of professor is 49.3 percent in Korea, but only 14 percent in England. Academics holding the lower two ranks account for 29.4 percent of all faculty

member in Korea, while their counterparts in England comprise 64 percent of all faculty member.

Table 1.22: Academics by Rank in England, 2007 (Percent)

Rank	Professor	Senior lecturers/researchers	Lecturers	Researchers
Percent	14	22	39	25

Source: Higher Education Funding Council for England (2008)

Qualifications

The law sets forth minimum requirements for academics at universities and junior colleges. Those who apply for university academic positions should have bachelor’s or higher degrees and years of research and teaching experience. Table 1.23 presents the amount of experience required for each rank.

Table 1.23: Minimum Years of Research and Teaching for Qualifications

Rank	Years of Research	Years of Teaching	Total Years
Professor	4	6	10
Associate Prof.	3	4	7
Assistant Prof.	2	2	4
Lecturer	2	1	3

Note: Years of Research and Years of Teaching are interchangeable.

Source: Soe, Gu and Lim (2009)

However, even if candidates for academic positions do not meet these requirements, they can be granted permission to apply for the positions at the discretion of personnel committees at each university. Strictly speaking, a doctorate degree is not a prerequisite for application to an academic post according to law, but in practice, a

doctorate degree is essential, with few exceptions. In some disciplines, such as arts, law, engineering, and business, where work experience is highly valued, people not holding a doctorate degree can be employed. In these academic fields, work experience is considered equivalent to research experience. The government attempts to influence the hiring choices made by personnel departments in some disciplines. For example, at least 20 percent of all faculty members at law schools must be academics with actual work experience as lawyers according to law (Kim, 2008).

Table 1.24 shows that most academics in Korea hold doctorate degrees. 84 percent of all academics have been awarded this highest level of accreditation.

Table 1.24: Academics by Degree (Percent) (2007)

	Doctorate	Master’s	Bachelor’s
Public	92.2	7.4	0.3
Private	81.2	15.6	3.2
Average	84.0	13.6	2.4

Source: KEDI (2008)

Academics holding master’s and bachelor’s degrees respectively account for 13.6 percent and 2.4 percent of all academics. The proportion of academics with doctorate degrees is higher at public universities (92.2 percent) than private universities (81.2 percent). A rapid increase in the proportion of academics holding doctorate degrees took place in recent years. Several decades ago, academics holding master’s degrees were the largest group among academics. Academics with doctorate degrees and those with master’s degrees respectively accounted for 39.8 percent and 52.9 percent of all academics in 1983.

The Academic Labour Market

Competition for full-time academic positions is getting tougher. Causes of fierce competition can be viewed from two different perspectives: the demand and supply sides. Severe oversupply exists in the academic job market. The academic profession is the most desired job among those taking postgraduate courses. Song *et al.* (2008) found in a survey that post-secondary institutions (65.9 percent) are the most commonly desired workplace among doctorate degree holders, followed by public research organisations (18.4 percent) and public companies (3.1 percent). Moreover, a rapid increase in the number of doctorate degree holders is increasing the size of the pool of applicants for jobs in academe.

Table 1.25: Holders of Doctorate Degrees from Domestic and Foreign Institutions

Degree	Year					
	1970	1980	1990	2000	2003	2007
Domestic	172	537	2,669	6,578	7,240	9,082
Abroad	78	221	1,104	1,142	1,059	760
Total	250	758	3,773	8,020	8,299	9,842

Source: KEDI (2008)

The number of doctorate degree holders has increased dramatically during the past few decades. 9,842 new doctorate degree holders received their laurels in 2007 (See Table 1.25). 9,082 of them obtained their degrees at domestic universities and the remaining 760 at foreign universities.

By contrast, the demand for new academics has not kept pace with the explosive growth of the supply side. 5,730 academics were newly hired at higher education institutions, including both universities and junior colleges, in 2007 (MOE, 2008).

Meanwhile, 3,488 academics retired from academic jobs. 3,954 individuals started their careers as academics and 2,371 academics left universities in 2007. Meanwhile, tens of thousands of part-time and adjunct academic staff joined the long queue of applicants for full-time academic jobs.

The extensive use of part-time lecturers has made matters worse. The dependence of universities on part-time lecturers has deepened in the last couple of decades. Various factors may explain the growing reliance on part-time lecturers. Short-term demand for particular experts who can only be found working off-campus is one reason why part-timers are hired. However, nowadays part-time employment is used to cut costs and enhance employment flexibility. Part-timers, whose salaries are based on the number of hours they actually teach, are paid much less than full-timers. They also receive fewer fringe benefits from universities where they work. Furthermore, universities could deny them reappointment without giving a reason and without regard to due process (Yoon, 2009).

The heavy dependence on part-timers has negative impacts both on full-time academics and on teaching quality. As mentioned earlier, part-timers do not take on all of the responsibilities assumed by full-time academics. They spend hardly any time interacting with students outside of the classroom. In addition, most of them do not bear the burden of any administrative or managerial work. Consequently, an increased amount of peripheral work, including consulting with students and administrative tasks, must be borne by normal full-time academics (*Seo et al.*, 2009).

Appointments

The selection of new academics is based on various factors, including their formal qualifications, research performance, and teaching skill. Although the importance that universities place on teaching and research varies according to the goals and characteristics of respective institutions or disciplines, most universities value research more than teaching. The relative importance placed on research and teaching is around 60 percent and 40 percent, respectively, as criteria for the selection of new academics by universities. However, the relative emphasis on research and teaching as criteria for selecting academics varies according to whether institutions are public or private. At public universities, research and teaching are assigned weights of 65 percent and 35 percent, respectively, while in private universities, research is assigned 61 percent and teaching 44 percent (KEDI, 2006).

The institutions at which applicants earned their degrees, especially their bachelor's degrees, is a very important factor influencing the selection of new academics, although it is not explicitly given as a criterion. Graduates from highly prestigious universities enjoy many invisible advantages. Those who graduated from renowned universities are favoured during the process of selection for new academics. It is said that academics are sometimes unfairly appointed because of interpersonal ties. 24.3 percent of chancellors or members of boards of trustees had considered interpersonal ties when selecting academics (Ha, 1999). Favouritism in academe, which is rooted in shared personal backgrounds such as family, hometown, and/or school ties, is a major problem (Lee, 2001).

Intellectual inbreeding in the appointment of academics is another example of favouritism in academe. Intellectual inbreeding at some prestigious universities is a

controversial issue in Korea. The proportion of academics appointed to positions at their alma maters is very high at some universities which are regarded as prestigious in Korea. Because it works against diversification, intellectual inbreeding at universities is considered an impediment to academic development (Lee, 2001). When intellectual inbreeding and its concomitant problems began to be taken seriously, the government implemented a measure to curb it. According to the Law of Higher Education, since 1999, universities have been forbidden to fill more than two thirds of vacant positions with alumni.

Every academic is evaluated every year with regard to performance. The academics' review board established at every university evaluates the performance of individual academics in the areas of research, teaching, and service. Typically, teaching and research each account for 30-40 percent of the weight of an evaluation, and service 20 percent thereof (KEDI, 2006). The results of performance evaluations are used as data supporting decisions on reappointment, promotion, tenure granting, and remuneration of individual academics. Academics at Korean universities generally agree that performance evaluations are necessary. However, there is a continuing debate among academics about the evaluation methods and how the results should be used (Lee, 2003). Frequently cited problems with evaluations were: the criteria are not valid or reliable, qualitative aspects cannot be evaluated appropriately, and evaluations contribute little to the improvement of education (Park, Youm, Gill, Hong and Kim 2007). Korean academics seem to feel pressured by the number and variety of evaluations. They spend a lot of time preparing for various external and internal evaluations. Some academics have argued that the emphasis on evaluations creates an atmosphere of mistrust. They add that faculty performance evaluations are often

conducted for the convenience of management, not for improvement of education quality or further the professional development of academics (Lee, 2003).

Academics who are not tenured must undergo a reappointment process upon completion of the predetermined period of employment. Many universities link reappointment with promotion. At these institutions, academics who are denied promotion once or twice are also denied reappointment. Lecturers and associate professors are necessarily appointed on a per-term basis. Associate professors and professors are employed permanently or on a per-term basis. Tenure can be awarded to associate professors and professors. Reappointment is based on performance in research, teaching, contribution to the university community, and moral conduct. The effectiveness of current reappointment systems has been questioned. One of the criticisms levelled against the reappointment system is that it does not motivate academics to work hard (Kim, 2002). In many universities, the process for reappointment has turned into a perfunctory ritual, because few academics are denied reappointment. Only 116 academics failed to be reappointed to their universities during the period from 1986 to 1997, corresponding to a reappointment denial rate of less than 0.5 percent. 12 of them were academics at public universities and the remaining 104 were working at private universities (Han, 2001). In addition, the reappointment system is considered as a serious threat to academic freedom. Before academics are awarded tenure, they do not feel free to voice their opinions regarding the government or their universities, as they are worried about reprisals in the form of denial of reappointment. Because subjective factors such as individual academics' attitudes, morals, and contribution to the university community are included in the criteria used to make decisions on appointment and tenure, the system is open to abuse. Academics who fail to be reappointed are regarded as failures in academic

society. As a result, they find it hard to continue their academic careers. According to official statistics released by the government, cases of reappointment denial are rare, but the actual number of academics who fail to be reappointed is higher than indicated by the official statistics. This is because many cases of reappointment denial are falsely reported as voluntary resignations (Han, 2001).

In 2000 nationwide, 63 percent of applicants for associate professor positions and 73 percent of applicants for full professor positions were successful. On average, it takes 5.3 years for an assistant professor to be promoted to the rank of associate professor, and 4.9 years to be promoted from associate professor to professor (Lee, 2003).

Academics at institutions of higher education are not allowed to form labour unions in Korea according to law. Government regulations on pay, benefits, responsibilities, leave and working conditions apply to academics at public universities. Within government guidelines, universities are free to set their own policies in these areas. A common set of regulations governing responsibilities, leave, and basic working conditions applies to academics at both public and private universities. Private universities may additionally implement their own policies pertaining to academics' pay and benefits.

Recent Changes and Challenges Facing Academics

In Korea, the corporatisation of national universities has been one of the most controversial issues in academe. The Korean government has pushed forward the corporatisation of national universities as part of policies to increase accountability and productivity. The government suggested the following rationale for the corporatisation of national universities (MOE 2007b):

A drastic change is expected in the operation of national universities under the newly proposed law, as corporatized universities will still be owned by the government but will have far more autonomy and flexibility in the areas of personnel management, organisation, budget operation and administrative affairs. The ultimate goal is to help national universities take on more rights and responsibilities in developing specialised programs and enhancing their competitiveness. (p. 1)

The corporatisation of national universities involves a change in the way that these universities are governed. The government explained these changes in governance thus (MOE, 2007b):

The Board will be composed of 15 people, including the President, two officials recommended by the government, and 12 other members nominated by the university. The law states that at least six people must be non-university members. Universities will also operate an Education Research Council composed of faculty members and a Financial Management Association composed of financial experts.

The way the government funds universities has changed. The government tends to rely more on selection-based funding. The government announced selective funding for research programs as follows (MOE, 2005):

Governmental budgets for projects such as NURI, university specialization, BK21, and university-academia collaboration (contributions and private subsidies) are allotted through competition, for public and private universities alike.

The competition-based application process starts with universities submitting project proposals to the government. A review committee, normally composed of private experts, assesses the project plans and reviews how candidate universities have endeavoured to make related developmental progress. The government selects the most excellent projects and provides financial support for hosting universities. (pp. 1-3)

Competition for funding at the individual and institutional level has become much more intense than before. The use of selective methods to allocate research grants to individual academics has become more widespread. The government announced the following programme to support so-called “star faculty” (MOEc):

...it will introduce a so-called “star faculty” program to raise the competitiveness of Korean scientists and increase the number of top-notch science academics.

Under the program, each scientist or project team who qualifies will be eligible to receive 100 million won for theoretical research and 200 million won per year for experimental research, for a period of five to ten years. The program will expand next year to encompass additional fields, including mathematics and the earth sciences. (pp. 2-3)

The government has tried to strengthen the evaluation and accreditation system as a way of enhancing the competitiveness of institutions of higher education. The government therefore announced a tightened evaluation and accreditation system (MOE, 2009b):

Pursuant to the revision of the Higher Education Act, the Government initiated a higher education evaluation and accreditation system on January 1, 2009, in a

bid to reinforce the autonomy and accountability of institutions of higher education and revitalise the sector with a quality assurance framework that meets international standards. According to the system, institutions first conduct self-reviews and self-evaluations, the results of which are assessed and evaluated by independent accreditation agencies that are recognised by the government. (p. 6)

Conclusion

Since its liberation from colonial rule, Korea has simultaneously achieved rapid educational growth and economic growth. Korea has entered the stage of universalisation of post-secondary education, according to the criteria set forth in Trow (1973). This rapid development of education has been considered to be the driving force behind the rapid growth of the economy.

Although the growth of education seems impressive when assessed quantitatively, concerns over the quality of education have been raised incessantly. As the expansion of education has not been adequately financed, the educational environment is deteriorating. Poor facilities, the high ratio of students to teachers and crowded classrooms are obstacles to quality education.

The next chapter will review the literature relevant to this study. Theoretical approaches to assessing job satisfaction, empirical studies, and the academic labour market will be covered.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature that is relevant to the present study. This literature review is expected to lay a foundation in order that we may better understand job satisfaction. In addition, it provides clues for the theoretical background and what should be done to contribute to the body of knowledge in this field. Extensive research on job satisfaction in the industrial sector has been conducted. In contrast, little research on job satisfaction has been carried out in the context of higher education. Therefore, research pertaining to the industrial sector will be reviewed when deemed appropriate. This chapter also defines job satisfaction and discusses how to measure it in order to establish a conceptual framework.

The Academic Profession

Sweeping changes have been made in higher education worldwide. These changes have had important consequences for working life and employment in academe. These changes have affected the academic profession in many ways. Most conspicuously, the social status of academics in the U.K. seems to be declining. Compared to the average earnings of workers in the manufacturing sector, their salaries have been decreasing steadily over a long period. Moreover, characteristics of proletarianisation have been observed in various aspects of the academic profession. Increases in the number of academics; decreased autonomy, job security, and promotion prospects; and deteriorating working conditions are factors contributing to

the downgrading of the status of the academic profession as an occupation in the U.K. (Halsey, 1992).

Additionally, recent research (Kim, 2008; Locke and Bennion, 2010) suggested that higher education in the U.K. has undergone critical changes. New management and audit systems, which seem to have been appropriated from the business sector, have been applied to universities. Standardised rules and regulations have been created to assure public accountability. External surveillance has intensified in academia across the U.K. Performance in research and teaching is evaluated on a regular basis at both institutional and individual levels. Academic units within universities are assessed every five or six years and the results of assessment have direct or indirect financial consequences. Moreover, academics feel greater pressure as their individual contributions to the assessment results are more clearly discernible. As part of external surveillance systems, RAE (Research Assessment Exercise) and TQA (Teaching Quality Assessment) have been deployed to monitor the productivity of higher education institutions (Fulton and Holland, 2001). In the U.K., the demographics of academics have become heterogeneous. Opportunities for female faculty members to be hired and promoted have improved greatly, but women are still underrepresented, and many of them are employed on a contract, or fixed-term, basis (Fulton and Holland, 2001).

The American professoriate had enjoyed strong internal autonomy, academic freedom, generous research budgets, and wide public support in the form of vigorous and increasing enrolment during the so-called “golden age” of the past (Altbach, 2005). However, higher education in America has undergone rapid changes in recent years. New circumstances have deeply influenced the nature and working conditions of the

academic profession. A study (Comm and Mathaisel, 2003) suggested that most academics surveyed felt that they were neither compensated fairly nor recognised well for their contributions. European countries are no exception to this trend. Across Europe, the desirability of the careers in academe has decreased. It has become difficult to attract and retain capable Ph. D. students as faculty members (Huisman, Weert and Bartelse, 2002).

The demographics of the American professoriate are becoming increasingly diversified (Finkelstein, 1984). The number of part-time faculty members has grown to comprise nearly half of the total number of faculty members. The growing representation of part-time faculty reflects the fiscal difficulties experienced by institutions. In addition, the number of temporary full-time faculty members has been on an increase. They are employed on a limited-term basis and their responsibilities are typically limited to teaching. The number of faculty members recruited from minority groups has also been growing steadily. Although more women and ethnic minorities have entered academic society, they are overrepresented in lower academic ranks and feel discriminated against in the workplace (Altbach, 2005; Finkelstein, 1984).

Many universities in the U.S.A have begun to impose quotas on tenured positions or on the number of academics occupying each rank, and have toughened criteria used in making decisions pertaining to promotion and tenure. Higher education is more strongly affected by the demands and interests of students than ever before. Universities and colleges have expanded programmes which satisfy students' interests, and have cut back on unpopular courses (Altbach, 2005; OYlijoki, 2005). And the balance between teaching and research at universities is a hot issue (Deem and Lucas,

2007; Honan and Tefera, 2001). Diverse stakeholders have argued that universities and colleges should emphasize teaching. Additionally, they have challenged the relevance and quality of teaching.

In conclusion, the growing demand for accountability from various constituencies has weakened the traditional academic freedom of the scholar. Academics feel that academic freedom has eroded. Bureaucratic management has penetrated academe, where collegial governance traditionally prevailed. The sense of community among faculty members has also started to diminish (Kayrooz and Preston, 2001; Locke and Bennion, 2010). Institutions and academics have been highly differentiated, with regard to roles, reputation, remuneration, workload, and tasks. Consequently, their social status and the working conditions they face vary considerably from institution to institution and from discipline to discipline, and from individual to individual (Altbach, 2005; Harman 2001).

These changes have forced universities and academics to make adjustments to new environments. Such adjustments have been painful and frustrating for academics. However, not all adjustments have had negative effects on higher education. Australian academics are now better qualified, more productive and work harder than they did in the 1970s. They still show high interest in their key roles and found their jobs satisfying (Harman, 2003).

Job Satisfaction

Definition

Job satisfaction has been variously defined in many studies in the past decades. Specific definitions of job satisfaction vary according to researchers' theoretical backgrounds.

Job satisfaction has been defined as a function of an employee's feelings or attitudes toward the work environment (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snycerman, 1959; Maslow, 1970). Grunberg (1979) suggested that job satisfaction be defined as a cluster of feelings that an individual worker has toward his or her job. The cluster of feelings includes feelings about all aspects of a job, such as the nature of work, pay, responsibilities, and work environment. According to him, individuals are regarded as satisfied with their job when the cluster of feelings experienced by an individual leads to a positive feeling overall. Lofquist and Dawis's (1969) study was in line agree with the above definitions.

Several researchers conceptualised job satisfaction as feelings or attitudes resulting from the assessment of job circumstances according to an individual's subjective criteria. For example, Brief (1998, p. 86) defined it as "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor." Vroom (1964) defined job satisfaction as positive feelings that individuals have about their jobs. He explained that these feelings emerge as a result of evaluating one's job. Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) defined job satisfaction as a feeling about a job that is determined by the discrepancy

between the valued outcomes that an individual actually receives and the valued outcomes that the individual feels he or she should receive from the workplace. Locke (1976, p. 1300) suggested that job satisfaction can be defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience.” His definition includes three elements: 1) one’s perception of some aspects of the job, 2) one’s value standard, and 3) a judgement of the relationship between one’s perception and one’s value standard, which may be either conscious or subconscious. Verhaegen (1979) suggested that Locke’s definition comprehensively addresses the complicated nature of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is similar to but distinguishable from other attitudes related to employment, such as morale and job involvement (Locke 1976). Morale is a positive state of emotion that workers may experience at work, like job satisfaction. However, there are some differences between the two concepts of job satisfaction and morale. Viteles (1953, p. 283) defined morale as follows:

Morale is an attitude of satisfaction with desire to continue in, and willingness to strive for, the goals of a particular group or organisation.

Job satisfaction focuses more on the present, while morale is more concerned with the future. Furthermore, job satisfaction emphasises the attitudes of individuals, while morale is concerned with the attitudes of groups rather than individuals. However, morale is closely related to job satisfaction. For example, someone who feels satisfied due to the achievement of his job goals is more likely to have a positive attitude about the future than one who is not satisfied. In addition, job satisfaction needs to be distinguished from job involvement (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Job involvement refers to being completely absorbed in a job. One who is involved in one’s job takes

the job seriously and is absorbed in the job, both within and beyond the workplace. When one is highly involved in a job, his or her feelings and moods are affected considerably by the job. Workers who are highly involved in their jobs are more likely to be extremely satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs than those who are not.

Theories of job satisfaction

Several theories have been developed to explain why some people are satisfied at work, whereas others are not. Theories of job satisfaction can be divided into content theories and process theories (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970). Content theories suggest that job satisfaction can be explained in terms of needs that must be fulfilled in order for workers to be satisfied. According to content theories, individuals have similar sets of needs, and feel satisfied with their job when those needs are fulfilled in the workplace. On the other hand, process theories explain job satisfaction in terms of interactions between variables such as workers' expectations, values and the characteristics of the job. Process theories assume that individuals are satisfied at their job when their job provides what they value or expect to obtain from their jobs.

Maslow's (1970) need hierarchy theory and Herzberg's (Herzberg, Mausner and Snycerman, 1959) two-factor theory are influential content theories. Maslow asserted that individuals have five basic categories of needs, arranged in hierarchical order. The hierarchy of needs of human beings, from the bottom to the top, is presented as follows:

- Physiological needs – the requirement for food, clothing and shelter
- Safety needs – freedom from physical threat and harm and economic security
- Belongingness and love needs – development of close associations with other

persons

- Esteem needs – recognition and approval from others
- Self-actualisation needs – the opportunity for self-fulfilment and accomplishment through personal growth and development.

Human beings continually seek to gratify these basic needs according to Maslow. Only after lower-order needs have been satisfactorily met, higher-order needs are desired or sought. For example, self-actualisation needs are not felt until all of the needs in the four lower categories have been fulfilled. However, Maslow did not argue that lower-order needs have to be fully gratified before higher-order needs are sought. Despite reservations on the part of some researchers (Locke, 1976), the notion that Maslow's need hierarchy theory can account for the relationship between occupational prestige and job satisfaction has received some support. It is likely that workers in low-prestige occupations are motivated by lower-order needs such as pay, security, and physical working conditions, because they have not fulfilled these lower-order needs. On the other hand, workers with highly prestigious occupations are more interested in higher-order needs, as their lower-order needs have already been met (Centers and Bugental, 1966). Locke's main criticism against Maslow's theory is that it cannot explain individual differences in job satisfaction in the same work environment (Locke, 1976).

Herzberg's two-factor theory explains attitudes of individuals toward their jobs along two independent dimensions: motivation and hygiene. Herzberg *et al.* (1959) suggested that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is not opposite poles of a single continuum, but rather two separate dimensions. According to the two-factor theory, only motivational factors, e.g. achievement, responsibility, recognition, and the nature

of the work, contribute to job satisfaction. On the other hand, hygiene factors e.g. pay, job security, working conditions, and interpersonal relationships, contribute to job dissatisfaction. Motivational factors lead individuals to feel satisfied if they are present in the workplace. The lack of motivational factors leads to the absence of job satisfaction rather than job dissatisfaction. Meanwhile, if hygiene factors are not present in the workplace, individuals feel dissatisfied. However, the fulfilment of hygiene factors leads to the absence of job dissatisfaction rather than job satisfaction. In other words, a worker cannot derive satisfaction from hygiene factors.

The two-factor theory has been supported by many studies (Amey, 1996; Barnes, Agago and Coombs, 1998; Hill, 1986; Nussel, 1988). Hill (1986) found that job satisfaction of academic staff at universities and colleges is more related to intrinsic factors, which can be considered motivational factors, and job dissatisfaction is more related to extrinsic factors, which are essentially hygiene factors. However, some researchers (Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964) have attacked the two-factor theory. A main criticism against the two-factor theory is that it does not explain differences between individuals (Locke, 1976). Locke argued that the two-factor theory cannot explain why individuals with similar jobs and experience vary in the extent to which they are satisfied with their jobs. In addition, the two-factor theory has been criticised for being overly simple in the way in which it classifies factors contributing to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. House and Wigdor (1967) claimed that motivational and hygiene factors are not necessarily independent, but are interrelated with each other. For example, pay is classified as a hygiene factor according to the two-factor theory, but the meaning of pay can vary from individual to individual. Pay is, of course, a material resource on which human beings depend, but is also perceived by some as a token of recognition and an indicator of social status by someone.

The results of a study by Graen and Hulin (1968) contradicted the two-factor theory. They found that the same factors cause job satisfaction in some individuals and do dissatisfaction in others. Their study showed that motivational factors, such as job duties and promotion, can contribute to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, and that hygiene factors, such as co-workers, supervision, and salary, can contribute to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. These results were not consistent with the two-factor theory. However, they admitted that motivational factors have a more powerful impact on workers' feelings toward their job than do hygiene factors. In other words, motivational factors are related more strongly, to either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction, than are hygiene factors. According to them, motivational and hygiene factors differ from each other not with regard to directionality but with regard to the strength of their impact on feelings. Wolf (1970) also concluded that intrinsic aspects are more powerful factors in determining the feelings of workers, regardless of direction, than are extrinsic factors. Therefore, intrinsic aspects can contribute to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, but the extent to which intrinsic aspects influence workers' feelings is greater than extrinsic aspects.

In addition, the research methods used in studies supporting the two-factor theory have been criticised. Herzberg *et al.* (1959) used a critical incident method to test the two-factor theory. Participants surveyed were asked to relate incidents that made them happy or unhappy in association with their jobs. Herzberg and his colleagues should have been more cautious in interpreting data gathered through anecdotes of critical incidents, as workers tend to attribute job satisfaction to intrinsic factors and blame job dissatisfaction on extrinsic factors in the interests of self-protection (Locke, 1976).

While content theories explain job satisfaction in the context of the fulfilment of needs shared by all human beings, process theories suggest that correspondence between characteristics of the job and an individual's expectations or values determine job satisfaction (Olsen and Crawford, 1998). According to process theorists, workers feel satisfied when the job can provide what they expect or value in relation to their job. They noted that, under the same working conditions, some workers will feel satisfied, while others will not. This difference is attributable to variation among individuals' values or expectations regarding their job. For example, workers who place a lot of importance on career advancement feel dissatisfied when they find that there is no opportunity for promotion. However, other workers might not attach value to promotion, perhaps because they feel that promotion will be accompanied by a heavier workload or separation from their families. These workers will experience less dissatisfaction when denied promotion.

Locke's (1976) value theory is one of influential process theories. Locke's theory encompasses two hypotheses: 1) the less discrepancy between what they value in relation with the job and what they receive from the job there is, the more satisfied a worker is, and 2) the more value an individual attaches to a specific aspect of a job, the more powerful effect that aspect of the job will have on overall job satisfaction. To summarise, the extent to which workers are satisfied at work depends on the extent to which they can get what they value from their jobs. Furthermore, specific job characteristics, to which more value has been attached, will have a greater impact on job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979; Mobley and Locke, 1970).

Vroom (1964) focused on expectations rather than values. He suggested that job satisfaction is determined by the gap between what a worker expects from his or her

job and what he or she can actually obtain. Under this theory, workers are more satisfied with their jobs when the gap between expectations and actual rewards is narrower. For example, workers who feel that they are paid less than what they deserve to be paid will not be satisfied with their job. According to this theory, pay and job security, which are classified as hygiene factors under the two-factor theory, can contribute to job satisfaction as well as job dissatisfaction according to individuals' expectations.

One process theory is known as organisational justice theory. Organisational justice theory is concerned with perceived fairness in employment. According to this theory, organisational justice has an effect on workers' attitudes toward their job (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987). Adams (1963) found that workers seek fairness in the ratios of their rewards to their inputs, including efforts, time, qualifications, and education. Job satisfaction arises when they regard these ratios as fair. They compare their own rewards with those of a reference group. A reference group is a group considered by the individuals to be equivalent to themselves with regard to inputs. In line with Adams's research, Pastor and Erlandson (1982) found that teachers who felt that they were treated unfairly were dissatisfied. However, other studies (Jackson, 1968; Lortie, 1975) have not supported organisational justice theory. According to these studies, perceived fairness does not explain teachers' job satisfaction. They found that perceived unfairness does not necessarily lead to job dissatisfaction, as many teachers view teaching as a calling rather than merely as a career.

Empirical Studies

Sources of Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction

Academic work comprises activities related to: research, teaching, administration and off-campus service (Lee, 1995, Startup 1979). The nature of work has been found to be the main source of job satisfaction in the bulk of research (Evans and Abbot, 1998; Locke, 1976; Lee, 2003; Jang, 2002; Bang, 1993). Winkler's (1982) study identified teaching as the factor from which American academics derive the most job satisfaction, followed by academic freedom and the opportunity to conduct research. Powell, Barrett, and Shanker (1983) found that teaching is the factor that most influences academics' daily working lives. The study found that teaching is regarded as the central responsibility, and that academics who are not interested in teaching or who do not derive any reward from it are likely to feel frustrated. Most academics enjoy teaching, and derive pleasure from interacting with students and helping them develop (Bloland and Selby, 1980; Holdaway, 1978; Farber, 1982). However, low motivation and a low level of basic knowledge among students they teach are regarded as factors detracting from job satisfaction (Bloland and Selby, 1980; Gates, 2000; Guskey and Passaro, 1994; Powell and Barrett and Shanker, 1983; Sergiovanni, 1967). The expansion of higher education has resulted in the admission of more students who are less suitable for university education (Powell and Barrett and Shanker 1983).

Academics value activities related to research highly because of the creative nature of such work. However, most academics are under pressure to produce results from their research. Conducting research consists of various kinds of activities. The types of

research activities that academics carry out are related to the characteristics of universities, disciplines, and individuals. For example, medical sciences and engineering rely heavily on experimental methods, while humanities emphasise literature review in research. Academics at research-oriented universities are required to publish more than their counterparts at teaching-oriented universities (Clark, 1997; Finkelstein, 1984).

Academics are concerned that an excessive emphasis on productivity will deprive them of the pleasure they derive from conducting research and lead them to neglect their teaching duties (Powell *et al.*, 1983). Hagedorn's (2000) study, which implemented Herzberg's two-factor theory, posited that the main sources of job satisfaction among faculty are intrinsic factors, namely: the nature and quality of the work, achievement, recognition, academic freedom, professional development, responsibility and advancement. Conversely, extrinsic aspects, such as compensation, job security, tenure, working conditions, supervision, and interpersonal relationships, are related to job dissatisfaction. In addition, Austin and Pilat (1990) studied how American academics view their jobs. They value their jobs highly, not as means serving specific ends, e.g. financial independence, but as ends in themselves. For them, the boundary between their work and their personal lives is blurry, as their work is often done away from the institute at which they work.

According to a study by Sanderson, Phua and Herda (2000), academics in the U.S.A. seem to be content with their job. Only 8 percent of respondents surveyed replied that they would not pursue careers in academe if they were given the chance to choose a job again. They derived the most satisfaction from teaching-related aspects of their posts. In addition, flexible work schedules, the ability to work independently, and job

security were often cited as factors that enhanced job satisfaction. Meanwhile, monetary compensation, the dearth of research funding sources, mental fatigue, and difficulty maintaining a balance between work and home life were reported as factors detracting from job satisfaction.

Eckert and Williams (1972) posited that tasks and working conditions are major sources of job satisfaction, while salary and relationships with administrators also contribute somewhat to job satisfaction. After reviewing relevant literature on job attitudes, Finkelstein (1984) concluded that job satisfaction among American academics is attributable to the nature of work and to a high level of autonomy. He added that job dissatisfaction is more related to contextual factors, such as administration and salary.

Oshagbemi (2000) examined survey data from 1,102 academics at 23 universities in the U.K. to investigate pay satisfaction. According to his study, less than 30 percent of respondents were satisfied with their pay; furthermore, over 50 percent reported dissatisfaction with their pay. U.K. academics complained more about the procedures by which salaries were determined and about government policies pertaining to pay than they did about their actual pay levels. He identified pay as the factor that contributes to the greatest job dissatisfaction among U.K. academics. Another study (Chris, 1998) showed the comparative pay level of U.K. academics. The real salaries of U.K. academics are 36 percent lower than those of their U.S.A counterparts. In addition, U.K. academics are the second worst paid, undercut only by South Africans, among the eight countries considered in this study: the U.S.A., Australia, the U.K., Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Singapore, and South Africa.

The UK University and College Union (UCU) (cited in Kim, 2008) posited that what working academics dislike about their jobs is bureaucracy, too much administrative work, bad management, a heavy workload, external interference and targets, isolation, lack of respect, low pay, and low job security. A poll commissioned by the UCU showed that nearly two thirds of UK academics are considering leaving the UK to go abroad for work.

Blau (1999) surveyed 1,156 medical technologists to identify the impact of performance appraisals on job satisfaction. This study demonstrated that the perceived fairness of performance appraisals is an important factor affecting satisfaction with various job facets, including pay, job security, promotions, and the work itself. According to this study, those who were highly satisfied with the appraisal procedure also showed high levels of satisfaction with pay, promotions, and their duties. This study concluded that workers are more sensitive to the perceived fairness of the appraisal process than they are to the actual outcomes of appraisals. Even if individuals are ranked lower than they are hoping when appraised, they do not complain when they perceive the evaluation process as fair.

It is worthwhile to identify similarities and differences in job satisfaction experienced by academics in different countries. Lacy and Sheehan's study (1997) presented comparative research on job satisfaction of academics from eight countries: Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden, the U.K., and the U.S.A. According to this research, academics in these countries were generally satisfied with their job. However, the levels of overall job satisfaction varied among the countries. While academics in the U.S.A. were most satisfied with their jobs, those in Germany were least satisfied. A 5-point Likert response scale, ranging from 1 for very dissatisfied,

through 3 for neutral, to 5 for very satisfied, was used in the study. The average degrees of satisfaction in the U.S.A. and Germany were 3.61 and 3.13, respectively. In addition, patterns of facet-specific job satisfaction among academics from the eight countries were identified. It was found that academics in all eight countries tended to be satisfied with their relationships with colleagues (70.4 percent), their job security (62.2 percent), the opportunity to pursue their own ideas (64.4 percent), and their overall employment circumstances (51.1 percent). Although the majority of respondents (75.6 percent) from these countries were satisfied with the courses they taught, the levels of satisfaction with their courses varied from country to country. Germany (59.3 percent) ranked the lowest and the U.S.A. (85.8 percent) the highest in the proportion of academics reporting satisfaction with the courses they taught. Although the majority of academics across all of the countries indicated they were satisfied with the opportunity to pursue their own ideas at work, academics in Israel were apparently not.

There was a gender difference in overall job satisfaction among academics in the eight countries as a whole. Male academics (3.44) were more satisfied with their job overall than were their female counterparts (3.30). In addition, different patterns of facet-specific satisfaction between genders emerged in various countries. In Australia and Israel, female academics were considerably more satisfied with their jobs than were their male counterparts. On the contrast, in Israel and Hong Kong, male academics were slightly more satisfied with their relationships with their colleagues than were their female counterparts, while in Sweden and the U.S.A., the opposite was true. With regard to job security, there was a clear difference between male and female academics in that male academics reported higher satisfaction with job security. With the exception of Mexico, male academics expressed higher satisfaction than their

female counterparts when evaluating their job as a whole. In conclusion, this study showed that different patterns of job satisfaction emerged in the eight countries, and it seems that these different patterns can be attributed partly to differences in academic climate in each country (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997).

As the national culture has a deep impact on people's attitudes and behaviour (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961; Rokeach, 1973), research conducted in western countries may be less relevant in the Korean context. Therefore, it is worthwhile to take a close look at research carried out in Asian countries that share common belief and value systems.

Chang (1997) surveyed 360 individuals to identify sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among full-time academics in Taiwan universities. The survey showed that Taiwan academics are relatively content with their job. Sources from which they derive satisfaction are a sense of achievement, intellectual challenge, recognition, and a high level of freedom. The factors contributing most to job dissatisfaction are intense pressure to publish, heavy administrative workload, and perceived administrative unfairness. Generally speaking, academics at public universities are more satisfied with their jobs than are their counterparts at private ones.

Wang's (1994) study investigated job attitudes among faculty at Chinese institutions. Most Chinese faculty members reported a high degree of satisfaction with their job. Only a small group, accounting for 18 percent of all faculty members, reported ambivalence or dissatisfaction with their jobs overall. In terms of satisfaction with specific job facets, intrinsic aspects were identified as sources of job satisfaction, and extrinsic ones were found to be sources of job dissatisfaction. They derived the most

satisfaction from the challenging nature of their work, expectations placed on them, recognition, their workload, and the requirement to conduct research. On the other hand, factors contributing to job dissatisfaction were determined to be salary, working conditions, relationships with top-level administrators, institutional policies and administration, and the promotion process. Wang (1994) suggested that dissatisfaction with policies and the promotion process could be attributed in part to the quota system, whereby only a certain proportion of academics is eligible for promotion annually, as set forth by the central government. Strict restrictions on promotion by the central government result in intense competition for promotion among faculty members. Consequently, many qualified academics fail to be promoted only because of the quota imposed by the government. This quota system seems to have led to the widespread perception among Chinese academics that the promotion process and policies were unfair. This study also shed light on the impact of individual characteristics, such as academic rank, age, and gender, on job satisfaction. Higher-ranking academics are more satisfied with their salaries and prospects of promotion than are lower-ranking ones. Academics aged 60 or over are more satisfied than those aged 41 to 50. No significant differences in job satisfaction based on gender are found.

Suwandee's (1994) study indicated that academics in Thailand are fairly content with their jobs in general and with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs. According to the study, the type of institutions has an impact on job satisfaction. Faculty members at public universities are more satisfied than their counterparts at private universities. Academics at public universities are given more freedom to do their work. They have more chances to work independently and freely decide what to do and how to do it. In addition, academics at public universities enjoy higher job-related social status than those at private universities because public universities, which have longer histories

than private ones, are typically held in higher regard among the general public. Whether a university is public or private have a more powerful impact on satisfaction with intrinsic factors than extrinsic factors. No major difference is observed between public and private institutions in terms of satisfaction with extrinsic aspects, including university policies and administration, supervision, salary, and working conditions.

According to Enders and Teichler (1997), Japanese professors are less satisfied with their pay than they are with any other aspect of their jobs. Only 6 percent of participants replied affirmatively in response to a question about the remuneration that they receive from their institutions. Meanwhile, they are satisfied with job security, and feel content about their jobs in general. 66 percent of participants responded affirmatively when asked if they would become academics if they had the opportunity to choose all over again. They negatively assessed institutional teaching and research resources, including classrooms, laboratory equipment, library holdings, and faculty offices. With regard to research activities, 80 percent of respondents were currently engaged in research projects. Most academics (89 percent) cooperated with other academics while conducting research projects. Only 34 percent thought that it was easier to get research grants at that time than five years previously. On average, Japanese academics spend seven hours per week teaching courses. They spend less time on teaching-related activities such as preparing for lectures, and assessment than academics in the U.K., Germany, and the Netherlands. The majority of Japanese faculty are under stress in the workplace. Time constraints were often cited as the main cause of stress (He *et al.*, 2000).

Meanwhile, according to Ssesanga and Garrett's (2005) study, academics in Uganda rate the courses they teach, freedom in teaching, and their relationships with their

students as the most positive factors. Collegiality is the second most common factor having a positive impact on job satisfaction. The study suggested that this is because Ugandan academics are very sociable and placed high importance on collegial interaction. Most Ugandan faculty (82 percent) regarded their inadequate and unstable salaries as a factor that detracts from their job satisfaction. The lack of research grants and inadequate library facilities were also frequently reported as factors negatively influencing their working lives.

Impacts of Demographic Characteristics on Job Satisfaction

A large body of research has found a link between job satisfaction and a wide range of demographic characteristics. The relationship between age and job satisfaction is a topic that has drawn a great deal of attention from researchers. Gibson and Klein (1970) found a positive relationship between advancing age and job satisfaction. Similar results have been found in other studies (Janson and Martin, 1982; Hulin and Smith, 1965; Sheppard and Herrick, 1972; Wright and Hamilton, 1978; Vollmer and Kinney, 1955). Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983) concluded that the positive impact of age on job satisfaction results partly from differences in rewards and partly from changes in employees' values as they advance in age. According to him, older workers are likely to have better jobs and be better paid than younger workers. In addition, older workers become more realistic and are consequently more satisfied than younger workers in similar situations. A study by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1986) posited that older faculty members are settled down and less worried about job security and the future. Similarly, a study by Dunnette (1973) found that job satisfaction among academics increases with work experience, while academics in early stages of their careers are least satisfied. The study attributed

this difference to the advantages enjoyed by senior academics in terms of pay, working conditions, and academic ranks. However, Pearson and Seiler's (1983) study contradicted the above research, finding that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction among age groups.

The influence of gender on job satisfaction has also been frequently studied (Borheimer, 1985; Hill 1982; Winkler, 1982). However, the results of these studies are not consistent with one another. Some researchers (Bilimoria, Perry, Liang, Stoller, Higgins and Talyor, 2006; Callister, 2006 ; Castilo and Cano, 2004; Hagedorn, 1996; Seifert, T. A. and Umbach, P. D., 2008; Sabharwal and Corley, 2009; Tack and Patitu, 1992; The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1986; Wasserman, 2000; Trower and Bleak, 2004) found that female academics are less satisfied with their jobs than male academics. Locke, Fitzpatrick, and White (1983) conducted research to indentify academics' job attitudes, including job satisfaction, intention to quit, and non-involvement. They found that faculty members are moderately satisfied overall, but less satisfied with pay, promotion, and administration. The difference in job satisfaction based on gender was identified in their research. Male academics are more satisfied with their jobs and less likely to be thinking of leaving their posts than their female colleagues.

