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# The Impact of Gratitude on Academic Advisor Job Satisfaction

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## Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

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Dr. Dena Counts for
Dr. Nannette Glenn, Dean of
the College of Graduate and
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Abilene Christian University

School of Educational Leadership

The Impact of Gratitude on Academic Advisor Job Satisfaction

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Alexandria M. Widener

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## Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my children. Thank you for supporting me in your own ways through this process. One day, I hope you find your passion, chase your dreams, and live fiercely. Please remember that God is always with you, and that I will always love you.

I also dedicate this dissertation to all the girls and women out there who deserve a seat at the table. Do not go unheard, unseen, or unwanted. God says you are worthy, and you are indeed. Learn, create, grow, live, love, and be. Sit at that table, girl!

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**Abstract**

Academic advisors face high job demands and have among the highest turnover rates in higher education. Gratitude may have a positive impact on job satisfaction, but it has not been studied in this population. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to understand how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict job satisfaction in academic advisors. Academic advisors who were members of NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising, served in a full-time role at an institution of higher education in the United States, had worked a minimum of 6 months at their institution, and were 18 years or older were recruited via email, and a total of 206 participants completed an online survey. A multiple regression analysis revealed that the model including dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors was a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction. Dispositional gratitude at work and receipt of gratitude from students were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. Receipt of gratitude from colleagues was also a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction, but the relationship was inverse. These findings demonstrate the importance of building a culture of gratitude at work. Recommendations for practice and research are addressed.

*Keywords:* academic advisor, gratitude, dispositional gratitude, receipt of gratitude, expression of gratitude, job satisfaction, broaden-and-build theory, higher education

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**Chapter 1: Introduction**

Workplace stress drains an estimated $500 billion from the U.S. economy and causes a

loss of 550 million workdays annually (Seppala & Cameron, 2015). Furthermore, work-induced

stress is the fifth leading cause of death (Black et al., 2019). In higher education, educational

developers and faculty often experience stress, fatigue, and burnout as they are forced to

implement new initiatives, meet diverse student needs, and do more with reduced budgets, lack

of resources, and minimal staff (Kolomitro et al., 2020; Sabagh et al., 2018). This is especially

true for academic advisors, who face high job demands serving large and diverse groups of

students in one of the most vital student support roles (Auguste et al., 2018; Pasquini & Eaton,

2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Academic advising is among the highest turnover roles in higher

education (Brantley & Shomaker, 2021).

While research has focused on factors that contribute to workplace stress, such as high

demands, pressure at work, and work-family conflicts, the lens must shift to ways organizations

can mitigate stress (Goh et al., 2016). The traditional focus on mitigating stress has been

reducing negative emotions or deficits instead of building on positive emotions and traits. While

researchers have concentrated on stress reduction initiatives, the purpose of these initiatives is to

lessen stress to reach a neutral point instead of improving outcomes like job satisfaction (Gino &

Staats, 2019; Langer, 2010; Lu et al., 2018; Mäkikangas & Kinnunen, 2014; Ouweneel et al.,

2012; Wandeler et al., 2016). However, studies have shown that organizations with higher levels

of job satisfaction often have higher levels of commitment and productivity as well as lower

turnover rates (Choi et al., 2021; Ganji et al., 2021; Judge et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Mullen et

al., 2018; Saridakis et al., 2020; Wijayati et al., 2020; Wolomasi et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021).

Additionally, positive work well-being can increase job performance and job satisfaction, reduce

healthcare costs related to work-induced stress, and lower turnover rates (American Institute of Stress, 2021; American Psychological Association, 2015; Black et al., 2019; Cummings et al., 2020; Goh et al., 2016; Mullen et al., 2018; Saridakis et al., 2020).

Although dispositional gratitude can reduce stress and boost well-being, it has only recently been examined in the workplace. Additionally, relational gratitude, including expression of gratitude and receipt of gratitude, has only recently been studied (Algoe, 2012; Cortini et al., 2019; Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). Receiving gratitude may positively affect service positions such as academic advising (Waters, 2012). Unfortunately, while researchers are starting to examine the benefits of utilizing gratitude in the workplace, more research needs to be conducted on gratitude and academic advisors.

**Current Academic Advisor Roles and Responsibilities**

Academic advising is revolutionizing the support role for students in higher education (Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). According to recent literature, one of the most significant services offered to students is academic advising (Auguste et al., 2018; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Serving students in various manners, advisors are helping professionals supporting students through persistence, retention, and graduation (Aydin et al., 2019; Fosnacht et al., 2017; Hart-Baldridge, 2020; Leach & Patall, 2016; Martinez, 2018; McDonald, 2019; Menke et al., 2020; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017; Zhang, 2016). Sanders and Killian (2017) defined advising as providing vital educational information to students and monitoring student progress. Other researchers propose that advising links students' education to their career goals and bigger life purpose (McGill, 2021; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019).

Part of an advisor's role is to support a significant number of students. Because students have diverse backgrounds, needs, and programs, advisors must acclimate their advising style to meet individual needs (Fosnacht et al., 2017). Advisors must deeply understand how each of their students thinks, learn, and behave to best support them as well as maintain and increase retention, persistence, and graduation rates for their organization (Aydin et al., 2019; Larson et al., 2018; Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017).

**Demands of Academic Advising**

Ruiz Alvarado and Olson (2020) argued that limited research and knowledge exists on the role of advisors, and because of this limitation, advisors face higher demands. Furthermore, researchers have claimed that defining specific advising practices and approaches with limited resources and knowledge and then linking them to student outcomes has become increasingly challenging (McGill, 2021; Ruiz Alvarado & Olson, 2020). McGill (2021) and Menke et al. (2020) argued that leadership often misunderstands academic advising, as they genuinely do not understand everything an advisor does. Larson et al. (2018) maintained that without a uniform definition or description, leaders, executives, and peers might task advisors with unnecessary responsibilities from a lack of understanding or try to evaluate their jobs without a clear picture of their tasks.

Advisors must understand how to support a diverse student body, including first-generation, low-income, adult, and developmental students (Fosnacht et al., 2017; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Today, advisors must know how to advise both in-person and online students as well as associate, bachelor, and graduate students. Furthermore, advisors must also support multiple levels of students, including first year and undecided through second, third, and fourth-year decided students across many majors (McKenzie et al., 2017; Walker et al., 2017).

**Statement of the Problem**

Work demands can adversely affect academic advisors job satisfaction generating negative emotions towards responsibilities, peers, and leaders as well as health issues such as anxiety and depression (Cummings et al., 2020; Mokarami & Toderi, 2019; Rasool et al., 2019; Valikhani et al., 2019; Wadhera & Bano, 2020). These demands can often lead to lower levels of productivity, increased absenteeism, and higher levels of turnover, which can negatively impact the organization's bottom line (Perez-Rodriguez et al., 2019; Rath & Harter, 2015; Thomas et al., 2020). Ultimately, it can also negatively affect job satisfaction for employees.

Therefore, it is not surprising that employee stress reduction or wellness programs have been implemented in the workplace. However, the goal of the programs is to alleviate stress to reach a neutral point instead of enhancing positive outcomes such as job satisfaction (Gino & Staats, 2019; Horn et al., 2020; Langer, 2010; Lu et al., 2018; Mäkikangas & Kinnunen, 2014; Ouweneel et al., 2012; Wandeler et al., 2016). In addition, the traditional method of mitigating stress has been to reduce negative emotions, not by building on positive emotions and traits. More recently, researchers have studied gratitude and have found that feeling appreciated at work can improve well-being, positively affect job satisfaction, reduce stress, and boost commitment and productivity among employees (Allen, 2018; Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Feng & Yin, 2021; Lan et al., 2022; McKeon et al., 2020; Portocarrero et al., 2020; Tugade et al., 2021; Valikhani et al., 2019; Wang, 2020).