One possible reason why female academics are less satisfied than their male counterparts is the male-dominated culture in academe (Olsen, Maple, and Stage, 1995). Perlberg and Keinan (1986) found that female academics feel that they are subjected to more stress than their male counterparts. On the other hand, some studies (Okapar, Squillace, and Erondy (2005); Oshagbemi, 1997) showed that higher-ranking female academics show higher job satisfaction.

Meanwhile, several studies (Campbell, Coverse and Rodgers, 1976, Pritchard, Dunnette and Goregenson, 1972) have reported that men and women differ in that they derive satisfaction from different aspects of their jobs. They concluded that women tend to be more satisfied with their duties and their pay than men. However, studies (Stevens, 2005; Thoreson, Kardash, Leuthold and Morrow, 1990; Ward and Sloane, 2000) found no gender difference in job satisfaction. Both male and female academics report equally high job satisfaction according to these studies.

Numerous studies (Olsen, 1993; Pfeffer and Lawler, 1980; The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1986) found that whether academics have tenure affects their job satisfaction. Several studies (Adkins, Werbel, and Farh, 2001; Bender and Heywood, 2006) have found that tenured academics are more satisfied with their jobs than their untenured counterparts. According to Oshagbemi (1999), academics in U.K. universities who hold managerial posts are more satisfied with their jobs than those who do not.

Impacts of Institutional Factors on Job Satisfaction

Donahue (1983) examined the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction among academics from fifteen schools of nursing. The result indicated that academics who feel that morale is high and treatment is humane at their institutions are more satisfied with their work, opportunities for promotion, supervisors, and colleagues than those who do not. Parsons and Platt (1968) found that academics at institutions which are in the process of upgrading their status to higher reputation are likely to be under a lot of stress as they bear the combined

burden of research performance expectations and heavy teaching loads.

Snar and Krochalk (1996) surveyed 576 faculty members from baccalaureate nursing education programmes throughout the U.S.A. to examine the impact of organisational characteristics on job satisfaction. The organisational variables examined in this study were the control type (public/private), size (number of students), degree offered (bachelor's, master's, and doctorate), and type of programme (undergraduate, graduate). This study revealed that nursing faculty tend to be satisfied with their job overall, and that correlations between individual organisational variables and job satisfaction is so weak as to be negligible.

Volkwein and Parmely (2000) investigated whether job attitudes are affected by whether a university was public or private. They found no significant difference in job satisfaction between the two groups using survey data from 1,191 administrators at public and private universities. Their study found an apparent difference between the two institutional types only in terms of satisfaction with extrinsic rewards. However, when the other variables were controlled, this difference disappeared. In both sectors, job satisfaction was found to be related to an enjoyable work environment including teamwork and a low degree of interpersonal conflict. Meanwhile, Latif and Grillo (2001) suggested that junior academics at private colleges are less satisfied than their counterparts at public ones.

Job Satisfaction of Korean Academics

In this section, research on job satisfaction of Korean academics is reviewed. Few studies have been carried out to identify job satisfaction among Korean academics.

The notion that academics in Korea are highly satisfied with their jobs has prevailed. *Gyosu Shinmoon* (or a newspaper for academics published in Korea) (1992) suggested that they enjoyed a high degree of academic freedom and high social status, even if they were not as well paid as others with comparable ability and qualifications (sited by Bang, 1993). However, the rapid quantitative growth of higher education in Korea during the past six decades had adverse effects on qualitative development. Increases in funding in response to the sharp rise in enrolment were not adequate to maintain high levels of quality in teaching and research. In a survey (Ha, 1994) of 770 faculty members from prestigious universities in Korea, 95.4 percent responded that their research output had fallen below that of their peers at top-level universities in advanced countries. In order for quality of higher education to improve, they demanded: 1) reductions in their teaching loads and administrative duties, 2) increases in research equipment and funding, 3) the introduction of the sabbatical system, and 4) a fairer system for evaluating faculty research output.

According to *Gyousu Shinmoon* (1992), 64.4 percent, 78.6 percent, and 73.4 percent of 325 respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their work, social status, and job security respectively. With regard to overall job satisfaction, 54.4 percent were satisfied and 24.3 percent were highly satisfied. Only 2.4 percent reported dissatisfaction with their jobs. It also revealed that while 80 percent of respondents at private universities were satisfied with their jobs, approximately 90 percent thereof at public universities were satisfied. Most academics surveyed were dissatisfied with their pay. They regarded their pay as less than commensurate with their qualifications. The group that was most dissatisfied with their pay was the associate professors, followed by the professors. Seven out of ten associate professors and two out of three professors were not satisfied with their pay (Cited by Bang, 1993).

Cheong's study (1982) provided meaningful information about the working lives of female academics. She conducted a survey on 190 female Korean faculty members from universities and junior colleges in Seoul. According to the study, female academics were very proud of their profession although they earned lower salaries than other professional women. In addition, they reported feeling uncomfortable during formal meetings with male colleagues. A common problem they reported facing in their daily lives was that their work prevented them from spending enough time playing with their children, talking with their husbands, and taking care of their families.

Bang's (1996) study also focused on job satisfaction among female academics. She surveyed 320 female academics at universities in Seoul to identify their feelings toward their job. They reported moderate satisfaction in the areas of work, pay, supervision, relationships with their co-workers, and their jobs in general, but were not satisfied with opportunities for promotion. In addition, she posited that the high social status enjoyed by the professoriate had a stronger impact on female academics than their male colleagues. Bang's findings, that Korean female academics were satisfied with their pay, contradicted the results of other studies (Jang, 2002; Oshagbemi, 1997; The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1986). She also found relationships between job satisfaction and the institutional environment. Female academics at public universities were more satisfied with their work than their counterparts at private universities. Female academics in departments of humanities, language and literature, home economics, arts, music, and physical science reported higher satisfaction than those in medicine and pharmacology.

Jang (2002) surveyed 269 academics from selected Korean universities. According to the study, 55 percent of respondents were satisfied, 21 percent were neither satisfied

nor dissatisfied, and 24 percent were dissatisfied. No significant gap based on gender, age, or work experience was found. This study found that teaching and research was the most important source from which academics derived satisfaction, followed by professional growth, responsibility, and autonomy. Those in higher academic ranks enjoyed greater satisfaction with their work. In terms of satisfaction with their pay, female academics at private universities were more satisfied than those at public universities.

Another study (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1994) investigated the feelings of Korean academics toward their jobs. According to the study, Korean academics were generally content with their jobs. They were found to derive satisfaction from the courses they taught (82 percent) and from their relationships with their colleagues (65 percent). However, a considerable number of academics did not feel content with the opportunity to pursue their own ideas (31 percent) or with the way in which the institutions were managed (52 percent). The insufficiency of research facilities, equipment and assistants and the heavy teaching load were reported as the most common obstacles that prevented them from fulfilling their roles properly. Only 10 percent of respondents stated that they would not become academics if they were given the opportunity to choose their careers again. In addition, only 7 percent were considering leaving their present jobs in the near future.

Through the review of the relevant literature, much knowledge on job satisfaction among academics has emerged. Sources of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction have been identified. The extent to which academics are satisfied with their jobs has been widely researched. Comparisons of job satisfaction between groups defined based on age, gender, and academic discipline have also been frequently made.

However, previous studies have relied heavily on quantitative research methods, particularly questionnaire surveys. The studies that employed questionnaire surveys as the main data collection method were limited in their ability to provide rich and deep information going beyond a simple description of job satisfaction among academics. Additionally, studies on job satisfaction among academics in the Korean context are very rare. Finally, most research in this field is not recent.

The Theoretical Framework

This section deals with the theoretical framework guiding the study, which is based on the theories and practical research discussed previously. Job satisfaction is concerned with academics' feelings or attitudes toward their job. The literature review showed that job satisfaction is a function of a wide range of variables. In order to obtain a better understanding of job satisfaction among academics, it is necessary to consider, at a minimum, the nature of the work, the environment in which the work is conducted, an individual's demographic statistics and the characteristics of the institution.

In addition, any complete analysis of job satisfaction should take into account the value an individual places on his or her work. Herzberg and Maslow suggested that job satisfaction is closely tied to the needs of the individual. However, Locke (1976) distinguished values from needs. Work values can be defined as the relative importance assigned to various aspects of work by the individual (Mottaz, 1985). While needs are innate and the same for all human beings, values are acquired and unique to the individual. The process theories posited that workers are satisfied when they gain from their job what they value. Individual workers might differ in what they

value in relation to their jobs. While some place importance on job security, others highly value the nature of the work (Mottaz, 1985). According to the process theories of job satisfaction, one's values or expectations play a critical role in determining one's level of job satisfaction. Meanwhile, content theories suggest that workers' needs must be met in order for them to feel satisfied.

Finally, the changes that higher education has undergone in Korea should also be taken into consideration. Increased enrolments, growing accountability, and financial constraints have often been cited as major changes in higher education. These changes have both directly and indirectly impacted the working lives of academics. Gappa *et al.* (2007) suggested that the recent changes in academe have had the following specific effects:

- Changing patterns in faculty appointment
- Decreased faculty autonomy and control
- An escalating pace of work and increasing workloads
- Increasingly entrepreneurial and high-pressure environments that hinder the development of community and a sense of commitment to one's institution
- The need for continuous professional development throughout one's career (p. 14)

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature relevant to the academic profession: concepts, theoretical frameworks, and empirical studies related to job satisfaction.

Higher education has experienced structural changes across the world. Marketisation, pressure for increased accountability, diversification and tough competition are the

common trends observed in advanced countries (Kitagawa, 2003; Pick 2006). These changes have profoundly altered the nature and working environment of the academic profession. Generally speaking, academics are fairly satisfied with their jobs, but tend to be dissatisfied with their pay, resources for teaching and research, and administration. Academics are worried about deteriorating job security and more rigorous promotion and tenure review processes.

The literature review shows that job satisfaction is a function of a wide range of variables. It indicates that in order to obtain a better understanding of job satisfaction among academics, the nature of the work (e.g. job skills, autonomy), work situations (e.g. physical environment, interpersonal relationships), demographics (e.g. gender, age, rank), the compatibility of an institute or department with an individual's values and interests, and institutional characteristics (e.g. control type, campus location) should be considered at a minimum.

The next chapters will discuss methodological issues involved in planning and executing this study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Introduction

This chapter deals with issues pertaining to research methodology and methods of data collection deployed in this study. Research methodology should be selected to fit to the nature, purpose, and context of the research in question (Bryman, 2004). The term ‘research methodology’ refers comprehensively to methods, systems, and rules for conducting research (Guba and Lincoln, 2006). It is essential to clarify the methodology, methods, and instruments implemented used in the research. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) explain the importance of methodological considerations thus:

In planning research it is important to clarify a distinction that needs to be made between methodology and methods, approaches and instruments, styles of research, and ways of collecting data. (p. 76)

This chapter consists of three main sections. It begins with the philosophical perspectives underpinning qualitative and quantitative research. Next, issues regarding research methods, including data collection methods, the selection of samples and instruments for measures will be discussed. Finally, issues affecting the validity and reliability of research, along with ethical considerations, will be addressed.

Research Paradigm

The term “paradigm” refers to a basic set of beliefs that guide action, and in the present context indicates a position that determines the view that an individual holds regarding social phenomena (Guba, 1990). In social science, there are two basic research paradigms: quantitative research and qualitative research. Quantitative research is a term that denotes a broad range of research methods that are used to collect numerical data and rely on statistical methods for the description and analysis of data. In contrast, qualitative research is a term for a broad range of research methods that are used to collect non-numerical data (e.g. narrative and visual data) and rely on words for the description and analysis of data. The quantitative and qualitative research paradigms differ beyond the superficial issue of whether or not numerical data are used. Quantitative and qualitative studies not only implement different research methods. They are also based on fundamentally different philosophies. In other words, the two types of research differ with regard to philosophical considerations as well as methods pertaining to the collection, analysis, interpretation and presentation of data (Borland, 1990; Bryman, 2004).

Quantitative research is based on a philosophy of positivism. In quantitative research, it is believed that a single reality exists, and that it is independent of an observer’s personal bias or any values attached thereto by the observer. Social phenomena are defined in large part by the variables used to quantify them (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to the positivist research paradigm, researchers should remain distant and detached from the phenomena that they are studying in order to eliminate or minimise any direct influence they may have thereon. Researchers should also maintain their objectivity in order to avoid making any value judgments pertaining to their research

objects. And researchers should remain neutral when conducting their research. As researchers' individual beliefs and feelings are reflected in their personal values, value-driven research is inevitably biased (Guba and Lincoln, 1988). Quantitative researchers prefer a deductive approach to an inductive one when conducting research. One goal of research according to the positivist research paradigm is to expand the body of knowledge by making conclusions in the form of generalisations that hold true without being limited to any particular time or context. They believe that any phenomenon has one or more causative factors, and that in a controlled setting these causative factors are likely to have predictable effects (Borland, 1990).

Phenomenology is the philosophical basis of much qualitative research. Qualitative researchers believe that there are multiple, subjective and constructed realities that are inseparable from context (Sipe and Constable, 1996). From the phenomenological perspective, researchers are regarded as part of the system being studied. Researchers and research subjects inevitably interact with, and thus influence, one another. Qualitative researchers argue that reality can only be studied holistically, and cannot be broken down into a set of variables (Guba and Lincoln, 1982). Qualitative research relies heavily on an inductive approach in determining the relationship between observations and theory. Qualitative researchers approach human science from an idiographic perspective, and thus hold that as every incident happens under a unique set of conditions, such incidents cannot be governed by general laws. In addition, social science should aim to understand the meaning of interdependent phenomena as well as those that are accidentally or subjectively experienced. In other words, the goal of research is to develop the idiographic body of knowledge in the form of tentative truths that hold valid in particular situations (Creswell, 2008). The basic

tenets of the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms are compared in the following table.

Table 3.1: Philosophical Differences between Qualitative and Quantitative Research

	Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research
Ontology	Reality is single, tangible, objective, fragmentable and identifiable.	Realities are multiple, subjective, constructed, and cannot be fragmented.
Epistemology	The researcher is independent from the object of research.	The researcher interacts with the object of research. They are not separable.
Purposes of Research	Generalisation Causal explanation Prediction	Contextualisation Understanding Interpretation
Relationship between Cause and Effect	Actual causes are temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects.	Entities shape, and are shaped by, one another. It is impossible to distinguish causes from effects.
Influence of Values	Research can be value-free and unbiased.	Research is value-bound and necessarily biased.

Source: Goetz and Lecomte (1984)

Qualitative researchers believe that there is no reliable way of determining cause-and-effect relationships. Human beings are interactive participants in the social world, and simultaneously both shape and are shaped by multiple factors (Guba and Lincoln, 2006). Therefore, qualitative researchers believe that phenomena cannot be explained using only a small number of independent variables.

In qualitative research, research is inseparable from value judgments. All actions taken while conducting research are associated with personal values. Research paradigms and theories, as well as the participants and data collection methods that researchers choose, are linked to the personal values held by the researchers. Therefore, researchers must help their audiences understand how their values, beliefs and expectations influence their research, rather than attempt to reach the goal of research that is independent of personal values, which they deem unrealistic.

Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Research

Features of qualitative and qualitative research can be summarised as the following table.

Table 3.2: Features of Quantitative and Qualitative Research

Quantitative research	Qualitative research
Numbers	Words
Point of view of researcher	Point of view of participant
Researcher distant	Researcher close
Aims to test theories	Aims to generate theories
Static	Process
Structured	Unstructured
Aims to draw generalisations	Aims to improve contextual understanding
Hard, verifiable data	Rich, deep data
Macro scale	Micro scale
Behaviour	Meaning
Artificial setting	Natural setting

Source: Derived from Neuman (2000)

Each methodological paradigm has its own strengths and weaknesses (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984). Qualitative research can yield a wealth of detail about a small

number of cases and people, thus permitting researchers to study selected issues in depth and in great detail. Moreover, qualitative research is more useful when describing the social context in which the phenomena are happening. Henning (1986), and Patton (1987) argue that quantitative research allows researchers to make formal inferences based on data, going beyond what is possible with language, which is merely to identify phenomena and make direct descriptions. The ability to draw such inferences is the basis of making generalisations that can be applied to phenomena occurring beyond the bounds of a particular study. Moreover, quantitative research is useful when comparing the ability of existing theories and models to account for the phenomena in question.

However, quantitative research has been criticised for its conduciveness to oversimplifications (Grotjahn, 1987). It is generally agreed that quantitative research and qualitative research are not mutually exclusive, and further, that neither is better than the other in every case. Each research paradigm has its own merits, and which approach should be used depends on the context and nature of the research.

Combination of Qualitative and Quantitative Research

As mentioned earlier, the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have their own strengths and weaknesses. Some researchers (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; King, Keohane and Verba, 1994) have proposed combining them in order to offset the inherent weaknesses of each methodology. Reichardt and Cook (1979, p.115) advocated multiple-strategy research thus: "Each method is based on different but complimentary assumptions, and each method has certain strengths that can be used to compensate for the limitations of the other." Moreover, social phenomena are so

complex that the use of multiple methodologies is required in order to enhance understanding of them. Today, what matters is not whether a researcher uses quantitative or qualitative research methods, but rather how the researcher can combine both methods with the goal of yielding more useful results. Mouton and Marais (1990) endorsed this position. They advocated the merits of combining quantitative and qualitative research methods. They added that neither approach can be used alone to completely describe the human condition, as human beings are very complex.

Triangulation is one of the most beneficial means of combining quantitative and qualitative methods. The emergence of the concept of triangulation led to the increased use of different methods in combination with each other. Since Campbell and Fiske implemented multiple methods to measure psychological traits in 1959, the use of multiple data sources in the social sciences has become popular (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The original definition of the word “triangulation” is “a technique for the precise determination of a ship's or aircraft's position, and the direction of roads, tunnels, or other structures under construction in navigation, surveying, and civil engineering.” (Encyclopaedia Britannica Online, 2009). Denzin (1978) began to apply the term “triangulation” to describe research in the social sciences. In this field, “triangulation” refers to the use of a plurality of disparate research approaches, methods or techniques in the same study (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Triangulation can reduce the potential for bias that is inherent in any approach employing only a single method. Denzin (1978) suggests the following four types of triangulation as follows:

- Data triangulation - the use of a variety of data sources in a study
- Investigator triangulation - the use of several different researchers

- Theory triangulation - the use of multiple and dissimilar theoretical perspectives when interpreting the results of a study
- Methodological triangulation - the use of multiple methods when conducting research

Triangulation is relevant in cases where more light needs to be shed on complex phenomena (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). Combining both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods makes possible the in-depth examination of overlapping and different aspects of an event and the discovery of inconsistencies stemming from differences in point of view (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). Jick (1979) argued that triangulation in research is desirable as the weaknesses of one method can be offset by the strengths of another. He proposed two types of triangulation: within-methods triangulation, in which multiple quantitative or multiple qualitative methods are used, and across-methods triangulation, in which both quantitative and qualitative methods are used.

Creswell (2008) posited that mixed methods serve several purposes beyond realizing the benefits of triangulation. Greene *et al.* (1989) listed the five purposes of mixed methods thus: 1) triangulation, or seeking the convergence of results, 2) complementarity, or examining overlapping but different facets of phenomena, 3) initiation, or discovering paradoxes, contradictions, and fresh perspectives, 4) development, that is, using methods sequentially such that the results of the first method inform the application of subsequently used methods, and 5) expansion, or the addition of breadth and scope to a project by combining methods.

However, research using multiple methods is not necessarily superior to research that depends on a single method. Bryman (2004) concluded that the use of multiple research methods is not a universally applicable approach, and is not always superior to the implementation of a single method. Research in which multiple methods are implemented has great potential in many instances. However, research comprising multiple methods is subject to constraints and considerations, just like research relying on a single method.

The Rationale for the Selection of Research Methodology

The selection of research methodology depends on the research question. Quantitative methodology is more suitable for research that aims to test existing theories. In addition, if the goal of a study is to attempt to determine the relative importance of various suggested causes of some social phenomena, quantitative methods are more appropriate than qualitative methods (Bryman, 2004). This is because the high precision of measurement is the main strength of quantitative research. However, when a researcher investigates how the members of a certain social group view a social phenomena from their own perspectives, qualitative research methods are more suitable. This is because qualitative research pays more attention to how the people being studied interpret the social world from their own viewpoints. When researchers are interested in topics on which little prior research has been conducted, quantitative research is hard to undertake, because the theories that might guide research have not been well established. Quantitative research is more suitable for testing theories than it is for generating them (Bryman, 2004). Therefore, when faced with the selection of methodology, the nature of the research topic and the people under study should be taken into consideration.

The purpose of the present study is to identify the extent to which academics at Korean universities are satisfied with their job. The present study incorporates both qualitative and quantitative research methods. One of the main aims of this study is to explore how Korean academics feel about their jobs from their own perspectives, rather than from researchers' perspectives. It is hard to elicit honest answers that convey people's true attitudes, feelings and opinions using only quantitative research methods such as questionnaire surveys. Research that aims to explore human attitudes or feelings, particularly those related to job satisfaction, requires the establishment of a rapport with participants. Job satisfaction among academics is sufficiently complex that it cannot be explained fully using quantitative research methods alone. A wide range of factors can influence workers' attitudes and feelings toward their job. Factors influencing workers' feelings and attitudes toward their job include demographic characteristics, organisational characteristics, personal beliefs, value systems, and even state of health. Therefore, it is very hard to isolate manageable variables that have meaningful relationships with workers' attitudes and feelings toward their job. However, most previous studies on job satisfaction have relied on quantitative research methods alone, and particular on questionnaire surveys.

The fact that little research on job satisfaction among Korean academics has been conducted is another reason that qualitative research was implemented in the present study. The bulk of research on job satisfaction has been conducted in commercial sectors. As a result, a variety of methods and instruments for research on job satisfaction has been developed for use in commercial sectors. However, little research on job satisfaction among university academics has been conducted in any developed country, let alone in Korea. Consequently, there are no generally agreed-upon data collection methods for research on job satisfaction among academics. In

addition, cultural differences between Korea and other countries must be taken into consideration when theories or methods developed in other countries are applied in Korea. In areas where little research has been conducted, it is very difficult to conduct quantitative research because there are few theories to provide a framework for research (Bryman, 2004).

The present study also incorporates quantitative methods. There are several reasons why quantitative research methods were implemented. The present study attempts to compare job satisfaction between groups as a function of demographic and institutional factors. As mentioned in detail in the literature review chapter, the following factors are all expected to influence job satisfaction: gender, age, academic rank, control type (whether an institution is public or private), and university location. Quantitative research is characterised by the strength of being able to identify differences in cognition, behaviour, and attitudes between groups (Bryman, 2004). Quantitative methods were thus implemented in order to identify the extent of the impact of respective job aspects, including the nature of work, pay, opportunities for promotion and recognition, and academic freedom, on overall job satisfaction of academics. Additionally, the use of quantitative research methods makes it possible to compare the findings of the present study with the results of other studies. Most studies of job satisfaction among academics, whether conducted within Korea or elsewhere, have relied on quantitative research methods. The use of quantitative research makes comparison between these studies and the present study possible.

The relationship between the qualitative and quantitative research methods used in this study should be noted. The relationship is a sequential one, with the qualitative research methods being conducted first and the quantitative research methods being implemented subsequently. The reason that this procedure was followed was so that

phenomena could first be discovered and explored by gathering qualitative data, and then quantitative data could be collected to further investigate the relationships that surfaced through the collection of the qualitative data.

In phase one, face-to face interviews were conducted in order to identify 1) what situation Korean academics work in, 2) what values Korean academics attach to their jobs, 3) what aspects of their jobs contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, 4) how satisfied or dissatisfied Korean academics are with various job aspects, 5) how satisfied or dissatisfied Korean academics are with their jobs overall, and 6) What the recent changes and challenges that Korean academics have faced are. After the interviews were completed, the much wider questionnaire survey was undertaken. The data gleaned through the interviews were analysed and used to develop the quantitative research instrument, that is, the survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was designed to identify to what extent academics were satisfied with specific facets of their job and with their job overall, and to compare job satisfaction among particular groups according to personal (e.g. gender, age) and institutional characteristics (control type, university location).

Data Collection Methods

Job satisfaction is an elusive and subjective notion that has received a lot of scrutiny. Measuring job satisfaction is an important task for both employers and employees. A better understanding of job satisfaction can help both employers and employees work toward concrete improvement in various job aspects such as pay, facilities, workload, and conditions. Measurement of job satisfaction is also of great importance from an academic perspective. Even though a large body of research has been conducted with

the goal of understanding job satisfaction, there is no widely agreed-upon method for measuring for job satisfaction.

There are two types of measuring job satisfaction: facet-free measurement and facet-specific measurement. In facet-free measurement, individuals are required to rate their feelings toward their job on the whole, usually on a Likert scale or on the basis of “yes or no” questions. Usually they are asked questions such as “All considered, are you satisfied with your present job?” Hoppock’s study (1935) used a facet-free method. Facet-free measurement has the advantages of convenience and reduced time investment. Moreover, it is very useful when comparing job satisfaction between various occupations and workers from different countries (Oshagbemi, 1999). However, it has some limitations. It can indicate only general job satisfaction, without finding out which aspects of a job have stronger effects on the satisfaction level of workers. Therefore, it is of little value to managers or policy-makers who are intent on improving the working lives of their employees, who are interested in what factors contribute to job satisfaction.

Facet-specific measurement asks respondents to evaluate satisfaction with various aspects of their jobs, such as pay, promotion, supervision, the nature of the work, development, working conditions, and recognition, typically on the basis of a Likert scale or “yes or no” questions. A facet-specific method can provided meaningful data on workers’ feelings toward various job aspects. Such methods are very helpful for those who are interested in what measures should be taken to improve working lives. However, facet-specific methods have some limitations too. The surveys are more difficult to conceptualise and formulate for specific occupations.

To date, measures of job satisfaction usually have taken one of four forms: 1) questionnaire surveys, 2) observations, 3) interviews, and 4) critical incidents (Herzberg *et al.*, 1959; Locke, 1976).

Questionnaires have some advantages over interviews. Questionnaires are more reliable as their anonymity encourages honest responses. In addition, questionnaires consume less time and money than interviews. However, questionnaires have some disadvantages compared to interviews. Limitations are imposed on how much information can be gleaned through closed-ended questionnaires, as the participants have no choice but to select one from among the given choices. Due to the way in which they are phrased, instructions, questions and answers may not be interpreted in the way intended by the researcher when designing the questionnaire.

Various standardised questionnaires for measuring job satisfaction have been developed in industry, where research on organisational behaviour has flourished. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith Kendal, and Hulin (1969) is popular instrument for measuring job satisfaction. Over 50 percent of all articles published in leading journals during the 1970s employed the JDI to measure job satisfaction (Yeager, 1981). The JDI consists of provisions to measure job satisfaction along five dimensions: the work itself, supervision, co-workers, opportunities for promotion, and pay. The JDI has been deemed a good instrument that was carefully developed and yields highly reliable and valid results (Locke, 1976). Oshagbemi (1997) revised the JDI to make it more relevant in the context of higher education. In order to measure job satisfaction among university academics, he proposed eight aspects of job satisfaction: teaching, research, administration and management, current pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, co-workers, and physical conditions.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is another popular tool for measuring job satisfaction (O'Connor, Peter and Gordon, 1978). The MSQ is designed to investigate intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. The MSQ measures twenty facets of job satisfaction: ability utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision (human relations), supervision (technical), variety, and working conditions (Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist, 1967).

The JDI and the MSQ have been widely used and appraised as good instruments for measuring job satisfaction, but their relevance in the context of higher education has been questioned. A major problem is that these instruments were developed for manual workers rather than professionals (Smith *et al.*, 1969; Weiss, *et al.*, 1967). Therefore, they do not take the unique occupational characteristics of university academics into consideration. For example, autonomy and collegiality, which are important in professional organisations, including universities, are not measured by such instruments. In addition, they fail to address the complex and sophisticated aspects of the academic profession. In designing an instrument for assessing job satisfaction among academics, the nature of academic work, the unique working conditions of academics, and the social and cultural context of campus life must be considered carefully. As there is no generally agreed-upon instrument among researchers, individually developed instruments have been widely used (O'Connor, Peter and Gordon, 1978).

All standardised self-reporting job satisfaction measurement tools such as questionnaires have inventories of questions pertaining to feelings or attitudes toward

the job. However, self-reporting job satisfaction measurement tools have an inherent limitation because they are based on an assumption that calls their validity into question. Locke (1976) argued that respondents do not always recognise their feelings about themselves and their work, that they are not always able to express these feelings, and that not all of them interpret the question items as having the meaning intended by researchers.

Kvale (2007) defined an interview as “a conversation that has a structure and purpose determined by the one party-the interviewer.” He outlined the characteristics of interviews as follows:

The topics covered in qualitative interviews are the world in which the subjects live and their relation thereto. In an interview, an attempt is made to obtain a vivid description of various aspects of the world in which the subject lives. A well-conducted interview yields rich data that gives the researcher new insights into the circumstances of the subject's life. Interviews enable participants to share their interpretation of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their point of view. An interview is not only a data collection tool but it is also a part of life itself. (p. 7)

Interviews can serve four main purposes. First, interviews are used to collect information related to the topic being researched (Cohen, *et al.*, 2000). Second, interviews provide a basis for estimating what people know, how people feel, and what people think with respect to specific topics (Tuckman, 1994). Third, interviews are used both to test existing hypotheses and help formulate new ones. In addition, they act as means to identify important variables and the relationships among them (Kvale, 1996). Finally, interviews may be used in connection with other data

collection methods, such as questionnaires and observations, as part of the same study (Cohen, *et al.*, 2000).

Kvale (2007) enumerated the characteristics of qualitative research interviews as follows:

- **Life-world:** the qualitative research interview is concerned with the life-world of an interviewee and his or her reaction to it. The purpose of the interview is to obtain a description of, and to understand, what an interviewee experiences and lives through in his or her actual life.
- **Meaning:** the qualitative research interview seeks to obtain a description of, and to understand, the meaning of central themes in the life-world of the interviewee. The main task of the interview is to understand the meaning of what the interviewee is communicating beyond verbal expression. Therefore, the interviewer should record not only what the interviewee says, but also how the interviewee says it.
- **Qualitative Nature:** the interviewer aims to obtain qualitative knowledge expressed from the perspective of the interviewee. The goal of qualitative research is not to obtain quantifiable data.
- **Descriptiveness:** the main aim of the qualitative interview is to describe how interviewees feel, how they act, and what they experience, in as precise and detailed a manner as possible.
- **Specificity:** the qualitative interview attempts to collect data pertaining to specific circumstances in the interviewees' own words, rather than general opinions or tendencies.
- **Freedom from Presuppositions:** the qualitative interview is receptive to the introduction of fresh and unexpected phenomena, rather than rigidly

adhering to predetermined categories and schemes of interpretation.

- **Focus:** the qualitative research interview focuses on certain aspects of the interviewee's life-world. It is neither strictly structured nor desultory.
- **Ambiguity:** sometimes the statements made during the interview are ambiguous and thus open to variation in interpretation. Interviewees often express themselves in ways that seem self-contradictory. The interviewer must consider more than the words chosen by the interviewee, and carefully clarify what the interviewee is actually trying to communicate.
- **Change:** interviewees tend to change their descriptions and interpretations of themes during the course of interviews as they discover new aspects or become more aware of emergent themes. Sometimes they start to recognise the relationships between different aspects of themes while the interview is underway.
- **Sensitivity:** different interviewees may provide different responses to questions pertaining to the same themes, depending on their sensitivity to and knowledge of the themes.
- **Interpersonal Situation:** data obtained through the interview are the result of interactions between the interviewer and interviewee. Thus, the quality of the data obtained through the interview depends on the nature of the reciprocal relationship between the interviewer and interviewee.
- **Positive Experience:** a well-conducted qualitative interview provides the interviewer with an effective opportunity to obtain insight into the interviewee's life. (pp. 11-14)

The relative strengths and weaknesses of interviews and questionnaires are frequently compared. Interviews may provide opportunities to collect data that comprise greater

depth of information and richness of detail than questionnaires. Participants tend to volunteer more detailed information pertaining to the research topic during interviews because they tend to be more motivated in face-to-face conversations. In addition, a researcher can conduct the interview flexibly. The order of questions and the way they are asked can be adjusted according to the circumstances, such as the intellectual level or attitude of respective interviewees. Moreover, the likelihood of questions and answers being misunderstood is minimised, as full explanations thereof are possible during interviews (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). However, interviews are not frequently used to measure job attitudes or feelings. The main reasons for their scant usage would be problems of low objectivity and high time expenditure.

There are two main types of qualitative research interview, i.e. unstructured and semi-structured interviews. In the unstructured interview, the interviewer usually asks one question and then the interviewee is allowed to speak freely. In an unstructured interview, the interviewer does not direct what the interviewee says, but rather responds to certain points in order to facilitate the progression of the interview. The unstructured interview superficially resembles a normal conversation (Burgess, 1984). In a semi-structured interview, the researcher refers to a list of questions, prompts, and instructions while conducting the interview. However, the research has great flexibility with regard to how to conduct the interview, and can freely choose supplementary questions following replies from the interviewee.

Observation-based methods are seldom used in job satisfaction research. With these methods, the feelings, attitudes, and motives of workers are inferred from their outward behaviour, as observed by researchers. The Hawthorne experiment, which dealt with the effects of group pressure and supervisory behaviour on workers, is an

example of this approach. Observation-based methods are unpopular because the resultant data are hard to analyse and interpret (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1947). However, this method is expected to provide richer and more authentic data than other kinds of methods cannot provide.

Another method is known as “critical incidents.” Herzberg *et al.* (1959) developed the two-factor theory when they conducted a study based on this method. This method focuses on determining the sources from which workers derive satisfaction or dissatisfaction, rather than the extent to which they are satisfied or dissatisfied. Individuals are required to recall incidents that have increased or decreased their level of satisfaction with their jobs. A major advantage of this method is that interviewees are not required to think analytically while being interviewed. However, this method has been criticised for yielding results that are difficult to replicate (Locke, 1976).

This study deployed the semi-structured interview for data collection. An interview guide was used to direct the qualitative interviews in this study. When preparing the interview guide, the present researcher ensured that certain basic criteria were met. Bryman (2004) proposed the following basic criteria for interview guides:

- the order of topics discussed and questions asked during the course of the interview should be set such that the interview can flow naturally
- topics and questions should be chosen and formulated such that they will lead the interview in a direction that is relevant to the study
- the language that is used should be language that the interviewees can reasonably be expected to be familiar with
- leading questions, like those used in quantitative research, should not be used

- steps should be taken to ensure that information about personal characteristics, e.g. name, age, gender, position in organisation, and number of years worked, is collected. (pp. 324-325).

An interview guide was employed to ensure that the interviews would be productive. The interview aimed to collect data that could be used to answer the research questions. The questions in the interview guide were developed through the review of relevant literature, the two pilot studies, and consultation with academics having expertise related to the research topic. To develop questions about what sources contributed to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction among Korean academics, previous research was considered. Popular instruments for measuring job satisfaction, such as The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) were taken into consideration. Additionally, to identify important changes and challenges faced by Korean academics, previous studies (e.g. Altbach, 2005; Fulton and Holland, 2001) were considered. Next, the protocol was tested in two pilot studies prior to the main study. Through the two pilot studies, the questioning method, the sequence of questions and the vocabulary to be used were further refined. During the pilot studies, the majority of participants suggested that the questions should not be too specific or detailed. They felt that broader opportunities to talk about their feelings, opinions and attitudes should be given to participants. Lastly, a committee consisting of seven academics having expertise in the field reviewed the interview protocol (See the Appendices).

Kvale's (1996) list of characteristics required of interviewers is useful when preparing to conduct interviews. According to him, a successful interviewer should:

- be thoroughly familiar with the focus of the interview;

- explain the purpose of the interview and ask interviewees whether they have questions;
- ask simple, easy, and short questions without using jargon;
- give interviewees time to think about their responses and avoid interrupting interviewees while they are responding;
- carefully consider what to say and how to say it;
- appropriately respond to what interviewees say and remain flexible during interviews;
- avoid strictly confining the interview to specific areas but instead direct the interview to obtain information pertinent to the research aim;
- be somewhat critical; pay close attention to what an interviewee says and to whether there are inconsistencies between statements made by the interviewee; and try and determine the reason for such inconsistencies;
- relate what is being said to what has previously been said; and
- clarify statements made by interviewees by rephrasing them and suggest interpretations of interviewees' statements. (pp. 81-82)

In addition to the interview, the questionnaire survey was used for data collection. The questionnaire in the present study was written in Korean. The questionnaire was developed through the following steps. First, a comprehensive review of the literature pertaining to methods used in gauging job satisfaction among academics was carried out. Questions from popular standardised instruments (e.g. JDI, MSQ) were considered when selecting questions for the survey. Second, through the interviews, factors that were thought to contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction were identified. As the result of analysis of the qualitative interview data, clusters of aspects that seemed to influence job satisfaction among Korean academics emerged. Third, a

preliminary draft of the questionnaire was used to conduct two pilot studies. The questionnaire was revised according to the analysis of data and comments from the two pilot studies. In addition, the questionnaire was reviewed by a group of advisors. The advisors consisted of seven academics from public and private universities. They scrutinised the questionnaire to confirm the relevance of the instructions and question items, the appropriateness of the wording, and the layout.

The questionnaire comprises four main parts: (a) demographics, (b) institutional characteristics, (c) satisfaction with specific job facets and (d) overall job satisfaction. The collection of demographic information is an important step in the study of populations and is the most readily available and efficient way to understand a population (Crispell, 1990). Demographic information provides a context for understanding a population and sheds light on current and emerging trends. A faculty demographic data sheet was designed to collect information of individual attributes. The academics' demographic data sheet covered the following items: (a) age, (b) marital status, (c) gender, (d) amount of work experience, (e) highest academic degree earned, (f) academic rank, (g) managerial position, and (h) pay level.

Institutional factors that are capable of affecting job satisfaction have been identified in previous research. Clark (1987) found that institutional characteristics had an effect on work experience, campus culture and climate. According to his study, the university control type, size and location had the potential to influence the social climate of the organisation. The institutional characteristics comprised the following six items: (a) academic discipline, (b) control type (public/private), (c) location (Seoul/other regions).

Questions pertaining to job satisfaction were designed to measure overall job satisfaction as well as satisfaction with various job aspects. Respondents were requested to express to what extent they were satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs in general on the Likert scale: 1=very dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=neither dissatisfied nor satisfied, 4=satisfied, 5=very satisfied. The questions regarding facet satisfaction comprised thirty-eight items which were categorised into nine groups. And one question is to ask overall job satisfaction (See the Appendices).

The Pilot Study

Prior to the main study, pilot interviews were conducted to check the suitability of the instruments for qualitative and quantitative data collection. After the interview guide was written, the pilot interview was undertaken in June 2007. Five academics from a national university located in the province were involved in the pilot study. The pilot interview was conducted with the goal of assessing and revising the interview guide with respect to the appropriateness of language, question topics, time considerations, the sequence of questions, and introductory and concluding remarks. Consequent to the pilot interview, the interview guide was revised and a final version was established.

Two pilot questionnaire surveys were conducted prior to the main questionnaire survey. Korean academics working as visiting scholars at British universities located around Nottingham, specifically, the University of Nottingham, the University of Leicester, Nottingham Trent University, the University of Loughborough and the University of Sheffield, took part in the first pilot questionnaire survey in July 2003. The participants were contacted by telephone, by e-mail, and/or in person and asked to participate in the study. They were also interviewed and encouraged to comment

freely on the questionnaire without limitation. The second pilot questionnaire survey was conducted in June 2007. Fifty-one academics from a public university located in a provincial area in Korea were involved in the second pilot study. Through the two pilot surveys, the following problems were identified and solved: (a) respondents had trouble understanding the meaning of some questions, and (b) because there were too many questions, it took too much time to complete the questionnaire. The data from the questionnaire and the participants' comments were analysed and used to finalise the questionnaire.

The Population and Sampling

There were 54,331 full-time academics at 171 Korean universities in 2007. 13,703 of them were working at public universities, while 40,628 of them were at private universities. The population targeted in this study is full-time academics at universities. Although many part-time academics work at Korean universities, they were not included in this study because their employment circumstances and rate of pay vary widely compared with full-time academic staff. The faculty members who were surveyed or interviewed for this research were chosen from the lists of faculty members at Korean universities published by the Korean Council for University Education (2005).

Researchers typically find it unfeasible to collect information from entire populations because of limitations with respect to time, expense and logistics. Consequently, they need to establish small groups that are representative samples of the populations that they are studying (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). The sampling strategy is as important as methodology and instrumentation in determining the quality of a study. It is essential

that the sampling strategy be suitably chosen in order to maximise the relevance of research results (Morrison, 1993). There are two main sampling methods: probability sampling (also known as random sampling) and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the chance of any single member of the whole population being selected for the sample is known, but in non-probability sampling the chance is not known. Probability sampling is widely used in quantitative research because probability sampling aims to be representative, which is an indispensable factor to ensure the general applicability of research findings. Meanwhile, non-probability sampling is often used in qualitative research despite being disadvantageous in that samples are not representative of entire populations. In qualitative research, less emphasis is placed on whether generalisations can be drawn from research findings than in quantitative research. In qualitative research, the richness and depth of information are valued more than representativeness (Cohen, *et al.*, 2000).

Sample size is a key issue to be addressed when setting a sampling strategy. There is no clear-cut guide to help answer the question of how large samples should be when conducting research. Larger sample sizes usually result in more accurate samples (Bryman, 2004). However, time and cost constraints are two considerations that profoundly affect sample size determinations. In addition, the kind of research being conducted should be borne in mind when determining sample size. In summary, the desired precision of sampling, time and financial constraints, and the kind of research being conducted should all be taken into consideration when deciding on sample size. This study adopted non-probability sampling, specifically purposive sampling, to select interviewees. The researcher selected a sample of academics as interviewees based on his judgement of how relevant the academics were to the interview. Purposive sampling is justified when it can serve the specific purpose of the interview.

The purpose of the interview in this study is to obtain rich data and honest anecdotes on how academics viewed their jobs from their own perspectives. Familiarity, rapport and trust between the researcher and interviewees are critical to serving this purpose and obtaining such data from interviews. In particular, criticising one's colleagues and speaking about one's values related to one's job in front of a stranger are not easy in Korea, where interpersonal ties are highly valued. At the expense of obtaining a representative sample of the entire population through probability sampling, the researcher elected to adopt purposive sampling in order to ensure that rich and authentic data could be obtained.

In the selection of academics for the sample, demographic (e.g. age, gender, work experience and academic rank) and organisational factors (e.g. university control type, university location and academic discipline) were taken into consideration. The twenty-five academics who were interviewed were drawn from ten universities. Two to five academics were drawn from each university for the interview.

The process of selection of potential interviewees consisted of two stages. Specific universities were deemed suitable for the study on the basis of institutional characteristics such as control type, location, whether they were co-educational facilities, and their mission.

Once ten universities (See Table 3.3) were selected, the process of selecting academics for interviews began. As the present researcher has been handling issues pertaining to higher education at MOE for a long time, he has become acquainted with many academics at universities across the nation. He asked these academics to recommend peers for the interview.

Table 3.3: Universities at which the interviewees were located:

Pseudonyms of Universities	Number of Students	Control Type	Location	Coeducation or not
A	Over 25,000	Public	Seoul	Coeducation
B	15,000-20,000	Public	Province	Coeducation
C	15,000-20,000	Public	Province	Coeducation
D	Over 25,000	Private	Seoul	Coeducation
E	15,000-20,000	Private	Seoul	Coeducation
F	Over 25,000	Private	Seoul	Coeducation
G	20,000-25,000	Private	Seoul	Female
H	5,000-10,000	Private	Province	Coeducation
I	5,000-10,000	Private	Province	Coeducation
J	15,000-20,000	Private	Province	Coeducation

NB: In order to ensure confidentiality, pseudonyms for the universities, such as “A” or “B”, are used.

They recommended thirty-two potential interviewees based on gender, age, career length and academic discipline. The researcher contacted the thirty-two academics by telephone and/or e-mail to determine their willingness to participate in the interview and set the interview schedule. During the process of confirming their participation in the interview, seven academics opted not to participate, leading to the final selection of twenty-five academics to be interviewed.

The process of selecting potential participants for the questionnaire survey consisted of two stages. In the first stage, fourteen universities were selected in consideration of

the following institutional characteristics: university control type (whether a university was public or private), mission, number of students, whether the campus was coeducation or not, and location. With regard to control type, five universities were public and nine universities were private. As for university location, six universities were located in Seoul and eight universities in areas other than Seoul. Several universities provided participants for both the interview and questionnaire survey.

The main reason why only fourteen universities, rather than all universities in Korea, were involved in the questionnaire survey is that it would have been unrealistic to include all of the nation's 171 universities in this study, in consideration of the temporal and financial constraints faced by the researcher. Fifty potential participants were chosen randomly from each university. As a result, a total of 700 academics were finalised as potential questionnaire participants.

When conducting a questionnaire survey, sample size is more important than when conducting qualitative interviews because quantitative research is more concerned with whether the sample is representative of the entire population. Although there is no generally agreed-upon rule to determine sample size, some helpful guidelines have been put forth. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) proposed the approach of determining sample size so as to meet a certain probability value criterion. This approach takes into consideration the total size of the population, the confidence level and sampling error. According to this approach, the minimum sample size required to achieve a confidence level of 95 percent and a maximum sampling error of 5 percent for a population of 100,000 people is 383 people.

The Procedures of Data Collection

The interviews were conducted from August to September 2007. Most interviews were conducted in the offices of the participants. However, some interviews were conducted in places other than the interviewees' offices for their convenience of the interviewees. The researcher basically followed the interview guide but did not adhere strictly to it. In some cases, he rearranged the order of questions, asked them in a different way, or used another language according to the personal characteristics of respective interviewees. When some participants made comments that were not related to the research topic during the course of the interview, they were encouraged to return to the research topic.

The time required for each interview varied. The duration of each interview ranged from forty minutes to two hours. On average, interviews lasted for about one hour. Audio recordings were made of all but three interviews. The researcher attempted to obtain the informed consent of all interviewees in order to record all interviews. The researcher asked each interviewee for permission to make an audio recording of the interview. Twenty-two interviewees granted permission to make audio recordings of the interviews; however, three refused. When his request for permission to record the interview was denied, the researcher was hesitant to go ahead with the interview. However, he decided to proceed to interview them, in accordance with Bryman's (2004) guidelines. During interviews with the three academics, the researcher took notes about what was being said. The study benefited considerably from the fact that audio recordings were made of the interviews. The researcher was able to overcome the natural limitations of his memory by resorting to the audio recordings. In addition, he was able to concentrate on the interview without being distracted by the

requirement to take complete notes of everything that the interviewees were saying.

The questionnaire survey was carried out from February to April 2008. Key people at universities, including chancellors, deans, and department heads of potential universities, were asked for permission to include their respective institutions in the study, following an explanation of the purpose and objectives of the study. These key people were contacted through a variety of means, such as by telephone, mail, e-mail or in person. Individual participants were sent a letter explaining the purpose and the nature of the study and emphasizing that the information provided by the respondents would be kept confidential. Questionnaires were accompanied by addressed and pre-paid return envelopes.

Respondents were asked to complete questionnaires and return them to the address on the envelope provided within the given period. The researcher took every measure to ensure that the response rate was as high as possible. A high response rate is important, as a low response rate would decrease the representativeness of the sample (Bryman, 2004). Mangione (1995, pp. 60-61) set forth the following standard for evaluating the response rate of postal questionnaires:

- over 85% excellent
- 70-85% very good
- 60-70% acceptable
- 50-60% barely acceptable
- below 50% not acceptable.

Academics who did not return their questionnaires were encouraged to complete the questionnaires in various ways. They were sent reminder postcards requesting their

participation. In addition to the postcards, the researcher contacted them via email, asking them to cooperate. Finally, postcards expressing gratitude for participation in the research were sent to those who completed and returned their questionnaires.

Participants’ Demographics

Table 3.4 shows twenty-five interviewees’ demographics. Eighteen male academics were involved in the interviews, while seven female academics were involved. In terms of age, academics of aged 40-49 were dominant. Ten academics were from public universities, while fifteen academics from private universities. With regard to university location, ten academics were working at universities in Seoul and fifteen academics at universities in provincial areas.

Table 3.4: Interviewees’ Demographics

Demographic Characteristics		N	%
Gender	Male	18	72.0
	Female	7	28.0
Age	Under 40	3	12.0
	40-49	14	56.0
	50 or Over	8	32.0
Marital Status	Married	25	100
	Unmarried	0	0
	Others	0	0
Highest Degree	Bachelor	0	0
	Master	1	4.0
	Doctor	24	96.0
Academic Rank	Instructor	2	8.0
	Assistant Professor	8	32.0
	Associate Professor	8	32.0
	Professor	7	28.0

(Continued)

Demographic Characteristics		N	%
Managerial Post	Holding One Presently	10	40.0
	Previously Held One	3	12.0
	No Such Experience	12	48.0
Years of Service	Under 5	8	32.0
	5-14	9	36.0
	15-24	7	28.0
	25-	1	4.0
Academic Discipline	Humanities and Arts	4	16.0
	Social Sciences	12	48.0
	Engineering	4	16.0
	Natural Sciences	2	8.0
	Medicine	3	12.0
Control Type of the University	Public	10	40.0
	Private	15	60.0
University Location	Seoul	10	40.0
	Province	15	60.0

700 questionnaires were sent to university academics, with 519 returned. The return rate was 74.1 percent, which is considered very good (Mangione, 1995). Twenty-one of the returned questionnaires were excluded from the data analysis because they were answered either incompletely or inappropriately. Consequently, 498 questionnaires were used in the study. The respondents' demographic data are presented below, both as numbers of individuals and as percentages.

In Table 3.5, the following demographic data of survey participants are presented: gender, age, marital status, highest degree earned, academic rank, managerial post, the rate of pay, number of years of service, academic field, university control type, and university location.

Table 3.5: Survey Respondents’ Demographics

Demographic Characteristics		N	%
Gender	Male	398	79.9
	Female	100	20.1
Age	Under 40	90	18.1
	40-49	254	51.0
	50 or Over	154	30.9
Marital Status	Married	461	92.6
	Unmarried	31	6.2
	Others	6	1.2
Highest Degree	Bachelor	1	.2
	Master	21	4.2
	Doctor	476	95.6
Academic Rank	Instructor	36	7.2
	Assistant Professor	127	25.2
	Associate Professor	142	28.5
	Professor	193	38.8
Managerial Post	Holding One Presently	201	40.4
	Previously Held One	140	28.1
	No Such Experience	157	31.5
Annual Pay	Less than \$50,454	83	16.7
	\$50,454 - Less than \$70,635	200	40.2
	\$70,635 – Less than \$90,817	136	27.3
	\$90,817 or More	79	15.9
Years of Service	Under 5	167	33.5
	5-14	214	43.0
	15-24	87	17.5
	25-	29	5.8
Academic Discipline	Humanities and Arts	113	22.7
	Social Sciences	148	29.7
	Engineering	79	15.9
	Natural Sciences	101	20.3
	Medicine	57	11.4
Control Type of the university	Public	175	35.1
	Private	323	64.9
University Location	Seoul	196	39.4
	Province	302	60.6

Table 3.5 shows a conspicuous gender gap in the number of respondents. Nearly 80 percent of respondents were male. In fact, this proportion reflects the actual percentage of male academics (82.3 percent) at Korean universities in 2007. Most respondents were married (92.6 percent). Almost all respondents held doctoral degrees (95.6 percent), with small numbers holding master's (4.2 percent) or bachelor's degrees (0.2 percent). With regard to academic rank, the largest group comprised professors (38.8 percent), and the smallest one was instructors (7.2 percent). Assistant professors and associate professors accounted for 25.2 percent and 28.5 percent of all respondents, respectively. In terms of experience at a managerial post, 40.4 percent held managerial posts at that time, and 28.1 percent had previously held such posts. 31.5 percent of respondents had not yet held a managerial post.

Regarding annual pay, the largest group was those who were paid \$50,454 or more, but less than \$70,635 (40.2 percent), followed by those who were paid \$70,636 or more, but less than \$90,817 (27.3 percent), and \$90,817 (15.9 percent). Those who were paid less than \$50,454 made up 16.7 percent of all respondents. In terms of length of service, those who had 5 - 14 years of experience (43.0 percent) and under 5 years of experience (33.5 percent) were the largest and second-largest groups. Meanwhile, the groups comprising those with 15 - 24 years of experience and 25 years of experience or more accounted for 17.5 percent and 5.8 percent of all respondents, respectively.

In terms of academic discipline, respondents from the social sciences made up the largest group (29.7 percent), followed by those in the humanities (22.7 percent). Those in the natural sciences and in engineering accounted for 20.3 percent and 15.9 percent of all respondents, respectively. Those in medicine were the smallest group

(11.4 percent). With regard to control type, respondents from private universities were the majority (64.9 percent), whereas the remaining 35.1 percent of respondents worked at public universities. In terms of institution location, 60.6 percent of respondents worked at universities in provincial areas, while the remaining 39.4 percent worked at universities in Seoul.

Research Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are key criteria when evaluating research quality (Kerlinger, 1986). Qualitative and quantitative research methods adopt different definitions of validity and reliability (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). In quantitative research, the term “validity” generally refers to the effectiveness of a measurement instrument. A data-gathering instrument or procedure that is said to be valid has the characteristic of measuring what it was designed to measure. There are various types of validity by which instruments can be evaluated. Face validity is the minimum requirement. Face validity refers to the extent to which the instrument reflects the concept to be examined in a proposed study. The usual way to verify face validity is to ask professionals and scholars who have expertise in fields related to the research topic whether the instrument seems to deal with the concepts in question. Concurrent validity is the extent to which a score awarded using the instrument corresponds with a score awarded using a reference test for which the validity has been well-established. When the correspondence between scores awarded using each of the two instruments is high, concurrent validity is considered to be high. Predictive validity refers to the extent to which a score awarded using the instrument is related to future events. For example, if workers who are awarded low scores in a test of job satisfaction are subsequently found to be more likely to leave their job within five years than other

workers, the test is regarded as having high predictive validity. Criterion validity is checked by comparing a new measuring instrument with another one having a similar construction (Bryman, 2004). Construct validity is “the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct” (Gay and Airasian, 2000). External validity means the extent to which the research results can be generalised.

There are three kinds of reliability: stability, internal reliability and score reliability. Stability is concerned with variation in the results of a test over time. If respondents show little variation in their responses to the same test over time, the stability of the test is considered high. Internal reliability refers to consistency between indicators in the same test (Bryman, 2004). Chronbach’s alpha is widely used to verify internal reliability in quantitative research. Chronbach’s alpha varies from 0 to 1.0. A score of 0 means that there is no internal reliability, while a score of 1.0 denotes perfect internal reliability. A Chronbach’s alpha score of 0.7 is considered satisfactory (Westergaard, Noble and Walker, 1989). Score reliability is determined by the extent to which two or more scores, raters, or judges are consistent with one another (Hittleman and Simon, 2002).

There are two divergent schools of thought on whether the concepts of validity and reliability are appropriate for use in evaluating qualitative research. Some researchers (Mason, 1996; LeComte and Goetz, 1982; Kirk and Miller, 1986) have proposed that the concepts of validity and reliability, which are well-known in quantitative research, can be applied to qualitative research without major changes thereto. However, other researchers have developed alternative criteria for evaluating the soundness of qualitative research. They insisted that the criteria used by quantitative researchers are not relevant to qualitative research. Guba and Lincoln (1994) criticised the application

of validity and reliability to qualitative research because they were developed with quantitative research in mind. They suggest that the criteria for evaluating the quality of qualitative and quantitative research should be different because the two kinds of research are based on different philosophies. They proposed the following criteria for determining the trustworthiness of qualitative research as parallels to validity and reliability (Bryman, 2004).

- **Credibility:** In qualitative research, various accounts of specific social phenomena can be made. What matters is how the researcher obtained the accounts. The criterion of credibility indicates how acceptable the research is to others. A researcher should demonstrate that his or her study has been conducted in accordance with the norms of good practice in order for the study to be accepted.
- **Transferability:** The notion of transferability parallels that of generalisability in quantitative research. Transferability refers to the extent to which the research findings can be applied in a wider context. Qualitative research usually takes the form of an intensive study in which a small group of people take part. Qualitative research sacrifices large sample sizes for richness and depth. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that thick descriptions should be provided in order to provide a basis for judging whether research findings will hold relevant beyond the context in which a given study was conducted.
- **Dependability:** The concept of dependability is equivalent to that of reliability in quantitative research. To ensure dependability, steps are taken to make sure that a study is conducted in a transparent auditable manner. Researchers should keep complete records regarding every aspect of the research, such as the selection of research participants,

field notes, and interview transcripts, and should make them available to others. In addition, peer review is often used to establish dependability.

- **Confirmability:** As a parallel to the concept of objectivity in quantitative research, confirmability is determined by the degree to which a researcher's values, beliefs and preferences affect the research findings. In qualitative research, absolute objectivity is not possible; moreover, completely value-free research is not possible either. An approach that ensures that a study is auditable is regarded as effective in establishing conformability. (pp. 273-276)

Various efforts were made to ensure the validity, reliability and trustworthiness of this study. Above all, triangulation was implemented in this study. Triangulation contributes greatly to increasing the trustworthiness of research (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). As noted earlier, qualitative interviews and questionnaire surveys were deployed as data collection methods. Pilot studies were conducted to ensure that the data collection methods were sound. The questionnaire was developed through pilot studies conducted in two stages. The questions, instructions, and the structure of the questionnaire were tested and scrutinised during the course of the pilot studies. The interview protocols were also scrutinised while conducting the pilot studies. Emphasis was placed on obtaining thick descriptions in this study. The researcher attempted to create complete records of the entire research process in order to be prepared for anticipated peer evaluations. External auditors were engaged to help with the study to ensure the soundness of research. As soon as the recorded interviews were transcribed, the interview transcripts were sent to them. They were asked to read the transcripts and make comments on any point that they felt needed correction or additional consideration.

The term “reliability” refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument (Kerlinger, 1986). The Cronbach alpha coefficient test was used to check the reliability of the questionnaire, the results of which test are shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Internal Consistency of the Questionnaire as an Indicator of Reliability

Satisfaction with Job Aspects	Number of Items	Cronbach alpha Coefficient
Work	7	.822
Academic Freedom	3	.663
Professional Development	5	.812
Recognition	3	.665
Pay	3	.826
Job Security	2	.703
Working Conditions	6	.763
Interpersonal Relationships	4	.766
Policy and Administration	5	.815
Overall Job Satisfaction	1	-
Total	39	.952

Usually an instrument is considered reliable when its Cronbach alpha coefficients are over 0.6 (Cronbach, 1984). The alpha coefficients for satisfaction with work (0.822), professional development (0.812), pay (0.826), and policy and administration (0.815) are over 0.8, which is notably high. The coefficients for satisfaction with job security, working conditions, and interpersonal relationships are between 0.7 and 0.8. The coefficients for satisfaction with recognition (0.665) and academic freedom (0.663) are between 0.6 and 0.7. As overall job satisfaction has just one item, there is no need to conduct a Cronbach alpha test in connection therewith. The alpha coefficient for all items pertaining to job satisfaction is 0.952, which indicates high overall reliability.

Ethical Considerations

Kvale (1996) argued that ethical concerns must be taken into consideration throughout the entire research process. Researchers studying social phenomena assume responsibility for the subjects on whom they depend for their work. Social researchers should make sure that the research does not harm participants, and furthermore that participants' dignity is preserved when dealing with them (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). Interviews and the questionnaire surveys for this study were conducted in accordance with the regulations of the University of Nottingham, which has adopted the British Educational Research Association's (2004) *Revised Ethical Guidelines for Education Research*. This research proposal was approved after scrutiny in view of ethical issues by the School of Education Ethics Committee at the University of Nottingham.

Permission and Consent

Permission to conduct an investigation should be sought at an early stage (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). To gain access to research participants from universities, letters explaining the purpose and significance of the study and asking for permission to conduct the interview and/or questionnaire survey on academics were sent to administrators at participating universities. Most universities that the researcher contacted granted permission on the condition that details about universities and academics should be kept confidential. After obtaining permission to conduct the interviews, the researcher approached academics who seemed to be appropriate for the nature of the study. The researcher contacted them by telephone and/or e-mail explaining the nature of the study and the need for their cooperation. Prospective participants' names, telephone numbers and e-mail addresses were obtained from a yearbook published by Korea

Council for University Education (2005). The place and time for each interview was arranged once each participant had expressed his or her intention to take part in the study. Prior to the interview, an informed consent form was read and signed by each interviewee.

The informed consent form clarified the following points:

- Participants voluntarily agreed to participate in the interview.
- Participants had the option of refusing to answer specific questions or all questions.
- Participants had the option of refusing to continue to participate at any stage of the research.
- Participants were made aware that the results of research based on the interviews with them may be published, but that their privacy and anonymity would be guaranteed.
- Participants were assured that nobody but the researcher would have access to the data obtained through the interviews.
- Participants would not be subjected to any risk of harm stemming from participation in the interviews.

Informed consent was also obtained as a necessary part of the process of administering questionnaire surveys. A cover letter, explaining the purpose of the research and asking for participants' cooperation, as well as an informed consent form, were sent to each potential respondent along with the questionnaire. The cover letter explained that information about both the institutions and the research respondents would be treated as confidential throughout the study. In addition, the cover letter explained that participation in the survey was absolutely voluntary.

Privacy of Participants

Research participants' privacy must be absolutely guaranteed when conducting social research (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2008). The anonymity of the academics and universities taking part in this study was strictly protected in order to ensure their privacy. Anonymity is satisfactorily demonstrated when nobody, including the researcher, can identify the source of specific information. Respondents should not be identified using their names or personal details. When completing questionnaires, participants were not required to provide their names, addresses, occupational details, or any other individual identifier, in order to ensure their anonymity. Another means of protecting research participants' right to privacy is by ensuring confidentiality. Confidentiality means that even when researchers can identify who has provided specific information by examining the information that has been given, they do not disclose the identity of participants to the public. In this study, in order to protect the privacy of participants, their names were not used. In addition, the names of the universities at which they were employed were not used either. The universities taking part in this study were referred to using pseudonyms such as “University A”, “University B”.

Treatment with Dignity

During the course of this study, the researcher kept in mind the potential effects of the research on participants and treated them with the dignity deserved by all human beings. The researcher made every effort to avoid situations that might cause participants pain or indignity. In addition, the researcher endeavoured to avoid undermining the self-esteem and confidence of participants. As far as possible, he

avoided questions that might humiliate participants. When sensitive questions were asked, some participants showed visible signs of discomfort. An example of such a question was, 'How do you feel about your colleagues and supervisors?' In Korea, criticising one's colleagues and supervisors is not easy because such criticism is viewed as a sort of betrayal. Participants who were reluctant to provide details about such sensitive topics were not pushed hard to talk about these topics.

Ethical Dilemma

It is not uncommon for social researchers to face ethical issues. They sometimes encounter situations where the nature of a study and the methods deployed therein contradict the rights of the subjects being researched. In such cases, researchers should strike a balance between the two conflicting sets of interests (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). Typically, a study yields both benefits and undesirable consequences. Social researchers should compare the social benefits afforded by a study with the personal costs borne by the people participating in the study. The chief benefit derived from research is the potential advancement in theoretical and practical knowledge. The personal costs suffered by participants are the potential to experience humiliation, embarrassment, decreased trust in social relationships and loss of autonomy. The art of striking a balance between the benefits and the costs is a subjective and vexing task. As a result, there are no universally accepted criteria for determining an appropriate compromise between the costs and benefits of research. Researchers have to determine the content and procedures for their studies in accordance with their personal and professional values (Frankfort-Nachmis and Nachmis, 1992).

Conclusion

In this chapter, the theoretical and philosophical rationale used to determine the methods deployed in this study was presented. This study used both qualitative and quantitative research methods for data collection. The determination of research methods entailed not only technical issues. Philosophical and theoretical perspectives also informed the selection of research methodology. Therefore, the selection of research methods was determined according to the philosophical and theoretical stance of the researcher. Qualitative and quantitative research paradigms and their underlying philosophical backgrounds were outlined. Then research methods deployed in this study were then presented. The evaluation of the validity, reliability and trustworthiness of research was discussed. Finally, ethical issues thought to have the potential to affect this study were addressed.

The next chapter deals with how to analyse and present both qualitative and quantitative data.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter discusses the data analysis methods employed in this study. As both qualitative interviews and a questionnaire survey were used to collect data, corresponding data analysis methods were used to analyse the qualitative and quantitative data respectively. According to the criteria for mixed methods as set forth in Creswell (2008), this study is categorised as research involving sequential mixed methods. In this study, qualitative data were gathered first, and then quantitative data were collected. Through the qualitative data analysis, the factors that contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were identified, and the extent of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that Korean academics felt toward their jobs was examined. The results of the qualitative research were taken into consideration in the construction of the instrument for the questionnaire survey. Using the survey, job satisfaction was compared between groups defined by gender, age, academic discipline, control type of university, and university location. After the two phases of data analysis were completed, the results obtained from the qualitative and quantitative data analyses were compared to implement triangulation in this study.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Analysing qualitative data comprises understanding how to make sense of such data, which can include both verbal and non-verbal data, such as text and images, so that researchers can find answers to their research questions. Unlike quantitative data

analysis, there is no definite or universal rule for data analysis, although various approaches for analysis have been developed (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

One of the main difficulties researchers face while conducting qualitative research is how to organise and analyse data (Bryman, 2004). As the data collected through qualitative research methods, such as unstructured or semi-structured interviews or participant observation, is usually disorganised and extensive, it is critical that the data be organised somehow. Systematic data management is required to organise the sizable amount of data that results from transcribing interviews and field notes.

The present researcher labelled the cassettes tapes on which the interviews were recorded with tags in order to manage them effectively. The interview data analysis began with the conversion of the audio tape recordings and field notes into text data. Most interviews were transcribed within three days from the date on which the interviews were carried out, because it was expected that the transcriptions would be more accurate when the memories and impressions thereof were still fresh. The researcher derived great benefits from transcribing the interviews. Transcribing the interviews gave the researcher the opportunity to recall the contexts and nuances of interviewees' responses, which could have easily been forgotten had the interviews not been transcribed. In addition, the author of this thesis was able to arrive at a better overall understanding of the interviewees.

The researcher's first step in turning the materials collected through the interviews into meaningful data was to listen to the tapes and read his field notes. Special equipment was used in the process of transcribing the interviews. This equipment helped the researcher transcribe the data obtained through the interviews conveniently

and accurately. He could play back the tape recordings at a variable speed so that he could easily follow them. While transcribing the audio tape recordings, not only the interviewees' words but also non-verbal actions, such as laughs, sighs, and pauses were recorded in the transcripts, because detailed and vivid transcripts could provide the researcher with a stronger foundation for understanding the context of the interviews. It took the researcher from five to twelve hours to complete the transcription of each interview. Each interview yielded between seven to fifteen pages of text, an average of eleven and a half pages. Each transcript contains detailed data about the interviewee's name and demographic characteristics, as well as the location, date and time of the interview.

As prescribed by Agar (1980), the researcher read each transcript in its entirety several times to obtain a good overall sense of the interview before "coding" (defined below) the transcripts. He read the transcripts line by line and tried to understand the meanings beyond the interviewees' verbal expressions. Through repeated and careful readings, the researcher became familiar with all interview transcripts. While reading the transcripts, the researcher wrote memoranda in the margins of the transcripts, in accordance with the suggested procedure set forth in Bryman (2004). All feelings, ideas, and thoughts that occurred to the researcher while reading the transcripts were included in these memoranda. According to Bryman (2004), this helps researchers conducting qualitative research devise suitable concepts and categories. In addition, memoranda remind researchers of the meanings of terms used and provide clues for reflection. Words and phrases that seemed to be particularly relevant to the research topic were underlined with coloured pens. These words and phrases were grouped into relevant categories according to the attributes of their meanings. Categories were not predetermined, but emerged based on the data. During the process of coding, some

categories were modified, merged with other categories, or deleted.

It was necessary to decide whether to conduct computer-based analysis or analysis by hand. Although the use of computers for the analysis of qualitative data has become popular nowadays, the researcher chose to undertake analysis by hand in consideration of the nature of the research and the guidelines set forth in Creswell (2008). He suggested that analysis by hand may be preferable when handling a relatively small amount of data, for example, fewer than 500 pages of transcripts or field notes. This study is such a case. Another reason for the decision to conduct analysis by hand was that the researcher wanted to be close to the data and have a hands-on feel for it, without the intrusion of a machine, following Creswell's guidelines.

After reading the transcripts several times, coding began. "Coding" is the process of breaking text into segments that seem meaningful in light of the research questions and labelling them to describe the segments (Creswell, 2008). Coding is regarded not just as a procedure for managing data but as an important first step in generating theories (Charmaz, 1983). Although there are no generally agreed-upon guidelines, some procedures have been developed for effective coding. The guidelines proposed by Bryman (2004), which are described below, were found to be particularly helpful when coding the qualitative data obtained in this study.

- *Code as soon as possible.* This helps researchers better understand the data. As time passes, the memory and sense of the interviews fade. In addition, coding at an early stage enables researchers to handle the data effectively. Deferring data coding until data collection has been completed leads researchers to feel overwhelmed by an avalanche of data.

- *Read through the initial set of transcripts, field notes, documents etc.* without making interpretations or taking notes. After reading the data several times, it is then recommended that as many marginal notes as possible be made. Such notes range from basic keywords to coding or generating a set of terms that will be useful when interpreting data or deriving theories pertinent to the research topic.
- *Review codes in relation to transcripts.* Researchers should pay attention to any connections that may exist between codes. In addition, they need to be alert to any evidence that respondents believe that one element seems to be related with or caused by something else. When such connections between concepts or categories are found, researchers must thoughtfully consider how to characterise or code these connections.
- *Consider more general theoretical ideas in relation to codes and data.* At this stage, researchers should begin to generate some general theoretical ideas pertinent to the research topic. It is necessary for researchers to draw connections between the concepts and categories they devise. They should thoroughly consider how they relate to the existing literature.
- *Bear in mind that any one item or piece of data may be coded in various ways.*
- *Do not worry about generating what seem to be too many codes during the early stages of data analysis.* What matters is imagination and inventiveness.
- *Keep coding in perspective.* Coding is but a small constituent of data analysis. Maintaining a sense of perspective ensures effective data analysis and interpretation of research findings. (pp. 408-409)

In addition, coding was conducted in accordance with the framework outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1990). They categorised coding into three main types: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. During the process of open coding in this study, codes were examined to determine whether they overlapped or were redundant, and were merged into broad themes. Meanwhile, at this stage some data were selected and other data discarded according to the criterion of whether they were thought to provide meaningful evidence for the purpose of this study. When conducting open coding, as many codes as possible were generated in order to reflect the wide variety of emerging ideas. Transcripts were carefully evaluated line by line so that important words or phrases would not be overlooked while coding. After all of the text was open-coded, a list of all codes was made.

When open coding had been completed, axial coding started. Axial coding comprises devising categories by linking codes to each other on the basis of context, cause, effect, and patterns of interaction (Bryman, 2004). During this stage, many themes were considered: overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with various job facets, intention to leave one's present job, and changes influencing the working lives of academics. Next, selective coding was conducted. During this stage, the key categories were selected systematically and compared with each other. The formation of categories is important as it enables large amounts of data to be transformed into a more manageable form.

Constant comparison was conducted during the coding process in order to generate and connect categories by comparing incidents to other incidents, incidents to categories, and categories to categories (Creswell, 2008). Through such constant comparison, some categories were merged with other categories to thus form new

ones. After the process of constant comparison, a process of selecting core categories to describe the central phenomena pertinent to the research topic began (Creswell, 2008). A core category is a central issue or focus around which all other categories are integrated (Strauss, 1990). Core categories must be selected based on characteristics such as centrality, frequency of occurrence, and usefulness in deriving theories (Glaser, 1978).

Interpretation is an essential part of analysing qualitative data. Interpretation in qualitative research refers to the assignment of meanings to phenomena based on personal perspectives and in comparison with past studies. In qualitative research, sense is made of findings through the process of interpretation. Interpretations of qualitative research findings typically include: 1) a review of the main research findings and the answers to the research questions; 2) reflections of the researcher on the meaning of the findings; 3) limitations of the research, and 4) suggestions for further research (Creswell, 2008). The interpretation also included a comparison with the reviewed literature and previous studies. The researcher attempted to show whether or not this study supported previous studies. Where the findings from this study were found to be inconsistent with those of other studies, potential reasons therefore were speculated upon.

Quantitative Data Analysis

For the questionnaire survey data analysis, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 12.0 for Windows was utilized. The quantitative data analysis process started with coding. The data from the responses to the survey instrument were entered into a computer programme. For convenience and accuracy

of coding, the researcher produced a codebook. It contained a list of variables or items indicating how the researcher was to code or score responses from the questionnaire. Each variable was given a name, and numbers were assigned to each response according to the guidelines set forth in Creswell (2008).

George and Mallery (2001) suggested, for ethical reasons, that researchers report how cases involving missing data are handled. After the data had been fed into a computer programme, the question of whether or not data were missing was examined. As a result of this examination, it was found that twenty-one questionnaire sheets had not been fully answered. In other words, at least one item was unanswered on twenty-one questionnaire sheets. The data from these questionnaire sheets were discarded because there were still 498 questionnaire sheets that had been filled out completely.

The variables pertaining to demographic items were coded so as to facilitate the calculation of frequency statistics that identified the demographic background of the participants. The academics' responses to questionnaire items asking about facet-specific job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction were coded as follows: 1=very dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=neither dissatisfied nor satisfied, 4=satisfied, 5=very satisfied.

The researcher was faced with the decision of how to analyse the data. There are two basic types of quantitative data analysis: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. In this study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. The descriptive statistics were used to identify satisfaction with specific job aspects and overall job satisfaction. Descriptive statistics provided information that summarised overall trends or tendencies evident in the data collected through the questionnaire survey.

Descriptive statistics provided the basis for understanding the extent of variation in job satisfaction. The central tendency, variability, and relative satisfaction among groups were shown by the descriptive statistics (Creswell, 2008). A measure of central tendency is a statistic comprising a single value that describes a distribution of scores (Vogt, 1999). There are three ways to represent central tendency: an average score (the mean), a value midway between the highest and lowest of a set of scores (the median), and the most frequently occurring score (the mode). In this study the mean and mode were used as indicators of central tendency for each item. In quantitative research, the mean is the most popular statistic for describing central tendency. The mean is equal to the sum of the scores divided by the number of scores. The mode provides information that is useful in grasping a snapshot of the sample. The mode is the score that appears most frequently (Creswell, 2008). The mean and the mode are complementary to each other. Whereas the mean is affected very strongly by outliers, the mode is not (Bryman, 2004).

Measures of variability shows how widely dispersed values are in a distribution. Measures of variability play a critical role in advanced statistical methods such as one-way analysis of variance, which will be dealt with in the following section. The range, variance and standard deviation are measures of the variability of scores. The range of scores is the difference between the highest and lowest scores (Creswell, 2008). Another measure that describes the dispersion of scores is standard deviation. This is the average amount of variance around the mean. The standard deviation is influenced by outliers, but their impact on the standard deviation is moderated thanks to the division by the number of values in the distribution.

Descriptive statistics were helpful for understanding the extent to which Korean

academics were satisfied with various job aspects and with their jobs overall. However, for the comparison of job satisfaction between groups, inferential analysis was needed. The comparison of means between groups is often conducted to identify whether there is a difference between groups. There are two main techniques for comparing the means of different groups: t-test and ANOVA. The t-test is limited to situations where there are only two groups to compare. The technique known as ANOVA is used when a comparison between more than two groups must be made (Field, 2004). In this study, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine whether or not there were differences between groups defined by various categories, namely: gender, age, academic rank, and the control type and location of the university.

When inferential statistics are used in quantitative research, the level of statistical significance should be presented. As inferential statistics rely on probability sampling, in which samples are drawn from the whole population, the results may be influenced by chance. As probability samples are randomly selected, a sample can always be expected to differ from the overall population according to the parameter in question. The level of statistical significance shows the likelihood that the results obtained are due merely to chance (Neuman, 2000). The research adopted the .05 level of statistical significance to test the differences between groups according to gender, academic rank, age, university control type (public/private) and university location. If significant differences were found between the means of three or more groups, Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to make pairwise comparisons.

Comparing Qualitative Data and Quantitative Data

As mentioned earlier, this study made use of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods: the semi-structured interview and the questionnaire survey, respectively. The relationship between the two methods is as follows:

- The results of the interview were used in the construction of the questionnaire. The interview aimed to identify the aspects that contribute to academics' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. Factors that were found to be related with job satisfaction during the course of analysis of the interview results were incorporated into the questionnaire as question items.
- This study aimed to identify satisfaction with specific job facets and overall job satisfaction through both the qualitative interviews and the questionnaire survey.
- In addition, differences between groups according to both demographic and institutional characteristics were investigated using both kinds of data. After the analyses of the interview data and the questionnaire data were completed, the results of the two analyses were compared. Where the results of the interview analysis and the questionnaire survey were found to contradict each other, an attempt to explain the contradiction was made.

Conclusion

This chapter presented how the data analysis was undertaken. In this study the data analysis comprised two phases: the interview data analysis and the survey data analysis. The analysis of the interview data included transcribing interviews, coding data, creating themes, comparing codes and themes, and generating theoretical ideas.

For the analysis of the survey data, descriptive statistics, which indicate general tendencies, were utilized along with ANOVA. In addition, the results of analysis of the qualitative interviews and the questionnaire survey were compared.

The research findings from the data collected through the interview and the questionnaire will be presented in the next two chapters.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS: JOB SATISFACTION

Introduction

This chapter presents research findings on job satisfaction among Korean academics based on analyses of the interview and the questionnaire survey. As mentioned earlier, this study made use of both interviews and questionnaires for data collection. Thus, the research findings will be presented in two stages. The data obtained through the interviews will be presented, and then those obtained from the questionnaires will be presented. The findings are grouped in the following broad categories: satisfaction with various aspects of one's job, overall job satisfaction, and intention to leave present jobs.

Findings from the Interview Data

In this section, job satisfaction of Korean academics as discovered through interviews, will be presented under a number of thematic sub-headings.

Satisfaction with Various Job Aspects

Work

Academics' views about their work were investigated in depth through the interviews. The interviewees considered all of teaching, research, administration, and service to be part of their work. One interviewee said:

Teaching, research and administration are my day-to-day activities. Sometimes I provide consulting service. In short, teaching, research, administration and public service are all part of my role as an academic.

The academics who were interviewed were engaged in various activities in the course of their work. For example, teaching activities included lectures, seminars, laboratory experiments, tutorial sessions, supervision of master's and doctoral degree students, reading and writing in preparation for lectures and seminars, reading and grading students' essays and exams, and meeting students individually. Conducting experiments, attending conferences, reading academic journals and books, and writing articles were considered research activities. Participating in internal committees and conducting clerical and managerial work were categorised as administrative activities. Service activities consisted of consulting service, participation in governmental bodies as advisory members, and involvement in NGOs (Nongovernmental Organisations).

How did interviewees feel about their work? Most interviewees were fairly or somewhat satisfied with their general work routine. One interviewee stated:

Even though I do not like everything about my work, generally I would say that I like academic work. I feel happy when I go to the office because I like to do my day-to-day work.

The extent to which they were satisfied with each of their individual job duties varied. How satisfied interviewees were with specific job duties is discussed below.

Most of the academics who were interviewed liked both teaching and research, regardless of institution type, gender, age, or academic rank. This finding is consistent

with those of previous studies (Oshagbemi, 2000; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997), which found that academics derived the highest satisfaction from teaching and research. Moreover, teaching and research were considered the most important tasks by all interviewees. They perceived teaching and research as a worthwhile lifetime activity.

The reasons why they were satisfied with both teaching and research were explored. Most interviewees said that they had the opportunity to fulfil their ambitions and needs in the course of their work. Consequently, they felt happy when they were teaching or conducting research. Some had decided to become academics before they entered university because they liked both teaching and research. A number of interviewees considered teaching and research to be worthwhile lifetime career activities. For example, one female interviewee stated:

Teaching is an excellent job. What I like most about my job is helping people grow. I feel happy because I do what I love to do as my occupation. I like to be with students. They are genuine and fresh. Being with them rejuvenates me. Teaching helps others fulfil their potential. It is rewarding to watch students grow.

Being able to make a contribution to one's country or local community through one's work was also cited as a reason for liking one's job. Working in academe was significant to the interviewees in various ways, including as a means for earning a livelihood, a social environment, a way to earn respect, and a way to help other people. They regarded themselves as members of a traditional profession that required the highest level of education. They argued that academics, as professionals, should serve their clients and exercise self-control. Most interviewees made such statements. Academics often characterised themselves as professionals in the interviews. For

example, one interviewee stated:

Academics have contributed to the development of our country. We have educated young people and helped them to develop into capable men and women. Thanks to higher education, Korea has achieved astonishing development in the short period since its rise from the ashes of the Korean War. Furthermore, research is essential for national growth. I like this job because I can help others lead better, more enjoyable lives.

The reasons why academics chose to conduct research were further explored through in-depth interviews. Various reasons for conducting research emerged. Enjoying the research process was the most frequently cited reason for conducting research. One interviewee said:

I carry out research because I like it. I do not regard my research as a job, but as play. Sometimes I do not realise how quickly time passes while I am absorbed in my research. Since I was young, I have been fond of conducting experiments. Curiosity underlies my affinity for research.

Another interviewee gave a similar response, saying:

Generating new knowledge and understanding gives me greater pleasure than any other job can give me. When I was young, I loved to conduct experiments. I enjoy the intellectual challenge that research presents. To me, research feels more like a hobby than a job.

Another common reason cited for conducting research was to advance the collective body of knowledge. One interviewee said:

Academic research contributes to the generation of knowledge. It requires

originality and creativity. Progress has been made in the world of knowledge primarily through research. I like to do research because I can make a contribution to the collective body of knowledge.

Besides the intrinsic motivational factors noted above, various extrinsic motivators were also cited as reasons for conducting research. A considerable number of the academics who were interviewed mentioned promotion, tenure, and incentive rewards as motivating factors for conducting research. In addition, some felt pressured to conduct research in order to obtain research grants. They considered the quest for research funding to be troublesome and time-consuming. Thus, they were inclined to conduct research that was not interesting to them in order to obtain research funding.

One interviewee said:

Sometimes I have to conduct research that I do not find interesting just to obtain grants. I need money to operate my research lab. My expenses include stipends for research students and facilities and material for experiments. When I am short of funds, I have no option but to apply for projects that are funded by the government just to get the money. Those research projects are very stressful.

According to the interviewees, a substantial number of universities seemed to have adopted incentive systems to further motivate academics to publish more papers. Academics were provided with financial rewards according to their research performance. According to one interviewee:

The university provides academics with incentive money. Academics are eligible to receive 3 million *won* [\$3,027] per article that is published in a quality academic journal or equivalent thereof. I have a colleague who was paid 15 million *won* [\$15,136] in such incentives alone. This system has both

advantages and disadvantages. The research performance of the university has increased drastically. I think the sharp increase in research is the result of the introduction of this incentive system. However, this system has created an atmosphere of fierce competition among academics. Moreover, academics tend to act more selfishly and spend more time working alone rather than collaborating. They are reluctant to leave their research rooms or laboratories. It is difficult to find academics who are willing to assume the responsibility of a managerial post. They do not like to hold managerial posts because they cannot focus on research.