Some professions, such as academic advising, are uniquely positioned to have different opportunities for expressing and receiving thanks. Academic advisors serve in a variety of supportive roles for students, including encouraging students throughout their academic career, and are primarily held responsible for student success (Larson et al., 2018; Martinez, 2018;

Sanders & Killian, 2017; Menke et al., 2020; Zhang, 2016). Because they work with other academic advisors, faculty, and upper-level leaders in addition to students, advisors have unique opportunities to have dispositional gratitude at work and relational gratitude at work from various channels. Understanding how academic advisors' dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work from various levels predict job satisfaction can be useful for organizational leaders. Finally, organizations can implement gratitude to build a more positive work culture for employees with minimal or no cost.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to understand how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict job satisfaction in academic advisors. For this study, participants included members of NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising (NACADA), who advise diverse groups of students and work across the United States.

**Research Design, Methodological Approach, and Rationale**

This cross-sectional study used a quantitative correlational nonexperimental approach to examine how academic advisors' dispositional gratitude, expression of gratitude, and receipt of gratitude predict their job satisfaction.

**Figure 1**

*Concept Model of Gratitude and Job Satisfaction*
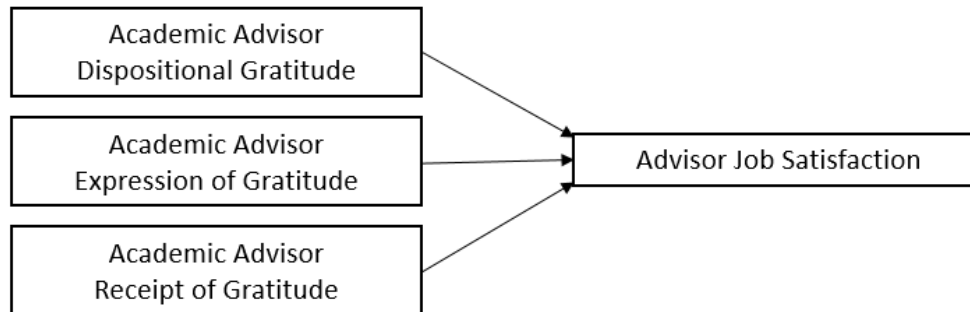


**Data Collection**

The Gratitude Questionnaire Scale (GQ-6) measured the dispositional gratitude of academic advisors (McCullough et al., 2002). The Appreciation in Relationships Scale (AIR) measured the expression of gratitude (appreciative factor) and the receipt of gratitude (appreciated factor) among academic advisors (Gordon et al., 2012). The Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJS) measured the job satisfaction of academic advisors (Judge et al., 1998).

**Research Question**

- RQ1: How do dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction among academic advisors?

  - *H1$_0$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

- *H1$_A$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

## Definition of Key Terms

**Academic advisor.** Provider of vital educational information, monitor of student progress and success, supporter, and encourager of students (Larson et al., 2018; Sanders & Killian, 2017).

**Dispositional gratitude.** An inclination to identify and respond to others' benevolence and positive self-experiences with grateful emotions (McCullough et al., 2002).

**Expression of gratitude.** Relational gratitude requiring a high-quality partner dyad where both people receive and express gratitude, and a relationship that promotes mutual support and responsiveness that communicates and indicates gratitude and generates interpersonal bonds (Algoe, 2012; Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020).

**Gratitude.** A positive emotion experienced because of recognizing and responding to benefits received from the actions of others, creating a sense of appreciation and thankfulness (Emmons & McCullough, 2003).

**Job satisfaction.** An attitude that combines a person's positive and negative workplace experiences (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Choi et al., 2021; Ganji et al., 2021; Judge et al., 1998; Pareek & Kulshrestha, 2021).

**NACADA.** The Global Community for Academic Advising.

**Organizational gratitude.** Persistent gratitude among a group of organizational members (Fehr et al., 2017).

**Receipt of gratitude.** The response to an experience that is beneficial but not attributable to the self, and a form of positive social exchange that signals to benefactors (i.e., those expressing gratitude) that they were successful in giving gratitude to beneficiaries (i.e., those receiving gratitude; Lee et al., 2018; Locklear et al., 2020; McCullough et al., 2001; McGuire et al., 2020).

## Summary

This chapter introduced the unique role academic advisors play in student success. Academic advisors are responsible for student guidance and retention, liaising between their peers and students, and answering to leaders. However, only a few studies have focused on academic advisor job satisfaction. Furthermore, fewer researchers have examined how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict academic advisor job satisfaction. In Chapter 2, an overview of prior research leads to identifying the gap this study addresses.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review**

In one of the most crucial student support roles, academic advisors face high job demands serving large and diverse groups of students (Auguste et al., 2018; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Advisors do not always have the necessary resources to do their job effectively, which can decrease job satisfaction levels (Knotts & Wofford, 2017). Research shows that leadership, organizational culture, workplace stress, relationships, and work-life balance can influence job satisfaction (Ganji et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Maric et al., 2021; Salazar & Diego-Medrano, 2021). Lower levels of job satisfaction can generate higher turnover, lower levels of commitment, and increased negative emotions and stress (Lee et al., 2018; Pryce-Jones, 2010).

Although research has centered on factors that contribute to workplace stress, such as high demands and work-family conflicts, the lens must shift to how organizations can begin to mitigate challenging work climates (Goh et al., 2016). Researchers have often focused on implementing stress reduction initiatives; however, the goal of these initiatives is to alleviate stress to reach a neutral point rather than to enhance positive outcomes such as job satisfaction (Brar & Singh, 2020; Cummings et al., 2020; Goh et al., 2016; Hargrove et al., 2011; Waters, 2012). Employees with higher job satisfaction tend to have lower turnover rates and higher levels of commitment to the organization (Lee et al., 2018). Furthermore, an employee with positive work well-being can have increased job performance, higher job satisfaction, reduced healthcare costs associated with work-induced stress, and less turnover, all of which can positively affect the organization (Black et al., 2019).

The traditional focus on mitigating stress has been on reducing negative emotions or deficits, not building on positive emotions and positive traits (Brar & Singh, 2020; Cummings et

al., 2020; Goh et al., 2016; Hargrove et al., 2011; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Waters, 2012). However, more recently, researchers have explored various ways to alleviate workplace pressure through mindfulness, hope, and optimism (Gino & Staats, 2019; Langer, 2010; Lu et al., 2018; Mäkikangas & Kinnunen, 2014; Ouweneel et al., 2012; Wandeler et al., 2016; Waters, 2012). Although dispositional gratitude has been proven to reduce stress and boost well-being, it has only recently been examined in the workplace. Only lately have researchers started to explore the expression of gratitude or receipt of gratitude. Receiving gratitude may positively affect service positions like academic advising (Waters, 2012). This study analyzed how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict job satisfaction in academic advisors.

**Literature Search Methods**

Two primary search engines identified most of the supporting research: 1) Abilene Christian University's Margarett and Herman Brown Online Library and 2) Google Scholar. The exploration included the following search term combinations:

- *Academic advisor/advising*

- *Higher education retention*

- *Student services*

- *Job satisfaction*

- *Well-being*

- *Gratitude*

- *Appreciation/recognition*

- *Work/organizational stress*

I provide a review and critical analysis of positive psychology, the theoretical framework, literature on academic advising, job satisfaction, gratitude, organizational gratitude, and a summary.

**Positive Psychology, Positive Organizational Scholarship, and Positive Leadership**

*Positive Psychology*

In 1998, contemporary positive psychology emerged from two psychologists' dream to view psychology as more than a disease-model perspective (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Until 1998, psychology primarily focused on the study of weakness, damage, and pathology, but these researchers worked to make positive psychology about strength, virtue, prevention, and more (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Watkins (2016) defined positive psychology as "the scientific study of the good life," further explaining that the "good life" is one of flourishing and happiness (p. 3). Positive psychology focuses on research, application, and scholarship of strengths, excellence, flourishing, resilience, flow, optimism, and optimal well-being (Donaldson & Ko, 2010; Watkins, 2016). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) argued that strengths such as honesty and gratitude could counteract mental illnesses. While positive psychologists do not aim to deny the pathology and mental illness emphases of psychology, they merely wish to add to it from a distinct perspective (Kobau et al., 2011).

Three primary areas make up positive psychology: positive psychological traits, positive institutions, and positive subjective states (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Watkins, 2016). Positive psychological traits focus on moral strengths and virtues (Watkins, 2016). The study of things that help create healthier communities is positive institutions (Watkins, 2016). Finally, and most importantly to my study, positive subjective states include subjective well-being and

positive emotions (Watkins, 2016). Positive emotions such as gratitude play a vital role in positive psychology research.

Naturally, positive psychology has critics (Peterson, 2006). One criticism includes the argument that positive psychology is not new, and although that is true, Seligman felt a need to begin a new and updated movement of positive psychology (Watkins, 2016). Another criticism is that positive psychology is "Pollyannaish" or fluffy (Peterson, 2006). Critics believe that positive psychology disregards the negative; however, positive psychology suggests the need to shift to the positive without neglecting the negative completely (Watkins, 2016). Other critics argue that positive psychology is only about happiness; however, while happiness can be one aspect of positive psychology, it is a separate study of its own (Peterson, 2006; Watkins, 2016). From this, other disciplines and professions have adapted positive psychology to fit their research and application needs. However, for this study, two significant areas of study have emerged: positive organizational scholarship and positive leadership (Cameron, 2012; Donaldson & Ko, 2010).

### *Positive Organizational Scholarship and Positive Leadership*

In 2003, soon after positive psychology began, Kim Cameron, Jane Dutton, and Robert Quinn conceived positive organizational scholarship (POS) (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012; Quinn et al., 2003). POS studies positive deviance, like positive practices, attributes, and outcomes of organizations and members (Cameron et al., 2011; Quinn et al., 2003). POS strives to understand what motivates positive behavior at work and how this behavior can help organizations reach new levels of accomplishment (Cameron et al., 2011; Donaldson & Ko, 2010). POS research includes organizational virtuousness, resilience, trust, positive deviance, relationships, flourishing, and gratitude (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012; Donaldson & Ko, 2010; Quinn et al., 2003). Furthermore, POS follows the heliotropic effect meaning people are innately drawn to

that which is life-giving and positive (Cameron, 2012, 2021; Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012). Humans begin to flourish when surrounded by positive energy (Cameron, 2012, 2021). People can receive positive energy through kindness, high-quality connections, and virtuous actions such as experiencing gratitude (Cameron, 2012, 2021). With emotions, people experience positive outcomes when exposed to positive emotions and negative outcomes when exposed to negative emotions. Similarly, humans are attracted to that which gives life and avoid that which diminishes from life (Cameron, 2012, 2021).

In his book titled *Positive Leadership: Strategies for Extraordinary Performance*, Cameron (2012) blended positive psychology, POS, and organizational leadership with his definition and description of positive leadership. Cameron (2012) described positive leadership as "what elevates individuals and organizations (i.e., in addition to what goes wrong), what is life-giving (i.e., in addition to what is objectionable), what is extraordinary (i.e., in addition to what is merely effective), and what is inspiring (i.e., in addition to what is difficult or arduous)" (p. 2). Positive leadership focuses on positive deviant behavior and affirmation of human potential while emphasizing virtuousness and incorporating the four pillars: positive relationships, positive communication, positive meaning, and positive climate (Cameron, 2012).

Although positive leadership concentrates on positive events, it does not ignore negative ones but understands the necessity of experiencing adverse events and emotions to flourish (Cameron, 2012). Positive leadership is grounded in a eudemonistic assumption that humans are inclined to be and do good for the sake of being and doing good, as explained by virtuousness (Cameron, 2012). Cameron (2012) explained that positive leadership promotes thriving at work, virtuous behaviors, and positive emotions, among other outcomes.

The four pillars, including positive relationships, positive communication, positive

meaning, and positive climate, are each significant to helping people flourish (Cameron, 2012). Positive relationships promote positive deviance and positive psychological, physiological, emotional, and organizational outcomes (Cameron, 2012). Social functions like positive relationships help people feel supported, and their performance improves when they feel valued and supported at work (Cameron, 2012). One way to make coworkers feel supported is through gratitude exchanges (Algoe, 2012; Lin, 2016; Starkey et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2009).

Cameron (2012) argued that affirmative and supportive language must be utilized in organizations for positive communication to happen. In fact, the ratio of positive to negative statements should be 5 to 1 to increase organizational performance (Cameron, 2012). One way to use positive statements is through expressing appreciation and gratitude to employees, whether from leader to follower or colleague to colleague (Cameron, 2012). Feeling appreciated can boost positive emotions and feelings of connection to the appreciated person or thing (Adler & Fagley, 2005).

Engaging in work or pursuing an intense purpose at work can create positive meaning for employees (Cameron, 2012). Positive meaning provides positive outcomes for the individual and the organization, as it can reduce stress, depression, and turnover and boosts engagement, commitment, and job satisfaction (Cameron, 2012). Employees can refer to work as a job, career, or calling, but when viewed as a calling, people are more loyal to the organization and find deeper meaning in their work (Cameron, 2012).

A positive climate focuses on a work environment where positive emotions such as gratitude dominate over negative emotions like fear (Cameron, 2012). A positive climate can help employees flourish, leading to increased commitment, which can also increase positive emotions (Cameron, 2012; Fredrickson, 2001). As Fredrickson (2001) described, the broaden-

and-build theory demonstrates how positive emotions, such as gratitude, broaden one's thought-action repertoires while negative emotions restrict them. Then, these emotions can help people build their resources for the future (Fredrickson, 2001). The broaden-and-build theory is the framework supporting this study.

**Theoretical Framework**

*Broaden-and-Build Theory of Positive Emotions*

As part of positive organizational scholarship, positive emotions are one aspect of individual and organizational flourishing (Fredrickson, 2003). Positive emotions are indicators of flourishing and optimal well-being (Fredrickson, 2001, 2003). Although researchers have studied negative emotions for decades, it was not until the early 1970s that researchers began to pay attention to positive emotions. In 1972, Isen and Levin studied how giving people a cookie would affect their helping behaviors, and they found that those who received a cookie helped more. The authors noted that those who unexpectedly received a cookie felt good, and because they felt good, they were more likely to help (Isen & Levin, 1972). In 1976, Isen et al. published a similar study on good moods and helping behaviors, and they found that when people received something that enhanced their mood, they were more likely to help others (Isen et al., 1976). A couple of years later, Isen et al. (1978) completed an experiment in a mall and found that people exposed to good mood-inducing procedures were generally more positive (Isen et al., 1978). Then, Isen and Simmonds (1978) completed a study by planting a dime in the coin return of a telephone booth to see if it would induce a good mood. The authors again found that helping behaviors are more likely to happen when one is in a good mood and confirmed that good moods help people see things more positively (Isen & Simmonds, 1978). Isen continued studying good moods and positive affect through the early 2000s.