Wining recognition was stated a motivation to conduct research by a few interviewees.

One interviewee stated:

Producing quality research is the fastest way to gain a reputation as an academic. Academics who can boast excellent research performance are very proud of it. As I have already received tenure and been promoted to the highest rank, the promise of promotion and tenure no longer serve to motivate me. I have a dream of becoming one of the most renowned researchers in my field.

Some of the academics who were interviewed suggested that teaching required the constant input of new ideas and methods, emphasising that teaching is just as creative as research. To teach their students better, they continually develop new teaching methods and keep up with current knowledge in the subjects they teach. One female interviewee said:

Teaching is a very interesting job. I have to be armed with up-to-date knowledge about both the subject I am teaching and pedagogical techniques in order to ensure that my students receive the best possible education. At the post-

secondary level, teaching is not just the delivery of existing knowledge. We should teach students how to catch fish instead of merely giving them fish to eat. To teach effectively, I devote a lot of time and energy to prepare for my classes. People often say that academics these days still teach the same way they taught twenty years ago. However, they say so without realising how much the situation has changed.

However, some academics did not agree that teaching is as creative as research. They suggested that while research creates new knowledge, teaching merely focuses on the delivery of existing knowledge. One interviewee with extensive experience in higher education said:

To me, teaching is not as challenging as research. Because I teach introductory courses, the class material is not new. There are also some students who do not pay attention to my lectures. Sometimes I find teaching rather unexciting.

Several negative aspects of teaching were noted by the interviewees. First and foremost, poor performance and lack of preparation on the part of students were mentioned as negative aspects by the majority of interviewees. They complained that many students were not motivated to learn, nor were they equipped with the basic knowledge necessary for taking university courses. This view was expressed more often by academics from newly established universities. Many interviewees pointed out the decline in the academic requirements for students entering universities. It was also frequently expressed that students' attitudes were not appropriate for studying, and that they had little interest in class. One interviewee said:

About half of the students attending my sessions are not eager to learn. Even

though they attend classes, they pay little attention to lectures. They are simply interested in earning credits. In addition, some students sleep during my sessions. They don't bother to study hard.

This view was echoed in an interview with an academic who reported:

Many students are not interested in their classes. Only one third of the students in my class listen to me carefully. Another third do not pay attention to the lecture. The remaining third sleep. In the past, sleeping in class was unimaginable. They attend class only to get grades.

The academics who were interviewed ascribed the declining quality of students in part to the expansion of the higher education system. Only a decade ago, the demand for higher education exceeded the supply in Korea. However, the relationship between supply and demand in the area of higher education has changed (See Chapter ONE). The increase in the supply of higher education has led some universities to suffer from enrolment shortages. Consequently, these universities have lowered their academic entrance requirements in order to recruit more students.

Furthermore, the university admissions system and the ineffectiveness of secondary education were blamed for the poor academic standards of students entering university. Because competition for entry into prestigious universities is fierce in Korea, students at institutions of secondary education focus their study efforts on preparation for university entrance exams. Many interviewees complained that undergraduates did not read books in the fields of liberal arts or social sciences before entering university. Therefore, their general knowledge and understanding were so superficial and at such a low level that most of them were not able to follow classes. One interviewee stated:

I have difficulty running my classes because of the poor academic level of my students. Many students do not have a good grasp of the mathematics skills that are necessary for studying engineering. They have not studied enough mathematics to undertake higher education. Our university has considered offering preliminary mathematics courses to students lacking basic knowledge.

Teaching and research are regarded as core tasks of academics. This section discusses the relationship between teaching and research. Whether Korean academics prefer teaching or research was investigated. Although academics reported liking both teaching and research, their preference for either research or teaching varied from individual to individual and from group to group. Many of the academics who were interviewed stated that they liked both, and had no preference for either teaching or research. However, some preferred teaching, while others preferred research. The number of academics who preferred research to teaching was slightly higher than the number of academics who preferred teaching to research. One interviewee who preferred teaching stated:

I love both teaching and research. However, I find teaching more interesting than research. I am very happy to see my students grow daily. I always try to do my best to teach my students well. I think that education is the most important function of university. Nowadays, research is too strongly emphasised, and teaching is not valued. This trend is definitely wrong. Universities are essentially educational institutions. Thus, universities should prioritise teaching.

Conversely, one interviewee who showed a preference for research said:

For me, research is more exciting than teaching. Research requires more creativity and originality than teaching. Teaching focuses on the delivery of

existing knowledge and skills. In addition, doing research is more tangible than teaching. When I am reading academic journals or writing papers, I am very happy. I am paid to do what I love. If it weren't for universities, nobody would pay me to do this. Being an academic is the best job that I could hope for.

Academics are asked to fulfil various roles at the same time. Teaching, research, administration and community service all compete for their time. A number of the academics who were interviewed perceived a conflict between these roles. Interviewees at highly prestigious universities were likely to try to avoid spending too much time and energy on teaching. Instead, they tried to dedicate as much time as possible to research. Some interviewees did not even want to be interrupted by students who visited them seeking advice or guidance.

One of the reasons they paid more attention to research than to any other activity was that the emphasis placed on research when it came to promotion, tenure, and financial incentives. Many of the academics who were interviewed felt that teaching skill, although highly praised, was not well rewarded. They believed that teaching was the most important part of higher education, or that it was at least as important as research. This led academics to spend less energy on teaching. One interviewee said:

I don't like it when students come to my office because I don't want my research to be disturbed by their visits. I am trying to reduce my teaching load so that I can spend more time on research. It is research that is the most important criterion for promotion and tenure.

Another reason for the decreased emphasis on teaching might be related to the ways that teaching and research performance are measured. The critical issue when measuring teaching and research performance is quality (Martin and Berry, 1969). In

academic society, considerable advances have been made in methods of measuring research quality. However, methods of measuring teaching quality are not well developed. There are no generally agreed-upon methods for evaluating teaching performance. The limitations of methods for measuring teaching quality mean that there are fewer indicators available for comparing teaching performance across universities.

The lack of emphasis on teaching might be hindering the development of teaching methods. One of the serious challenges facing higher education in Korea is the development of teaching methods. Academics at Korean universities have relied heavily on unilateral lecturing methods as their main teaching method (Lee, 1995). He reported that 75 percent of the nation's academics taught most of their courses using unilateral lecturing methods. In addition, the tendency to approach teaching as a routine task that could be accomplished without much effort was prevalent. One interviewee said:

Teaching is not taken seriously nowadays. It is believed that we can teach without much effort. I resent the fact that teaching is considered less important than research.

When the relative emphasis that academics and their respective universities placed on research and teaching differed, academics were likely to derive less satisfaction from their work. An interview with an academic at a university at which teaching was emphasised over research supported this. He stated:

The university asks academics to focus on teaching. However, I would like to do more research and less teaching. I do not have sufficient time for research because of my heavy teaching load. I am teaching fifteen hours per week. If I

were working at a university where research was highly valued, I would be happier.

Academics' attitudes toward the connection between teaching and research were analysed using the interview data. Three general attitudes toward the relationship between the two core roles of academics were identified through the interviews. Many interviewees replied that research and teaching had a positive influence on each other. This attitude was likely more to be found among academics whose fields of research coincided with the subjects they taught. It was also more prevalent among interviewees who taught graduate students than those who taught only undergraduates. This might be attributable to the fact that teaching graduate students is more closely linked to research activity than teaching undergraduates. While undergraduate courses mainly consist of delivering knowledge, research activities make up a considerable portion of postgraduate curricula. One interviewee said:

Teaching and research are inseparable, particularly at the postgraduate level.

Teaching is not merely the delivery of existing knowledge or skills. Teaching includes research activities. Students can learn a lot when they are involved in research. In addition, teaching effectively requires continual research activity.

Those who are not good at research cannot teach well either. Academics should be good at both teaching and research.

Some interviewees, however, claimed that teaching and research had little relation between the two roles. They said that teaching and research were different things. This view was more often found among interviewees teaching courses that were not related to their research fields. A number of interviewees said that they were forced to teach courses that fell outside of their academic fields. This was attributable in part to a

shortage of appropriate academics resulting from cost-cutting measures. Some universities urged current faculty members to teach courses that were beyond the scope of their research fields rather than hiring new academics specifically to teach those courses. One interviewee explained the relationship between teaching and research as follows:

In my case, research has little to do with teaching. Generally speaking, research deals with specific and detailed topics. By contrast, teaching, especially teaching undergraduates, covers a wide range of topics. I am responsible only for teaching undergraduates. Sometimes I have to take on courses that do not pertain to my research field. Being a good researcher does not necessarily make me a good teacher. For me, research is one thing and teaching is another.

Moreover, some of the academics who were interviewed suggested that teaching and research could even work against one another. This attitude was more likely to be observed among junior interviewees appointed less than three years previously. Newly employed academics are likely to have difficulty managing their time (Olsen, 1993). This was confirmed in this study. Many of the interviewees appointed within the past three years thought that it was not easy to perform both teaching and research at the same time. They felt a conflict between their teaching and research roles, due to severe time constraints. Some interviewees suggested that academics should specialise in either teaching or research to minimise the conflict between these roles. One interviewee said:

The university asks us to be superheroes. Academics should be good at both teaching and research. Especially for newly appointed academics, it is very difficult to perform teaching and research well at the same time. I do not have

adequate time to conduct research because of my heavy teaching load. I think teaching hinders research in many cases. I am always worried about someone visiting my office and disturbing my research. Frankly speaking, I don't want to waste a lot of time having conversations, even with my students. My mind is often conflicted when I have to decide how to allocate my time between teaching and research.

Academics were also asked to perform various activities that were not directly related to teaching or research activities. Many academics took part in university administration as deans, department heads or members of various committees. Moreover, academics participated in the public sectors and commercial areas as consultants. They also undertook public service on a *pro bono* basis. As they often conduct academic work outside of their normal working schedules and off-campus, it was difficult to precisely measure academics' workloads. Although the amount of time devoted to each of teaching, research, and service activities varied, most academics who did not hold managerial posts spent the majority of their working time on teaching and research.

The various mundane jobs that academics undertook decreased their job satisfaction. Paradoxically, however, an increased variety of tasks has been found to enhance job satisfaction (Hackman, Oldham, Janson and Purdy, 1975). However, this study found that excessive variety could detract from job satisfaction. One interviewee said:

Because I have to do too many things, I cannot concentrate on teaching and research. I feel annoyed when I have to undertake many kinds of work.

The majority of interviewees did not like administrative work. Interviewees stated that

they were asked to perform various administrative tasks, such as participating in committees. Many interviewees regarded administrative work as unrewarding. One interviewee said:

I resent wasting my precious time on such tasks. There are too many committees in our university. At the departmental level alone, I must participate in three committees, namely: the curriculum committee, the personnel committee and the budget committee. Participating in committees is very time-consuming. Each meeting typically lasts for one and a half hours. Furthermore, it is hard for committee members to reach consensus. Committees are not productive at all.

About half of the interviewees said that they were not interested in being appointed to managerial posts such as dean or department head. They thought that managerial posts would require them to spend the majority of their working time handling administrative affairs. Some interviewees thought that they would not be able to keep up with advances in their academic fields if they were responsible for managerial duties. This opinion was more often expressed in the fields of natural and medical sciences and engineering than in other fields.

Academics undertake various external activities away from their universities. There was a dichotomy in feelings toward external activities. More than half of all interviewees gave positive responses with respect to service activities conducted off-campus. Additional work for private companies, public organisations and NGOs was perceived as pleasurable and rewarding by the majority of interviewees. Many interviewees were involved in contributing to external organisations in various forms. For example, they gave advice to companies using their expertise or participated in NGOs as members. They were usually paid for such activities, but occasionally they

performed such activities on a volunteer basis. Many interviewees stated that they felt pleased to help people using their knowledge and experience. One interviewee, whose field is rehabilitation, said:

I am involved in many affairs regarding NGOs. As there are few specialists in the field of policy-making for the disabled, many NGOs ask me for help. Even though I am very busy with university-related work, I am willing to help them as much as I can. At their request, I write articles related to disability welfare and I attend conferences as a panellist. Although I am not always paid for these activities, it gives me great pleasure to help them.

Lecturing at educational institutions other than one's home university was frequently cited as an external activity. Several interviewees taught at other universities. Many academics felt that teaching at other institutions was annoying, but others regarded it as a good opportunity to generate additional income or broaden their personal networks. One academic said:

It takes a lot of time to travel to universities located far from here. But I can derive many benefits from it. Because I am paid for it, it is a source of additional income. Furthermore, I can meet academics from universities other than my home university.

Interviewees listed various factors as drawbacks of academic work. Some interviewees regarded the blurred boundary between work and rest as problematic. Academic work is typically mental labour, and requires a high degree of concentration regardless of one's location. Academic work is confined neither to the workplace nor to a regular working schedule. The lack of a clear-cut distinction between work and rest tends to cause academics to continue to think about work-related issues even after

leaving the workplace. This increases the stress on academics. One interviewee from a public university in Seoul said:

Unlike those with other jobs, academics cannot stop thinking about job-related issues, regardless of where they are. When factory workers take a rest after they return home, they can forget about what happened at work, but academics cannot. Even when I am at home or meeting someone outside the university, I cannot stop thinking about my university work. Thus I cannot relax, even when I am at home. This makes me feel very fatigued quite often.

Issues related to the goals of one's university were cited as a factor decreasing job satisfaction among the academics who were interviewed. According to some interviewees, universities put too much emphasis on the practical applicability of higher education. They argued that universities have changed into training institutions at which the primary aim is to prepare people for the labour market. One interviewee said:

There is a tendency to place too much importance on the practical usefulness of higher education. Education has come to be viewed first and foremost as a way of expanding one's career opportunities. Moreover, higher education is regarded as a critical channel for social mobility. These views have shaped people's expectations of higher education. Furthermore, the recent increase in unemployment among youth, stemming from the global economic recession, has led universities to focus on the employability of their graduates.

The emphasis placed on practical applicability in higher education is attributed partly to the governmental evaluation system. The employability of graduates has become a key indicator for evaluating the quality of education offered by individual universities.

This has led universities to pay more attention to the employment of their graduates.

This trend was more easily observed among less prestigious universities.

Some interviewees, in particular those at new universities, reported that the programmes provided by their universities focused on employment. One interviewee said:

University education is regarded mainly from the perspective of practical use. Over time, courses have changed gradually to emphasise their usefulness in helping students to get better jobs. I have been asked to teach courses outside my field of expertise. Students don't enjoy traditional subjects such as classics, history, and the pure sciences. Instead they prefer courses that are directly helpful in improving their job prospects. Universities should not function merely as job training centres. Enlightenment and intelligent discourse should be highly valued in higher education. I regret that universities have turned into institutions for job training.

In contrast, some interviewees made different comments about university goals. They thought that universities should not neglect the practical usefulness of education. One interviewee, whose academic field was engineering, reported:

Academics tend to value theory too highly, at the expense of the practical applicability of education. As a result, universities cannot keep pace with social changes. Other, more competitive sectors, such as commercial institutions, produce more new technology and knowledge than universities. Universities are not regarded as productive. People complain that graduates from universities are not prepared for life in the workplace. University graduates must take intensive training courses to meet the requirements of employers. In higher education, a

greater effort should be made to enhance the relevance of teaching to industry. I have frequently heard complaints that the knowledge and skills imparted at universities are trite and useless.

Meanwhile, a number of interviewees seemed to have conflicting feelings about the purpose of teaching. They were of two minds about the conflict between the pure and applied aspects of higher education.

I am confused about which direction higher education should go. At first, I thought that universities should focus on purely academic concepts. Although what students learn at university does not seem so useful from a practical standpoint, I felt that universities should place a greater emphasis on academic and theoretical principles. But these days I am starting to think that my previously held opinion was wrong.

Academic Freedom

The academics who were interviewed regarded academic freedom as an imperative if they were to fulfil their roles properly. They evinced pleasure in having freedom at work. One interviewee at a private university said:

Having a flexible schedule was an important consideration when I chose this position, as I like working independently. In non-university jobs, there are many regulations and controls governing scheduling, behaviour, and the expression of thoughts. If there were no freedom in academia, I would not be an academic. Nobody cares whether or not I come to the office by nine o'clock a.m. For example, if I drink too much one night, I can go to the office in the afternoon the next day. That's acceptable. If I worked for a private company or a governmental organisation, that would be impossible.

They argued that because of the nature of their work, it is right that they should be given more freedom than in any other occupation. One interviewee from a public university in Seoul said:

Academic work is by its nature creative. Our way of working and our work procedures are so complicated and creative that our work should not be controlled by anyone else.

In addition, most of the academics who were interviewed cited academic freedom as an important factor in their working lives. It became apparent in the interviews that the concept of academic freedom was perceived differently from individual to individual. However, interviewees regarded freedom in research, teaching, and expression as the most important of their academic freedoms.

They felt free to choose their research topics and methods and to set their own research schedules. They perceived freedom in research as one of the good points of academia. One interviewee said:

When I worked in an off-campus research institution, I did not have the freedom to choose my research topics on my own. Before I decided on a research topic, I had to consult with my boss. The research topics were confined to those that matched the goals of the research institution. The key criterion for the choice of research topics was our customers' requirements. I greatly resented having few opportunities to study the topics that I was interested in at that time. At my university, I can freely study whatever interests me. I am absolutely free to choose my research topics here.

A considerable number of interviewees felt that they were given more freedom in research-related activities than in any other area of their work. As for teaching, they said that there were some restrictions on the courses they taught and the teaching methods they used. Many universities encouraged academics to conduct classes using multimedia aids such as videos or projectors. This pressure to use electronic gadgets in class caused tension among academics. Some academics familiarised themselves with electronic teaching aids, but others did not. One participant from a private university in Seoul said:

The university asks academics to teach using multimedia elements such as motion pictures. However, I think that such media are not relevant to the courses I teach. In addition, it takes too much time to prepare multimedia teaching material. Sometimes a lecture using multimedia might be better than one using just a blackboard and chalk. But the university should bear in mind that using multimedia does not always guarantee a quality lecture. Whether or not multimedia are suitable depends on the nature of the subject and the lecturer's teaching style. Therefore, the freedom to choose how to teach students should be left to individual academics.

In contrast to the above interviewee, some interviewees reported that they understood the university's regulations on teaching were inevitable and did not fundamentally damage academic freedom. One interviewee said:

Our department has some regulations on how to teach certain modules. If there were no such regulations, it would be hard to guarantee teaching quality. Academic freedom is important, but minimum requirements are needed. Moreover, if there were no regulations, there could be too many courses,

because a number of academics would want to teach more courses. Such regulations are reasonable and inevitable.

Many interviewees felt that academic freedoms have eroded over time. They cited the lack of resources as one of the main factors endangering academic freedom. They felt that they had a problem conducting research properly because of inadequate support for research. They were also frustrated by the scarcity of research grants. They had to look outside the university in search of research funding, and were tempted to conduct research projects in which they had little interest, mainly to gain research funding. In addition, sometimes they did not feel free to make the results of their research known because the results conflicted with the interests of their sponsors.

Professional Development

The academics who were interviewed unanimously reported that they experienced a development in their professional ability throughout their careers. They had the opportunity to increase their knowledge and deepen their understanding of their respective fields with increasing work experience. One male interviewee stated:

This job is fantastic because I can continue to advance my knowledge and understanding as I gain experience. I worked in the government for about ten years before I entered the university. When I worked in the government, I was able to develop my knowledge and skills in some technical and trivial areas. But I did not have the opportunity to cultivate new skills in fundamentally different areas at that time. I have improved as a teacher and researcher as my experience has accumulated. I am pleased when I experience a sense of improvement while doing my job.

Some interviewees suggested that the relationship between work experience and the

development of ability is not linear. According to them, once an academic reaches a certain age, professional improvement, particularly in the area of research, becomes difficult. One interviewee from a public university stated:

We can improve our teaching and research skills with time. But improving our research skills is possible only before we reach a certain age. After that, we have difficulty carrying out experiments because of physical limitations. For example, I have some trouble doing laboratory experiments. In my field, as in engineering, research relies mainly on experimentation. Only a small number of academics can show excellent performance in experiments after they reach fifty years of age.

The academics who were interviewed needed to invest a considerable amount of time to maintain or advance their professional skills and knowledge. They read books or articles in their fields in order to keep up with developments in their academic disciplines. Most of the academics who were interviewed preferred to specialise in specific areas, as they believed that specialisation would make them more competitive. Academics at distinguished research-oriented universities enjoyed better opportunities for specialisation in their respective fields than those at other universities. However, academics from less prestigious universities found it more difficult to specialise. What is more, academics at such universities had to teach various courses that fell outside of their fields of specialisation. Many of the interviewees from eminent research-oriented universities seldom undertook courses outside of their respective fields. One interviewee from one of the most prestigious universities said:

I am teaching only two courses for postgraduates and supervising three Ph.D. students this semester. These courses are strongly related to my research field. Taking on postgraduate students is even more advantageous in terms of

specialisation. I have many opportunities to learn when I teach postgraduates.

Interestingly, but not surprisingly, many interviewees paid less attention to the development of their teaching skills than their research skills. The majority of interviewees had little or no experience of taking systematic training programmes for teaching skills development. Moreover, teaching was conducted in isolation from their colleagues. Therefore, they lacked opportunities to watch each other teach and discuss teaching methods together. In one interview, a male academic expressed such a view about teaching. His answer to the question, “Do you have any experience of undertaking programmes for teaching improvement?” was as follows:

Why should I bother to attend such teaching training programmes? I don't need such training anymore. I have sufficient knowledge related to the subjects that I am teaching. That's enough. Unlike teachers of primary or secondary education, university teachers can teach well without training in teaching methods as long as they are equipped with the knowledge and skills related to their subjects.

This view was echoed by another interviewee. He said that the benefits of such programmes were insufficient to warrant the time and expenditure. He added that academics did not need to take job training courses because every academic already knows how to teach.

Through the interviews, it was learned that training programmes for academics are provided in many universities. The reason why universities pay attention to these programmes is attributable in part to a governmental policy to enhance the quality of university education to meet the requirements of employers. However, such programmes do not attract much attention from academics for various reasons. One

interviewee said:

Recently, our university has started to invest in programmes for academic staff development. The Teaching and Learning Centre was established a couple of years ago. Various programmes are provided by the centre. However, I have attended just a few courses. The programmes are not helpful to me. They are too general. I need more specific and practical skills and knowledge relevant to the subjects I teach.

Meanwhile, some academics cited time constraints as a factor preventing them from attending such programmes. One interviewee said:

The programmes for teaching skills development are good. I can gain new knowledge and skills from the programmes. The example classes are particularly helpful. They provide me with opportunities to evaluate my teaching in addition to acquiring new skills. Nevertheless, I regret that I can seldom attend training programmes because I am so busy. I have a lot of work to do. For example, today I need to give lectures, work on some laboratory experiments, spend time guiding my master's and doctoral degree students, and write various reports.

Next, issues pertaining to promotion are presented. Academics have opportunities to move to higher echelons based on their performance. Performance evaluations are a key factor governing promotion. Generally speaking, interviewees are more or less satisfied with the way promotions are handled. However, the extent to which they were satisfied with promotions varied between individuals. Many interviewees felt that it is more difficult to be promoted than in the past because of rising standards.

One of the academics who were interviewed said:

The university continually adopts more stringent criteria for promotion. However, research and teaching conditions have not improved in proportion thereto. I am worried that I will not be promoted the next time I'm evaluated. In the past, everybody easily managed to be promoted. Universities used to be a paradise for academics. Academics were automatically promoted once a given time period had elapsed. However, in the future, academics will struggle because of the stronger regulations governing promotion. I have become stressed about the new criteria for promotion.

The level of satisfaction with promotion among interviewees was likely to increase with work experience. The majority of interviewees with more than ten years' experience reported higher satisfaction with their promotion history than others. They had encountered little difficulty in being promoted. They said that, to date, once a person had been appointed as an academic, he or she could advance to a higher rank as his or her experience increased. One interviewee said:

I never used to be worried about promotion. Just five or six years ago, academics did not find it difficult to be promoted. Every academic could advance to a higher rank. Criteria were minimal rather than high. As long as one was not exceptionally lazy, he or she would be able to meet the criteria.

The abolishment of the governmental regulations on promotion has led to changes in individual universities' promotion practices. Before the mid-1990s, governmental regulations set forth quotas for respective academic ranks. According to these regulations, all universities, both public and private, had to employ associate professors and professors in the proportions set forth. These regulations were repealed in the mid-1990s as a result of deregulation by the government at that time. As

governmental restrictions on the relative number of academics who must be retained at each academic rank were abolished, the number of individuals at each academic rank came to be determined by the policies set forth by individual universities.

Some of the interviewees regarded the criteria governing promotion as a factor having a negative effect on their lives. They felt that the criteria were vague and inconsistent and very likely to be applied unfairly. One academic said:

What I don't like about my job is the yardstick used to determine promotion. It is so unclear that some decisions on promotion are quite unexpected. I know of one colleague who was denied promotion despite meeting the standard.

Recognition

According to the source thereof, there are two kinds of recognition for academics: external recognition and internal recognition. Many interviewees seemed satisfied with the external recognition they received. They reported that they enjoyed a good reputation because of their job. In Korea, an academic is regarded as one of the most prestigious social roles. The influence of Confucianism is the major reason that the public holds scholars in high regard (Shiu, 1992). Academics are involved in setting policy for public organisations and are sometimes offered high-level governmental posts. The majority of interviewees stated that their high social position was a source of job satisfaction. They felt that people still generally respect academics even though their social position has decreased slightly in recent times. Many interviewees suggested that the main reasons that people respect academics are their strong morality and expertise. Academics cannot make much money and have no political power. However, they are perceived as morally upright and are highly educated and civilised persons. One academic said:

Academics do not earn much money, nor do we have much power. However, we are admired. This is because people believe that academics are trustworthy. Moreover, a career in academe requires the longest education.

Academics also have made great contributions to the development of their communities and the nation through research and education. Korea has made phenomenal progress, both economically and politically, since the Korean War. A considerable proportion of the national development that has taken place since 1950 can be attributed to higher education. One interviewee said:

Academics might well hold the most respected jobs. People regarded academics as very honourable. People regard academics as doing important things for our country without being paid much.

However, respect for academics seems to have diminished for various reasons. Firstly, commercialisation, which is taking place in all areas of society, largely accounts for the decline in the social status of academics. Because the principles of the free market are dominant in society, as in all developed countries, money has come to play a key role in the operation of the social fabric. Thus, pay has become an important consideration in the job market. Being an academic does not pay well. One interviewee from a public university in a provincial area said:

Not many people respect university teachers. Nowadays people evaluate each other's careers from a financial perspective. Academics do not hold attractive jobs from that standpoint. Academics do not have the opportunity to make much money except in highly exceptional cases. High-calibre young people want jobs at which they can earn more money.

Another reason that the image of academics is not as good as it used to be is that the public has been influenced by the mass media. Some newspapers and TV programmes have enthusiastically portrayed academics in a negative light. One interviewee from a public university in a provincial area said:

People no longer respect academics. These days the mass media, such as newspapers and TV programmes, disproportionately cover cases of misconduct related to research grants. Furthermore, newspapers constantly characterise academics as unproductive. They describe academics as holding iron rice bowls. But I don't care about the social status of academics. I just hope I am paid more.

The declining respect for academics seems to be related to the explosive growth of higher education. As noted above, some universities are starting to suffer from serious student shortages, and not all universities are held in high esteem. Some academics are worried that their low job security and low pay is leading to a fall in the social status of academics. One interviewee said:

The social status of academics varies from individual to individual and from group to group. And academics' working conditions vary. Some academics, particularly those at renowned universities, enjoy good working conditions, while those at others are not treated well. In the past all academics were respected simply for being academics. These days the situation has changed, and not all academics are envied. What matters is the university to which you belong. Academics working at universities that are not popular with students are no longer the objects of people's envy.

The term "internal recognition" refers to how highly academics are regarded by those within their home universities. A considerable number of the academics who were

interviewed thought that they were respected by their students. One interviewee said:

Students are still genuine and respect their teachers. The relationship between students and teachers is more than that between consumers and suppliers. Rather, there is something special that transcends notions of trade. Education is concerned with all aspects of human development, not just intellectual aspects. Students expect academics to be role models.

However, a number of interviewees felt that respect or appreciation for academics among students has waned. They noted that students do not show as much respect to academics as they used to. They thought that this trend was related to a paradigm shift taking place in higher education. One interviewee said:

Students do not value teachers highly. Some students even go so far as to regard teachers as sellers of knowledge and skills, as though they were tradable goods. They do not see teaching as being any different from commercial goods or services. This relates to a social trend seen across the country and around the world. Education is becoming increasingly market-oriented. The government and industry put too much emphasis on economic principles in education. People have suggested that the interests of consumers, such as students and companies, be more strongly reflected in university curricula.

Additionally, academics value the recognition of their colleagues and administrators, such as department heads. According to one interviewee, academics feel content when they are valued by their colleagues. One of the academics who were interviewed said:

I was proud when I was named “a teacher of the year”. Our university encourages excellence in academics by means of prizes and financial incentives. I think that universities should adopt various measures to reward academics

who perform well.

Meanwhile, some of the academics who were interviewed resented receiving less recognition from deans or department heads. One of those interviewed said:

I feel that my contribution is not appreciated enough. The department head tends to take my endeavours for granted. I work even on weekends. It's disappointing when nobody appreciates my efforts.

Pay

People can secure their livelihood with adequate income. One's job is the most common source of money. Like others, academics are of course paid for their work. This section examines the extent of interviewees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the compensation from their jobs. In addition, the reasons they gave for being satisfied or dissatisfied with their pay are explored.

The majority of the academics who were interviewed were dissatisfied with their pay. Dissatisfaction with pay is an almost universal phenomenon among academics (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997). The present study showed that academics in Korea are no exception to this phenomenon. In this study, pay satisfaction was examined from two different theoretical perspectives. One is the "distributive justice" perspective and the other is the "procedural justice" perspective (Lawler, 1973). While the actual amount of pay is the domain of distributive justice, the process by which the pay level is determined falls in the category of procedural justice.

The majority of interviewees felt that their pay was so low that they could not live comfortably. They reported that their relatively low pay made it difficult to meet

living expenses. One interviewee said:

I think that my salary is inadequate in light of my educational background, work performance, and endeavours. I don't know when I will be able to afford to buy a house. I have to spend a lot of money on private lessons for my children due to the highly competitive education system. My wife also has to work in order for us to make ends meet.

The majority of interviewees felt that they were underpaid considering their qualifications, performance, and abilities. In the interviews, it became evident that Korean academics were interested in relative pay as well as absolute pay. They evaluated their pay by comparing their salaries with those of other workers. They used various reference groups as bases for these comparisons. These reference groups were their colleagues, both within and outside their departments; academics at other universities; and even workers outside academe. Most interviewees felt that they were paid less than those with comparable alternative occupations. The occupations they most often referred to when making pay comparisons were: senior public officials, executives of private companies, judges, and doctors. They saw their academic careers as being equivalent to such occupations in consideration of their abilities, efforts, contributions, and responsibilities. One academic interviewed said that:

With regard to pay, academics do not have good jobs. Academics cannot make much money. If you want to be rich, you had better look for another kind of job.

We are paid less than other workers with equivalent qualifications. Being an academic requires the longest period of education.

A considerable number of academics were more sensitive to relative pay than to absolute pay. They cared most about their pay relative to their peers in the same department. One interviewee said:

I do not feel good when I am paid less than my colleagues in the same department. The actual pay disparity is not important to me. My position relative to my peers in terms of pay is of significance. Less pay is interpreted to mean that I am viewed as incompetent, or that they are less committed to me as an employee.

Some interviewees regarded pay not only as a means of earning a living but also as a symbol of achievement. As in the commercial sector, universities have started to introduce performance-based pay systems. Higher pay can thus signify better performance in universities that have adopted performance-based pay systems. One interviewee said:

What annoys me is not the actual difference in pay but what the pay difference symbolises. The difference in pay between the highest and lowest performers is not so great. It is nevertheless unpleasant to receive a lower salary than my colleagues because a lower salary signifies incompetence.

The pay level was found to be strongly correlated with age. In addition, academics holding higher-ranking posts were paid more. This is because academics who have either worked in academia or have accumulated equivalent work experience for long periods are likely to hold higher positions. In other words, because work experience is a major determinant of pay level, academics holding higher-ranking positions are likely to be paid more than others. A deep analysis and discussion of this issue will be presented in Chapter Eight.

Many participants said that they sacrificed high pay in exchange for the advantages of being an academic, such as academic freedom and job security. They would not like to

work in commercial or industrial sectors even if they were better paid. They believed academic freedom to be more important when choosing jobs. One interviewee said:

Many friends of mine in companies or governmental organisations make more money than me. They are paid at least twenty million *won* more per year than me. Furthermore, they enjoy various allowances for business in addition to their salaries. I feel that I am not treated fairly from the standpoint of remuneration. However, I don't regret working as an academic. Even though they earn more money, their jobs are not secure.

A number of participants expressed dissatisfaction with the processes or criteria used to determine pay as well as with their actual pay level. The criteria and processes used to make decisions regarding pay were thought to be neither relevant nor fair. Interviewees repeatedly complained about the inflexibility of the criteria. One of the academics who were interviewed said:

The present pay system is too rigid. A uniform pay system is applied in all public universities across the country. There is little variation between public universities. Academics with similar work experience are paid nearly the same, regardless of which university they work at.

The government has encouraged universities to adopt a merit-based pay system, believing that such a system will motivate academics to be more productive. Some interviewees with comparatively little work experience in higher education have expressed the wish that merit-based pay systems be introduced at their own universities. They felt that current pay systems, whereby seniority is the most influential factor in determining pay, are unfair and do not motivate academics to work hard. One interviewee stated:

As one's pay level is based on the number of years of work experience, newly appointed academics are paid less regardless of their performance. This pay system does not motivate academics to work hard. In addition, my university cannot attract promising scholars. It is also very unfair that the amount of work experience should determine pay. The most outstanding scholars never choose my university, but seek positions at other universities.

However, a considerable number of interviewees were against the wholesale introduction of a merit-based pay system. This issue will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

The opportunity to earn extra income is a way for academics to supplement their low pay. Many academics earn extra money doing various additional activities. Lecturing at universities other than their home universities was the most common source of supplementary income. In addition to lecturing at other universities, providing consulting services, serving as an external thesis examiner for master's or doctorate degrees, and writing journal or newspaper articles were frequently cited means of earning money above and beyond regular salaries. One interviewee from a private university in a provincial area said:

The salary I get from my university is low, but thankfully I am able to earn extra income from my activities outside the university. When I worked as a civil servant for a governmental organisation, I could hardly earn any additional income besides my salary.

There was a wide range of variation in the amount of additional income earned above and beyond regular salaries. The amount of additional income varied both within and

among groups. The reputations of individual academics and their universities seemed to have an impact on the amount of additional income they were able to earn from activities outside their home universities. Moreover, their extra incomes were dependent on their academic disciplines. Academics from the disciplines of engineering, applied sciences and social sciences had more opportunities to earn additional income than others.

Job Security

Most interviewees seemed confident of their job security, while some were worried that their jobs were not secure. Job security is an important factor determining academics' working conditions. Most interviewees said that academic freedom does not exist without job security. If an academic were worried about being made redundant, he or she would not feel free to express his or her opinions and feelings. As job mobility between higher education institutions is low in Korea, job security is very important. In other words, because it is not easy to find an equivalent job after quitting one's present job, job security is highly valued. One interviewee said:

Job security was one of the key criteria in my decision to become an academic.

When I worked elsewhere, as a researcher in an institution, my primary concern was being awarded research grants. If I didn't get enough grants, I would be paid less and could even lose my job. Now I have no worry of losing my job.

Job security has important significance for academics, just as it does for other workers in Korea, where lifetime employment is the norm. Academics typically used to work at the same university until they reached mandatory retirement age. It was unusual for universities to prematurely dismiss academics who were engaged as full-time faculty members. Consequently, once academics were hired full-time, they did not have to worry about being laid off. Another interviewee echoed the above testimony, saying:

What mattered at that time was getting a full-time job at a university. As long as you were employed as an academic, you could work until the retirement age of 65. As you know, the notion of the lifetime workplace prevailed across the country.

However, changes have occurred in the academic labour market since the end of the 1990s. The foreign exchange crisis in Korea in 1998 entailed changes to employment practices across the country. Many organisations, including both companies and government entities, cut many jobs as part of restructuring programmes. In addition, various forms of irregular employment, such as part-time jobs and contract-based employment emerged at that time. This social trend has had the impact of making the academic job market more flexible and diverse. Some organisations began to preferentially hire experienced workers instead of novices. Consequently, an increasing number of workers sought new jobs in order to enjoy better working conditions or higher pay. On the other hand, even permanent workers risked dismissal if they failed to meet performance expectations. The academic labour market is no exception to this trend. Moreover, contract-based employment was introduced in universities in 2003. This brought about many changes in academics' working lives. One interviewee from a private university in Seoul stated:

The tradition of the iron rice bowl has been broken in universities, as in other sectors. Academics must be assessed regularly with regard to their performance. If they do not meet certain criteria, they can be dismissed. Academics who are not tenured do not enjoy the same level of job security that they used to. The labour market in Korea has begun to resemble those of developed countries. We have heard that some academics have been dismissed on the basis of mediocre research performance or teaching incompetence.

There seemed to be two main factors that compromise job security at universities. Above all, academics were worried about being fired arbitrarily by employers. They complained that academics who criticised university policy or high-ranking administrators could be discharged on some pretext or other. Although there are state laws and internal university regulations to protect academics from wrongful dismissal, there may be loopholes therein. One interviewee at a private university in a provincial area said:

Academics, even those who are good at their jobs, can be fired if they are disliked by top administrators. Some universities are run like dictatorships. The owners of these universities attempt to exercise unrestricted authority when appointing academics. They tend to neglect due process when disciplining staff.

Another factor thought by academics to compromise job security is redundancy resulting from low enrolment. The problem with student shortage is more serious at private universities located in small cities. As tuition fees are the main source of funds for many private universities, which receive little financial support from the government, enrolment is a critical factor for the survival and prosperity of those universities (see Chapter One). Recruiting students is the highest priority for these universities. In universities struggling with student shortages, academics tended to be more worried about their future. One interviewee said:

Some departments were merged with other ones or eliminated last year because they had problems recruiting students. Our university has guidelines for establishing and closing down departments. When departments are eliminated, academics belonging to these departments can lose their jobs.

Concerns about reappointment are a source of stress for those who are not tenured. Before they are awarded tenure status, academics must undergo a reappointment process after completing their predetermined terms. An untenured female interviewee from a public university said:

Even though not many academics are denied reappointment, I feel nervous when I am subjected to the reappointment process. It is not unusual to see academics leave academe as a result of failing to be reappointed.

On the contrary, some interviewees were confident about their job security in spite of their untenured status. One interviewee said:

I do not worry about being reappointed. I will undergo the reappointment process in three years, but I have already surpassed the research performance targets. The standard for reappointment is not tough.

Moreover, raising standards for reappointment among many universities have increased concerns about job security among recently appointed academics. One interviewee from a public university said:

The university has raised the standards for reappointment, promotion and tenure. I have heard that more faculty members are failing to be promoted under the more stringent promotion criteria.

Many interviewees, in particular those at public universities, saw job security as one of the advantages of working as academics. They were attracted to academe in part because of the high job security. One interviewee said:

There is no job like this in terms of job security. As long as I don't do anything

wrong, I can work until I am sixty-five years old. I have never been worried about being laid off. Most workers in commercial sectors have to leave the workplace before they are fifty years old. When a man is laid off in his forties or fifties, it is difficult for him to find another decent job. They have major financial needs in their fifties. Many friends of mine who work in big companies like Samsung and LG are well paid now. But nobody knows how long they will be able to work there. Academics at universities, especially public universities, don't have to worry about that.

On the other hand, some interviewees felt uncomfortable criticising those holding administrative posts for fear of being fired. One interviewee said:

I think I will be able to work until retirement age as long as I do not criticise the chancellor or members of the board. Before I am awarded tenure, I must monitor my behaviour very carefully. There are laws and regulations governing dismissal, but they seem useless sometimes. Administrators know they can fire academics without violating these laws. I feel uneasy when I criticise policy or the department head. I have some complaints, but I cannot raise them. Who would dare speak ill of senior staff before being awarded tenure?

Working Conditions

Academics' perspectives on their working conditions, such as their workload, resources, physical environment, and campus location, are presented in this subsection.

The majority of the interviewees thought that their workload was heavy. However, there was considerable variation in the number of hours worked, both within and

among groups. As academic work includes a complex variety of activities conducted both on and off their home campuses, it was difficult to precisely calculate the number of working hours, and it was necessary to clearly define the definition of “working hours” during the interviews. The academics who were interviewed argued that working hours included all hours devoted to teaching, research, administration, consultancy, and other activities, whether conducted on campus or off. One interviewee said:

We don't need to arrive at the office at nine o'clock. But the calculation of our total working hours should also include time spent outside the office. For example, it takes me nine hours to prepare a three-hour lecture. People say that academics enjoy a light workload. They only say this because they don't know the actual circumstances.

To determine the relative number of working hours allocated to each role, interviewees were asked to disclose how many hours they spent on teaching, research, administration and service. The amount of time spent on each kind of activity varied from individual to individual and group to group. However, most interviewees without managerial posts spent the majority of their time either teaching or doing research. One interviewee said:

I have lots of things to do. I lecture, conduct research, write research proposals, participate on several committees, consult with people outside the university, and so on. But I spend sixty or seventy percent of my time on either teaching or research, because I do not hold an administrative post.