Danner et al. (2001) completed a longitudinal study on Catholic nuns and the correlation between positive emotional content and longevity. The authors believed that patterned emotional responses affect physiology in either destructive or beneficial ways (Danner et al., 2001). To further study this belief, Danner et al. (2001) reviewed the autobiographies of 180 nuns between the ages of 18 and 32 written from 1931 to 1943 (Danner et al., 2001). The authors looked for levels of positive emotional content by coding words like gratitude, love, and happiness as positive emotions and words like fear, sadness, and shame as negative emotions. Specific instructions informed the coders not to use words that would lead to positive or negative implications or assume certain events may have produced certain emotions. Instead, they only coded words describing a particular emotion, such as happiness or anger (Danner et al., 2001). Ultimately, the authors found that nuns who used more positive emotional content in their autobiography lived up to 10 years longer than those who used less positive emotional content (Danner et al., 2001). The research on positive emotional content, positive affect, and good moods eventually led to Fredrickson's (2001) development of the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions.

When nurtured, positive emotions like gratitude help us attain psychological growth and overall enhanced well-being (Fredrickson, 2001). Furthermore, people can absorb more information when experiencing positive emotions (Cameron, 2012). The broaden-and-build theory focuses on how positive emotions help broaden awareness and build long-lasting personal resources (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Watkins, 2016). Personal resources include emotional, intellectual, physical, psychological, and social resources (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021). Continuously experiencing positive emotions can benefit physical, social, mental and emotional health, and well-being (Armenta et al., 2015; Danner et

al., 2001; Frederickson, 2001; Kok et al., 2013). Fredrickson (2001) and Fredrickson and Joiner (2002) argued that positive emotions feel good presently and increase the probability of feeling good in the future. Unlike negative emotions that narrow one's thought-action repertoire, positive emotions broaden them (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002).

A notable example Fredrickson (2001) provided was gratitude as a positive emotion and indebtedness as a negative emotion; she noted when someone feels grateful for something someone did, that person wants to do something in return. However, if a person feels indebted, as a negative emotion, they feel obligated to repay them (Fredrickson, 2001). The broaden-and-build theory can ultimately create an upward spiral and an example of how the upward spiral functions include high-quality connections (HQCs). HQCs consist of short-term but positive interactions that create social connections (Colbert et al., 2016). These connections can generate positive emotions such as gratitude, leading to more frequent interactions, connections, and positive emotions (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Cain et al., 2019; Fredrickson, 2001; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021). When positive emotions, such as gratitude, are generated in this manner, they are also known as positive state affect (PA), and several researchers found a positive correlation between PA and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2021; Lan et al., 2022; Thoreson et al., 2003; Watson & Slack, 1993). The example shows a connection between the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions and job satisfaction. Then, this can create other positive emotions, and the cycle continuously spirals upward (Fredrickson, 2003). Ultimately, it will create a higher functioning self and others, generating a positive work climate (Cameron, 2012). Positive environments can create higher well-being and productivity levels and produce a better organizational bottom line (Cameron, 2012; Rath & Harter, 2015).

According to Catalino et al. (2014), repeated experiences of the broaden-and-build theory and positive emotions can continue to create satisfactory outcomes. As a theoretical example, an advisor meets with an advisee to discuss academic goals, and the advisee expresses verbal gratitude, such as "Thank you so much for helping me" or "You are so great, thank you so much," the advisor receives the gratitude as a response of the social exchange. The exchange required a high-quality partner dyad (i.e., advisor and advisee) that promotes mutual support and responsiveness (i.e., expression of gratitude), and it required a positive social exchange (i.e., receipt of gratitude; Algoe, 2012; Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020; Lee et al., 2018; Locklear et al., 2020; McCullough et al., 2001; McGuire et al., 2020). In this example, the advisee expressed gratitude to the advisor, and the advisor received gratitude from the advisee. As part of the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, gratitude as a positive emotion can help the advisor broaden their awareness and build long-lasting personal resources (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Watkins, 2016). Therefore, if the next interaction with an advisee does not go as well, the advisor may potentially have built up enough personal resources from previous positive exchanges to get through the negative ones. Repeat positive exchanges can also result in the upward spiral discussed previously, and if the advisor feels gratitude, they may be more inclined to express it as well (Fredrickson, 2003). Furthermore, Waters (2012) and Lanham et al. (2012) showed gratitude as an antecedent of job satisfaction. The positive exchange with the advisee resulted in relational gratitude, and the advisor felt positive emotions that led to built-up personal resources. The theoretical exchange led to an upward spiral of positive emotions as explained by Fredrickson's broaden-and-build theory, and the spiral ultimately led to continuous positive emotions that could produce higher levels of job satisfaction.

Experiencing positive emotions can have both short-term and long-term benefits. Some researchers even argue that positive emotions can ease inflammation, reduce the number of colds a person catches per year, and even decrease cardiovascular disease (Cohen et al., 2008; Kok et al., 2013; Kubzanksy et al., 2015; Steptoe et al., 2008). Positive emotions can rapidly undo the adverse effects negative emotions have on one's body and health (Kobau et al., 2011). Researchers proposed that positive emotions cause upward spirals toward improved well-being (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Kok et al., 2013). Positive emotions like gratitude are not just significant in personal lives; these emotions can also prove beneficial in the workplace.

**Academic Advising**

*History of Academic Advising*

Academic advising, in some form, has been recognized since the beginning of higher education in the United States (McGill, 2019). Authors reference Johns Hopkins University's realization that students needed faculty input on coursework in the 1870s (McGill, 2019; White, 2020). Throughout most of the 19th century, faculty advisors served students during their academic careers (Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). In the 20th century, while advising became increasingly necessary to assist students with choices, it was still a prescriptive process (McGill, 2019). Researchers specified that, in 1948, Pennsylvania State University formalized advising to help World War II veterans obtain their degrees (Sanders & Killian, 2017; White, 2020). Still, others viewed advising as a clerical role because advisors only registered students in courses (Fosnacht et al., 2017; Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Additionally, advisors were not rewarded for exceptional service, were offered limited to no training or professional development, and provided no clear definition of their role or tasks

(McGill, 2021; Menke et al., 2020). However, McGill (2019) noted that in 1972, scholars began considering advising as a student developmental process. The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) was launched in the late 1970s for professional advisors (McGill, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017; White, 2020). It is now known as NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising (NACADA, 2022). Advisors have worked, and are still working, to professionalize the field of academic advising (McGill, 2018).

*Current Academic Advisor Roles and Responsibilities*

Academic advising is modernizing into an integral support role for students (Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Research has shown that academic advising is one of the most essential services to students (Auguste et al., 2018; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Advisors have begun to understand their role as helping professionals serving students in various ways (Fosnacht et al., 2017; Hart-Baldridge, 2020; Martinez, 2018; McDonald, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017; Zhang, 2016). The advising role supports students from start to finish by encouraging persistence and guiding them to graduation, and advisors provide the resources students need to achieve it (Aydin et al., 2019; Hart-Baldridge, 2020; Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Although no global definition of advising exists, Sanders and Killian (2017) argued that advisors provide students with the vital educational information needed while monitoring student progress and boosting confidence when students struggle along their educational path. The authors noted that advisors have been called many names throughout the years, such as mentors, counselors, and teachers (Sanders & Killian, 2017). Similarly, Larson et al. (2018) described advising as a field that empowers students to navigate the academic world effectively. Some scholars suggest that advising facilitates conversations that connect the

students' education to their careers and values while also helping students connect their

academic life with their bigger life purpose (McGill, 2021; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019).