Various characteristics of the institutions were likely to influence how academics spent their time. For example, not surprisingly, academics at research-oriented

universities were likely to allocate more time to research than those at other universities. The majority of interviewees from prestigious research-intensive universities did not spend more than six hours per week in lectures during class terms.

One interviewee said:

I spend six hours per week in lectures this semester. Most academics in our department spend a similar amount of time teaching. I know that our faculty's teaching load is a little bit less than at teaching-oriented universities. But please do not think that we are working shorter hours. Instead, we invest more time in research than other universities to meet more stringent research standards.

With the exception of these interviewees from research-oriented universities, the majority of interviewees were responsible for more than nine hours of teaching per week. One interviewee at a private university in a provincial area stated:

I am lecturing for fifteen hours per week this semester. I am too busy preparing the lectures to spend adequate time on research. I struggle every day. It takes more time than I expected to prepare lectures.

Some academics with excellent research performance enjoyed the benefits of reduced teaching loads. One interviewee from a public university said:

This semester I am teaching only two courses. In our university, academics who exceed the prescribed research achievement standards enjoy the benefit of a reduction in teaching hours.

The variation between individual academics in the number of hours spent on research was greater than the variation in the number of hours spent teaching. This is partly

because there are governmental and institutional regulations on teaching loads, but there are no such regulations on research loads. For example, it was recommended that academics teach nine hours per week with occasional exceptions for special cases, but no such rules govern research work. Consequently, while some interviewees were undertaking several research projects, others were doing no research at all. One interviewee at a public university said:

I spend most of my time conducting research. When I was first appointed as a university teacher, I had to spend a lot of time preparing lectures. But I do not have to spend so much time on teaching now, as I am accustomed to it. It is easier to prepare classes than it used to be. All I have to do in advance to prepare for lectures is slightly change my handouts and the material that I made last year.

Administration accounts for a considerable portion of academics' working time. Many interviewees felt that their administrative workload had increased rapidly. They thought that most paperwork should be allocated to administrative staff.

One interviewee stated:

I have to input students' test results into a computer by myself. A few years ago, this was a support worker's job. Now we have a mountain of paperwork to do. We don't have enough support staff. The university has cut clerical jobs as part of cost-saving measures.

Advances in information technology are thought to have increased the amount of clerical work done by academics. Electronic media such as the Internet, computers, and email are widely used for both work and education. Such new technology has been introduced in companies and governmental organisations partly for the

purpose of saving time and money. Universities are no exception to computerisation. Ironically, however, the adoption of new technology has resulted in an increase in academics' workloads. One interviewee said:

Every morning as soon as I arrive at the office, I must check and reply to e-mails. The more technology advances, the busier academics get. In the past, academics used only blackboards during lectures. These days, PowerPoint is essential. Preparing PowerPoint presentations takes considerable time and effort.

Many interviewees complained that paperwork was very time-consuming and regarded it as annoying. One interviewee said:

I wonder why I have to do paperwork. There is so much work to deal with that it has piled up like a mountain. It is very boring and something I dislike very much.

It seems that the amount of paperwork that academics have to do has increased. According to the interviewees, this paperwork varies from inputting students' test marks into computers to writing annual reports for performance evaluations. Also, participants were asked to write proposals for funding projects, for example, BK21, that is, Brain Korea 21, which is a MOE funding programme.

The increase in paperwork can be ascribed to the tendency for universities to be increasingly funded by external organisations. Recently, external organisations have tended to dispense funds selectively. Research projects funded by the central or local governments are accompanied by a lot of paperwork. As the amount of financial aid from governmental bodies varies according to assessment results, universities make every effort to receive high marks in assessments. One interviewee said:

Most external funds are allocated on the basis of competition at the individual or department level. We have to increase our efforts to make our proposals attractive. We must invest considerable amounts of time writing extensive applications for funds.

Furthermore, a new policy implemented by the government with the aim of reforming higher education has made academics busier than before. For example, MOE announced the introduction of the American-style law school system in 2008. One interviewee, whose academic field is law, reported that his department is very busy preparing for the introduction of the new legal education system. He said:

I have worked until midnight nearly every day for the past two years. I must go to the office even on weekends. My work seems endless. Preparing for the new legal education system has given academics in our department a lot of stress. I am still sick because of the stress resulting from hard work.

The total number of working hours that interviewees devoted to work differed within and among institutions. The longest work week reported by interviewees was seventy-five hours, and the shortest was forty hours. The majority of interviewees seemed to work between fifty to sixty-five hours a week.

Most interviewees in managerial positions stated that they spent the major portion of their working hours on administrative work. Those holding managerial posts enjoyed the benefits of reduced teaching loads. However, they felt that they lacked time for teaching and research. One interviewee at a managerial post said:

I am looking forward to going back to my laboratory. In six months I will be back to my normal job, i.e. teaching and research. I am so busy doing

administrative tasks that I cannot allocate adequate time to research. Holding an administrative post is a big impediment to research. After refusing the offer of an administrative post several times for fear of not having enough time to do research, I accepted the offer.

Many interviewees felt pressured to waste considerable time on various tasks over and above their traditional duties. They had to allocate working time to activities for graduates' employment, recruiting new students, and personal guidance of students in some universities. One interviewee at a university located in a middle-sized city said:

The university requires academics to pay more attention to the enhancement of graduates' employment prospects, increasing enrolment and reducing the incidence of dropouts. As the government uses employment and enrolment as indicators when making decisions on funding universities, academics need to spend their time this way.

The recent policy of publicising key information of individual universities was cited as a factor that stresses academics. As dictated by the policy, since 2008, every university has had to release certain information, including its financial status; the number of students enrolled there, the number of faculty members and the rate of student employment. In addition, the Korean government has proposed giving universities financial aid in accordance with performance indicators such as the rate of employment of graduates, the dropout rate, and the ratio of students to teachers. One interviewee said:

Working on employing graduates and recruiting students is a source of stress. Academics must devote more time to helping students to get jobs. The department is trying to develop courses that will be of use in finding jobs.

Furthermore, academics are encouraged to visit high schools to advertise our university. Universities with comparatively short histories, like ours, will suffer from a serious shortage of students in five or six years. I am not sure whether our university will exist in the next decade.

The academics who were interviewed were split over the question as to whether teaching or research was more stressful and difficult. The majority of interviewees said that research imposed more stress on them than teaching. One interviewee expressed this as follows:

As I have taught for more than two decades, I have no particular trouble with teaching. I am confident both in my grasp of the material I teach and in the way I teach it. It does not take me much time to prepare for lectures. But research is another story. Research is a kind of creative activity. Research consumes more time and energy than teaching. Research is most stressful for me.

By contrast, some academics felt that teaching was stressful than research. One interviewee said:

I find teaching more stressful than research. Research is more flexible. I can control my work schedule for research. Moreover, my research performance depends mainly on my efforts. Teaching performance, however, depends greatly on the quality of students as well as on my efforts.

The heavy workload did not necessarily lead to negative feelings among interviewees. One interviewee said:

I am very busy with my work. I sometimes stay in the laboratory until midnight. I also teach students twelve hours a week. Sometimes I feel tired because of my hard work, but I have no complaints about it.

Education resources were regarded as a factor that had an important impact on the quality of academics' working lives. In order for research to be carried out properly, appropriate resources should be provided. As examples, academics listed buildings, lecture halls, seminar rooms, books, chemicals, computers, telephone equipment, conference facilities and professional assistants such as graduate students and clerical staff as resources necessary for them to accomplish their tasks.

Many factors can explain the shortage of space. The number of university students has grown rapidly since the mid 1990s. However, the growing number of students has not been accompanied by proper investments in the infrastructure of universities. The priority in the governmental policy at that time was to provide more higher education in order to meet people's aspirations. With the goal of enhancing accessibility to higher education, the government softened the requirements for universities to provide facilities. Many universities admitted more students without appropriate investment to improve educational conditions.

Regardless of the interviewee's academic field, libraries were frequently noted as the most important factor when doing academic work. They felt that good libraries were particularly essential for research. One interviewee from a private university said:

Whenever I cannot find the books that I need to consult for specific research projects, I am really frustrated. Good collections of books, journals and proceedings are a fundamental and very important resource. I must set aside a considerable amount of money for buying books.

Many interviewees perceived electronic forms of data to be as essential as traditional forms. One interviewee said:

The importance of digitised data is growing over time. More data are available via the Internet. I can save time and money with electronic data as I do not have to go to libraries. However, I am often dismayed when I am denied access to Internet sites that provide electronic files. Our university needs to provide more access to electronic data.

Teaching aids have developed rapidly over the past few decades. Various kinds of devices are used during teaching sessions. These days, computers, the Internet, and projectors are indispensable when teaching. The majority of interviewees felt that the teaching aids offered were satisfactory in terms of both quantity and quality. In particular, a number of interviewees indicated a high level of satisfaction with computers and the Internet. This is partly attributable to government efforts to realise campus computerisation.

The types and amount of resources required for research varied according to the nature of the research that academics conducted. Research in the humanities was more likely to be carried out individually and to rely mainly on literature reviews. Therefore, research in the humanities mainly requires library resources. Meanwhile, research in the natural sciences and engineering mainly requires space, equipment for experimentation, and research assistants. Academics in artistic fields needed space for practice and exhibitions, and instruments and facilities for the performing arts.

Many interviewees identified the lack of eligible postgraduates as an obstacle to conducting effective research. In the natural sciences and engineering, more interviewees commented on the shortage of eligible postgraduates to assist them in conducting research. Interviewees in the fields of arts or humanities said that the role

of postgraduate students in their research was less significant than did those in the natural sciences, engineering, and medical sciences. The reason for the increased importance of postgraduates in the fields of natural sciences, engineering and medical sciences seemed to be that research in these fields relies primarily on experiments. Postgraduate students typically play important roles when conducting laboratory work. These students are often involved in conducting experiments as assistants in those fields. When academics get older, they are likely to encounter physical limitations. Able postgraduates are essential for conducting research that relies mainly on experimentation. Many interviewees complained that there were few eligible postgraduates. They said that the number of students was low and that their level of academic excellence was not good enough to be of help to them. One interviewee said:

In my field, postgraduates are indispensable for doing research. However, recruiting enough postgraduates is getting harder. Most students entering our university are graduates from other universities whose reputations are lower than ours. Moreover, there are few full-time graduate students in the department.

Meanwhile, comments made by interviewees in the humanities suggested that postgraduates were not very much essential when conducting research in these fields. This could be partly because of the research methods used in the humanities. Academics specialising in the humanities typically conduct their own research. One interviewee, whose field is the humanities, stated:

I don't desperately require research assistants to help me with my research. I usually conduct my research alone. My main research method is literature review. What I do need for my research is books and academic journals. I can obtain materials by visiting a library or logging in to Internet sites. I don't have any particular problem doing research without the aid of postgraduates.

Class size was also cited as a factor that had a great impact on working conditions. Excessively large classes led academics to feel dissatisfied with their teaching efforts. In one interview, one interviewee who taught a class of over one hundred students talked about the difficulties he encountered. He regretted not being able to pay enough attention to individual students because of the large class size. He said:

Meaningful interactions between teachers and students are becoming more difficult to accomplish. Active interaction between teachers and students is important because it increases the quality of education. I lecture in front of more than one hundred students. Students have hardly any opportunity to speak during lectures. If I gave every student one minute to voice their opinions, it would take two more hours to finish a lecture. Although I want to know students' ideas about the subject, I seldom ask them because of time constraints. These days, students have fewer opportunities to ask questions individually.

Moreover, the workload undertaken by academics has increased in proportion to the number of students in their classes. One interviewee said:

The amount of work I do is growing in proportion to the size of my classes. For example, if I am responsible for one hundred students, I must read and mark one hundred essays and one hundred exams.

Class size was related to the characteristics of the courses taught by academics. For example, introductory courses and undergraduate courses tended to be larger than other courses. Academics' opinions on their physical environment, including noise, ventilation, temperature, lighting and smell, were investigated in the interviews. The majority of interviewees reported that they had no problem with these factors, but others said that they did. One female interviewee said:

The heating and cooling system is not good in our university, as the buildings in our university are very old. The classrooms are very hot in summer and very cold in winter. In addition, my office is not soundproof, so I can hear a lot of noise from outside.

The geographical location of universities was found to have a considerable impact on academics' attitudes or feelings toward their jobs. Interviewees from universities in Seoul, whether public or private, were more likely to respond positively to questions asking how satisfied they were with the location of their home universities. Seoul is the hub of Korea with regard to economy, culture, education and politics. A quarter of the entire population live in an area of land that accounts for just 0.28 per cent of the nation's territory (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2006). Many academics from both public and private universities outside Seoul thought that their locations were disadvantageous, both to themselves and to their institutions, in various respects. Interviewees from universities in Seoul said that their location was good for their daily lives and activities related to work, such as attending conferences and visiting governmental organisations and companies in search of research funding. Those from universities outside Seoul complained that they did not enjoy quality medical, educational, or cultural services. One interviewee at a university in a provincial area stated:

When my son became sick, I took him to a hospital downtown. I don't think he received quality medical service. Local hospitals are not as good as hospitals in Seoul. They don't have the best doctors or facilities. I am considering transferring to a university in Seoul.

The location of academics' residences seemed to be important with regard to the education of their children. In Korea, it is well known that people have high aspirations for their children's education. Most interviewees thought that Seoul was better for the education of their children, noting that there were more quality schools and private institutions in Seoul than in any other area. Some interviewees from universities in middle-sized cities lived apart from their families during the work week in the interest of their children's education. One interviewee said:

I have been living alone here since I was hired. My wife and two children live in Seoul. I can see them only on weekends. Living alone here is uncomfortable and costly, but we chose to live separately in the interest of our children's future. With regard to our children's education, Seoul is better than this place. There are many excellent schools and private educational institutions. Students studying in Seoul have a good chance of going to a prestigious university.

The location of an academic's home university was an important determinant of the job opportunities available to the academic's spouse. Most interviewees had spouses who had paying jobs. The academics who were interviewed said that it was easier for their spouses to find good jobs in Seoul than in other areas. One interviewee stated:

My wife is working in Seoul, while I am working here in the countryside. So we live separately now. Living separately costs more and we want to live together. But that is not as easy as we thought. In small cities like this one, women cannot get decent jobs easily. In Seoul, there are many big companies, public organisations, hospitals, and schools at which they can seek employment.

Interpersonal Relationships

In this section, the interviewees' views on their personal relationships with their colleagues and supervisors are presented. Colleagues were named as an important factor that can contribute to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Academics can derive various benefits from their colleagues. Many interviewees were engaged in group research projects with their colleagues. Moreover, they could exchange ideas and information pertaining to their fields with their colleagues. One interviewee from a public university said:

My colleagues are very cooperative. I often conduct team research with my colleagues. We complement each other when doing team research. We can maximise our respective strengths. What's more, I can get feedback on my research from my colleagues. We can gain insights and learn useful information through discussions with each other.

However, academics' colleagues did not always have a positive influence on their working lives. Their relationships with their colleagues were a source of dissatisfaction for some interviewees. They cited various reasons for not getting along with their colleagues. One interviewee at a private university stated:

I get along with most of my colleagues. But I cannot tolerate one academic in my department. My relationships with the faculty member in my department have a critical influence on my working life. My department consists of just four faculty members. Therefore, I can't avoid meeting her unless one of us leaves this university.

Some of the academics who were interviewed complained that interpersonal relationships even had an inappropriate influence on formal decision-making within

the university. They resented that decisions on promotion or tenure were made on the basis of favouritism. One interviewee from a private university said:

The faculty here is divided into various factions according to private ties such as family, hometown and alma mater. Sometimes human ties influence human resources procedures. There is a rumour that some academics were selected for tenure or promotion mainly because of personal ties. This rumour is disquieting to the rest of us.

Several interviewees cited their small personal networks as one of the drawbacks of being an academic. A considerable number of the academics who were interviewed maintained active relationships with people outside their universities. However, other academics had few chances to meet people other than their students and colleagues at their respective universities. One interviewee said:

When I worked for the government, I was in contact with people from every walk of life, both within and outside the organisation. I frequently interacted with my colleagues, because public officials typically work together. I also had opportunities to meet various people outside the organisation. But it is difficult for academics to meet various people outside their universities. With limited opportunities to meet people, I am worried that I might fall behind the times.

Many of the academics who were interviewed frequently met colleagues in their respective departments to discuss affairs regarding teaching, research and administration. However, constructive interactions between academics from different departments typically did not occur. One interviewee said:

The relationships between colleagues in our department are good. My colleagues are cooperative. Whenever I consult with them or ask them for

advice, they are willing to help me. To me, my colleagues are as close as my family. Every day we go out for lunch together. There is good collegiality in our department. But there is little contact between departments.

Most interviewees who did not hold managerial posts paid little attention to hierarchy in the course of their work. This could be attributed to the organisational characteristics of universities. The organisation of Korean universities seems to fit the collegial model proposed by Millett (1962). Most interviewees regarded their relationships with other faculty members, including department heads and deans, as horizontal rather than vertical. One interviewee said:

The head of my department is a good guy. He is always trying to help me. He does not tell me what to do. He just gives advice when I ask for it. Whenever decisions are made at the department level, he tries to listen to everyone's opinion. He is an assistant rather than a supervisor. Whenever I encounter difficult issues, I feel free to consult with him about them. His advice is very helpful in helping me to overcome sensitive issues.

Some interviewees felt that indifference was pervasive among faculty members. They felt that they did not have many opportunities to collaborate with their colleagues. An alternative explanation is that they seemed to be too proud to ask directly for help. These characteristics of the academic profession create an atmosphere in which academics are indifferent about each other. One interviewee said:

When I began to work at this university, I struggled very hard because I was not accustomed to my new situation. It took a considerable amount of time to familiarise myself with academic life. I wanted my colleagues to teach me how to deal with matters regarding working life. But nobody did so. I had to waste a

lot of time even on routine tasks. Because the entire faculty seemed so busy and didn't seem to want to be disturbed, I could not ask them for help. I had to overcome the difficulties I encountered every day by myself. If I had had a colleague to guide me at that time, my work life would have been easier.

An academic's personal network beyond his or her home university was regarded as an indispensable factor in working effectively. The interviewees felt that various methods of communication with academics in the same discipline at universities other than their home universities enabled them to keep up to date with current work in their respective fields. One interviewee said:

Keeping in touch with scholars from other institutions is important. Communication with them enables me to stay on top of new knowledge. I can gain new ideas and insights through communication with my colleagues. I am trying to build more communication channels, both formal and informal. I spend a lot of time keeping in contact with academics from other universities.

Policy and Administration

University administration was identified as a factor contributing to dissatisfaction by the majority of interviewees. Reported satisfaction with participation in university decision-making processes was low. Academics complained that they had limited access to decision-making processes. One interviewee stated:

I am not kept well informed of what's going on in my university. Critical information about our university is shared only within a small group of people, mostly comprising those holding principal managerial posts. Main policies are decided on by a small group, a so-called "inner circle." Because only the most powerful people participate in making decisions, other faculty members,

representing the majority, feel isolated and helpless. My university operates in a very authoritarian way.

Moreover, even when academics were given opportunities to take part in making decisions, they felt that their opinions were not taken seriously. Academics felt that their participation in decision-making processes was merely token. The domains in which they took part in decision-making can be classified into academic affairs and managerial affairs (Schneider, 1985). They were usually required to participate in making decisions in the following fields: hiring new faculty members, setting curricula, deciding on the admission and graduation of students, allocating workload, allocating resources, granting promotion and tenure, and planning university development. The extent to which academics felt they had a personal impact on decisions that were made depended on the level of administration. Individual academics felt that they had an influence on administrative decisions at the departmental level to some extent. However, they felt that academics' opinions were not reflected in decisions that were made at the institutional level. One interviewee said:

The goals of our university are just slogans that have nothing to do with reality. Our university's policies are vague and ambiguous and have no relevance to our university. For example, one of the stated objects of our university is to become an excellent research university. However, this goal is not realistic considering the lack of support and poor facilities. The faculty at our university is not interested in the central policies, as they were drawn up by a small number of people.

The competence of university administration was held in poor regard by several interviewees. They thought that administrative staff had problems pertaining to both their attitudes and their abilities. In addition, they criticised the administration for being bureaucratic rather than service-oriented. They thought that administrative staff tended to react negatively when academics proposed new ideas. One interviewee said:

A bureaucratic attitude is a serious problem in our university. When I ask the department to provide even simple educational material, I am never sure when it will arrive. Too many signatures and complicated procedures are involved in order for me to obtain simple electronic gadgets.

In the interviews, it became evident that academics and administrative staff were mainly concerned with different issues. Administrative staff members tend to pay more attention to process and regulations than academics. This difference seemed to be a source of conflict between academics and administrative staff. One interviewee stated:

The administrative staff have good administrative skills. They faithfully follow processes and regulations. They handle administrative tasks smoothly. They do not bend or break any rules. However, they respond negatively when the university introduces a new policy and changes the system. They say, “Why do you want to change the system? It’s good the way it is.” They are afraid of and resist change.

Meanwhile, some interviewees had different views on administrative staff. They reported that the administrative staff were competent and open-minded. They regarded them as partners with whom they collaborated in the common interest of the institution. One interviewee said:

Our administrative staff members are very smart and kind. They are very supportive and trustworthy. Our business procedures are transparent. When the university administration considers introducing new systems or policies, all academics are informed about them. In addition, academics feel welcome to put forth their opinions, as the chancellor is open-minded. I believe he manages the university well.

Interviewees holding managerial post were more likely to evaluate administrative staff in a positive light than other interviewees. Most interviewees with managerial posts viewed administrative processes as transparent and relevant. They perceived information about their universities as being open to every academic. One interviewee holding a managerial post stated:

As in other fields in the public sector, the administrative systems of universities are very transparent. Most decision-making procedures are open to every member of the university. A powerful minority cannot manipulate the university according to its whim. All academics are kept informed of the way the university is being operated. Moreover, they are free to share their opinions.

Most interviewees said that performance evaluations were one of the primary influences on their lives. How do Korean academics perceive performance evaluations? All interviewees reported that their performance was reviewed periodically. Most of them agreed that performance evaluations were necessary. However, they displayed varying attitudes as to whether the performance evaluation systems of their respective universities were effective. They supposed that performance evaluations could yield information that would be helpful in improving the productivity and quality of teaching and research. In addition, performance

evaluations might be of use in swaying the opinions of students, taxpayers, and public and private organisations that fund universities. However, many interviewees complained that their evaluation systems needed to be changed. Excessive quantification was the most frequently cited problem with evaluation systems. One interviewee said:

Our current performance evaluation system is too quantitative. The number of published articles is the most important evaluation criterion, with quality regarded as a secondary issue. Under these circumstances, it is difficult to conduct in-depth research that takes a long time. Instead, most academics are inclined to conduct studies that can be completed within a short period. I have heard that some academics even deliberately divide up their research results in order to publish more papers.

However, some interviewees suggested that quantification was inevitable in performance evaluations. Although they acknowledged that quantification had its limitations, they felt that if qualitative aspects were emphasised too much, performance evaluations would not be objective. They advocated current performance evaluation systems as effective in improving the quality of education. One interviewee said:

Of course, qualitative aspects are important. We must not overlook quality when evaluating research. However, overemphasising qualitative aspects can render performance evaluations useless. Despite the limitations of quantification, there is no alternative to our present performance evaluation system.

Another issue affecting performance evaluations is the relative weight placed on teaching and research. These two activities are regarded as the primary tasks of

academics (Lorents, 1971). However, most interviewees felt that teaching excellence was not rewarded to the same extent as research performance. This could be because funding organisations, including governmental ones, tend to consider research performance the key indicator when determining funding for universities. Because indexes of research performance can be compared across universities, these indexes were preferred over other methods in the interests of convenience of comparison between universities. Besides, teaching performance is more difficult to evaluate and compare for multiple universities than research performance, as Gumpert (1997) suggested. One interviewee said:

Comparisons between universities, both across the nation and around the globe, are often made. Indicators of research are becoming more popular in national and international comparisons between universities. This is a consequence of the different ways that teaching and research are evaluated. Because research evaluation is more quantifiable and comparable, objectivity is easier to maintain than when evaluating teaching. In the case of research evaluation, both the number and quality of publications are considered. However, a greater number and variety of factors must be considered when evaluating teaching. For example, the number of students passing bar exams should not be used alone as an indicator of teaching performance because the quality of students varies between universities. Although all differences between students should be taken into consideration in order to accurately evaluate teaching performance, in reality it is almost impossible to consider all such differences. Thus, teaching performance is more controversial than research performance. Correspondingly, teaching evaluations are not often taken into consideration in campus-wide, national, or international comparisons.

Not surprisingly, research-oriented universities emphasise research performance more than any other activity. One interviewee from a research-oriented university stated:

What our university aims for is excellence in research. In keeping with our mission statement of becoming a world class research-oriented university, the standard for research performance has been raised. I try to do my best to meet the standard. I don't pay much attention to teaching. Teaching performance is not an important aspect of performance evaluation. If an academic is not good at teaching but has an excellent research program, he or she is still respected.

Meanwhile, even interviewees from universities which were ostensibly teaching-oriented stated that their universities emphasised research performance. They said that even though their universities had formally declared teaching as the first priority, research was in reality the most important factor in performance evaluations. A newly appointed academic was embarrassed after she found that research was the most critical factor in performance evaluations, contrary to the university's official position. She said:

I remember being very embarrassed when I received the results of my first performance evaluation. There was little variation in the scores for teaching performance among academics. Most academics were awarded the highest possible score in the area of teaching performance. However, there was a wide range of variation in the scores awarded for research performance. I thus discovered that research performance is a critical factor in overall performance evaluation. I was shocked to find out that the efforts I had made to prepare for my classes went unrewarded.

Interestingly, many universities, including those that seemed to be teaching-oriented universities, raised the importance of research as a criterion for determining promotion and tenure to the same level as in research-oriented universities. In addition, many interviewees said that their universities seemed indifferent to the link between teaching and research. Although teaching and research were officially allocated the same weight in performance evaluations in many universities, teaching had little actual impact on performance evaluations. One interviewee stated:

The same credits are allocated respectively to teaching and research in performance evaluations. But teaching evaluation indexes are superficial and simply quantitative. For example, the indexes measure how many hours a teacher spends in class, or how many hours a teacher has missed. These indexes do not really show who good teachers are. Most academics can get the highest score in this area without paying much attention to teaching.

Overall Job Satisfaction

Most Korean academics interviewed were likely to be somewhat or fairly satisfied with their jobs on the whole. However, a few academics were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Sixteen interviewees were somewhat satisfied and six were very satisfied, while three were somewhat dissatisfied. One interviewee showing a high level of overall job satisfaction said:

I am very happy just because I am an academic. If I were given the opportunity to start all over again, I would still choose this job. I have never regretted choosing this career path.

Another interviewee showed his positive attitude toward his job, stating that his present job was close to his imagined ideal job. He indicated that his current position was not perfect, but matched what he had expected of his ideal job fairly well. He expressed overall satisfaction with his job, saying:

It is wonderful to teach and conduct research at a university. Ever since I was young, I have dreamed of being an academic. Even if the salary is somewhat low, other aspects of the job are excellent. For example, academics have more freedom than any other job. I have a very flexible schedule. I don't have to go to the office by nine o'clock. I control my work schedule. I can teach students in my own way.

One interviewee reported high overall satisfaction with his job, answering the question "If you had the chance to choose your job again, would you choose your present job?" as follows:

I have a son and a daughter. I will recommend being an academic to my daughter when she considers her career path, but I won't recommend it to my son. Being an academic is a wonderful job for women, but not for men. Academics can enjoy a lot of freedom at work. In addition, they enjoy high social status and good job security. I think being an academic would be an excellent job for my daughter. But teaching at a university is not an excellent job for men. Holding a job in another sector, such as the commercial sector, is more promising for men than being an academic. Nowadays, companies lead technological development. Furthermore, working in the private sector provides opportunities to receive better pay.

He considered being an academic to be the best job for women, but not for men. He thought that life as an academic was not the ideal job for men. Working for a private company was seen as more attractive than working in academe with regard to opportunities for professional development and pay. Professional development and pay were likely contributors to his attitude toward his job.

On the contrary, a female interviewee thought being an academic was not suitable for women. She suggested that women had difficulty maintaining the balance between work and family. The academic work itself was excellent, but the heavy workload was a struggle for her, both at the workplace and home. She stated:

Academic work is not easy for a woman to do. Being an academic is a very good job for men, but it is not good for women. Teaching and research take a lot of time and require hard work. A woman with family has trouble doing both office work and housework. Every day I work too hard, both at the workplace and at home. I should keep abreast with research trends in my academic field. If I don't study hard, I am left behind as a scholar. In Korea, the tasks of raising children and doing the laundry and cooking are traditionally allocated to the woman. Because of the responsibility to do housework, a woman has more difficulty keeping up on her job as an academic than a man.

Intentions to Leave the Present Job

Many previous studies suggest that workers who report low levels of job satisfaction are more likely to leave their present jobs than other workers (Price, 2006). Is this suggestion relevant in the context of higher education in Korea? Most interviewees wanted to keep working at their present universities, while some interviewees showed

the intention to leave their jobs. The extent to which academics were satisfied with their jobs was negatively correlated with their intention to leave their present jobs. Interviewees who were less satisfied with their jobs overall seemed to be considering seeking other jobs.

However, not all interviewees who were considering changing their jobs reported low levels of satisfaction with their current jobs. In addition to low overall satisfaction, the availability of an alternative job could account for the intention to leave one's present job. Most respondents expressing the intention to leave their current jobs were considering academic posts at other universities as alternatives. One interviewee who showed a low level of job satisfaction said:

Private universities in provincial areas have limits on their development. We have serious problems attracting bright students. The preference for universities in Seoul is increasing over time. But I have not thought about moving to another university with better conditions, as I have few alternatives. I have worked for decades at this university. If I transferred to another university, I would have to start from scratch. I don't want to lose the various benefits I enjoy at this university.

Some interviewees reporting low levels of job satisfaction had the intention to leave their current universities. The prospect for development in their respective fields was the most frequently cited factor leading academics to consider leaving their present universities. They wanted to move to other universities that could afford to provide better conditions. One interviewee stated:

I dream of being a prominent researcher in my field. However, I have found it difficult to realise my dream at this university. Because I have more work than I

can handle, I cannot spend enough time doing research. I am scheduled to teach seven courses this semester. In addition, I have to visit high schools to promote our university. Moreover, there are few qualified postgraduates to assist me in my research. I have recognised that I cannot develop to my full potential here. If an opportunity comes along, I would like to transfer to a university that can provide better conditions.

Meanwhile a few interviewees wanted to move to a university in Seoul in order to live together with their families. They lived apart from their families because of their children's education and their spouses' employment. One interviewee said:

Living separately is very inconvenient and costs a lot. I am seeking a post at a university in Seoul. I am hoping to move to a university in Seoul.

Findings from the Questionnaires

Satisfaction with Various Job Aspects

The questionnaire included thirty-nine items intended to measure job satisfaction among Korean academics. The descriptive statistics of responses to all the question items are presented in Appendices. For the convenience of analysis, the data were reduced. The above items were grouped into ten categories corresponding to job aspects: satisfaction with work, academic freedom, professional development, recognition, pay, job security, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, policy and administration, and overall job satisfaction. These categories were based on analysis of interview data.

The statistics shown in Table 5.1 pertain to the question “How satisfied are academics in Korea with each job aspect and with their jobs as a whole?” These scores were respectively assigned as values on the Likert scale. The meaning of the values is: “1= very dissatisfied”, 2=“dissatisfied”, 3=“neither dissatisfied nor satisfied”, 4=“satisfied” and 5=“very satisfied”. How are non-integer scores, e.g. 3.42, interpreted? To date there has been no generally agreed-upon rule. In the thesis, scores over 2.0 but under 2.5 were interpreted to mean “somewhat dissatisfied” and scores 2.5 or over but under 3.0 “slightly dissatisfied”. On the other hand, scores over 3.0 but under 3.5 “slightly satisfied” and 3.5 or over but under 4.0 “somewhat satisfied”. The reason for this is that scores higher than 3.00 can be safely assumed to be positive, whereas those lower than 3.00 can be safely assumed to be negative. And scores over 3.5 or over but under 4.0 are closer to 4.0 rather than to 3.0, whereas scores over 2.0 but under 2.5 closer to 2.0 and scores 2.5 or over but under 3.0 closer to 3.0.

Table 5.1: Satisfaction with Various Job Aspects (Survey Results)

Job Aspect	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Work	498	3.67	.52663
Academic freedom	498	3.48	.60971
Professional Development	498	3.67	.61073
Recognition	498	3.55	.53052
Pay	498	2.71	.73550
Job security	498	3.34	.79355
Working conditions	498	3.05	.57762
Interpersonal relationships	498	3.31	.59792
Policy and Administration	498	2.95	.64372

As shown in Table 5.1, the mean scores for satisfaction with specific job aspects ranged from 2.71 (pay) to 3.67 (both work and professional development). Job aspects for which satisfaction scores are higher than 3.5 were: work (3.67), professional

development (3.67), and recognition (3.55). Meanwhile, pay (2.71) and policy and administration (2.95) scored lower than 3.00. Satisfaction with academic freedom (3.48), job security (3.34), interpersonal relationships (3.31) and working conditions (3.05) ranged between 3.00 and 3.50.

Detailed findings pertaining to satisfaction with specific job aspects are presented below. The mean score for satisfaction with work are 3.67, which means that the respondents were somewhat satisfied with their work. Work satisfaction consisted of seven items. Respondents showed differing levels of satisfaction for different items categorised under work satisfaction. They showed comparatively high satisfaction with being enjoyable at work (3.87), their interest in work (3.84), a sense of achievement (3.81), importance of work (3.61), and the compatibility between their values and work (3.76). Meanwhile, they were slightly satisfied with their opportunities to use their abilities (3.49) and with authority they wielded (3.29).

Survey respondents reported that they were slightly satisfied with their academic freedom (3.48). The items are categorised under satisfaction with academic freedom were: freedom of research (3.59), freedom of teaching (3.56), and freedom to voice their opinions (3.28). The results showed that respondents felt free of restrictions while doing tasks. However, they did not enjoy much freedom when it comes to expressing their opinions.

Survey respondents were somewhat satisfied with their jobs from the aspect of professional development (3.67). Satisfaction with professional development consisted of five items: satisfaction with career prospects for the future (3.75), opportunities to develop their abilities (3.91), support for professional development

(3.67), opportunities for promotion (3.55), and criteria on which promotion decisions were made (3.48). These results indicated that respondents were optimistic about their futures and expected to advance in their fields in due course. They were mildly pleased to have the opportunity to develop their professional capability in their respective fields. In addition, they were somewhat satisfied with their jobs from the aspect of promotion.

Respondents were somewhat satisfied with the recognition they received (3.55). Satisfaction with recognition consisted of three items: social status of their jobs (3.69), reputation with the public (3.46), and recognition within the university (3.51). The above results indicated that they somewhat enjoyed high social status of the job and reputation with public, and that they perceived themselves as valued by other members of the university community, such as their colleagues, administrative staff, and students.

Respondents were slightly content with job security (3.34). Satisfaction with job security consisted of two items: freedom from fear of being laid off and freedom from fear of being treated unfairly, for which the scores were 3.54 and 3.14 respectively. The gap between the mean scores for the two items was considerable. This discrepancy indicated that the respondents were more worried about being treated unfairly than they were about being laid off. This will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Satisfaction with pay scored the lowest (2.71) level among the nine aspects. All three items pertaining to satisfaction with pay were below 3.00: satisfaction with the amount of pay (2.70), with criteria on which pay decisions were based (2.70), and

with additional benefits (2.73).

The level of satisfaction with working conditions was very close to being neither dissatisfied nor satisfied (3.05). There were six items pertaining to satisfaction with working conditions: facilities (2.88), abilities and attitudes of students (3.19), physical environment (3.13), services of assistants (2.83), workload (2.93), and university location (3.32). Respondents were slightly dissatisfied with facilities, with the resources available for work, and with their workloads, whereas they reported slight satisfaction with the quality of students, with their physical environment, and with the locations of their respective universities.

Survey respondents reported slight satisfaction with their interpersonal relationships (3.31). They maintained cooperation with their colleagues (3.69), and regarded their colleagues as competent in their fields (3.44). However, satisfaction with their interaction with their supervisors (3.15) and with support from their supervisors (2.97) was comparatively low.

Respondents were slightly dissatisfied with policy and administration (2.95). They showed the second lowest level of job satisfaction in this category. Five survey items addressed satisfaction with policy and administration. These items are: satisfaction with policies of the university (2.76), opportunities to participate in making decisions (2.74), leadership (3.12), access to information of the university (3.04), and performance evaluation system (3.09).

Overall Job Satisfaction

A simple average of the satisfaction scores for each job aspect would not necessarily be representative of overall job satisfaction. This is because the extent of the impact on overall job satisfaction differs for different job aspects. Therefore, it would be misleading to simply total the satisfaction scores for each job aspect and accept the result as an indicator of overall job satisfaction. In this study, the average (3.29) of the satisfaction scores for each job aspect was not taken as an indicator of overall job satisfaction. Instead, the mean score of a single item asking about overall satisfaction (3.53) was used. This overall satisfaction score (3.53) was higher than the average of the other scores (3.29). Responses to the question measuring overall job satisfaction are given below, expressed as both absolute numbers and percentages.

Table 5.2: Distribution of Overall Job Satisfaction (Survey Results)

Overall job Satisfaction (Likert Score)	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
Very dissatisfied (1)	3	.6	.6
Dissatisfied (2)	33	6.6	7.2
Neither Satisfied nor dissatisfied (3)	182	36.5	43.8
Satisfied (4)	254	51.0	94.8
Very satisfied (5)	26	5.2	100.0

Respondents who were satisfied with their jobs made up the largest group (51.0 percent). Very few respondents (0.6 percent) were very dissatisfied with their jobs overall. Those who were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied accounted for 36.5 percent of all respondents, while those who were very satisfied comprised 5.2 percent thereof.

To investigate the relationship between satisfaction with each job aspect and overall job satisfaction, the present researcher conducted Pearson’s correlation coefficient test. The correlation coefficients between satisfaction with each job aspect and overall job satisfaction are presented in Table 5.3. All correlations were significant to a p value of 0.01. Satisfaction with work was most closely correlated with overall job satisfaction (0.756), followed by satisfaction with academic freedom (0.697). By contrast, satisfaction with job security was most weakly correlated with overall satisfaction. The findings showed that intrinsic factors (work, academic freedom, advancement and recognition) were more strongly related with overall job satisfaction than did extrinsic factors (pay, job security, working conditions, interpersonal relationships and administration).

Table 5.3: The Correlation Coefficients between Satisfaction with Each Job Aspect and Overall Job Satisfaction (Survey Results)

	W	F	A	R	P	J	WC	IR	Ad	O
W	1									
F	.769**	1								
D	.783**	.638**	1							
R	.729**	.654**	.611**	1						
P	.480**	.487**	.492**	.433**	1					
J	.522**	.478**	.640**	.505**	.464**	1				
WC	.625**	.602**	.551**	.546**	.647**	.436**	1			
IR	.545**	.675**	.472**	.524**	.433**	.317**	.524**	1		
Ad	.608**	.634**	.566**	.559**	.636**	.494**	.683**	.673**	1	
O	.756**	.697**	.685**	.635**	.524**	.483**	.575**	.524**	.583**	1

NB: 1. ** denotes significance to a p value of .001 (two-tailed)
2. W=work, F=academic freedom, D=Professional Development, R=recognition, P=pay, J=job security, WC=working conditions, IR=interpersonal relationships, Ad=Policy and Administration, O=overall job satisfaction

Comparing Findings from the Interviews and the Questionnaires

The interview and questionnaire survey were deployed to answer the research question: “How satisfied are academics at Korean universities with their jobs?” To summarise, the majority of interviewees expressed satisfaction with their work, academic freedom, recognition, and professional development. In addition, many interviewees were slightly satisfied with their job security, and were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their interpersonal relationships and working conditions. In contrast, most interviewees reported moderate dissatisfaction with their pay and with policy and administration.

Similar results were also found in the questionnaire data. To measure the extent to which they were satisfied with each aspect of their jobs, the academics were asked to rate their satisfaction on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = “very unsatisfied”, through 3 = “neither satisfied nor dissatisfied”, to 5 = “very satisfied”. The levels of satisfaction with various job aspects among academics were (in parentheses): satisfaction with work (3.67), professional development (3.67), recognition (3.55), academic freedom (3.48), job security (3.34), interpersonal relationships (3.31), working conditions (3.05), policy and administration (2.95), and pay (2.71). In short, satisfaction with the eight job aspects was found to be between the level of “neither satisfied nor dissatisfied” (3.0) and the level of “satisfied” (4.0), which might be regarded as slightly or somewhat satisfied. The level of satisfaction with two job aspects was between the level of “neither satisfied nor dissatisfied” (3.0) and the level of “dissatisfied” (2.0), which might be regarded as slightly dissatisfied.

With regard to overall job satisfaction, the majority of interviewees expressed considerable satisfaction with their job on the whole, saying, for example: “This is the best job I could hope for”, “I would choose to be an academic if I had to choose my career again”, “Being an academic makes me very happy”, and “I am very proud to say that I am an academic”. The questionnaire data also provided evidence that academics were somewhat satisfied with their job on the whole. The average score for overall job satisfaction was 3.53, which means that they were somewhat satisfied with their job overall.

Conclusion

In consideration of these findings from the interview and the questionnaire data, academics at Korean universities were found to be somewhat satisfied with their work, recognition and academic freedom, and slightly content with job security and interpersonal relationships. In contrast, they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their working conditions, and were slightly dissatisfied with university policy and administration and with pay.

In the next chapter, research findings on comparison of job satisfaction between particular groups will be presented.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH FINDINGS: COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION BETWEEN GROUPS

Introduction

This chapter aims to compare job satisfaction between groups. Additionally, if there is any difference in job satisfaction between groups, the reasons will be identified. Both qualitative and quantitative research data were used for the comparison of job satisfaction between groups. Groups are categorised according to demographic and institutional factors.

Comparison by Gender

A considerable amount of research has been conducted to identify differences in job satisfaction of academics according to gender (August and Waltman, 2004; Bronstein and Farnsworth, 1998; Koo, 2007; Menges and Exum, 1983; Okpara *et al.*, 2005; Shim and Ryu, 2004). Earlier mentioned, the results of these studies are not consistent with each other. Some researchers reported that female workers were less satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts, while others concluded that there was no difference in job satisfaction between the genders.

Eighteen male and seven female academics' interview data were analysed to identify whether gender-related differences in overall job satisfaction existed. Interviewees were categorised into three groups: the highly satisfied group, the somewhat satisfied

group, and the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied group. Seven male academics fell into the highly satisfied group, ten into the somewhat satisfied group, and one into the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied group. Meanwhile, one female academic fell into the highly satisfied group, five into the somewhat satisfied group, and one into the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied group. No one of either gender was found to be dissatisfied with his or her job overall. The responses indicated that the proportion of interviewees in the highly satisfied group was higher among male academics than among their female counterparts. Meanwhile, the proportion of interviewees in the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied group was higher for female academics than for their male counterparts. The interview data indicated the existence of a gender difference pertaining to overall job satisfaction. Male interviewees were more satisfied with their jobs on the whole than were their female counterparts. The questionnaire survey also showed that female academics (3.39) were less satisfied with their jobs as a whole than their male counterparts (3.57).

With regard to satisfaction with various job aspects, some differences were found between male and female academics. The data from both the interviews and the questionnaires indicated the presence of significant gender differences in satisfaction with various aspects. Female academics who participated in the study were less satisfied with the nature of their work, opportunities for development, academic freedom, job security, and working conditions than were their male peers.

As shown in Table 6.1, the one-way ANOVA test revealed that male and female questionnaire respondents reported different levels of satisfaction with various job aspects. Male respondents were more satisfied with eight of the ten job aspects than were their female counterparts.

Table 6.1: Comparison of Job Satisfaction by Gender (Survey Results)

Job Aspect	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Work	M	398	3.70	.52695	6.615	.010
	F	100	3.55	.51032		
Academic Freedom	M	398	3.51	.61071	6.730	.010
	F	100	3.34	.58791		
Professional Development	M	398	3.72	.58682	11.588	.001
	F	100	3.49	.66996		
Recognition	M	398	3.57	.52832	2.778	.096
	F	100	3.48	.53459		
Pay	M	398	2.71	.74373	.011	.917
	F	100	2.71	.70537		
Job Security	M	398	3.40	.74705	13.927	.000
	F	100	3.08	.91486		
Working Conditions	M	398	3.07	.58595	4.098	.043
	F	100	2.94	.53333		
Interpersonal Relationships	M	398	3.31	.61197	.352	.553
	F	100	3.35	.54006		
Policy and Administration	M	398	2.96	.64577	.836	.361
	F	100	2.90	.63595		
Overall Satisfaction	M	398	3.57	.72649	4.576	.033
	F	100	3.39	.69486		

The difference in satisfaction with the job aspects pertaining to work, professional development, academic freedom, job security, and working conditions, as well as with overall job satisfaction, was significant ($p < 0.05$). However, there was no significant difference between the genders with respect to satisfaction with recognition, pay, or interpersonal relationships.

Female questionnaire respondents reported higher satisfaction than their male counterparts only in the area of interpersonal relationships, although the numerical difference was not found to be significant ($p > 0.05$). Considering that female

academics reported lower satisfaction in most job aspects, the finding that female respondents were more satisfied with interpersonal relationships than their male colleagues is particularly noteworthy. This finding is in line with results of the study by Murray and Atkinson (1981), whose study suggested that female workers were more satisfied with their interpersonal relationships than their male counterparts. According to the study, the two genders attach different importance to varying job aspects. The study suggested that males value advancement more, whereas females value their relationships with their co-workers more and that women try to get along with their colleagues rather than compete with them.

This study investigated the reasons for these gender-based differences in job satisfaction. Female interviewees reported that they did not perceive any open discrimination against women in the workplace. One woman interviewee said:

I do not believe that there is any noticeable gender discrimination. Pay is determined based on length of service. Promotion and tenure decisions are also made on the basis of number of years of service, and performance evaluations rely mainly on quantitative measurement. Those who meet the criteria can get promoted or be granted tenure regardless of gender or age.

However, a considerable number of female academics claimed that they were more likely to encounter invisible obstacles in their career paths just because they were female. And female academics were less satisfied with their working conditions than were their male peers. This may be attributable simply to the different conditions in which academics worked.

According to an OECD report, Korean women work longer hours than anyone else in the OECD countries (cited by Yoo, 2007). Academics do not seem to be any exception. Academics are required to conduct complex work under demanding circumstances. Regardless of gender, the majority of interviewees felt that their workloads were heavy.

Women had slightly heavier teaching loads than men (See Table 6.2). According to governmental regulations, nine hours of teaching per week is standard. While 54.5 percent of males undertook nine hours of classes or more per week, 66.0 percent of females undertook an equivalent teaching load. However, a light teaching load does not necessarily mean a light overall workload. Academics with lower teaching loads are typically asked to do more in other areas.

Table 6.2: Teaching Load Distribution by Gender (Survey Results)

Gender	N, %	Teaching Hours Per Week					
		Under 3	3- 5	6-8	9-11	12-14	15 or Over
M	N	17	37	127	145	60	12
	%	4.3%	9.3%	31.9%	36.4%	15.1%	3.0%
F	N	8	6	20	44	15	7
	%	8.0%	6.0%	20.0%	44.0%	15.0%	7.0%

Female interviewees reported finding it more difficult to accomplish their tasks, as they were faced with the dual responsibilities of work and caring for their families. In other words, women felt that the heavy workload made it more difficult for them to maintain a balance between work and home life than their male counterparts, because female academics do a greater share of the housework. This was clear in an interview with a female academic whose husband was also an academic. She said:

Female academics, in particular those who have babies to look after, are much burdened both at home and at the university. Taking caring of babies reduces the amount of attention I can pay to my work. On the weekend, I am busy with housework that I have postponed all week. I envy my husband, who can focus on work without being interrupted by childcare.

This is in line with the findings of a previous study (Shin, 2009). According to the study, female academics in Korea accept most of the responsibility for childcare, and their husbands were not very involved in the childcare. Although most of the female academics who were surveyed (89.7 percent) were aware of the option of maternity leave, only 6.9 percent of respondents had used such leave. She added that societal and workplace cultures had a great effect on the use of childcare services. In addition, the male-centred atmosphere of academe could be a cause of a gender difference in job satisfaction. Universities are among those organisations that have a long history of gender-biased culture. Relics of male-dominated culture are still found in academe in spite of various recent efforts to dispel the gender-biased climate.

According to the interview data, women academics had limited access to information sources, both within and outside the university, compared to their male counterparts. Critical information has circulated within the university through both informal and formal channels. Academics have exchanged information within and beyond their home universities in various ways. However, female interviewees found it harder to stay informed than their male counterparts for various reasons. First, they reported having difficulty taking part in informal meetings because they had household chores to do after returning home from work. Moreover, male-centred culture discouraged female academics from participating in social gatherings, which were usually

accompanied by male-oriented activities such as drinking. Therefore it was not easy for female academics to become acquainted with their male peers through social gatherings. Reduced opportunities to communicate with colleagues could mean, for instance, reduced access to important information on topics such as research grants and the tenure process. Limited access to information made it harder for female academics to fulfil their duties properly. One female interviewee said:

As social gatherings are usually accompanied by drinking and continue until midnight, I am not willing to participate in such activities. However, important information about university policies, research grants, promotion, etc. is exchanged at such meetings. Thus I cannot take advantage of social gatherings as a channel for exchanging ideas or information.

This supported the results of a previous study (Bagilhole, 1993), which suggested that female workers found it difficult to work with their male colleagues because of the lack of informal communication networks.

Another interview corroborated the finding that female academics had fewer formal communication channels, both inside and outside their home universities. One female interviewee from a nursing department said:

Our department consists entirely of female academics. Communication between academics is very active within our department. But we are not well informed at the level of the entire institution. We are seldom in contact with academics from other departments and faculties.

The subordinate positions of female academics within their universities could be a disadvantage for them in the workplace. Female academics were less likely to occupy

managerial posts or rank as highly as their male colleagues. According to the questionnaire data, 70.9 percent of male participants were currently holding or had previously held managerial posts, which was true for only 50.0 percent of their female counterparts. Consequently, fewer female academics had opportunities to take part in university decisions pertaining to employment, promotion, tenure, pay, assignment of workloads and performance evaluations, because higher-ranking academics or those holding managerial posts were more likely to be members of committees that handle personnel issues.

Table 6.3 shows that, on average, male academics held more senior positions than their female counterparts. While more male academics (45.5 percent) held the title of professor than any other rank, assistant professor (43.0 percent) made up the largest single group of female academics. One possible explanation why male respondents occupied higher academic ranks is the difference in age representation between the genders. Male respondents were, on average, older than their female counterparts. As mentioned, age is an important factor related to promotion. Consequently, male academics were more likely to hold higher posts than their female colleagues.

Table 6.3: Academic Rank Distribution by Gender (Survey Results)

Gender	N, %	Academic Rank			
		Instructor	Assistant Prof.	Associate Prof.	Professor
M	N	22	84	111	181
	%	5.5%	21.1%	27.9%	45.5%
F	N	14	43	31	12
	%	14.0%	43.0%	31.0%	12.0%

Table 6.4 shows that male questionnaire respondents were better paid than their female counterparts. Men who were paid under \$50,454 accounted for 12.3 percent of

all male respondents. In contrast, women receiving this level of pay accounted for 34.0 percent of all female respondents. While 48.0 percent of males were paid \$70,635 or over, just 24.0 percent of females were paid in this range. The gap in pay between the genders might be attributable to the different age distributions. As most universities follow seniority-based pay systems, age has a powerful impact on pay, as was shown above.

Table 6.4: Gender Comparison by Pay (Survey Results)

Gender	N, %	Annual Pay			
		Under \$50,454	\$50,454- Under \$70,635	\$70,635- Under \$90,817	\$90,817 or Over
M	N	49	158	120	71
	%	12.3%	39.7%	30.2%	17.8%
F	N	34	42	16	8
	%	34.0%	42.0%	16.0%	8.0%

Surprisingly, there was no difference in satisfaction with pay despite the pay gap between the genders according to the questionnaire data (See Table 6.1). The questionnaire data showed that female participants were paid less than their male counterparts (Table 6.4). This means that the gap in actual pay between the two genders did not lead to a gap in pay satisfaction between the genders.

This study investigated why female participants reported being just as satisfied with their pay as their male colleagues even though they were paid less. One possible reason is a gender-based difference in the importance attached to various job aspects (Beutell and Brenner, 1986). Workers compromise certain job aspects for others they value more (Firestone, Harris and Lambert, 1999). For example, a worker might forego good working conditions in favour of a high salary. One study (Stamps and

Cruz, 1994) suggests that women are less interested in remuneration than men. This is in line with a study by Mitchell (1984). The study suggested that once their pay has reached a certain level, women are less likely to work more in exchange for additional income than are men.

Other studies (Brockner and Adsit, 1986; Corsby, 1982; Greenberg and MaCarty, 1990) suggested that there is a gender-based gap in attitudes toward inequity between the genders. These studies showed that female workers are more tolerant of inequity than their male counterparts. One possible explanation for the gap in tolerance of inequity between men and women academics is that women use other women as a reference group to compare how they are treated. Another possible explanation for reason why female workers are more tolerant of inequity than their male counterparts might be the difference in the importance placed on pay between the genders.

The interview question, “What are your primary criteria when choosing a job?” helped identify whether or not there was any difference in the importance that the two genders assigned to various job aspects. Most interviewees, regardless of gender, valued the nature of their work, recognition of achievement, professional growth, and opportunities to help others. Beside these aspects, which were valued by both male and female interviewees in common, several males cited job security and pay as important considerations when choosing their job. However, no female interviewee mentioned either pay or job security as a main consideration when choosing her job. In short, the interview data supported the notion that the genders place different importance on various job aspects.

The notion that the perceived difference in gender roles accounts for the different importance that male and female academics place on specific job aspects was analysed on the basis of the interview data. Male interviewees felt a stronger sense of responsibility to make a living than their female counterparts. Earning a livelihood for the family has been viewed as the role of the male in Korea, as in other countries. The interview data showed that this view is prominent in Korea, where the tradition of highly differentiated gender roles continues to the present day.

All female interviewees had other sources of incomes aside from their salaries. All of them had husbands who had paid jobs. In contrast, some male interviewees did not have any source of income other than their own salaries. In other words, all females had husbands who were earning money through their work, while some male interviewees had wives without paid jobs. Academics who depended on their salaries as their main source of income tended to value financial aspects more than those who did not.

To explore the reasons for the differences in job satisfaction between the genders, the demographic characteristics of both genders were compared in Table 6.5. On average, male respondents were older than their female counterparts. The male respondents were less well-represented (16.1 percent) in the under-40 age group than were their female counterparts (26.0 percent). Meanwhile, male respondents (34.7 percent) were better represented in the 50-or-over age group than were their female counterparts (16.0 percent). One of the reasons for the differences in age distribution between the genders could be the increase in the number of female academics resulting from affirmative action policies promulgated by the Korean government.

Table 6.5: Age Distribution by Gender (Survey Results)

Gender	N, %	Age		
		under 40	40-49	50 or over
M	N	64	196	138
	%	16.1%	49.2%	34.7%
F	N	26	58	16
	%	26.0%	58.0%	16.0%

Affirmative action to promote the hiring of female academics was introduced in 2003 as a measure to achieve equal gender representation among faculty members. In addition, the government is taking action in universities at which the gender ratio of academics is more imbalanced than is permissible according to governmental guidelines by providing incentives such as financial aid. The increasing number of female graduate students is also contributing to the growing number of female academics. Female postgraduates accounted for 23.7 percent of those who received doctoral degrees in 2005, up from 20 percent in 2002.

Table 6.6: Male and Female Academics Hired Annually

Year	Number of Male Academics	Number of Female Academics	Percent of Female Academics
2002	1,851	481	20.6
2003	2,655	647	19.6
2004	2,745	844	23.5
2005	3,132	1,040	24.9
2006	3,217	1,046	24.5
2007	2,752	997	23.4
2008	2,898	1,056	26.7

The growing proportion of new female academics (See Table 6.6) contributed to the decrease in the average age. This is because new female academics are younger than incumbent academics.

Comparison by Age

This study found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and age. The data from both the interview and the questionnaire indicated that older participants were more satisfied with specific job aspects and with their jobs overall than were their younger counterparts. This finding is consistent with those of previous studies (Near, Rice and Hunt, 1978; Rhodes, 1983; Ronen, 1978), which also suggested that job satisfaction increases with age.

Table 6.7 showed the relationship between job satisfaction and age. Differences between age groups with respect to satisfaction with work, advancement, recognition, and job security were significant to a p level of 0.05. Tukey's Test was performed to realise pairwise comparisons of group means. With respect to satisfaction with professional development, the under-40 age group differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) from both the 40-49 age group and the 50-or-older age group. The under-40 age group also differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) from the 50-or-older age group in the aspect of satisfaction with recognition.

In terms of satisfaction with job security, significant ($p < 0.05$) differences were found between all three age groups: under 40, 40-49, and 50-or-more. To determine why differences in job satisfaction existed between the age groups, further analysis was conducted. Whether or not there was any relationship between age and any of pay, academic rank, managerial post, and number of teaching hours is presented below.

Table 6.7: Comparison of Job Satisfaction by Age (Survey Results)

Job aspect	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	F	Sig.	Tukey		
							A	B	C
Work	A	90	3.51	.49264	5.769	.003	-		**
	B	254	3.63	.55543				-	
	C	154	3.75	.50366					-
Academic Freedom	A	90	3.42	.606	.933	.394			
	B	254	3.46	.629					
	C	154	3.53	.578					
Professional Development	A	90	3.44	.634	9.265	.000	-	**	**
	B	254	3.70	.601				-	
	C	154	3.77	.579					-
Recognition	A	90	3.44	.504	4.034	.018	-		*
	B	254	3.55	.530				-	
	C	154	3.63	.534					-
Pay	A	90	2.70	.759	2.077	.126	-		
	B	254	2.66	.754				-	
	C	154	2.81	.682					-
Job Security	A	90	2.92	.870	25.706	.000	-	**	**
	B	254	3.31	.773				-	**
	C	154	3.63	.649					-
Working Conditions	A	90	2.98	.623	1.207	.300	-		
	B	254	3.04	.571				-	
	C	154	3.09	.558					-
Interpersonal Relationships	A	90	3.33	.488	.108	.897	-		
	B	254	3.32	.635				-	
	C	154	3.30	.595					-
Policy and Administration	A	90	2.94	.625	2.065	.128	-		
	B	254	2.90	.669				-	
	C	154	3.04	.604					-
Overall Satisfaction	A	90	3.45	.673	1.446	.236	-		
	B	254	3.51	.773				-	
	C	154	3.61	.659					-

NB: 1. * denotes statistical significance (p < 0.05)
2. ** denotes statistical significance (P < 0.01)
3. A=under 40, B=40-49, C=50 or Over

In order to identify possible reasons why older academics were more satisfied with their jobs than their younger colleagues, the qualitative and quantitative data were critically analysed. One possible explanation for the age-based difference in job satisfaction might be that older academics are more likely to occupy more enjoyable or better-paying positions than their younger peers (Quinn, Graham and Margaret, 1974). This was supported by the questionnaire data. While only 12.2 percent of the junior group (under 40 years old) earned \$70,635 or more, 37.7 percent of the middle group (40-49 years old) and 70.1 percent of the senior group (50 or more years old) earned the same amount, according to the questionnaire data.

Table 6.8 shows a strong correlation between age and pay. The data clearly show that pay increases with age. The percentage of academics who were paid under \$50,454 was highest for those under 40, the percentage of academics who were paid \$50,454 - under \$70,635 was highest for those in the 40-49 age group, and the percentage of academics paid \$90,817 or over was highest for those aged 50 or over. The strong positive relationship between age and pay suggested that age was a key factor in determining the pay of individual academics.

Table 6.8: Age and Pay Distribution (Survey Results)

Age	N, %	Annual Pay			
		Under \$50,454	\$50,454- Under \$70,635	\$70,635- Under \$90,817	\$90,817 or Over
Under 40	N	38	41	11	0
	%	42.2%	45.6%	12.2%	0%
40-49	N	42	116	72	24
	%	16.5%	45.7%	28.3%	9.4%
50 or over	N	3	43	53	55
	%	1.9%	27.9%	34.4%	35.7%

Monetary reward aside, older academics held better positions than their younger colleagues. Older academics were more likely to hold higher-ranking positions, according to the questionnaire data. The proportion of full professors in the junior group, the middle group, and the senior group were 0 percent, 26.0 percent, and 82.5 percent, respectively. In addition, 41.1 percent of the junior group had experience holding managerial posts, whereas 61.9 percent of the middle group and 87.0 percent of the senior group had such experience.

According to Table 6.9, there was a positive relationship between age and academic rank. Respondents moved to higher ranks with age.

Table 6.9: Age and Academic Rank (Survey Results)

Age	N, %	Academic Rank			
		Instructor	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Professor
Under 40	N	22	47	21	0
	%	24.4%	52.2%	23.3%	.0%
40-49	N	14	76	98	66
	%	5.5%	29.9%	38.6%	26.0%
50 or over	N	0	4	23	127
	%	0%	2.6%	14.9%	82.5%

Academics holding managerial posts are usually paid more and have better access to departmental and campus-wide decision-making procedures. Those who had never held managerial posts accounted for 58.9 percent of the under-40 age group. Meanwhile, 33.1 percent of the 40-49 age group and 13.0 percent of the 50-or-over age group had never occupied such posts (See Table 6.10).

Table 6.10: Age and Experience Holding Managerial Posts

Age	N, %	Experience Holding Managerial Posts		
		Currently holding posts	Having held posts previously	No experience
Under 40	N	31	6	53
	%	34.4%	6.7%	58.9%
40-49	N	105	65	84
	%	41.3%	25.6%	33.1%
50 or over	N	65	69	20
	%	42.2%	44.8%	13.0%

One possible reason why older academics were treated better than their younger counterparts would be academic cultures and practices where seniority is valued in many areas. For example, the number of years of service is the most important criteria by which pay decisions are made in universities. Older academics, who, with few exceptions, tend to have more experience in higher education, are likely to be better paid. Seniority is also a critical factor influencing promotion. Academics can usually move to the next higher academic rank after completing a given period successfully. In short, age is not a factor in determining pay and promotions; however, age is very closely related to the number of years of service in higher education, which is a critical criterion for making pay and promotion decisions. Consequently, age appears to be closely related with pay and promotion.

Differences in views regarding remuneration policies were found among the age groups. Younger academics were more likely to regard seniority-based systems, in which length of service was the most important factor, as unfair and obsolete. In the private sector, merit-based pay systems have been introduced as a way of boosting employees' motivation. Public-sector employers have also begun to implement merit-

based pay systems. As a consequence, individual public servants' pay depends on their performance. MOE has proposed that merit-based pay systems should be implemented in public universities in order to motivate academics. However, this suggestion has not been adopted because of strong objections from academics. This study found that age is an important predictor of one's attitude toward the introduction of merit-based pay systems. Younger academics were more likely to be in favour of the introduction of merit-based pay systems than their older counterparts. They claimed that current pay systems are neither fair nor effective because salaries depend mainly on the number of years of service, irrespective of the productivity or abilities of individual academics. Furthermore, they felt that existing pay systems failed to motivate academics to work hard. They suggested that pay should be determined based on individual ability and productivity. However, older academics had different views about merit-based pay systems. They were against pay systems that emphasised individual performance. They said that seniority-based pay systems were more suitable for universities because they encouraged academics' loyalty and commitment to their home universities. In addition, they thought that it was very hard to measure performance accurately, and that merit based pay systems would fragment the academic community by emphasising competition.

Another possible reason for the increase in job satisfaction with age might be professional development. This was in line with the conclusion reached by Siassi, Corcetti and Spiro (1975), who inferred that the reason that workers over age 40 reported higher satisfaction than those under age 40 was because their ability to cope with their jobs increased with age. Professional development seems to make academics' jobs more enjoyable and productive. The academics who were interviewed claimed to experience professional development and growth in a wide range of areas.

Above all, their performance in teaching and research improved as the amount of work experience increased. The amount of working experience was positively correlated with publishing productivity. This was in line with previous studies (Bently and Blackburn, 1991; Dickson 1983). However, interviewees found that the relationship between age and performance was not linear. This was corroborated in previous studies (Blackburn, 1972b; Parsons and Platt, 1968). It seems that productivity, particularly research productivity, increases with time until a certain age. An interview with a middle-aged academic whose field was electronic engineering supported the notion that productivity in research did not increase linearly over time. After he reached a specific age, his productivity began to decrease. He had difficulty conducting experiments because of his age-related deterioration in eyesight. He thought that he would not be able to achieve good performance in his field any longer, after he was more than fifty years old.

The data gleaned through the interviews suggested that increases in research and teaching productivity was realised through specialisation and expansion of personal knowledge and skills. Also, as time passes, academics were able to expand their human networks, both within and beyond their home universities. The academics who were interviewed felt that they were becoming more influential, both within and beyond their home universities, as their work experience increased. Consequently, experienced academics were able to perform their roles more easily.

This study investigated the problems encountered by newly employed academics in settling into academe. A previous study (Baldwin, 1979) reported that the first years were the most difficult ones for many academics. Schein (1968) reported that success in the early stages of one's career provided opportunities to successfully settle into one's job. Olsen's (1993) study reached a similar conclusion, suggesting that

providing novice academics with both social and material support led to professional satisfaction within academe.

However, the lack of systematic training for novice academics was frequently cited complaint among young interviewees. A number of interviewees felt that systematic training programmes would have helped them become accustomed to their new surroundings. As it was, once academics were appointed, they were required to accomplish a wide variety of tasks after only brief introductions to their university administrations. They were usually required to take two or three courses as soon as they began their careers. It took a considerably long time for new academics to become familiar with university governance and with the way their respective universities and departments operate. Twelve interviewees struggled when they started their careers in academe without suitable training.

The lack of relevant training for new academics leads to a mismatch in values and expectations between academics and their universities. If there is a good match between the expectations, values, and skills of workers and those of their organisation, new academics can become accustomed to their new routines more easily (Mathis, 1979). However, a number of the academics who were interviewed reported frustration when they discovered a disparity between their preconceived notions and the reality of academic life at their universities. They had to learn university practices, regulations and culture through trial and error rather than through comprehensive and organised official training.

Additionally, what junior academics needed desperately in the early stages of their careers was collegiality. They emphasised that both material and moral support for

novice academics were critical to becoming established at their universities. However, many interviewees reported a perceived lack of collegiality when they embarked on their academic careers. They found it difficult to find suitable colleagues to guide or advise them. One interviewee said:

I was very frustrated when I had some problems that I could not solve by myself. I sought experienced academics who would guide me kindly. However, I gave up trying to solicit advice from senior faculty members. That was because they seemed indifferent to others.

The unique culture within academe seemed to make academics reluctant to ask colleagues for favours, even when they encountered problems in the workplace. The isolation between academics is ascribed to university culture, in which independence seems to be highly valued. Some interviewees felt a conflict between camaraderie and autonomy, which made them reticent to consult colleagues about issues they faced.

One academic said:

I had a hard time when I began my academic career. In other organisations, such as companies and government ministries, people work as teams. New employees enjoy opportunities to learn a great deal from both their senior colleagues and their peers in such organisations. But university is different from other organisations with regard to the way people work. University academics are accustomed to working independently. They do not want anyone to interfere with their teaching or research. Thus, I hesitate before asking others for help.

Another reason for the reluctance to ask for favours seemed to be the concern that asking for help would be seen as incompetence or maladjustment. One academic said:

When I had a problem, I had to solve it by myself. I did not consider consulting

other academics about my problems at that time. I do not like other academics to know about my difficulties. I am worried that consulting with my colleagues will make me seem incompetent.

A number of the interviewees cited pressure to be productive in research as a factor that suppressed collegiality. Academics, especially those who were not tenured, were likely to be so preoccupied with research productivity that they had hardly any available time to pay attention to newly appointed academics. One academic said:

We hesitate to discuss personal matters with senior academics. They look so busy and I am afraid that asking them for advice would disturb them. We need to learn everything on a trial-and-error basis.

Meanwhile, older interviewees generally reported a higher level of satisfaction with their opportunities to conduct research than did their younger colleagues. Interviewees in their fifties were more likely to report that they were satisfied with their research opportunities than were those who were under the age of fifty. One possible reason for the age-dependent variation in satisfaction with opportunities to conduct research might be variation in the conditions under which each of the groups worked. Younger interviewees were more likely to be burdened with heavier teaching loads and to be required to teach undergraduates than their older counterparts. One interviewee in her thirties said:

Normally, younger academics like me teach more hours than our older colleagues. Aside from our teaching loads, there is a lot of work to do. We are responsible for trivial things like paperwork. Thus, I cannot set aside enough time for research.

Also, there was a disparity in motivation to conduct research between the age groups.

Younger academics were more likely to comment on extrinsic factors as motivation to conduct research than were their older colleagues. Younger interviewees considered promotion, tenure and incentives as strong motivators to conduct research. One interviewee, who was in her early forties, stated:

At any rate, I must publish more in order to meet the requirements for promotion. Because I will undergo a review process for promotion in two years, I am busy doing research. Those who are not tenured are obsessed with their research performance.

In contrast, older academics seemed to be more motivated to conduct research by intrinsic factors. They paid less attention to promotion and tenure than did their younger colleagues. One academic said:

I do not feel pressure to publish articles or books because I have already received tenure and been promoted to the highest rank. I conduct research mainly for academic reasons. I am not interested in the number of articles or books I publish. What I am most concerned about is the quality of my research. I hope to make a major contribution to the academic world and to the development of society through my research.

Comparison by Academic Discipline

The opinions of academics from different disciplines varied in numerous aspects. Opinions regarding off-campus practical work experience varied across disciplines. Predictably, academics from the pure sciences and humanities were less likely to value practical work experience outside academia. One interviewee from a humanities department said:

Practical work experience at places other than universities and research institutions is not valued because it is not related to academic work. Getting a job at a university or a research institution as soon as one earns a Ph.D. is both common and desirable in this field. In our discipline, only theoretical and academic research is highly valued.

In contrast, interviewees from engineering and medicine departments regarded off-campus practical work experience as valuable. One academic in the field of engineering emphasised practical work experience, saying:

I was responsible for new product development projects at my previous job. This experience working for a company is very helpful for my current academic work.

Academics in applied academic fields also argued that practical experience contributes to their career development. One interviewee said:

Legal education should be based on real-life situations. If teaching were not grounded in reality, it would be useless. In this context, practical work experience and academic study can be complementary to each other. My experience working as a lawyer is so helpful when I undertake academic work.

Satisfaction with available resources varied according to academic discipline. Academics in natural sciences and in engineering reported lower satisfaction with teaching and research resources available to them than did those in other fields. One interviewee, whose field was engineering, said:

The lack of laboratory space is the most serious problem confronting us every day. Because we do not have enough laboratory facilities, we cannot carry out

important experiments properly. There are only a few big laboratories to accommodate all of the students from our department.

The difference in satisfaction with resources between disciplines might be attributable in part to the way academics conducted teaching or research. It was likely that expensive facilities were a more critical requirement for teaching and research in natural sciences and engineering fields than in other academic disciplines.

Table 6.11: Job Satisfaction by Academic Discipline (Survey Results)

Job Aspects	Discipline	N	Mean	Deviation	F	P	H	S	E	N	M
Work	H	113	3.67	.49544	.797	.528					
	S	148	3.66	.53816							
	E	79	3.64	.56074							
	N	101	3.74	.52517							
	M	57	3.59	.51375							
Academic Freedom	H	113	3.39	.65397	3.590	.007					
	S	148	3.45	.61156							
	E	79	3.58	.57107							
	N	101	3.62	.56378							*
	M	57	3.31	.58899							
Professional Development	H	113	3.64	.62549	.810	.519					
	S	148	3.67	.61501							
	E	79	3.67	.58992							
	N	101	3.76	.61908							
	M	57	3.60	.58672							
Recognition	H	113	3.51	.54734	1.296	.271					
	S	148	3.59	.51367							
	E	79	3.58	.52898							
	N	101	3.60	.56964							
	M	57	3.43	.45929							

(Continued)

Job Aspects	Discipline	N	Mean	Deviation	F	P	H	S	E	N	M
Pay	H	113	2.71	.75133	1.270	.051					
	S	148	2.75	.69430							
	E	79	2.58	.75385							
	N	101	2.86	.69471							
	M	57	2.56	.81398							
Job Security	H	113	3.22	.89377	1.604	.172					
	S	148	3.35	.76719							
	E	79	3.31	.74379							
	N	101	3.49	.75822							
	M	57	3.31	.75965							
Working Conditions	H	113	3.06	.60407	1.289	.004					
	S	148	3.16	.57800					*		*
	E	79	2.92	.52484							
	N	101	3.06	.58730							
	M	57	2.86	.51248							
Interpersonal Relationships	H	113	3.26	.64323	1.953	.000					*
	S	148	3.36	.58276							**
	E	79	3.39	.54244							**
	N	101	3.42	.57851							**
	M	57	3.00	.55399							
Policy and Administration	H	113	2.97	.68184	3.185	.013					
	S	148	2.95	.68118							
	E	79	2.97	.54630							
	N	101	3.07	.61374							**
	M	57	2.70	.59055							
Overall Satisfaction	H	113	3.50	.80316	.164	.957					
	S	148	3.56	.68176							
	E	79	3.55	.63543							
	N	101	3.51	.74315							
	M	57	3.52	.75841							

Note: 1. H=Arts and Humanities, S=Social Sciences, E=Engineering, N= Natural Sciences, M=Medical Sciences

2. * denotes statistical significance (p < 0.05)

3. ** denotes statistical significance (p < 0.01)

One interviewee from an engineering department emphasised this, saying:

Investment in advanced facilities to support research and teaching should be a priority in this field. This is because most engineering research relies on experimentation. Even a great academic has difficulty conducting excellent research without suitable facilities.

Conversely, the majority of interviewees from the humanities and social sciences did not rely heavily on machines or equipment. One interviewee from the humanities said:

I conduct literature-based research rather than experiments. I do not need costly laboratory equipment for research. A good library is enough for me. As I work independently, I do not really need assistants. The most important thing is my time. I regret not being able to spend much time on research because of my other duties, such as teaching and paperwork.

Surprisingly, academics in medicine were dissatisfied with a number of job aspects. Both questionnaire data and interview data showed that academics in medicine reported the comparative low levels of job satisfaction than academics in other academic fields. Interviewees in medicine reported low satisfaction with a wide range of job aspects, including pay and working conditions, compared to their peers from other academic disciplines.

The in-depth interview data provided clues as to why academics in medicine reported lower levels of job satisfaction. The comparatively low satisfaction with various job aspects might be attributable to the higher expectations they held about their jobs. Although they were not paid less than academics in other disciplines, they were found to be less satisfied with their pay.

They could have alternative jobs that would be more financially rewarding. When they compared their salaries with those in other places of employment, they thought about doctors working in hospitals. Therefore, they felt that their salaries were low compared to those from other disciplines. One interviewee said:

Most of my friends who studied with me at medical school run clinics. They earn one and a half or two times as much money as I receive from my university.

Comparison by Control Type: Public and Private Universities

This section compares and contrasts public and private universities in terms of job satisfaction among academics. The interview and questionnaire data both showed that academics from public and private universities alike were somewhat satisfied with their jobs overall. However, this study revealed a difference in satisfaction with pay between the two types of universities. This was true for both the interview and questionnaire data. Interviewees working at public universities were less satisfied with their pay than were those working at private universities. Nine of ten interviewees from public universities said that they were not paid enough, while ten of fifteen interviewees from private universities said that they were paid inadequately. Meanwhile, the questionnaire data also showed that academics at private universities were less dissatisfied with their pay (2.81) than those at public universities (2.53). The higher satisfaction with pay among academics at private universities can be ascribed in part to the higher pay they receive.

The questionnaire data revealed a concrete disparity in pay between public and private universities (See Table 6.12).

Table 6.12: Job Satisfaction by Control Type (Survey Results)

Job Aspect	Control Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Work	Public	175	3.67	.51573	.000	.785
	Private	323	3.67	.53323		
Academic Freedom	Public	175	3.50	.61575	.359	.549
	Private	323	3.46	.60703		
Professional Development	Public	175	3.71	.57874	.898	.344
	Private	323	3.65	.62743		
Recognition	Public	175	3.54	.54935	.191	.662
	Private	323	3.56	.52075		
Pay	Public	175	2.53	.74593	16.255	.000
	Private	323	2.81	.71259		
Job Security	Public	175	3.35	.73277	.106	.744
	Private	323	3.33	.82558		
Working Conditions	Public	175	2.99	.57955	2.258	.134
	Private	323	3.07	.57545		
Interpersonal Relationships	Public	175	3.37	.64207	2.754	.098
	Private	323	3.28	.57095		
Policy and Administration	Public	175	3.03	.62245	4.433	.036
	Private	323	2.91	.65157		
Overall Satisfaction	Public	175	3.50	.74119	.597	.440
	Private	323	3.55	.71323		

While only 22.9 percent of survey respondents from public universities were paid \$70,635 or more, 54.2 percent of their counterparts from private universities were paid corresponding amounts. Table 6.13 shows that respondents at private universities were better paid than those at public universities. A higher proportion (22.3 percent) of those working at public universities were paid under \$50,454, compared to those working at private universities (13.6 percent).

Table 6.13: Pay Distribution by Control Type (Survey Results)

Type	N,%	Under \$50,454	\$50,454- Under \$70,635	\$70,635- Under \$90,817	\$90,817 or Over
Public	N	39	96	35	5
	%	22.3%	54.9%	20.0%	2.9%
Private	N	44	104	101	74
	%	13.6%	32.2%	31.3%	22.9%

Respondents from public universities whose pay ranged from \$70,635 to less than \$90,817 or exceeded \$90,817 respectively accounted for 20.0 percent and 2.9 percent of all faculty members at those universities. Meanwhile, their counterparts at private universities in the same pay categories accounted for 31.3 percent and 22.9 percent of all academics, respectively.

Furthermore, the distributions of individual academics' salaries about the respective means were also different between publicly and privately funded universities. As noted earlier, in this study, pay was classified according to the following four categories: 1 = under \$50,454, 2 = from \$50,454 to less than \$70,635, 3 = from \$70,635 to less than \$90,817, and 4 = \$90,817 or more. The standard deviation about the mean of reported actual pay was 0.73420 for academics at public universities and 0.98260 for academics at private universities. This means that the pay disparity between individual academics at private universities was larger than at public universities. One possible reason for the difference in the breadth of actual pay distribution between public and private universities relates to the pay systems.

Academics at public universities are essentially civil servants who receive their salaries from two sources. One source, which accounts for the bulk of their salaries, is the central government, and the other source is their respective universities (Jeong,

Kim, Kim, Seo and Song, 2002). The salaries they receive from the central government are determined according to a nationwide pay scheme. In contrast, the salaries they receive from their respective universities are determined on the basis of university policies.

At public universities, salaries can be divided into basic pay and incentives. Basic salaries are typically determined in consideration of length of experience and the level of education. Besides basic salaries, incentives, which are paid according to individual performance, account for only a small portion of their entire salaries. Meanwhile, at private universities, academics' pay is determined only on the basis of individual universities' policies, which depend on their financial condition (Jeong *et al.*, 2002). Thus, variation in pay at private universities is greater than at public universities.

Although interviewees from public universities were generally paid less, few of them had the intention to move to private universities in search of better pay. They reported wanting to stay at their current universities because public universities offered many advantages that offset the drawback of low pay. One interview with an academic at a public university elicited the following comment:

The salaries of academics at public universities are lower than those at private universities, not to mention those who work for private-sector companies. But I have never considered moving to equivalent private universities because academics at private universities have to put up with lower job security and autonomy than at public universities.

The results of this study revealed a difference in satisfaction with policy and administration between public and private universities. In the interviews, more

academics from private universities expressed dissatisfaction with their administration than did those from public universities. Furthermore, the questionnaire data indicated that academics from public universities (3.03) were more satisfied with administration than those from private universities (2.91). This difference was found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

The reason why this difference existed between the two types of universities was analysed with recourse to the interview data. Interviewees from public universities were likely to have more opportunities to take part in policy-making at their respective universities than their counterparts from private universities. In addition, the proportion of those who were content with the amount of access they had to key university information was higher at public universities than at private universities. One interviewee from a public university said:

We are well informed about what is going on in our department and in the university as a whole. In this point, our university can be regarded as democratic. I do not think that managers or administrators hide important information. At our university, the administrative process has become very transparent these days, as in other areas in the public sector.

In contrast with this positive response from an interviewee from a public university, one academic from a private university took a negative view of his ability to get involved in making decisions. He stated:

Mundane information is available to everyone. However, key information about the university is circulated only among important people such as the chancellor, deans, and department heads. Critical information is not shared with normal faculty members.

These differences could be ascribed in part to the different systems of governance. As mentioned earlier, academics at public universities had more opportunities to get involved in university governance than did their peers at private universities. The chancellor, who is elected by academics, is the authoritative figure at public universities. However, the board of trustees has the ultimate authority regarding university affairs.

Among universities in Seoul, no significant gap in satisfaction with either academic freedom or job security was found between public and private universities. However, when the comparison between public and private administration was confined to regional universities, a difference in satisfaction with these aspects between the two types of universities was evident. Interviewees from public universities enjoyed more academic freedom than did their peers from private universities when the analysis was limited to universities in the provinces. Furthermore, the questionnaire data showed that academics at public universities in provincial areas were more satisfied (3.39) with their job security than were those at private universities in provincial areas (3.17).

Interviewees at public universities in provincial areas also seemed to enjoy more academic freedom than their counterparts at private universities in provincial areas. Some interviewees at private universities, particularly those who had not yet received tenure, did not feel completely free to express their opinions or feelings about the policies and administration of their universities. The rate of respondents showing dissatisfaction with job security was higher at private universities than at public universities when only universities in provincial areas were considered. One interviewee from a public university in a provincial area stated:

I have never been worried about dismissal. Dismissal from public universities is very rare. As we are civil servants, it is difficult to fire us. This is one of the major advantages of working at a public university.

Meanwhile, one interviewee from a private university in a provincial area said:

We can never enjoy complete job security. We are no better than office workers as far as our job security is concerned. We are always mindful of the possibility of being laid off.

The difference in attitudes toward job security between academics from public and private universities seems to be related partly to the difference in legal status between academics from public and private universities. Because academics working at public universities are civil servants, their status is guaranteed by law. In contrast, the status of academics at private universities is determined according to the policies of individual universities.

Academics at public universities had more opportunities to take part in university decision-making processes. For example, academics at public universities had the right to take part in the appointment of university chancellors, who have the authority to appoint, promote, and dismiss academics. In addition, all academics at most public universities had the right to elect two final candidates for the position of chancellor. The president of Korea then appoints one of the two candidates as chancellor. Usually, the candidate who receives the most votes is appointed. Chancellors at public universities try to win as much popular support as possible. Consequently, they are very reticent to dismiss individual academics. One interviewee from a public university in a provincial area said:

Chancellors at public universities care about their popularity too much because they are elected by academics. Consequently, they lack conviction. They cannot push academics hard. They hesitate to take a stand that may run contrary to the interests of academics.