Within their roles, advisors typically support a substantial number of students in an

increasingly diverse student body. As advisors acclimate their advising style to meet individual

needs, interactions with each student will never be identical (Fosnacht et al., 2017). Experienced

advisors can identify struggling students and prepare interventions that may retain the student

(Aydin et al., 2019; Menke et al., 2020). Advisors must deeply understand how individual

students think, learn, and behave to best support them as well as maintain and increase retention,

persistence, and graduation rates for their organization (Aydin et al., 2019; Larson et al., 2018;

Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Furthermore, McGill (2021)

noted that advisors must be able to help students form their academic self-identities. In addition

to understanding their students, advisors must also understand the organization's culture, values,

traditions, policies, and processes to best guide their students while meeting the organization's

requirements and expectations (Aydin et al., 2019; McDonald, 2019). Ultimately, Zarges et al.

(2018) believed that good advising improves student experiences and links advising to the

educational process, making it a critical organizational component. Unfortunately, these

expectations create high demands on advisors from students, leaders, and the organization.

### *Job Demands of Academic Advisors*

Academic advisors face many demands at work. Demands such as a lack of

understanding of job responsibilities, lack of resources, and lack of time due to large caseloads of

advisees can cause undue stress and challenges for advisors (Fosnacht et al., 2017; He et al.,

2020; Knotts & Wofford, 2017; McGill, 2021; Menke et al., 2020; Ruiz Alvarado & Olson,

2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017; Walker et al., 2017). Because of limited research and knowledge,

defining advising practices and approaches and connecting them to student outcomes has become challenging for researchers (McGill, 2021; Ruiz Alvarado & Olson, 2020). Academic leaders often misinterpret advisors' roles in student success because they genuinely do not understand academic advisors' roles and workload (McGill, 2021; Menke et al., 2020). Without a complete understanding of advising roles, leaders may task advisors with unnecessary and time-consuming job duties (Larson et al., 2018). Advisors often face undue stress when supporting diverse groups and large cohorts of students, while leaders and students may lack a clear understanding of the advising role (Fosnacht et al., 2017; McKenzie et al., 2017; Sanders & Killian, 2017; Walker et al., 2017).

Lack of time and resources are also an issue. He et al. (2020) found that advisors prefer to have deeper engagement with their students, but their time is limited due to large caseloads of students. The limited time often leads to only short and information-based advising sessions (He et al., 2020). Based on the research, to best support students, advising should consist of a deep understanding of how each of their students thinks, learn, and behave, but being unable to offer that level of support can cause undue stress and burden (Aydin et al., 2019; Larson et al., 2018; Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Ellis (2013) found that community college students often struggle with their inability to meet one-on-one with advisors due to large numbers of students needing appointments and not enough advisors to help. The author also noted that, from the students' perspectives, advisors did not have the resources and knowledge needed to help them transfer seamlessly (Ellis, 2013). Preece et al. (2007) discussed the lack of training and resources advisors have to assist students with disabilities. While these issues negatively impact the student, Knotts and Wofford (2017) argued that a lack of resources for advisors could cause a decrease in job satisfaction as well.

**Job Satisfaction**

*Defining Job Satisfaction*

Job satisfaction is an attitude that combines a person's positive and negative workplace experiences (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Choi et al., 2021; Ganji et al., 2021; Judge et al., 1998; Pareek & Kulshrestha, 2021). Locke (1976) refined the definition of job satisfaction and proposed that job satisfaction is a type of positive affection state that cultivates as one evaluates their work. Locke's (1976) definition offers a more profound understanding of Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) description of one's attitude towards their job.

Additionally, job satisfaction can boost organizational functioning by leading employee behavior (Call & Ployhart, 2021; Choi et al., 2021; Ganji et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Maric et al., 2021; Spector, 1997; Wijayati et al., 2020). Ganji et al. (2021) argued that job satisfaction describes the amount of fulfillment one finds in one's role. Culture can play a significant role in finding satisfaction at work as it consists of the organization's norms, values, and behaviors, including leadership, relationships, communication, and policies (Ganji et al., 2021; Maric et al., 2021; Pryce-Jones, 2010). Both internal and external factors can influence job satisfaction. Internal factors include relationships, growth opportunities, and responsibility, while external factors include leader behavior, organizational culture, high job demands, work-life balance, and workplace stress (Ganji et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Maric et al., 2021; Salazar & Diego-Medrano, 2021).

*History of Job Satisfaction*

The study of attitude dates to the late 1880s, but in the early 1900s, researchers began shifting the focus to attitudes about work, now referred to as job satisfaction (Wright, 2006). Job satisfaction can be traced back to 1931 when Fisher and Hanna studied it (Fisher & Hanna, 1931;

Judge et al., 1998; Zhu, 2013). Fisher and Hanna (1931) referred to job satisfaction as an amicable relationship between a person and their job. In 1932, McMurry conveyed the importance of a relationship between employee efficiency and satisfaction at work (as cited in Wright, 2006). Then, in 1935, Hoppock wrote a book about job satisfaction and developed a series of attitude scales to measure employees' attitudes about work (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Judge et al., 1998). Furthering research on Hoppock's (1935) scales, Brayfield and Rothe (1951) began developing a job satisfaction scale, and in 1951, they published the Index of Job Satisfaction scale. In the late 1950s, Herzberg et al. (1959) authored a book about work motivation and developed Herzberg's theory. More information about the theory is in the following sub-section.

In 1976, Locke proposed that job satisfaction develops as an employee assesses their job as a positive affection state. From there, additional job satisfaction was conducted, and different scales were developed. By the late 1990s, Judge et al. (1998) began studying it as a more modern subject. Judge et al. (1998) began looking at core self-evaluations such as self-esteem and locus of control and their effect on job satisfaction. Furthermore, even though Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) Index of Job Satisfaction scale is one of the most popular measurements used in job satisfaction, Judge et al. (1998) altered it to shorten the scale in the late 1990s creating the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJS). This study utilizes the OJS Scale to measure the job satisfaction of academic advisors.

**Herzberg's Theory.** In 1959, Herzberg et al. discussed the motivation-hygiene theory in their book *The Motivation to Work* and proposed that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction should not be studied together. The authors argued that varied factors influenced job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the same scale could not measure both (Herzberg et al., 1959). Some factors

motivate employees and can create satisfaction while not impacting dissatisfaction, but other factors can cause dissatisfaction while not impacting satisfaction (Herzberg, 2003). Eventually, Herzberg et al. (1959) changed their hypothesis to argue that two factors affected job satisfaction: motivation and hygiene factors. Motivation factors are closely related to job satisfaction, while hygiene factors are more aligned with job dissatisfaction; however, while hygiene factors are important to job satisfaction overall, these factors cannot generate satisfaction within one's job (Herzberg, 2003; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Motivation factors relate to the need for self-growth and positive job attitudes and are intrinsic factors that include achievement, responsibility, advancement, and recognition (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959; Hur, 2018). Examples of motivation factors include earning a promotion, receiving positive praise, increased responsibility, and professional development and growth opportunities (Alshmemri et al., 2017). Another example of motivation includes the work itself; for example, if the work provides a person with a sense of purpose, is challenging but not frustrating, or excites the person, then their job satisfaction is more likely to increase (Herzberg, 2003; Herzberg et al., 1959). These factors can boost positive job attitudes when present, which can increase job satisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959). Ultimately, motivation factors attempt to improve job satisfaction in employees (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Conversely, hygiene factors are associated with "the need to avoid unpleasantness" (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959). Hygiene factors relate to the performance of the job and are extrinsic factors (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959; Hur, 2018). Herzberg et al. (1959) described hygiene factors in the workplace as leadership, relationships, compensation, policies and practices, job security, and even physical working conditions.

Building work relationships, salary increases or decreases, excellent or poor organizational structure, and good or poor leadership are examples of hygiene factors (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959). Unlike motivation factors that can increase satisfaction, hygiene factors help reduce job dissatisfaction, but rather than increasing job satisfaction, these factors bring employees to more of a neutral point (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Herzberg et al. (1959) argued that when hygiene factors decline, so does job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Furthermore, Herzberg's theory showed that while lower hygiene levels may decrease job satisfaction, increased hygiene factors did not (Alshmemri et al., 2017). On the other hand, when motivation factors were present, job satisfaction increased (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959). The opposite was also true with motivation factors; as these factors decreased, so did job satisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) contended that while both factors are necessary to meet employee needs, motivation is necessary and critical in boosting job satisfaction.

### *Academic Advisor Job Satisfaction*

While academic advising is a function of higher education, little research has focused on advising and job satisfaction. However, one closely related study focused on job satisfaction among university employees in Iran (Ganji et al., 2021). The authors hypothesized that employee empowerment, ethical climate, and perceived organizational support would positively influence job satisfaction and turnover intent (Ganji et al., 2021). Using a descriptive-exploratory research design, the authors utilized a quantitative procedure to collect data (Ganji et al., 2021). The authors used questions from unnamed scales to measure employee engagement, organizational support, ethical climate, job satisfaction, and turnover intent to gain self-reported data from participants (Ganji et al., 2021). To measure employee empowerment, they used 10 questions

from an assessment by Idris et al. (2018 as cited in Ganji et al., 2021). Organizational support was measured using six questions from Cheng et al. (2013) and Ganji and Kafashpour (2016 as cited in Ganji et al., 2021). The turnover intention measurement utilized three questions from both Cheng et al. (2013) and Ganji and Ahanchian (2016 as cited in Ganji et al., 2021). Statements taken from questionnaires by Ahanchian and Ganji (2017), Ganji and Johnson (2020), and Cheng et al. (2013) were used to measure job satisfaction (as cited in Ganji et al., 2021). Four total questions assessed job satisfaction, including "Generally, I am not satisfied with my job," "I love my work," "I am convenient in my work," and "I am pleased with my job" (Ganji et al., 2021). Employees of a major university in Mashhad, Iran, received a survey, and of the 280 questionnaires distributed, the final sample consisted of 215 respondents with a 76% response rate (Ganji et al., 2021). The authors found that employee empowerment, ethical climate, and perceived organizational support positively predicted job satisfaction (Ganji et al., 2021). The results also yielded a minimum score of 2.20, a maximum score of 4.81, $M = 3.760$, which was the highest mean of the variables, and $SD = .645$ for job satisfaction (Ganji et al., 2021). Limitations of the study included studying both managerial and nonmanagerial staff together instead of separately and focusing solely on one Iranian university (Ganji et al., 2021).

While this is a solid study on university employees and job satisfaction, the authors did not focus solely on academic advisors (Ganji et al., 2021). Although not identified in the study, one aspect of organizational support could be gratitude. When employees feel appreciated at work, they also feel supported, which could increase job satisfaction (Cortini et al., 2019; Ganji et al., 2021; Lanham et al., 2012; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). Furthermore, experiencing appreciation at work can boost positive emotions, and daily experiences of appreciation at work increase work well-being (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Fagley & Adler, 2012).

*Job Satisfaction Outcomes*

Job satisfaction produces outcomes such as increased job performance, productivity, organizational commitment, happiness, and decreased turnover (Choi et al., 2021; Judge et al., 2017; Maric et al., 2021; Mullen et al., 2018; Saridakis et al., 2020; Walsh et al., 2018; Wolomasi et al., 2019). It is also a good indicator of organizational effectiveness (Choi et al., 2021; Maric et al., 2021). Lee et al. (2018) stated that organizational leaders strongly influence employee job satisfaction, and Maric et al. (2021) noted that leaders must pay special attention to employee needs to help boost job satisfaction.

**Job Performance and Productivity**. Job performance is the value an organization places on individual behavioral episodes over a specified period, and it is a key predictor of productivity at work (Call & Ployhart, 2021; Motowildo & Kell, 2012; Wijayati et al., 2020). When an employee has a higher performance level, that person is typically more aligned with the organization's vision and more readily accomplishes their job tasks (López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Yarim, 2021). Factors such as an interest in work, employee engagement, responsibility, social support, and autonomy can all positively affect job performance (Alshmemri et al., 2017; López-Cabarcos et al., 2022). According to researchers, satisfied workers outperform dissatisfied workers, which is why job satisfaction matters (Judge et al., 2000, 2017; Wolomasi et al., 2019). Satisfied workers often have higher levels of job performance, which can lead to greater productivity in an organization and better work overall (Wijayati et al., 2020). Wijayati et al. (2020) argued that satisfied workers also have higher levels of organizational commitment. Additionally, Wolomasi et al. (2019) found that when teachers are satisfied with their job, they are more productive, and when they are dissatisfied with their job, they are less productive. When employees are more satisfied, they are also more engaged than when they are dissatisfied

(Wolomasi et al., 2019). Furthermore, employees are more likely to call in sick and arrive late or leave early if they have low levels of job satisfaction, which in turn affects their performance levels (Yarim, 2021). When employees are involved in decision-making, engaged in their work, and have the freedom and safety to perform their jobs, they are more likely to care (Judge et al., 2000, 2017).

Wolomasi et al. (2019) completed a study on job performance in teachers. The authors completed a quantitative study on teachers in New Guinea to see how their job satisfaction predicts their job performance (Wolomasi et al., 2019). To measure job performance, the authors used an unnamed 15-item scale piloted by Wea et al. (2020), and an unnamed 18-item scale piloted by Werang et al. (2017) was utilized to measure job satisfaction (as cited in Wolomasi et al., 2019). The Wea et al. (2020) scale asked questions such as "I help students improve their learning process and class improvement" and "I evaluate student work diligently (as cited in Wolomasi et al., 2019). Examples of questions from the Werang et al. (2017) scale included "I like the people I work with" and "I feel a sense of pride in doing my job" (as cited in Wolomasi et al., 2019). The authors found that teachers were more productive when they were satisfied with their job and less productive when they were dissatisfied with their job (Wolomasi et al., 2019). Although this study did not focus directly on academic advisors, it did focus on job satisfaction in an educational setting.

**Subjective Well-Being and Happiness**. Subjective well-being is a complete assessment of one's living conditions to their standards, measuring a comprehensive quality of life and mental health (Lan et al., 2022; Portocarrero et al., 2020; Wang, 2020). One indicator of positive well-being is happiness (Portocarrero et al., 2020; Wang, 2020). Happiness occurs when a person frequently experiences positive emotions (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Walsh et al., 2018). Here,

subjective well-being and happiness are used synonymously. One aspect of job satisfaction includes a person's happiness or contentment with work (Herzberg et al., 1959; Pryce-Jones, 2010). Being happy at work can help a person achieve goals faster, generate more creativity and innovation, build better relationships, learn and grow more in their role, and become healthier, all of which can internally motivate a person (Cross, 2019; Herzberg et al., 1959; Peñalver et al., 2019; Pryce-Jones, 2010; Walsh et al., 2018). One author noted that when happiness levels are higher, as is one's immune system, happiness could help decrease stress hormones, reduce the likelihood of heart disease, and increase life span (Pryce-Jones, 2010). Happiness at work can come from the self and the organization (Pryce-Jones, 2010; Walsh et al., 2018). Self-contribution includes achieving one's goals and feeling secure in one's job, and organizational contributions consist of receiving positive feedback and feeling appreciated (Pryce-Jones, 2010). Walsh et al. (2018) argued that happy employees generally outperform unhappy employees. Employees with more subjective well-being and happiness at work can generate a positive work environment and increase the organization's bottom line (Rath & Harter, 2015).