In contrast, boards of trustees at private universities had the authority to make decisions pertaining to the employment of academics. One interviewee from a private university said:

Those of us who work at private universities are more vulnerable than our peers at public universities with regard to job security. While they are civil servants whose status is secured by law, we are mere employees whose status depends on the policies at our respective universities.

Additionally, some interviewees at private universities lamented their dim career prospects. They knew that their universities were facing financial problems, which led them to consider quitting their jobs in the near future. One interviewee from a private university in a provincial area said:

Although university teachers have enjoyed high job security to date, the golden age has passed. These days I am not sure whether my faculty will still exist in five years. I have heard gloomy news that some universities are suffering from serious student shortages. Some private universities seem unable to afford to pay their faculty members. Many academics will have to leave their universities.

In contrast, few interviewees from public universities were worried about low job security as result of student shortages. This was partly due to the fact that public universities were much more successful at recruiting students than private universities.

When recruiting students, public universities enjoyed some advantages over private universities: lower tuition fees and better reputations. One interviewee from a public university in a provincial area said:

Academics at public universities are still not very concerned about the possibility of dismissal resulting from student shortages. Public universities have some advantages in attracting students compared to private universities. Tuition fees at public universities are lower than at private universities. In addition, public universities are better recognised.

However, not all interviewees at private universities felt that they were at a disadvantage in terms of security of tenure. Although the legal status of academics at private universities is different from that of academics at public universities, employment practices at some private universities are similar to those at public universities. One interviewee from a private university said:

Our university is private, but the university does not dismiss academics unfairly. The employment policy at our university is as good as those at public universities. The standards and procedure for the dismissal and punishment of academics are well established.

As shown in Table 6.13, respondents at public and private universities reported significantly ($p < 0.05$) different levels of satisfaction with both pay and policy and administration. While respondents at private universities were more satisfied with their pay, those at public universities reported higher satisfaction with policy and administration. The gap in satisfaction with pay between the two different types of universities was considerable. The gap may be attributable in part to actual differences in pay received at the two university types. Academics' pay distributions for both types of universities are presented in Table 6.13.

Survey respondents from public universities reported slightly higher satisfaction with policy and administration than did their counterparts at private universities. There were differences between the two types of universities with respect to satisfaction with working conditions and interpersonal relationships, as well as with overall job satisfaction, although these differences were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). The difference in age between academics at public and private universities is shown in Table 6.14. There was no significant difference between public universities and private universities in terms of the age of academics. Compared to private universities, public universities had relatively more faculty members aged under 40 and aged 50 or over, but fewer faculty members aged 40 to 49. However, these differences between the two types of universities were not found to be statistically meaningful ($p > 0.05$).

Table 6.14: Age Distribution by Control Type (Survey Results)

Control Type	N,%	Age		
		under 40	40-49	50 or over
Public	N	33	86	56
	%	18.9%	49.1%	32.0%
Private	N	57	168	98
	%	17.6%	52.0%	30.3%

With regard to teaching hours, respondents at public universities taught more hours than did their counterparts at private universities. Survey respondents who taught 9-11 hours per week made up the largest group at both public and private universities. The proportion of those who taught 9 hours or over was 62.8 percent at public universities and 53.5 percent at private institutions (See Table 6.15).

Table 6.15: Teaching Hours at Public and Private Universities (Survey Results)

Control Type	N, %	Teaching Hours per Week					
		Under 3	3- 5	6-8	9-11	12-14	15 or Over
Public	N	4	21	40	73	31	6
	%	2.3%	12.0%	22.9%	41.7%	17.7%	3.4%
Private	N	21	22	107	116	44	13
	%	6.5%	6.8%	33.1%	35.9%	13.6%	4.0%

Comparison by University Location

This section aims to evaluate job satisfaction based on university location. The questionnaire data revealed a strong relationship between job satisfaction and university location. The data indicated that academics at universities in the provinces were less satisfied with their jobs than were those at universities in Seoul. Particularly, the questionnaire survey showed that academics at universities in the provinces were much less satisfied with their work, professional development, academic freedom, job security, pay, working conditions, and their job on the whole than were those at universities in Seoul.

Survey respondents from universities in Seoul were more satisfied with most job aspects than were those from universities in the provincial areas. There were significant ($p < 0.05$) differences in satisfaction with eight job aspects. With some exceptions, interviewees at universities in Seoul reported higher satisfaction with their jobs than those at universities in the provinces. One interviewee from a university in a provincial area said:

Academics at universities in provincial areas are less privileged than those at universities in Seoul in various aspects. Above all, universities outside Seoul are

not well regarded. We are paid less, but at the same time must work harder than those at universities in Seoul.

Table 6.16: Job Satisfaction by University Location (Survey Results)

Job Aspect	Location	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Work	Seoul	196	3.80	.53422	19.505	.000
	Province	302	3.59	.50568		
Academic Freedom	Seoul	196	3.60	.60075	13.905	.000
	Province	302	3.39	.60271		
Professional Development	Seoul	196	3.80	.59260	13.234	.000
	Province	302	3.59	.61021		
Recognition	Seoul	196	3.68	.52305	20.114	.000
	Province	302	3.47	.51902		
Pay	Seoul	196	2.83	.74152	8.222	.004
	Province	302	2.64	.72279		
Job Security	Seoul	196	3.44	.80506	5.442	.020
	Province	302	3.27	.78013		
Working Conditions	Seoul	196	3.27	.61854	55.021	.000
	Province	302	2.90	.49803		
Interpersonal Relationships	Seoul	196	3.37	.61106	2.920	.088
	Province	302	3.28	.58731		
Policy and Administration	Seoul	196	2.98	.68783	.806	.370
	Province	302	2.93	.61367		
Overall Satisfaction	Seoul	196	3.68	.69436	14.890	.000
	Province	302	3.43	.72479		

The reasons why academics at provincial universities reported lower job satisfaction than their colleagues at universities in Seoul were investigated in this study. First, universities in the provinces had difficulty attracting new students, as universities in such areas were not preferred. The preference for universities in Seoul might be attributable to the advantages that graduates from these universities enjoy in various areas such as job opportunities, salary, and promotion. According to Oh (2007),

graduates from provincial universities are paid 11.5 percent less than those from universities in Seoul.

Whether a university is public or private and the location of the university have a strong impact on the amount of prestige enjoyed by the university. In 2000, 97.6 percent of students scoring in the top 10 percent on the state-run *College Scholastic Test* went to universities in and around the capital area (Son and Oh, 2006). The preference for universities in Seoul led to considerable variation in enrolment based on location. Enrolments at universities in Seoul equalled 95.2 percent of their capacity, but only 80.0 percent at universities in the provinces (Son and Oh, 2006).

The difficulty that many provincial universities have in attracting new students influences academics' working lives in many ways. Low enrolments negatively influenced job security. This is consistent with the findings of a previous study (Son and Oh, 2006). Interviewees from universities in the provinces were more worried about their future than those at universities in Seoul. Interviewees working at universities that had problems recruiting new students often shouldered additional responsibilities in addition to their usual tasks. A considerable number of interviewees at unpopular universities were forced to visit high schools for promotional tours. Interviewees working at these universities complained that they were very stressed, as decisions on pay, promotion, and tenure were based in part on the number of new students who enrolled there. A few of the academics who were interviewed were seriously considering quitting their current jobs because of the stress resulting from the pressure to recruit students. These findings are consistent with those of a previous study conducted on academics in Korea (Hyun, 2003). One interviewee from a university located in a medium-sized city said:

We spend a lot of time visiting high schools to advertise our university. I feel

like I am a salesman when I go to high schools for promotional trips. Sometime we are denied entry to schools by security guards. They treat us like pedlars selling products. Even though we hate going to high schools to look for new students, we have no choice but to do so. In our university, the number of students that we successfully recruit is an important consideration when making decisions on promotion and conferral of tenure.

In some universities, academic units (e.g. departments or schools) that had difficulty attracting new students were merged or dissolved as part of universities' restructuring schemes. Again, academics at universities in provincial areas faced worse working conditions than those at universities in Seoul. In their questionnaire responses, they reported that they taught longer hours than did their peers at universities in Seoul. While 38.8 percent of respondents at universities in Seoul taught nine hours or more per week, 58.5 percent of those at provincial universities took on similar teaching loads. Academics at provincial universities felt that their heavy teaching loads deprived them of time that would otherwise have been available to conduct research. Furthermore, when it came to remuneration, academics at provincial universities were at a disadvantage. The questionnaire data showed that 60.2 percent of respondents at universities in Seoul were paid \$70,635. In contrast, just 32.1 percent of those at provincial universities earned comparable amounts.

Academics from provincial universities complained that they had difficulty doing their jobs properly because of insufficient resources and crowded classrooms. For instance, poor laboratory facilities, insufficient library holdings, and small spaces impeded academics who were attempting to teach and conduct research properly. These universities' financial troubles often resulted in deterioration of the educational infrastructure. Many private universities in provincial areas have essentially no

financial resources other than tuition fees, which were inevitably decreasing due to reduced enrolments. Meanwhile, the lack of capable graduate students was another commonly cited obstacle to conducting research. Assistance from postgraduate students is generally seen as essential when conducting research. However, academics at universities in the provinces found it harder to recruit graduate students to assist them with their research. The majority of postgraduate students had jobs, and thus could not lend a hand to their supervisors. In addition, many of the academics who were interviewed had doubts about the competence of their graduate students. One interviewee working at a university in the province said:

Academics at universities in provincial areas are criticised for being less productive than those at universities in Seoul. However, this is not a fair criticism, because academics at universities in the provinces work under more difficult conditions. Meagre research grants and the lack of facilities to support research hinder our attempts to fulfil all of our academic duties. The lack of capable postgraduate students only makes the situation worse. As you know, postgraduate students play an important role in conducting research. Their assistance is essential to our research activities. For example, they help us by posting questionnaires, entering data and so on. Apart from the quality of postgraduate students, we suffer from a chronic shortage of full-time students. Because most postgraduate students have jobs, we cannot expect them to help us.

The lack of preparedness of students at universities in the provinces was also noted as a factor that detracted from academics' job satisfaction. The interview data showed that many universities in the provinces were forced to lower their admissions criteria in order to meet their student quotas. Students' poor academic backgrounds and lack

of motivation to study made their teachers' jobs more difficult. Many students were neither interested in their classes nor equipped with the academic prerequisites required to complete their courses satisfactorily. Some academics were of the opinion that many students could not follow their lectures. They reported having no choice but to grant credits even if the students did not meet a certain standard. One interviewee from a university in a provincial area said:

I doubt that they understand what they are supposed to be learning. The majority of students do not have sufficient academic prerequisites to pursue higher education. In addition, their indifference to the material makes matters worse. I am not motivated to teach those who have no interest in my lectures. Although academic standards dictate that we should not be granting credits to such students, we have no choice but to do so.

Moreover, academics from universities in the provinces were at a disadvantage when it came to professional development. They had fewer chances to become more specialised in their respective fields because of their heavy teaching loads. In addition, they were more likely to teach courses that were not related to their areas of specialisation, just to satisfy students' needs. Many of the interviewees felt that teaching subjects that were not closely related to their academic fields led to decreased opportunities to develop their knowledge and skills.

Living in the provincial areas has many other disadvantages for academics. Those who live in provincial areas must endure poor accessibility, low-quality public services, and unsatisfactory cultural infrastructure compared to those living in Seoul. In addition, academics at universities in the provinces were inconvenienced while doing their work because their workplaces were located far away from Seoul. They

had to spend precious time and money travelling to Seoul to attend important academic conferences or visit organisations that were sponsoring their research projects.

The reasons for these differences will be explored below. There was no demonstrable age difference based on university location. Universities in Seoul had relatively fewer academics in both the under-40 and the 50-or-over age groups than did universities in the provincial areas; that is, respondents from universities in Seoul were more highly concentrated in the 40-49 age group than were those from universities in the provincial areas.

Table 6.17: Age Distribution by University Location (Survey Results)

Location	N, %	Age		
		under 40	40-49	50 or over
Seoul	N	28	117	51
	%	14.3	59.7	26.0
Province	N	62	137	103
	%	20.5	45.4	34.1

Discrepancies in pay between respondents from Seoul and universities in provincial areas can be seen in Table 6.18. While the modal pay range was from \$70,635 to less than \$90,817 (38.3 percent) for respondents from Seoul universities, it was from \$50,454 to less than \$70,635 (44.7 percent) for those from universities in the provincial areas. While the group that was paid less than \$50,454 accounted for just 6.6 percent of those from universities in Seoul, academics in the same pay range accounted for 23.2 percent of all participants at universities in the provinces. In addition, the proportion of respondents from universities in Seoul who were paid \$90,817 or more (21.9 percent) was higher than for universities in the provinces (11.9 percent).

Table 6.18: Pay Distribution by University Location (Survey Results)

Location	N, %	Annual Pay			
		Under \$50,454	\$50,454 - Under \$70,635	\$70,635 - Under \$90,817	\$90,817 or Over
Seoul	N	13	65	75	43
	%	6.6	33.2	38.3	21.9
Province	N	70	135	61	36
	%	23.2	44.7	20.2	11.9

There were also differences in teaching load based on university location. As shown in Table 6.19, respondents from universities in Seoul had lighter teaching loads than did their counterparts from universities in provincial areas.

Table 6.19: Teaching Hours by University Location (Survey Results)

Location	N,%	Teaching Hours per Week					
		Under 3	3-5	6-8	9-11	12-14	15 or Over
Seoul	N	8	20	92	59	11	6
	%	4.1	10.2	46.9%	30.1	5.6	3.1
Province	N	17	23	55	130	64	13
	%	5.6	7.6	18.2	43.0	21.2	4.3

While 51.2 percent of respondents in Seoul taught less than 9 hours per week, just 31.4 percent of those in provincial areas enjoyed similarly light teaching loads. The proportion of respondents teaching 12 hours or more at universities in Seoul was just 8.7 percent, whereas the proportion of respondents with such a teaching load in provincial areas was 25.4 percent.

Conclusion

In this chapter, a comparison of job satisfaction between particular groups according to personal and institutional characteristics was made using the data from the interviews and the questionnaire survey.

Significant differences in job satisfaction were found between age groups. Older academics showed higher levels of satisfaction with advancement opportunities, recognition, and job security than their younger counterparts. The age-based disparity in job satisfaction could be attributed in part to the different ease of access to more rewarding positions. Academics' job satisfaction was also strongly related to university location. Generally, academics at universities in Seoul reported higher satisfaction with various job aspects, such as work, academic freedom, and working conditions, as well as higher overall job satisfaction, compared to their counterparts at universities in provincial areas. This is partly because academics at universities in Seoul enjoyed better conditions at work and in their daily lives than did those at universities in provincial areas. There were also differences in satisfaction with some job aspects between public and private universities. Satisfaction with administration at public universities was higher than at private universities. Meanwhile, academics at private universities were more satisfied with their pay than were their peers at public universities.

In the next chapter, discussions based on the research findings of the thesis will be presented.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results in relation to the aims of the research. In this discussion, the research findings will be critically analysed and interpreted. In addition, the research findings will be compared with the results of previous studies. This chapter consists of three main sections: a comparison between the present and previous studies, the relationship between facet job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction, and the impacts of the recent changes in academe on the working lives of academics.

Comparison between the Present Study and Previous Studies

In this study, the level of satisfaction with promotion was found to be high compared with the results of a study on job satisfaction conducted in the context of higher education in the U.K. Oshagbemi (2003) reported that satisfaction with promotion among academics at universities in the UK was 3.42 on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1=“extremely dissatisfied” to 7=“extremely satisfied”. It was concluded that UK academics were slightly dissatisfied based on the score of 3.42, which is below 4.0, the score that signifies indifference. In contrast, the present study shows that academics at Korean universities were slightly satisfied with their opportunities for promotion. One possible explanation for this gap in satisfaction with promotion between the two countries is cultural differences related to employment. At Korean

universities, the traditional emphasis on lifelong employment continues to this day. Once an academic was appointed as a tenure-track faculty member, he or she expected to be promoted or to be granted tenure after working for a predetermined period and meeting the minimum requirements. Most academics found the criteria and process for promotion and tenure to be lax. Just a decade ago, the number of academics who were denied promotion at Korean universities was very low. Therefore, with few exceptions, academics encountered little difficulty being promoted. However, many universities have recently made the criteria and process for promotion and tenure more stringent as a way of enhancing their competitiveness.

The results of this study are similar to those of a previous study conducted on academics in Korea (Jang, 2002). The mean score of overall job satisfaction among Korean academics found by Jang (2002) on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = “very dissatisfied”, through 3 = “neither satisfied nor dissatisfied”, to 5 = “very satisfied”, which was the same as that implemented in this study, was 3.48. Moreover, the study suggested that Korean academics were satisfied with their teaching tasks, research, achievement, professional growth, responsibility, and autonomy, whereas they were dissatisfied with their salaries, teaching and research conditions, policy and administration, and interpersonal relationships.

Lacy and Sheehan (1997) investigated academics from eight countries. Their study deployed a 5-point Likert scale, in which high mean scores indicate high satisfaction, to measure overall job satisfaction among academics. In that study, the mean job satisfaction score for academics across all eight countries was 3.4. Academics from the U.S.A. were most satisfied (3.6) and those from Germany were least satisfied (3.1). Academics from Mexico (3.5), Sweden (3.5), Israel (3.5), the U.K. (3.4), Hong Kong

(3.3), and Australia (3.3) were satisfied with their jobs to some extent. These results suggested that the level of satisfaction of academics in Korea with their jobs is similar to that of academics in Mexico, Sweden, and Israel. This study found that Korean academics reported a similar level of overall job satisfaction (3.53 on a 5-point Likert scale).

The results of the research conducted in the course of this thesis do not support those of previous studies, which suggested that there is the gender difference in work orientation. A wealth of research indicates that female academics are likely to value teaching more, and to spend more time teaching (e.g. Davis and Astin, 1990; Poole and Bomholt, 1997; Stiver Lie and O'Leary, 1990; Wunsch, 1993). Other researchers found that women tend to spend more time in clerical administrative activities (e.g., Davis and Astin, 1990; Olsen, Maple and Stage, 1995; Bagilhole, 1993; Limerick and Lingard, 1995), and tend to be more interested in the intellectual and social development of their students (e.g., Olsen, Maple and Stage 1990; Poole & Bornholt 1997; Wunsch, 1993). Unlike these studies, this thesis did not identify a gender difference in work orientation or working styles.

The results of the present research do not corroborate those of a study (Huisman, Weert and Bartels, 2002) that found that the attractiveness of the academic profession had decreased in European countries. That study suggested that increasingly poor working conditions and uncertainty about reemployment had made the academic profession less attractive after scrutinising comprehensive information regarding training, recruitment systems, and working conditions in the academic profession in the U.K., Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden. In Korea, the academic profession is changing in similar ways. Korean academics complained about their growing

workload, comparatively low pay, decreased autonomy and tough competition. However, in spite of these negative aspects of the Korean academic profession, there is no convincing evidence to support the notion that the academic profession has become less attractive. This study supports the notion that academics are not fairly paid compared to other comparable professionals, but that other elements compensate for this disparity (Rosen, 1986; Williams, Blackstone and Metcalf, 1974).

Korean academics cited intrinsic job aspects, such as the nature of their work, autonomy in the workplace, and recognition, as influential factors contributing to their feelings about their jobs. This is consistent with the findings of some previous studies (e.g. Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003; Clifford, 1985; Mottaz, 198). These studies suggested that the extent to which job satisfaction is influenced by particular job aspects depends on the importance of those aspects to workers.

The Relationship between Facet-Job Satisfaction and Overall Job Satisfaction

This thesis investigates the relationship between satisfaction with specific job aspects and overall job satisfaction. As mentioned earlier, Herzberg *et al.* (1959) suggest that different factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. According to them, intrinsic factors, such as work, recognition, responsibility, and autonomy, contribute to job satisfaction when they are fulfilled. They defined these as motivating factors. Meanwhile, extrinsic factors, also referred to as “hygiene factors”, such as pay, job security, working conditions, and supervision, contribute to job dissatisfaction when they are not fulfilled. Generally speaking, the interview data supported this two-factor theory. The job aspects that the majority of interviewees cited as contributing to job satisfaction were intrinsic factors: work, academic freedom, advancement and

recognition. Conversely, extrinsic factors, such as pay, job security, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and administration, were viewed as having a negative impact on job satisfaction.

However, some of the interview data did not support the two-factor theory. Although the two-factor theory considers physical working conditions and job security to be factors contributing to job dissatisfaction (Smerek and Peterson, 2007), some of the academics who were interviewed cited a peaceful campus or pleasant surroundings as factors contributing to job satisfaction. Additionally, a few of the interviewees said that high job security contributed to job satisfaction. Meanwhile, some interviewees felt that the nature of their work, considered a motivating factor in the two-factor theory, contributed to job dissatisfaction. This result implies that a job aspect that serves as a source of job satisfaction for some academics might be a source of job dissatisfaction for others. This is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Castillo and Cano, 2004; Oshagbemi, 1997).

Why did some of the interviewees derive satisfaction from hygiene factors, contrary to what the two-factor theory predicts? One possible explanation is the interrelationship between individual job aspects. For example, job security might not be independent of academic freedom, because the conferral of tenure increases job security. Tenured academics can work until retirement age unless they are found guilty of serious misconduct. Consequently, many academics felt that gaining tenure led to increased academic freedom. They claimed that there was no academic freedom when one faced the threat of possible dismissal. This is corroborated by a previous study (Brown and Kurland, 1990). One interviewee regarded academic freedom as indistinguishable from job security. He said:

I am very careful when expressing my opinions and feelings because I have not been granted tenure. Without tenure, I am not one hundred percent free to act or speak as I wish. Even though I have some complaints about my department, I don't express any of them. I know of some colleagues who were denied tenure mainly because they opposed university policies.

Pay is another example of a job aspect that is interconnected with other aspects. To some interviewees, pay signified much more than just a livelihood. They considered pay to be a measure of achievement or recognition in the workplace. Pay was frequently regarded as a barometer of success, even when there was no real relationship between them. People consider one's salary to indicate how successful one is in one's career. Moreover, this relationship seems to be strengthening with time. The introduction of the merit-based pay system into universities has likely accelerated this trend. Many universities have followed the private sector in implementing merit-based pay systems in the hopes of increasing academic productivity. All other conditions being equal, academics who are better paid are likely to be considered more productive than those who are paid less. As a result, pay is not just a financial reward but an indicator of academics' productivity. In short, one's salary indicates one's achievement in one's field. If job aspects are not independent, it is not appropriate to categorise individual job aspects as either motivator or hygiene factors.

As an alternative to the two-factor theory, another possible answer to the question of why some derived satisfaction and others dissatisfaction from the same job aspects was that individuals attach different importance to specific job aspects. Locke (1976) suggests that workers are content with their jobs when their jobs provide them with what they value. He added that the value that workers attach to their jobs varies from individual to individual.

This study explored what value Korean academics attached to their job and why they value specific job aspects. To identify what aspects Korean academics regarded as important in relation to their work, they were asked questions such as: “What were the important considerations when you chose your job?” The interviewees were found to value various aspects of their job. Some valued financial aspects and others the intellectual challenge. However, most of the academics who were interviewed valued intrinsic factors over extrinsic factors as criteria for job selection. The nature of the work, contribution to society through one’s work, and autonomy in the workplace were most frequently cited as considerations taken into account when selecting jobs. One interviewee said:

Above all else, my day-to-day work is important to me. If my work were not interesting, my job would be merely a tool for making a living. Because we spend a lot of time in the workplace, the nature of the work is important. If I had to work just for money, it would be horrible. I would rather choose a meaningful job, even if it means foregoing a high salary.

Meanwhile, some interviewees cited job security as an important consideration in job selection. They said that being an academic was the best choice in terms of job security. One interviewee said:

Academic freedom is an important aspect of academic life, because it is the foundation of all academic activity. Academic freedom is based on job security. I think that academic freedom is impossible to achieve without job security. Academics enjoy the best job security.

Not many interviewees cited pay as an important aspect when choosing their job. However, a few academics mentioned pay as an important consideration. One

interviewee said:

Pay is important. We cannot live decently without an adequate income. Jobs are the main source of income for ordinary people. The social welfare system of Korea is poor compared with those in developed countries. Therefore, children's education, medical services, and preparing for old age are expensive. If a job does not guarantee financial independence, it is not a good job.

Male interviewees were likely to place more value on pay than their female colleagues. This is in part because men regarded themselves as primary breadwinners. In addition, interviewees whose spouses had paid jobs were more likely to place a lower priority on pay than those whose spouses did not. The reason is assumed to be, in part, that academics who had other financial sources, namely, their spouses' salaries, did not have to rely solely on their own salaries. This notion was supported by interviews with several academics. One female interviewee, whose husband works, said:

Frankly speaking, I do not know exactly how much I am paid. My salary is not that important to me, as my husband earns money from his job. I am happy that I do not have to be obsessed with my salary. For me, what is most important is that I have the opportunity to do what I like.

With few exceptions, interviewees were very or moderately interested in how much they were paid. They were interested in their relative pay level as well as their absolute pay. Some interviewees were more sensitive to relative pay than to absolute pay. One academic said:

Many academics are more interested in their pay relative to their peers than they are in the amount they actually receive. Those who are paid less are regarded as less competent, because universities have introduced incentive systems. Even

though the difference in the amount of pay between colleagues is insignificant, it is difficult for me to bear the knowledge that I am seen as inferior to my colleagues.

Whether or not interviewees' present jobs meet what they value in relation to their job was explored. Most interviewees stated that their present job were fair, or somewhat satisfactory, in terms of meeting what they value in relation to their job. One interviewee said:

What matters regarding one's job is autonomy in the workplace and one's interest in one's work. My present job is nearly perfect in these points.

Korean academics listed intrinsic job aspects, such as the nature of their work, autonomy in the workplace, and recognition, as influential factors contributing to their feelings about their job. This is consistent with many previous studies (e.g. Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003; Clifford, 1985; Locke, 1976). They suggested that the attitudes of workers toward their jobs are more strongly influenced by the aspects that they value more.

The questionnaire data were also analysed to identify the extent to which satisfaction with each job aspect influenced overall job satisfaction among academics. The correlation between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with each job aspect was analysed in order to achieve this task. Satisfaction with intrinsic factors, such as work, academic freedom, and recognition, were more closely related with overall satisfaction than was satisfaction with extrinsic factors, such as pay, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and administration. The results of the correlation analysis based on the questionnaire data were generally consistent with the

interview data analysis. However, this result must be interpreted with caution, as the correlation analysis shows only the relationship among them, without indicating whether a cause-effect relationship exists.

The above findings suggest that it is worth investigating methods of measuring overall job satisfaction more deeply. There are two ways of measuring job satisfaction: facet-free measurement and facet measurement (Scarpello and Campbell, 1983). Gallup Polls, the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale, the Job-in-General Index, and the Faces Scale are examples of facet-free measurement, whereas the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) are examples of facet measurement. Many studies using facet satisfaction measurement have assumed that the level of overall job satisfaction can be calculated simply by summing satisfaction with individual job facets (e.g. work, pay, working conditions, interpersonal relationships). However, this assumption could be invalid, because this method of computing overall job satisfaction does not take into consideration the variation in importance that individual workers place on specific job aspects. Therefore, a disparity between the results obtained via the two types of measurement could be found quite often, even when the measurements are conducted on the same people (Smith *et al.*, 1969).

In this thesis, both methods were used to measure job satisfaction among academics. To perform facet-free measurement, the question “Please indicate how satisfied you are with your job overall, all things considered” was included in the questionnaire. The mean score of the responses to this question was 3.53. In contrast, the mean score calculated using the simple sum of mean scores for all items was 3.29. Which is more relevant? In this thesis, facet-free job satisfaction measurement was accepted as being more indicative of overall job satisfaction. There are two main reasons that facet-free

job satisfaction measurement was accepted as an indicator of overall job satisfaction. First, the extent to which each job aspect influences overall job satisfaction depends on the importance that academics place on it. Job aspects on which academics place more value have a greater impact on overall job satisfaction. Therefore, the simple sum of satisfaction with each job aspect cannot be construed to represent overall job satisfaction. The value that academics placed on specific job aspects was likely to depend on their individual circumstances. For example, academics who had alternative sources of income in addition to their jobs were less sensitive to monetary aspects than those who lacked other sources of income. Academics' financial needs varied according to their situations. One interviewee in his mid thirties said that he needed money for his children's education and for housing.

Another reason is the possibility of omission of some important job aspects that might have had a considerable impact on overall job satisfaction. If some aspects that might have contributed to overall job satisfaction were overlooked when designing the research tools, the measurements would not accurately represent overall satisfaction.

Impacts of Recent Changes of Higher Education on Job Satisfaction

This section deals with the challenges facing higher education in Korea and the impact of these challenges on job satisfaction among academics. In Korea, higher education has undergone enormous changes, as it has in other countries. Inevitably, these changes have influenced the working lives of academics.

Diversification is one of the most prominent changes occurring in higher education in Korea. Diversification is underway in various areas. Faculty compositions have diversified with regard to gender and race. The number of female academics is

growing. However, they are still a minority, and still occupy lower ranks than their male counterparts. In addition, while female academics are numerous in specific academic disciplines such as nursing, home economy, arts, and literature, there are few female academics in the disciplines of engineering, medicine and social sciences. Female academics are at a disadvantage in the workplace compared with their male colleagues. The difference in job satisfaction between the genders was discussed in detail earlier.

Additionally, forms of employment have also become more various. Academics are now hired in a variety of ways besides traditional permanent full-time employment. Contract-based academics, part-time academics, and academics whose duties are limited to teaching or research are examples of the increasing diversity of forms of employment. This diversity in employment serves to decrease cohesiveness among faculty members. Academics who are engaged in non-traditional ways are not conferred all of the duties and rights assigned to normal academics. For example, they are typically not responsible for administrative work. Thus, an increase in the number of academics who are employed in non-traditional ways could result in increased workloads for normal academics. The government revised regulations to provide industrial workers with more opportunities to teach at universities. The government (MOE, 2007a) explained the revised regulation thus:

Under a newly revised ‘Regulation on the Qualification Standards of University Faculty,’ when recruiting professors, universities are to reflect 70-100 percent of a candidate’s industrial work experience in the ‘research achievement’ criterion. Currently, a candidate’s work experience at industries is taken into consideration in the course of screening at a rate of 30-70 percent.

In other words, should a person holding a 10-year industrial career apply for a faculty position, universities are now to approve 7 to 10 years of the candidate's work experience. The change is expected to open more opportunities for professionals to share their knowledge on campus, thus contributing to the development of human resources adaptable to industrial needs. (p. 1)

In addition, normal academics' jobs have become increasingly varied, both between individuals and between institutions, from the aspects of pay, job security, and workload. Consequently, the social standing and recognition of academics varies from individual to individual and from university to university.

The goals of universities across the nation are also diverse. Some research-intensive universities pursue traditional goals, such as educating the academic elite and contributing to knowledge. Other universities focus on vocational education. The student body is also diversifying (Keller 2001). Furthermore, the number of adult university students is growing. Students of non-traditional age account for a considerable portion of the total student body at some universities. The increase in the number of adult students has influenced the working lives of academics. Teaching methods have changed in response to the increase in the number of adult students. Teaching is delivered online more often than before for the convenience of adult students who have full-time jobs. Correspondingly, academics are required to spend more time preparing on-line course material. Some interviewees taught classes on weekends or off-campus. One academic stated:

I cannot take a rest even on weekends, as I teach students every weekend.

Because they have paid jobs, it is difficult for them to attend normal classes on weekdays, so the university must provide weekend classes for them. I must go to the university to teach these students on weekends.

Also, the growing number of international students has changed the student body in higher education. Many Korean universities have made considerable efforts to recruit students from overseas. The number of foreign students at Korean universities has been steadily growing. The figure rose from 16,832 in 2004 to 75,850 in 2009 according to data released by MOE (cited by Bae, 2010). The increasing number of foreign students might help relieve financial difficulties at some universities. Some universities seem to be taking advantage of foreign students mainly to gain access to financial resources. However, the effect of the growing number of foreign students is not all positive. The increase in the number of students from overseas increases the workload of academics. Teaching foreign students takes more effort than teaching domestic students. A number of the academics who were interviewed felt that they had difficulty teaching foreign students because of their poor Korean language skills. One of the interviewees said:

It is more difficult to teach foreign students than domestic students. Above all, most of them have difficulty following the lectures because of their poor Korean language skills. They have not mastered Korean well enough to understand their classes.

Another interviewee expressed a similar opinion, saying:

Most foreign students cannot follow their classes because of their inadequate academic background and Korean language skills. They have difficulty understanding lectures delivered in the Korean language. Many students have

come here to get jobs rather than to study. There are many foreign students who do not attend classes at all.

Cultural differences between foreign and domestic students created difficulties for academics trying to teach foreign students. One interviewee said:

More than a few foreign students are struggling because of cultural differences or racism. It takes a lot of time for foreign students to become accustomed to our society. Cultural differences cause misunderstandings between domestic and foreign students. Sometime they feel frustrated since they experience racism. We need to pay more attention to them.

Illegal employment is another problem associated with foreign students. Some foreign students take advantage of the fact that they are studying in Korea to find work. A number of foreign students drop out of their classes and find illegal employment. They are not very interested in studying, even from the time they first enter Korea. Some universities, particularly those having difficulty recruiting new students, are poor at managing the academic affairs of foreign students (Song, 2009). These universities tend to lower their academic admissions standards for foreign students in order to attract more of them. One interviewee said:

Our university has started to expend a lot of energy recruiting foreign students, since we cannot meet our enrolment quota with domestic students alone. Our university is enthusiastic about recruiting foreign students, especially from Asian countries such as China, Thailand, and Mongolia. The number of foreign students has increased, but the infrastructure to support them, including accommodations, language instruction, and counselling service, is very poor. Moreover, the low academic standards for foreign students only make the

situation worse. Our university admits foreign students regardless of their calibre, mainly for the purpose of generating revenue. Teaching low-quality students is very frustrating.

The social status and occupational prestige of academics vary according to the reputation and financial status of the universities at which they work. One academic said:

When I started on my career path in academe, academics were respected and envied just for being academics. At that time, I was very proud to work at a university. But people do not respect all academics so much nowadays. What matters is which university you belong to. Academics working at small universities in provincial areas like this one are not respected anymore.

Not surprisingly, but interestingly, this study revealed an evident gap in both working conditions and academic job satisfaction between universities in Seoul and those in provincial areas. Some universities, especially newly established universities in provincial areas, were struggling with enrolment shortages and financial difficulties. Academics at such universities worked under tough conditions and were paid little. Consequently, they reported low job satisfaction.

Commercialisation is another aspect of the change sweeping higher education in Korea. Commercialisation has been found to have an effect on both research and teaching. Universities are becoming increasingly dependent on the private sector for research grants. Reliance on private sector entities, such as corporations, for research funds leads academics to undertake research projects that serve corporate rather than public interests. One interviewee said:

Without external funding, I would not be able to keep operating my research lab. I need a lot of money to buy expensive equipment for experiments and to pay postgraduates participating in research projects. I conduct many research projects at the request of corporations. When I undertake research projects funded by commercial organisations, I am concerned with the needs of such organisations. I am always afraid that my research will not meet the expectations of the organisations funding my research.

The increasing dependence of universities on external funding sources, such as the industrial and commercial sectors, causes conflicts, both between individuals and between disciplines. Different departments hold different attitudes toward external funding for research. For example, departments of engineering and applied sciences tended to advocate seeking external funding from the private sector. In contrast, departments of pure sciences and humanities, which had few opportunities to secure external funding, were more likely to comment negatively on the dependence on the private sector for research grants.

The academics who were interviewed expressed a variety of opinions about their universities' goals. As Halsey and Trow (1971) noted, the goals of universities have shifted from religious to secular targets, such as economic development. Universities began to be involved in the economy by educating professionals and conducting applied research. Training at universities is seen as essential for employment these days. In the applied science and technology fields in particular, training in preparation for employment is emphasised. However, several of the academics who were interviewed complained that universities placed too much emphasis on training for specialists with specific skills and knowledge rather than education for general

refinement and personal development. One interviewee said:

Nowadays, universities focus too much on imparting specific skill sets. Courses that aim to teach practical skills and knowledge are popular among students. Many universities, including this one, regard employment as very important. I think that universities should be something other than institutions for job training.

In contrast, some interviewees lauded the new role of universities. One interviewee said:

In the past, universities cloistered themselves from society. The curricula taught at universities were of little use. From now on, universities should play a key role in solving social problems, including the economic crisis facing our society. The curricula and teaching methods must be reformed to provide what the industrial and commercial sectors expect of universities.

Increasing accountability is another feature of the change taking place in higher education in Korea. Universities are not seen as ivory towers isolated from the non-academic world. Institutions of higher education have become expected to serve the societies that support and finance them. Funding agencies, students, their parents, and the community at large require universities to assume a large part of the responsibility for social development.

The public wants to know whether universities are accomplishing their missions properly or not. This emphasis on increased accountability in higher education has changed the way that universities operate. The interviewees felt that the culture of bureaucracy has deeply permeated universities. Academics and departments are

required to maintain detailed records of their activities. In addition, various methods of assessing performance at the individual level and the institutional level have been developed. Public and private organisations, such as newspapers and the Korean Council for University Education, have participated in evaluating the quality of universities. Individual universities' ability to receive funding from governmental organisations is linked to the results of their performance evaluations. One interviewee said:

There are too many evaluations. I am very busy preparing for the large number of evaluations. These evaluations require me to do a lot of paperwork. But these evaluations do not improve the quality or productivity of higher education. I think that evaluations are conducted for their own sake.

Again, academics complained that excessive bureaucracy has eroded valuable traditions within academia. Universities have been regarded as organisations that fit the typical collegial model proposed by Parsons and Platt (1968). Academics are given the right to participate in decisions made at their institutions. However, stakeholders do not want to allow universities to govern themselves. People outside universities have begun to have a say in what universities accomplish in various ways.

The growth of higher education in Korea in absolute terms has been accompanied by teaching standardisation. Examples of teaching standardisation are modularised courses, credits, and the degree granting system. Standardisation of higher education has the potential to conflict with one tenet of education, which academics have valued highly for a long time. Because education must essentially include individual education through close interaction between teachers and students, standardised teaching cannot satisfy the diverse needs and expectations of individuals.

In the interviews, it was found that faculty members felt that academic freedom was constrained when either course content or teaching methods were unduly controlled or influenced. One interviewee said:

I am very stressed whenever my courses are directed by my department. I do not want anyone to tell me what to teach or how to teach it. I should be able to teach what I want, and in the way that I deem appropriate. In reality, this is not necessarily the case. Sometimes I am told that I must follow the guidelines set by the department administration.

The trend towards more intensive management is leading to increased competition between universities, both within and beyond national boundaries. Korean universities have been criticised as uncompetitive, despite their remarkable growth in size and number. The Korean government has a keen interest in the results of evaluations of university quality by renowned entities around the world, such as *The US and World Report* and *Times Higher Education*. Many people blame higher education policies for Korea's unsatisfactory ranking in worldwide evaluations. In claiming that the Korean higher education system is problematic, they point out that there are few universities that rank within the top 100 universities in the world. Such evaluation results are not congruent with national economic capacity, given that Korea is the eleventh largest country in the world from the aspect of GNI (Gross National Income). Government agencies have implemented various measures to improve the global rankings of Korean universities.

However, the government has abstained from becoming directly involved in academic affairs in the belief that avoiding regulation fosters diversity, creativity, and

competitiveness among higher education institutions. Instead of exercising direct control over higher education institutions, the government has promulgated various initiatives to scrutinise the effectiveness of education.

As a way of increasing productivity, a higher education performance evaluation system has been introduced in Korea. Under this system, universities are forced to continually evaluate their missions and the way they operate, and to assess the performance of departments and individual academics. In addition, students, policymakers, and taxpayers are demanding better access to information on individual universities. Regardless of whether they are privately or publicly funded, universities are required to reveal information about alumni employment, research performance, and financial status since the related law came into effect in 2008. The government made announcement on introduction of an information disclosure system as follows (MOE, 2007c):

In order to heighten competition, the ministry will introduce a new information disclosure system that provides students and parents with information on each university's administrative state and educational environment. (p. 1)

In addition, the government requires all universities to conduct annual self-evaluations and release the results.

Performance appraisals of individual academics were cited as another example of the overemphasis on management. Performance appraisals serve two main purposes: formative and summative. For the formative purpose, performances appraisals are conducted to provide information to help individuals improve their performance. Meanwhile, summative performance appraisals are conducted to provide information to be used when making decisions on promotion and tenure. The performance of

every academic is assessed, and the assessment results form the basis of decisions on pay, promotion, and tenure of academics. Correspondingly, the burden on academics has increased. Academics reported working longer hours and fulfilling a greater diversity of roles. Many interviewees felt that performance appraisals were superficial and did not reflect the true nature of academic work. They added that current appraisal systems had a tendency to over-emphasise quantity. Such appraisal systems forced academics to pay more attention to quantity at the expense of quality.

Previous research (Dobson and Conway, 2003; Lane, 1985) has found that conflicts or other forms of tension existed between academics and administrative staff. This study also found tensions between the two groups. The blurring boundary between academic and administrative work seemed only to exacerbate conflict between the two professional groups. Administrative staff should, it was felt, undertake tasks that support academic work. However, it is not easy to tell the difference between academic and administrative work in real-life situations, as administrative work is diverse and often requires sophisticated knowledge and skills. Some of the academics who were interviewed felt that administrative staff compromised their autonomy.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the qualitative and quantitative research findings on job satisfaction among academics have been critically analysed and discussed. The research findings suggest that academics in Korea are more satisfied with promotion than their counterparts in the U.K. One possible explanation for this gap in satisfaction with promotion between the two countries is cultural differences related to employment. Furthermore, Korean academics place greater importance on intrinsic factors than on

extrinsic factors. In addition, satisfaction with intrinsic factors has a greater impact on overall job satisfaction than satisfaction with extrinsic factors. Lastly, as in other countries, in Korea, higher education has undergone critical changes, which have led to corresponding changes in academics' work environments. However, this thesis does not find that overall job satisfaction among Korean academics has increased or decreased significantly.

The next chapter will summarise the research findings, point out any limitations to the research, and consider the policy implications. It will also establish the merit of the thesis as a doctoral study and suggest areas for further research.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter presents conclusions made on the basis of the research results. It begins with a reminder of the research aims, followed by a summary of the research findings, methodologies, and limitations. Then, the implications for policy-making are presented along with suggestions for further research. Finally, the contribution the thesis makes to the general body of knowledge is reviewed.

Summary of the Thesis

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which academics at Korean universities are satisfied with their jobs.

The academics involved in this study exhibited different levels of satisfaction with different job aspects. Generally, they reported being satisfied with their work, academic freedom, recognition, personal development, interpersonal relationships, and job security. However, they were dissatisfied with their pay and with policy and administration, and were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their working conditions.

The study participants were moderately satisfied with their jobs on the whole. The vast majority of academics claimed that they would become academics again if they

were given the opportunity to start over. Generally speaking, intrinsic aspects, such as the nature of their work, recognition, opportunities for professional development, and academic freedom, were seen as contributing to overall job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors, such as pay, working conditions, and policy and administration, were seen as contributing to overall job dissatisfaction. These results supported Herzberg's two-factor theory. Contrary to the two-factor theory, however, some academics regarded extrinsic factors, such as a peaceful campus and high job security, as aspects from which they derived job satisfaction. Furthermore, some academics regarded intrinsic factors, such as the nature of their work, as factors contributing to dissatisfaction. The reason why some academics derived satisfaction from extrinsic factors and some cited intrinsic factors as contributing to job dissatisfaction might be related to the difference in the amount of importance that academics attached to various job aspects. Academics felt satisfied when their jobs could provide what they valued. This notion was supported by the results of this study.

Differences in job satisfaction between groups based on age, gender, university control type, and university location were examined in this thesis.

Older academics showed higher satisfaction with most job aspects, as well as with overall job satisfaction, than did their younger colleagues. This might be because older academics held better positions than younger ones. Older academics were likely to be paid better and to hold more senior academic positions. In addition, most academics were able to broaden their personal networks as they grew older.

Female academics showed lower satisfaction with most job aspects and with overall job satisfaction than did their male colleagues. There are various possible

explanations for the lower job satisfaction among female academics. Age might partly explain the gender-based differences in job satisfaction, as female academics were generally younger than their male counterparts. The male-dominated culture in academe might also be having a negative effect on job satisfaction among female academics. Female academics were underrepresented in policy-making processes. Because the proportion of female academics holding major managerial posts, such as chancellor and department head, was lower than that for male academics, they had fewer opportunities to take part in decision-making processes. Additionally, female academics had difficulty finding colleagues to help them get settled in during the early stage of their careers. They were also disadvantaged when it came to their ability to socialise and participate in informal meetings. They reported encountering problems when joining social events, as such events were usually accompanied by male-dominated activities such as drinking. Finally, female academics were more likely to report a conflict between their dual responsibilities, that is, their responsibilities to their families and their jobs, than were their male counterparts. The burdens of childbearing, childcare, and housework made it harder for female academics to set and maintain a balance between their jobs and their home lives.

Academics at private universities reported higher pay satisfaction than their counterparts at public universities, whereas academics at public universities reported higher satisfaction with university administration than did their counterparts at private universities. The higher pay satisfaction among private universities was likely attributable for the most part to the fact that the pay is higher in absolute terms. One possible explanation for higher satisfaction with administration among academics at public universities might be the governance system. Generally, authority within universities was more decentralised at public universities than at private universities.

Regardless of how their universities were funded, academics had opportunities to take part in university decision-making processes through academic communities such as senates and academic councils. However, academics' voices were generally less influential at private universities than at public universities. Boards of trustees have strong power over a wide range of policies and administration at private universities. In contrast, academic committees are more influential at public universities, where there are no boards of trustees, than at private universities. Academics at public universities consequently share greater authority in decision-making over a wide range of academic affairs than do their counterparts at private universities.

The research findings showed that a university's geographic location strongly influenced the extent of job satisfaction of the academics who worked there. Academics at universities in Seoul reported higher satisfaction with most job aspects, as well as higher overall job satisfaction, than those at universities in the provinces. The reason for this was that the location of a university had considerable impact on the lives of those who worked there in various ways. The location of a university was regarded as an important factor in determining the university's popularity. All other conditions being equal, students preferred universities in Seoul over universities in the provinces. In particular, private universities located in small cities struggled with low student enrolment because they were unpopular. Academics at these universities were tempted to lower academic admissions standards in order to meet enrolment quotas. Those at universities in provincial areas had heavier teaching loads and were paid less than those at universities in Seoul. In addition, the living infrastructure is better in Seoul than in the provinces. Generally, people enjoy better infrastructure from the aspects of medical service, childhood education, public transportation, shopping, and entertainment in Seoul than in other areas. Moreover, participants reported that living in Seoul provided other advantages. As major academic conferences are more likely to

be held in Seoul, and the majority of organisations that fund research projects are located there, academics at universities in provincial areas have to spend a considerable amount of time and money on travel.

Research Methodology Considerations

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to answer the research questions. The qualitative analysis comprised interviews with twenty-five academics, while the quantitative analysis was based on the data obtained from 498 survey questionnaires.

It is worth briefly comparing the interview and the questionnaire. Although each research tool had its own intrinsic strengths and weaknesses, efforts were made to offset the disadvantages and maximize the advantages of each.

The data obtained through the interviews informed the design of the questionnaire. It provided the writer of this thesis with insights and suggestions for the development of the survey questionnaire. The factors that influenced the attitudes of academics toward their work were identified using this qualitative data. Moreover, the in-depth interview data provided a way of understanding academics' sentiments more deeply than what would have been possible on the basis of simple descriptions.

The quantitative data obtained using the questionnaire were helpful in identifying the extent to which academics were satisfied with their jobs and in comparing job satisfaction among groups based on age, gender, academic discipline, whether a university was public or private, and university location.

Meanwhile, the qualitative data were more useful than the quantitative data in investigating why academics were satisfied with their jobs. For example, although the quantitative data clearly showed higher job satisfaction among older academics than among younger ones, the qualitative data, based on in-depth interviews, provided a wealth of information that hinted at possible reasons for the age-related variation in job satisfaction. The qualitative data suggested that the higher job satisfaction that was observed among older academics could be attributed to the more rewarding positions, increased opportunities for professional development, and more extensive personal networks they enjoyed. Finally, the qualitative and quantitative data were crosschecked against each other to assure the validity and reliability of the research.

There is no research that is without limitation, and this thesis is no exception. It would be naive to assume that all of the interviewees' responses were honest. During some of the interviews, the present researcher often felt that the interviewees were not talking freely about their feelings or opinions. For instance, some interviewees hesitated when asked to answer questions about their feelings and attitudes toward their supervisors and colleagues. This would be attributable in part to a psychological defence mechanism. Inevitably, academics could not express their opinions or feelings freely when they were afraid that their responses might entail negative repercussions. Although they were told that their names, as well as other personal information that could be used to determine or guess their identity, would be kept confidential, some did not seem convinced. Moreover, it would not have been realistic to expect frank answers from academics who had never met the interviewer, that is, the author of this thesis. The researcher tried to establish a rapport with the interviewees by engaging in small talk prior to commencing the actual interviews.

In addition, this study is limited in the extent to which generalisations can be made due to the possibility that the research participants were not perfectly representative of the groups from which they were drawn. The number of academics participating in the study was too small for the findings to be reliably generalised. The small sample size is related to the conditions under which the present researcher undertook this study. As the researcher had a full-time job, he conducted this research under strict time and resource constraints.

Implications for Theories

The purpose of the thesis is to critically investigate phenomena pertaining to job satisfaction among Korean academics. Unlike many previous studies, which focused merely on measuring the level of job satisfaction, this thesis aims to gain a deeper understanding in this area using an analytical theoretical framework. The thesis considers not only job satisfaction level but also the conditions under which Korean academics work and the job aspects to which they were attached. In addition, whether or not differences in job satisfaction exist between particular groups based on demographic and institutional factors was determined, and an effort was made to elucidate the reason for any differences that were found.

This study is distinguished from many previous studies by the methodologies deployed herein. Most studies of job satisfaction have deployed questionnaires as the main method of collecting data. Questionnaire surveys do, in fact, enjoy numerous advantages. They are cost-efficient and convenient. Additionally, many standardised instruments for measuring job satisfaction have been developed to date. Thus, it takes little time or money to conduct a credible, repeatable questionnaire survey using

standardised instruments. However, quantitative research has its limitations. It is not likely to provide rich or deep data that shed light on reasons why academics are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. In this study, however, because both qualitative and quantitative research methods are deployed, meaningful research findings that go well beyond those that could be obtained using a superficial survey are anticipated.

In addition, this study can make a significant contribution to the body of academic knowledge. As mentioned earlier, there has been little research on the job satisfaction of academics. Theories and methods related to the measurement of job satisfaction have been developed for use in the industrial and commercial areas. Some instruments that were developed to measure the job satisfaction of unskilled and semi-skilled workers have been widely adopted. However, these theories and measurement methods have not been scrutinised enough with an eye to their relevance in the context of higher education. In this study, the theories developed for use in industry will be examined in detail to determine the extent to which they are applicable within academe.

Korean academics value intrinsic job aspects, such as the nature of their work, autonomy in the workplace, and recognition, than extrinsic job aspects such as pay, workload and administration. In addition, job intrinsic factors have more impacts on job satisfaction than job extrinsic factors. The questionnaire data were also analysed to identify the extent to which satisfaction with each job aspect influenced overall job satisfaction among academics. The correlation between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with each job aspect was analysed in order to achieve this task. Satisfaction with intrinsic factors, such as work, academic freedom, and recognition,

were more closely related with overall satisfaction than was satisfaction with extrinsic factors, such as pay, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and policy and administration. The results of the correlation analysis based on the questionnaire data were generally consistent with the interview data analysis. However, this result must be interpreted with caution, as the correlation analysis showed only the relationship between them, without indicating whether a cause-effect relationship exists.

The above findings suggest that it is worth investigating methods of measuring overall job satisfaction more deeply. Methods of measuring job satisfaction fall into one of two categories: facet-free measurement and facet measurement (Scarpello and Campbell, 1983). Gallup Polls, the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale, the Job-in-General Index, and the Faces Scale are examples of facet-free measurement, whereas the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) are examples of facet measurement. Many studies using facet satisfaction measurement have assumed that the level of overall job satisfaction can be calculated simply by summing satisfaction with individual job facets (e.g. work, pay, working conditions, interpersonal relationships). However, this assumption is invalid, because this method of computing overall job satisfaction does not take into consideration the variation in importance that individual workers place on specific job aspects. Therefore, a disparity between the results obtained via the two types of measurement could emerge even when the measurements are conducted on the same people (Smith *et al.*, 1969).

Implications for Policy Making

This research has implications for department heads, university chancellors, and government offices interested in improving the quality of academics' working lives.

Academics are the most valuable asset of higher education, and thus whether they are satisfied with their jobs is important for various reasons. First, satisfied workers are mentally and physically healthy. Furthermore, job satisfaction is also beneficial to employers. Job satisfaction can contribute to improved productivity. In addition, universities can cut costs associated with recruiting and retaining capable academics by improving the job satisfaction of current academics, because satisfied workers are less likely to quit their jobs. This research can be very helpful to policy makers who are considering measures to help academics work more contentedly. The following recommendations are put forth with the goal of improving job satisfaction among academics at Korean universities.

Support for Faculty Development

The research findings showed that Korean universities lacked systematic faculty development programmes. Travel support for academic conferences, teaching training, orientation for those about to assume administrative posts, and sabbatical leave are examples of widely implemented faculty development programmes. Although universities have implemented various such faculty development programmes, the interview data revealed that these programmes are not systematically organised.

Faculty development has been defined both as any measures that improve academics' performance in the tasks they undertake (Nelson, 1983) and as integrated endeavours to renew and vitalise individual academics (Camblin and Steger, 2000). Academics experienced development in areas such as academic performance, personal learning and discipline, and social change (Akerlind, 2005).

Faculty development is a critical part of ensuring the success and prosperity of both academics and universities. Faculty development is considered a useful strategy for overcoming the challenges facing higher education. In addition, faculty development contributes to teaching quality and enhances satisfaction among academics (Gazioglu and Tansel, 2006; Sikes and Barrett, 1976).

There are a number of reasons why the need to provide teachers with proper training is becoming urgent. Most academics do not receive even a little training in how to teach students, despite the importance of teaching. Unlike primary and secondary school teachers, academics at universities teach students without having to take any teacher training courses. Many of the changes that have taken place in higher education recently are related to the increased focus on teacher training. As mentioned earlier, the expansion of higher education has been accompanied by the side effect of decreased academic ability among students. A number of university students lack the fundamental background knowledge required to complete their curricula. In addition, they are not motivated to study. Academics should learn how to entice students to get involved in their classes. Additionally, they should be trained in methods for making their lectures easier for students to understand. Besides their expertise in their respective academic disciplines, they should be equipped with knowledge in various fields and should possess various skills, including communication, counselling, and presentation skills, as well as the ability to grade exams and essays.

The application of advanced technology to teaching is one area in which academics are increasingly required to develop themselves. Gappa *et al.* (2007) suggest:

Contextual changes affecting higher education institutions today require the best from faculty members even as they simultaneously change the playing field,

necessitating new skills and abilities in addition to the traditional talents and competencies expected of professors. (p. 6)

Nowadays, advanced technologies are applied in universities in many ways. Many visual teaching aids, such as projectors, motion pictures, and slides, are used during classes. Furthermore, computers and the Internet have become essential tools for teaching, research, and administration at universities. Online teaching has gained popularity due to its convenience and low cost. Academics should be provided with programmes to help them familiarise themselves with the new technologies that are penetrating academe.

However, although most universities provide programmes to help faculty members improve their teaching methods, these programmes do not seem to attract much attention from academics. Most of the academics who were interviewed wanted programmes that were of practical use. For example, they wanted to learn how to prepare for computer-based classes, how to attract their students' attention, and how to guide their postgraduate students. However, they felt that the programmes that were offered were too generic to be of any practical use. Academics often regarded the programmes offered them as trivial or useless.

In order for faculty development programmes to be effective, they should be comprehensive and systematic. Such programmes should implement a variety of developmental strategies and encompass personal, professional, and organisational development (Schuster and Wheeler, 1990). Riegle (1987) categorised the various aspects of faculty development as follows.

- *Institutional development*, which emphasises the development of faculty

members' skills related to instructional technology, microteaching, media, courses, and curricula.

- *Professional development*, which emphasises the growth and development of individual faculty members in their professional roles.
- *Organisational development*, which emphasises the needs, priorities, and organisations of the institution.
- *Personal development*, which emphasises life planning, interpersonal skills and the growth of faculty members as individuals. (p. 54)

Diverse programmes for faculty development should be provided in accordance with respective stages of individual faculty members' personal lives and careers (Weldman and Strathe, 1985). The acquisition of the knowledge and skills required to function as faculty members is a key component of on-the-job training at the beginning stage of academics' careers (Lichty and Stewart, 2000). Training for new academics is important given that newcomers entering their respective organisations often encounter difficulties arising from discrepancies between the roles they anticipate playing and what is actually expected of them (Feldman, 1976; Louis, 1980). A large number of interviewees reported that they sensed a gap between their expectations and the reality of academic work. They managed to maintain a balance between the competing tasks. They became familiar with their new surroundings by adjusting their attitudes and improving their time management and teaching skills.

Although junior academics want someone to guide them, they have difficulty finding such a person, and thus generally have to orient themselves. Individual consultation has been suggested as a good method to help them learn to how to perform their roles effectively (Bragg, 1981). Such individual consultation could be conducted taking

into account their individual needs and situations. As there are many practices and cultural aspects beyond what is officially documented, new faculty members have difficulties understanding and learning university practices and becoming accustomed to the academic atmosphere merely by reading documentation alone. Unwritten rules are as important as documented ones when it comes to performance evaluations, promotion, and tenure. The findings of this study supported this notion. Most of the interviewees who had been appointed within the past two years reported having difficulties planning courses and writing syllabi. Introductory programmes should be provided for such academics.

Mentoring is a type of individual consultation. The benefits that universities could derive from mentoring include the smoother entry of young academics into academe, enhanced productivity, increased job satisfaction, and higher retention of academics (Blackburn, Chapman and Cameron, 1981). Mentors could help mentees become accustomed to their new surroundings and deal with matters such as obtaining information about research grants, participating in social activities, and preparing for promotion and tenure. The findings of this study corroborate this opinion.

Although mentoring programmes are not new in other sectors, such as in governmental organisations and commercial institutions, mentoring programmes are not widely implemented at universities. The prevalent academic culture might be functioning as a hindrance to the introduction of such mentoring programmes. Specific obstacles include the high value placed on individualism, academic freedom and autonomy in academe. Additionally, decreased collegiality and tighter time constraints were cited as barriers to the implementation of mentoring programmes. Some academics indicated reluctance to play the role of mentor because being a

mentor was time-consuming and offered little reward. Nevertheless, mentoring programmes should be introduced in universities as it is believed that career relationships have an important impact on academic productivity and development (Cameron, 1978). Professional organisations such as universities are ideal places for the development of career relationships through mentoring.

Programmes for faculty development are also needed for academics in the middle of their careers. Academics who have worked in academe for a decade need to learn how to prepare for the processes of promotion, reappointment, and tenure. In the interviews, academics reported that they were given information about promotion, reappointment, and tenure, but most of them said that the process still seemed confusing and fraught with uncertainty.

The Balance between Academics' Roles

Interviewees unanimously agreed that teaching and research are academics' core tasks. However, in most universities there is an agonistic relationship between the functions of teaching and research (Boyer, 1987; Koplik and Welsh, 1993).

The majority of all of the academics who were interviewed placed more importance on teaching than research. However, paradoxically, more academics preferred research to teaching. They perceived that teaching was not as important as research in evaluations pertaining to decisions on promotion, tenure, reappointment, and financial compensation. Present performance evaluation and pay systems likely serve as factors that reinforce the greater emphasis placed on research than on teaching in higher education. Research performance is frequently used as a quality indicator at both the

individual and institutional levels. The reason why research performance is widely used for measuring the effectiveness of higher education is its objectivity and efficacy as an indicator (Kasten, 1984; Paul and Rubin, 1984; Webster, 1986). The number of articles published in reputable academic journals is the most commonly used factor when comparing universities, both within South Korea and across the world. In contrast, measurements of teaching performance are too subjective to be standardised. Consequently, it is hard to draw comparisons even between departments within the same university, let alone between universities.

Many interviewees tried to spend as much time as possible on research at the expense of time spent on teaching. The tendency not to take teaching seriously leads to reduced quality of higher education. Criticism of the quality of education has been raised among employers of university graduates. In the business sector, in which a large proportion of university graduates are employed, complaints arise that it is hard to find suitable job applicants. Business representatives claim that universities must pay more attention to the quality of education.

The research findings showed that many academics experienced a conflict between their dual roles as educators and researchers. A few universities have stated their missions clearly. However, the majority of universities did not have clearly articulated mission statements. In particular, middle-ranking universities tended to take ambiguous stances with regard to their missions. As research-oriented universities are generally considered excellent universities in Korea, many universities insist that they are research-oriented universities, although in reality they are not. A number of academics at these universities were confused by such mixed messages. They reported feeling pressure to publish, yet were required to take on heavy teaching loads.

It is time that the practices and cultures of academe changed in the direction of maintaining a balance between teaching and research. More attention should be paid to teaching, which is the primary task of academics (Hornback, 1993; Toch, 1990). This was supported in the interviews, in which teaching was viewed as the most important task, or at least as important as research. The awareness of teaching in higher education should be enhanced. To maintain a balance between teaching and research, some measures need to be taken at the governmental and university levels. More importance should be placed on teaching excellence when evaluating the performance of both institutions and individual academics.

Universities should consider the ability to strike a balance between teaching and research as one of the criteria for determining promotion and tenure, given that teaching excellence is regarded as a key factor in improving institutional prestige (Boyes, Happel and Hogan, 1984). Additionally, government grants should be variably allocated to universities, departments, and individual academics on the basis of teaching excellence.

In addition, a sophisticated and comprehensive method of measuring teaching performance should be developed. Many academics complained that the criteria for evaluating teaching performance were too superficial to help distinguish between excellent and mediocre teachers. Moreover, when developing techniques for measuring teaching quality, the unique characteristics of respective academic disciplines should be borne in mind. Because teaching methods differ across academic disciplines, these differences should be taken into consideration when developing measures of teaching performance.

Universities should provide academics with accurate information regarding performance evaluations. Some academics were confused and embarrassed when they found that the performance evaluation standards cited in official documents differed from those that were used in practice. For example, regulations claimed that the same weight was to be given to teaching and research, but in reality, teaching performance did not have as much of an effect on promotion, tenure, reappointment, or incentives as research performance.

Compatibility between Personal and Professional Lives

The majority of academics regretted not being able to strike compatibility between their professional and personal lives. Long working hours and lack of consideration given to family responsibilities were often cited as factors that contributed to the conflict between work and family life. Most academics worked in their offices or laboratories until late at night. They had to sacrifice their personal lives in order to keep up with their colleagues. They had difficulty finding enough time for their personal lives and families. Although academics had problems balancing their professional and personal lives regardless of their gender, female academics were more sensitive to this issue than were their male counterparts. This was in part because female academics reported assuming a greater responsibility for caring for the family and doing housework. Some female academics postponed plans to have children because they anticipated having trouble fulfilling both professional and parental roles. As the proportion of female academics in academe is growing, it is becoming more important to find ways for professional and family life to coexist.

Universities should be more sensitive to academics' familial requirements and help them achieve a balance in their daily lives (Jacobs and Winslow, 2004). If supervisors, such as department heads, were to be more supportive, it would go a long way toward alleviating this conflict. Employer-sponsored childcare facilities should be expanded to alleviate the burden of raising children. In addition, the introduction of flexible working schedules should be considered to provide academics with a more favourable environment for balancing their personal lives and family responsibilities. That would enable academics to rearrange their working hours within certain guidelines set by universities. For instance, academics could be given varying degrees of control over when they arrive at or leave their offices. Flexible working schedules contribute to job satisfaction and work-family compatibility (Galinsky and Johnson, 1998; Hill, Hawkins, Ferris and Weitzman, 2001).

The government should also take measures to mitigate the burden of childcare. Policy makers should ensure that academics are provided with better access to childcare facilities. Many female interviewees reported having trouble finding suitable childcare facilities. Either there were no childcare facilities near their houses, or, if there were, they did not stay open until late at night. If childcare facilities that ran until late at night were available at universities, academics would not have to go to the trouble of looking elsewhere for childcare services.

The present tenure review system makes it hard for academics to integrate their family responsibilities with their working lives. A couple female interviewees even reported that they were considering postponing having babies in preparation for tenure reviews. The notion of "stopping the tenure clock" should be considered as a means of relieving the conflict between work and family obligations that many academics

experience. Under such a system, a certain period of time could be exempted from performance reviews at the request of academics for specific reasons such as pregnancy, child delivery, and childcare. It seems that many academics with burdensome family obligations would be able to derive great benefit from the implementation of such a tenure clock-stopping program.

Partnerships between Academics and Administrative Staff

A number of academics involved in this study reported being dissatisfied with their university policy and administration. Conflicts between academics and administrative staff were one of the reasons for dissatisfaction with administration cited by academics. Tensions between academics and administrative staff at universities have long been known to be a frequently occurring issue in the field of higher education management (Becher and Kogan, 1992; Millett, 1968; Perkins, 1973; Plowman, 1997). This study also unearthed reports of tensions and conflicts between the two professional groups. The academics who were interviewed felt that administrative staff interfered with their work and undermined their ability to fulfil their roles. The clash between the two groups was partly attributed to cultural differences between the two groups (Conway, 1998). This was confirmed in this study. Administrative staff was likely to be more sensitive to campus hierarchies and to value efficiency more highly than academics. In contrast, academics tended to value collegiality, the sharing and preservation of knowledge, and autonomy (Conway, 1998).

In addition, the boundary between academic work and administrative work has become blurred. According to the interviews, the professional groups were in discord with each other in part because of the ambiguous delineations of the roles of

academics and administrative staff. Reduced resources and increased emphases on management were cited as factors aggravating such tensions within organisations.

Tension between the two groups could create a rift, leading to organisational dysfunction and ineffectiveness. Given that both academics and administrative staff are both valuable university resources, cooperation between them is essential for the survival and prosperity of universities. In order to enhance cooperation, active communication between academics and administrative staff is required. Communication is believed to contribute to mutual understanding.

The Reform of Higher Education

One of the most striking finding of the thesis research was the striking difference in job satisfaction between academics in Seoul and those in provincial areas. Generally, academics at universities in Seoul reported higher satisfaction with various job aspects, such as work, academic freedom, and working conditions, as well as higher job satisfaction overall, compared to their counterparts at universities in provincial areas. This is partly because academics at universities in Seoul enjoyed better conditions at work and in their daily lives than did those at universities in provincial areas. Some academics in provincial areas were frustrated by deteriorating working conditions and the uncertain future of their careers. The gap in working conditions among institutions might be a sign of diversification of higher universities (Altbach, 2005; Finkelstein, 1984; Harman 2001). In addition, some view the gap as not only inevitable but also desirable to some extent. However, some universities faced serious financial difficulties, resulting largely from enrolment shortages.

The development of higher education in Korea since modern higher education was introduced has been striking. The fever for education has led to an oversupply of higher education. Several universities are finding it increasingly harder to recruit students. Some universities have lowered their academic standards in order to attract and retain students. It is time to reconstruct higher education in order to guarantee the quality of education. Measures to restructure underperforming universities should be implemented.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study explored job satisfaction among academics at Korean universities using both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. Although some valuable findings were obtained, this study is limited in its broad applicability, as mentioned earlier. Further research is recommended to corroborate the findings of this study. Further research is recommended in the areas noted below.

The research findings suggested that the importance placed on job-related factors had an impact on job satisfaction. Further research is recommended to focus on the extent to which Korean academics valued specific factors such as work, academic freedom, pay, promotion, and job security. Additionally, the relationship between the importance that academics place on their jobs and job satisfaction should be investigated more deeply.

Further research is also recommended to identify what factors cause differences in job satisfaction between male and female academics. Gender differences in job satisfaction have been the subject of much inquiry in the commercial sector. However,

very little research has been focused on this topic in the context of higher education in Korea. This study posits that there were many differences between male and female academics with regard to their attitudes or feelings toward their jobs. However, because not enough female academics were involved in this study, it is hard to make generalisations based on the researching findings.

The impact of academic discipline and type of university on job satisfaction is worth further investigation. Clark (1987) suggests that different academic disciplines and university types have different cultures. As culture is thought to influence academics' satisfaction with their jobs patterns of job satisfaction according to academic discipline and institutional characteristics are expected to emerge.

Further research should include the use of various additional research methods, such as observations and focus group studies. Interviews and questionnaire surveys are limited in that they both rely on self-reporting. Although these methods are very useful in providing deep insights because richer and more detailed information can be obtained than when using other methods, to more closely approximate real-life situations, a greater diversity of data collecting methods should be deployed in subsequent research.

Concluding Remarks

From a theoretical point of view, this thesis is believed to contribute to our overall understanding of job satisfaction in the context of higher education in Korea. Academics have frequently studied workers' feelings and attitudes toward their job in the commercial sector, but ironically, there is little research on the job satisfaction of academics themselves. Little research on job satisfaction of academics has been

conducted anywhere in the world, let alone in Korea.

This thesis reflects the most current approach to data collection in that both qualitative and quantitative methods were utilised. Because the notion of job satisfaction is subjective and elusive, any study pertaining thereto needs to be designed such that data are collected and analysed carefully and deeply. Job satisfaction is so complex and complicated that it is hard to gain a deep understanding of people's feelings and attitudes toward their job using only one data collection method. As mentioned earlier, there are no generally agreed-upon instruments for measuring job satisfaction in the higher education context. However, in the bulk of the existing research, only quantitative methods, mainly questionnaires, have been deployed. Few studies on job satisfaction have implemented both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Because this study included both quantitative and qualitative methods, it was able to contribute to a deeper understanding of job satisfaction among academics at Korean universities.

This study has implications both for the advancement of theory and for practical application, the latter in that it provides policy makers with an excellent foundation for overcoming the challenges faced in higher education in Korea. As academics are responsible for educating young minds, it is very important to study their feelings and attitudes toward their jobs. The present researcher insists that academics' attitudes and degree of devotion to their jobs are critical in determining the extent to which the quality and competitiveness of higher education can be improved. This thesis can be of great use to those wishing to gain a clear understanding of academics' attitudes so that they can devise and introduce optimum strategies for developing human resources in institutions of higher education.

The present researcher has worked for more than ten years in the field of higher education, and has extensive experience in the field of human resources related to academics. In the course of this experience, he was involved in introducing and implementing the policy of performance evaluation and performance-based appointment system for academics. The present researcher feels that these experiences have equipped him with a better understanding of academic society and academic life. Consequently, in this thesis he was able not only to describe patterns of job satisfaction, but also to identify the factors underlying the attitudes and sentiments of academics at Korean universities.

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APPENDICES

THE PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Dear

I am doing a Ph. D. course under the supervision of Professor William John Morgan, the UNESCO Centre for Comparative Education Research School of Education at the University of Nottingham in the United Kingdom. My research topic is “A Critical Analysis of Job Satisfaction among Academics at Korean Universities”.

As part of data collecting methods, the questionnaire survey is utilized in this study. Thus I would like to invite you to take part in questionnaire survey. It will take no more than fifteen minutes to answer all items on the questionnaire sheet.

I emphasise that your participation in the study is entirely voluntary. You are free to refuse to answer all or a part of items. Personal data gathered through the questionnaire will be kept strictly confidential, and under no circumstances will your name or any identifying characteristics be included in the final thesis. If you agree to participate in the study, please complete the questionnaire and return it using the prepaid envelop before 28 April 2008.

Thank you for cooperation.

Please feel free to contact me or his supervisor on the following the addresses.

Yours faithfully,

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THE PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Project title: *A Critical Analysis of Job Satisfaction among Korean Academics*

Researcher’s name: Hong-Goo Kim

Supervisor’s name: Professor William John Morgan

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential. *{If other arrangements have been agreed in relation to identification of research participants this point will require amendment to accurately reflect those arrangements}*
- I understand that I will be audiotaped during the interview.
- I understand that data *will be stored in forms of hard and electronic copies of transcripts, and audiotape; only the researcher and her examiners have access to it; and the data will only be used for the purposes of the research and not shown to anyone else inappropriately.*
- I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Research Ethics Coordinator of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

Signed(research participant)

Print name Date

Contact details

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THE INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Time:

Date:

Place:

Name of interviewee:

Position of interviewee:

Questions:

1. Please provide a bibliographical description of yourself, including age, sex or gender, educational history, academic field and marital status.
2. What do you like most about your job?
3. What do you dislike about your job?
4. How satisfied are you with your job overall?
5. What is the most important factor when choosing or deciding to keep your job?
6. How satisfied are you with intrinsic job aspects, e.g. the nature of work, academic freedom, recognition, and career development?
7. How satisfied are you with extrinsic job aspects, e.g. the pay, workload, physical environment, human relationships, facilities, and university policy?
8. What sources contribute to job satisfaction?
9. What sources contribute to job dissatisfaction?
10. Do you have any intention to leave your present job in the next couple of years? If so, why?
11. Please describe your work and the situation in which you work.
12. What are recent changes that seem to have had significant impacts on the working

lives of academics?

13. Is there anything else that you want to talk about in relation to your working life?

Thank the individual for participating in the interview. Request follow-up information, if needed. Assure him or her of the confidentiality of the interview and any potential future interviews.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions pertain to your demographic characteristics. Please tick where appropriate.

1. Gender: Male (), Female ()
2. Age: Under 40 (), 40-49 (), 50 and over 50 ()
3. Marital status: Married (), Unmarried (), Other ()
4. Highest degree earned: Bachelor (), Master (), Doctorate (), Other ()
5. Annual Payment: Under \$50,454 (), \$50,454 - Under \$70,635 (), \$70635 – Under 90,817 (), \$90817 and over ()
6. Academic field: Humanities and Arts (), Social Sciences (), Engineering (), Natural Sciences, Medicine ()
7. Total work experience at your present university: Under 5 years (), 5-14 years (), 15-24 years (), 25 Years or Over ()
8. Have you had any other full-time job experience? Yes (), No ()
9. Academic rank: Full-time instructor (), Assistant Professor (), Associate Professor (), Professor ()
10. Control type of your university : Public (), Private ()
11. Campus Location: Seoul (), Metropolitan City (), Other ()
12. Coeducational or women-only: Coeducational (), Women-Only ()

Please circle the number indicating the extent to which you are satisfied or dissatisfied with each item (1=Very dissatisfied, 2= Dissatisfied, 3=Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied, 4=Satisfied, 5=Very satisfied)

Number	Questions	Level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction				
1	Enjoying yourself at work	1	2	3	4	5
2	Being interested in work	1	2	3	4	5
3	Feeling a sense of achievement	1	2	3	4	5
4	Importance of work	1	2	3	4	5
5	Compatibility between your values and work	1	2	3	4	5
6	Opportunities to use your abilities	1	2	3	4	5
7	Wielding authority	1	2	3	4	5
8	Freedom of research	1	2	3	4	5
9	Freedom of teaching	1	2	3	4	5
10	Freedom to voice your opinions	1	2	3	4	5

Number	Questions	Level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction				
11	Career prospects	1	2	3	4	5
12	Opportunities to develop your abilities	1	2	3	4	5
13	Support for professional development	1	2	3	4	5
14	Opportunities for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
15	Criteria on which promotion decisions are made	1	2	3	4	5
16	Social status of your job	1	2	3	4	5
17	Reputation with the public	1	2	3	4	5
18	Recognition within your university	1	2	3	4	5
19	Freedom from fear of being laid off	1	2	3	4	5
20	Freedom from fear of being treated unfairly	1	2	3	4	5
21	Amount of pay	1	2	3	4	5
22	Criteria on which pay decisions are based	1	2	3	4	5

Number	Questions	Level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction				
23	Fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5
24	Facilities	1	2	3	4	5
25	Abilities and attitudes of students	1	2	3	4	5
26	Physical environment	1	2	3	4	5
27	Services of assistants	1	2	3	4	5
28	Workload	1	2	3	4	5
29	University location	1	2	3	4	5
30	Cooperation with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
31	Competence of colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
32	Interaction with supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
33	Support from supervisors	1	2	3	4	5

Number	Questions	Level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction				
34	University policies	1	2	3	4	5
35	Opportunities to participate in decision making	1	2	3	4	5
36	Leadership	1	2	3	4	5
37	Access to information	1	2	3	4	5
38	Performance evaluation system	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions pertain to overall job satisfaction. Please circle the number that indicates the extent to which you are satisfied with your job on the whole. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job overall?
(1=Very dissatisfied, 2=Dissatisfied, 3=Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied, 4=Satisfied, 5=Very satisfied)

Question	Level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction				
Overall job satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your cooperation.

EXAMPLES OF CODES AND CATEGORIES FROM INTERVEIWS

1. The Nature of Work

Sources of Satisfaction

Enjoyable work (Challenging work, Enjoyable work, Liking one's work, Creative work), Interest in work (Job involvement), Feeling a sense of achievement, Authority (Responsibility), Importance of work (Deserving whole life, Contribution to society, Helping people grow), Compatibility between my values and work (Decent job), Using my abilities,

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Having difficulty conducting tasks (Blurred boundary between work and rest)

2. Development and Advancement

Sources of Satisfaction

Being professional (Being sophisticated, Long education), (Opportunities to develop my ideas), Being specialised, Opportunities to learn (Development of teaching skills, High research productivity, Establishing networks) Career prospects, Opportunities to be promoted, Fairness of promotions

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Lack of training for development (Lack of resources and time for development), Limited chances to be promoted, Unfair promotion decisions (Inappropriate criteria for promotions), Uncertain advancement prospects

3. Academic freedom

Sources of Satisfaction

Flexible work schedule (Flexible working hours), Working independently, Not being

interfered with (Freedom to choose my research topics and research methods, Freedom to choose teaching methods and contents, Freedom to announce research results), Freedom to express my ideas freely

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Limited freedom to express opinions, Interference with teaching

4. Recognition

Sources of Satisfaction

Respect from people (Public perceptions toward the academic professions), Authority in my field, High status of academic profession (Job prestige), Recognition by colleagues and administrators, Recognition by students

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Negative image of the academic profession, Not being recognized by administrators, Low job prestige

5. Working conditions

Sources of Satisfaction

Reasonable workload, Facilities (Comfortable office, Good information facilities), Resources for work (Good resources for teaching, Good resources for research), Good physical environment (Quietness, Temperature, Ventilation, Light, Peaceful campus), University location (location for convenient daily life, Accessibility to the University)

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Heavy workload, A lack of resources (lack of resources for research, Poor teaching aids), Difficulties with commuting, Extensive paperwork, Lack of childcare facilities, Inconvenient university location, Lack of spaces

6. Pay and fringe benefits

Sources of Satisfaction

Suitable pay, Opportunities to earn additional money outside university, Secured pension system

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Low actual pay level, Low comparative pay level, Unfair criteria for pay decisions, Poor healthcare services

7. Job security

Source of Satisfaction

Freedom from being laid off, Freedom from fear of being moved to disadvantageous positions

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Fear of being laid off, Fear of being moved to disadvantageous positions, Uncertainty of career future

8. Interpersonal relationships

Sources of Satisfaction

Good relationships with colleagues (Emotional support), Opportunity to cooperate with colleagues, Competence of colleagues, Good relationships with administrators e.g. head of department, dean, chancellor (Support), Feedback from administrators, Good relationships with students (Respect by students, Interaction with students)

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Disputes among academics, Isolation from colleagues (Indifference of colleagues), Bad behaviour of colleagues, Lack of support

9. Policy and Administration

Sources of Satisfaction

Transparency of administrative process, Open access to information

Sources of Dissatisfaction

Bureaucratic culture (Conflict between academic staff and non-academic staff),
Incompetence of administrative staff (Lack of leadership), Limited chances to
participate in university administration, Inappropriate performance evaluation system

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS

Question Items	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Enjoying yourself at work	498	2.00	5.00	3.8775	.61426
Being interested in work	498	1.00	5.00	3.8454	.68484
Feeling a sense of achievement	498	2.00	5.00	3.8153	.69924
Importance of work	498	1.00	5.00	3.6145	.86513
Compatibility between your values and work	498	1.00	5.00	3.7671	.74653
Opportunities to use your abilities	498	1.00	5.00	3.4960	.82283
Wielding authority	498	1.00	5.00	3.2972	.83198
Freedom of research	498	1.00	5.00	3.5944	.79746
Freedom of teaching	498	1.00	5.00	3.5643	.72667
Freedom to voice your opinions	498	1.00	5.00	3.2831	.83808
Career prospects	498	1.00	5.00	3.7570	.72827
Opportunities to develop your abilities	498	1.00	5.00	3.9197	.71880
Support for professional development	498	1.00	5.00	3.6767	.87089
Opportunity for promotion	498	1.00	5.00	3.5542	.82837
Criteria on which promotion decisions are made	498	1.00	5.00	3.4819	.88167
Social status of your job	498	1.00	5.00	3.6988	.72442
Recognition with the public	498	1.00	5.00	3.4618	.68290
Recognition within your university	498	1.00	5.00	3.5161	.64750
Freedom from fear of being laid off	498	1.00	5.00	3.5422	.90784
Freedom from fear being treated unfairly	498	1.00	5.00	3.1406	.89954
Amount of pay	498	1.00	5.00	2.7048	.86702
Criteria on which pay decisions are based	498	1.00	5.00	2.7088	.86606
Fringe benefits	498	1.00	5.00	2.7369	.82776
Facilities	498	1.00	5.00	2.8835	.79643
Abilities and attitudes of students	498	1.00	5.00	3.1928	.81175
Physical environment	498	1.00	5.00	3.1345	.89711
Services of assistants	498	1.00	5.00	2.8373	.91909
Work load	498	1.00	5.00	2.9357	.81971
University location	498	1.00	5.00	3.3213	.87048
Cooperation with colleagues	498	1.00	5.00	3.6988	.69029
Competence of colleagues	498	1.00	5.00	3.4418	.78826
Interaction with supervisors	498	1.00	5.00	3.1526	.77745
Support from supervisors	498	1.00	5.00	2.9799	.85556
University policies	498	1.00	5.00	2.7651	.86691

(Continued)

Question Items	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Opportunities to participate in decision making	498	1.00	5.00	2.7490	.83873
Leadership	498	1.00	5.00	3.1285	.82440
Access to information	498	1.00	5.00	3.0482	.86148
Performance evaluation system	498	1.00	5.00	3.0924	.85315
Overall Job Satisfaction	498	1.00	5.00	3.5361	.72307
Sum	498	1.86	4.64	3.2981	.48415
Valid N	498				

Note: The meaning of the values is: “1= very dissatisfied”, 2=“dissatisfied”, 3=“neither dissatisfied nor satisfied”, 4=“satisfied” and 5=“very satisfied”