Lee et al. (2020) hypothesized that job satisfaction positively correlated with subjective well-being. The authors completed a quantitative study on 394 high school Athletic Directors in the United States (Lee et al., 2020). The Job Satisfaction Scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979) measured job satisfaction (as cited in Lee et al., 2020). To measure subjective well-being, the authors used seven items from the Subjective Vitality measurement (Ryan & Frederick, 1997, as cited in Lee et al., 2020). The authors found that job satisfaction positively relates to subjective well-being. More specifically, when leaders are more satisfied with their jobs, they report higher levels of subjective well-being (Lee et al., 2020). The authors noted that a solid limitation of this study was that most participants were

Caucasian men, and the results may not be relevant to participants with different demographics (Lee et al., 2020). Although this study did not focus directly on an advising population, it did study educational leaders, providing useful information for this study.

In another study focusing on subjective happiness and job satisfaction, Karabati et al. (2019) argued that employees who are satisfied with their job are more likely to be happy and satisfied with life. The authors conducted a quantitative study on 383 white-collar professionals in the United States and Turkey (Karabati et al., 2019). A 4-item measure of global subjective happiness (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) was used to measure subjective happiness, and the Satisfaction of Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985) was utilized (as cited in Karabati et al., 2019). To measure job satisfaction, the 5-item version of the Index of Job Satisfaction Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) was utilized (as cited in Karabati et al., 2019). The study found that employees with higher levels of job satisfaction reported higher levels of subjective happiness and life satisfaction (Karabati et al., 2019). Although the study did not focus on academic advising or higher education at all, the results did show a positive correlation between subjective happiness and job satisfaction, which serves this study well.

**Turnover and Organizational Commitment.** Turnover and commitment outcomes are vital to organizations because the overall goal of an organization should be to retain employees (Rath & Harter, 2015). Retaining employees requires the organization to help employees in several areas, including engagement, social support, and workload, as all of these factors, can lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Choi et al., 2021; Judge et al., 2017; Rath & Harter, 2015).

*Turnover.* Turnover refers to a person's intent to or act of leaving an organization (Ganji et al., 2021; Mullen et al., 2018). Employees can face stress and burnout at work, leading to

many health-related issues, including anxiety, depression, obesity, and heart disease (American Institute of Stress, 2021; Cummings et al., 2020; Goh et al., 2016; Rath & Harter, 2015). Unfortunately, these health-related issues can cost organizations an estimated $500 billion and an annual loss of 550 million workdays, so organizations need to care about employee job satisfaction (American Psychological Association, 2015). Increased levels of job satisfaction have been shown to combat areas of stress and burnout, which can lead to turnover (Lanham et al., 2012; Mullen et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021). According to Rath and Harter (2015), thriving employees have a 35% lower turnover rate than those struggling in their roles. The authors also argued that having good career well-being is a significant factor in whether an employee is thriving or struggling, and that higher well-being is a better predictor of lower turnover rates (Rath & Harter, 2015).

Studying professionals in higher education, Mullen et al. (2018) explored the relationship between job stress and burnout, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in student affairs professionals (SAPs). The authors surveyed different SAPs, like academic advisors, and received a sample population of 844 participants (Mullen et al., 2018). The Stress in General Scale (Stanton et al., 2001) measured stress, and the Burnout Measure – Short Version (Malach-Pines, 2005) measured burnout (as cited in Mullen et al., 2018). Job satisfaction was measured using the Overall Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Andrews & Whithey, 1976), and questions from unnamed scales (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Mauno et al., 2015) were used to create a measure for turnover intention (as cited in Mullen et al., 2018). The authors found that job stress and burnout predict job satisfaction and that burnout is a predictor of turnover intention (Mullen et al., 2018). Furthermore, the authors noted that SAPs with higher stress and burnout were more likely to have increased job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions (Mullen et al., 2018). This study

focused on student affairs professionals, which includes the advising population, so it provides

solid research towards this study. Higher levels of job satisfaction tend to lower turnover rates

and generate higher levels of commitment (Lee et al., 2018; Pryce-Jones, 2010; Saridakis et al.,

2020).

  ***Organizational Commitment.*** Organizational commitment is the state of an employee's

outlook toward their colleagues, leaders, and organization and the employee's desire to retain

their relationship with that organization (Choi et al., 2021; Judge et al., 2017; Makka, 2018;

Saridakis et al., 2020; Wijayati et al., 2020). Commitment is the "head and heart" approach to

one's job and links to one's beliefs and interests, which can help boost positive emotions and

happiness at work (Pryce-Jones, 2010). More importantly, when commitment levels are higher,

so are motivation and job satisfaction (Choi et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Pryce-Jones, 2010).

Conversely, when employees' job satisfaction is higher, their commitment to the organization is

boosted (Choi et al., 2021; Wijayati et al., 2020). Because of this, Saridakis et al. (2020) argued

that organizational commitment is both an antecedent and outcome of job satisfaction. Higher

levels of commitment can also lead to increased performance (Wijayati et al., 2020).

  Saridakis et al. (2020) sought to find the relationship between job satisfaction and

organizational commitment. They discussed four potential relationships, including (a) job

satisfaction predicts organizational commitment, (b) organizational commitment predicts job

satisfaction, (c) job satisfaction and organizational commitment are mutually related, and (d) job

satisfaction and organizational commitment are independent (Saridakis et al., 2020). Employees

across organizational contexts in Britain completed the study (Saridakis et al., 2020). The data

collection included four components: (a) a management questionnaire, (b) an employee

questionnaire, (c) a worker representation survey, and (d) a financial performance questionnaire

(Saridakis et al., 2020). The authors received 17,616 surveys (Saridakis et al., 2020). Saridakis et al. (2020) utilized nine statements to measure job satisfaction that employees evaluated on a five-point scale. Employees had to rank aspects of their job such as achievement, the influence on their job, training, pay, job security, and more (Saridakis et al., 2020). To measure organizational commitment, employees had to specify the degree of agreement with the statement, "I share many of the values of my organization," with five as strongly agree and one as strongly disagree (Saridakis et al., 2020). The study found that employees with higher levels of job satisfaction reported higher levels of organizational commitment (Saridakis et al., 2020). Additionally, the authors found that higher levels of organizational commitment led to higher levels of job satisfaction (Saridakis et al., 2020). While this study did not focus on the advising population, it did demonstrate the importance of job satisfaction to organizational commitment. It also demonstrated that organizational commitment is both an outcome of job satisfaction and an antecedent of job satisfaction (Saridakis et al., 2020).

*Job Satisfaction Antecedents*

Numerous antecedents predict job satisfaction in the workplace. Judge et al. (2021) argued that there are three overall categories of antecedents of job satisfaction, including dispositional (i.e., the person), contextual (i.e., the situation), and event-based (i.e., temporal influences and states). While Judge et al. (2021) discuss many antecedents within each category (dispositional, contextual, and event-based), a few are important to the current study, and only dispositional and contextual antecedents are discussed.

**Dispositional Antecedents.** In the dispositional approach, the perspective places the focus of job attitude formation on the worker himself (Judge et al., 2017). The dispositional antecedent also highlights that people have positive or negative attitudes across all contexts

(Judge et al., 2017). As described by Judge et al. (2021), two critical dispositional antecedents include trait positive affect and negative affect (Thoreson et al., 2003; Watson & Slack, 1993) and proactive personality (Li et al., 2010).

    ***Positive and Negative Affect***. Affect refers to different states, such as good versus bad, and can include attitudes, moods, and emotions (Gross, 2010). Trait affect refers to the dispositional inclination to experience specific affective states over time and focuses on one's constant personality (Lan et al., 2022; Thoreson et al., 2003). State affect refers to the situational effect one feels in a short time, focusing more on one's emotions or moods (Lan et al., 2022; Thoreson et al., 2003). Lan et al. (2022) argued that people with high positive affect (PA) more often experience positive emotions and people with high negative affect (NA) experience more negative emotions. Although both PA and NA can happen simultaneously, one cannot assume that the effects of PA are the opposite of NA (Lan et al., 2022). PA and NA are not just a part of one's personal life but are also significant aspects of one's work life. Furthermore, researchers have noted that PA and NA are antecedents to job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2021; Thoreson et al., 2003; Watson & Slack, 1993).

    The affective era of job satisfaction research began in the early to mid-1990s (Judge et al., 2017). In 1993, Watson and Slack found that PA and NA significantly correlated to job satisfaction. Then 10 years later, Thoreson et al. (2003) confirmed that PA and NA had a satisfactory relationship with job satisfaction. Other researchers also found that employees with more positive dispositions find more positive aspects of their job, while employees with more negative dispositions find more negative aspects of their job (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Judge et al., 2017). Both Lan et al. (2022) and Ghasemy et al. (2022) found similar results.

Lan et al. (2022) completed a study on 349 manufacturing employees and supervisors in China. The authors hypothesized that under PA-NA congruence, or when PA and NA are at the same level, employees will experience higher levels of job satisfaction when PA and NA are congruent at a high level as opposed to a low level (Lan et al., 2022). Their expectation was that job satisfaction would have a stronger correlation with PA than NA (Lan et al., 2022). The authors gave the participants a questionnaire that included three questions about job satisfaction taken from an unnamed measurement by Price and Mueller (1981 as cited in Lan et al., 2022). They found that in congruence when PA and NA are equivalently at high or low levels, job satisfaction is higher, and when PA is higher than NA, job satisfaction is also higher (Lan et al., 2022).

In another example, Ghasemy et al. (2022) completed a quantitative study on 2,337 academicians in Malaysia. The authors hypothesized that positive affect would increase job satisfaction and negative affect would decrease job satisfaction (Ghasemy et al., 2022). Participants received a survey utilizing the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) and a generic 10-item job satisfaction scale (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997 as cited in Ghasemy et al., 2022). Their results supported their hypothesis that positive affect increased job satisfaction and negative affect decreased job satisfaction (Ghasemy et al., 2022).

**Proactive Personality.** Another dispositional antecedent of job satisfaction is a proactive personality (Judge et al., 2021). Proactive personality is a dispositional inclination of a person to influence their environment, and it has helped improve job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2021; Li et al., 2010; Prabhu, 2018). More specifically, a proactive person produces favorable work environments that contribute to job satisfaction (Li et al., 2010). People with proactive personalities seek out information and opportunities, identify ideas for improvement, and take

action to manipulate work conditions in their favor (Li et al., 2010). Because proactive people can create conducive work environments for their success, a proactive personality correlates with job satisfaction (Li et al., 2010). A proactive personality helps employees actively learn, show support to their peers, and exhibit organizational commitment, but these employees are also more likely to ask for help and support from peers and supervisors when needed (Abid et al., 2021; Li et al., 2010; Maan et al., 2020).

To study the impact of proactive personality on job satisfaction, Prabhu (2018) hypothesized that in a change setting, proactive personality would significantly and positively relate to job performance, job satisfaction, affective commitment to change, and an intent to remain at the organization. The author collected data from 275 nonprofit employees in the southeastern part of the United States using a self-report survey (Prabhu, 2018). A shortened 17-item version of the Proactive Personality Scale (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Seibert et al., 1999) measured proactive personality (as cited in Prabhu, 2018). A 7-item version of an unnamed scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991) measured job performance, and a 4-item Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1997) measured job satisfaction (as cited in Prabhu, 2018). Finally, a sub-scale of an unnamed scale (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002) was used to measure affective commitment to change, and a 4-item unnamed scale (Robinson, 1996) was applied to measure intent to remain (as cited in Prabhu, 2018). The authors found proactive personality significantly and positively correlated with job performance and job satisfaction in a change setting. However, a proactive personality is only partially correlated with the intent to remain at an organization (Prabhu, 2018). Even though this study did not focus on the advising population, nor did it use the exact measurements as this study, it does show a significant relationship between proactive personality

and job satisfaction. Thus, a proactive personality is a vital antecedent when studying job satisfaction.

**Contextual Antecedents.** Situations or environments influence job satisfaction in a contextual approach (Judge et al., 2021). This approach to job satisfaction antecedents started in the 1960s and 1970s (Judge et al., 2017, 2021). Factors such as human resource practices, organizational structure, leadership, and job characteristics play a major role in the contextual approach (Judge et al., 2017, 2021). Judge et al. (2021) described two key contextual antecedents: job characteristics and leadership (López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Paltu & Brouwers, 2020; Sugiarto, 2020).

**Job Characteristics.** Job characteristics in a contextual sense can include job demands and job insecurity (Judge et al., 2021). Job demands can include challenge stressors such as growth opportunities and achievement or hindrance stressors, including organizational politics and role ambiguity (Judge et al., 2021). Both stressors can affect job satisfaction, but role ambiguity will be addressed explicitly in this section (Judge et al., 2021). When no clear job role or requirements exist, an employee can experience role ambiguity (Sugiarto, 2020). Job insecurity occurs when an employee has concern or uncertainty about their future at their place of work (Judge et al., 2021). Studies have shown that job insecurity also affects job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2021).

Studying both job insecurity and role ambiguity, Sugiarto (2020) hypothesized that job insecurity is negatively associated with job satisfaction and that role ambiguity will negatively correlate with job satisfaction. Through a series of questionnaires, 100 temporary laborers in various organizations in Batik Trusmi Cirebon, Indonesia, completed the survey (Sugiarto, 2020). Four items from Hawass (2015) measured job insecurity, including questions such as "I

feel able to face the threat of my current job" and "I feel I will not lose my current job" (as cited in Sugiarto, 2020). Five items from Hill et al. (2015) measured role ambiguity, including "I think confident about my authority in my current job" and "I think there is a clear responsibility in my current job" (as cited in Sugiarto, 2020). Job satisfaction was measured using five items based on scales by Spector (1997) and Smith et al. (1969) with questions such as "I am satisfied with my present job" (as cited in Sugiarto, 2020). The results showed that job insecurity had a significant and negative relationship with job satisfaction, meaning when job insecurity increases as does job dissatisfaction (Sugiarto, 2020). The authors also found that role ambiguity only partially negatively correlated with job satisfaction (Sugiarto, 2020). The authors explained that if there is no clarity about the job role, employees might express job dissatisfaction (Sugiarto, 2020). While this study did not focus on the advising population, it did show a clear role that job characteristics play as antecedents of job satisfaction.

**Leader and Leadership Behaviors**. As defined by Rost (1991), leadership is "an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect mutual purposes" (p. 102). Leaders and leadership behaviors significantly contribute to organizational success or failure (Judge et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). Furthermore, support from leaders is essential to job performance (López-Cabarcos et al., 2022). Leadership can happen in many styles, including transformational, transactional, sustainable, ethical, and servant-focused leadership (Çayak, 2021; Ko et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; López-Cabarcos et al., 2022). Other types of leadership that can have a negative impact also exist, such as toxic leadership (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). All types of leadership can potentially affect employee job satisfaction, but the research below will focus on sustainable, ethical, and toxic leadership.

Çayak (2021) completed a study on sustainable leadership and job satisfaction. Sustainable leadership looks at the organization's long-term gains and goals to see the bigger picture instead of short-term and immediate goals and gains (Çayak, 2021). Sustainable leadership also focuses on ethical behavior, innovation, systematic change, and employee engagement (Çayak, 2021; Nisha et al., 2022). The author examined whether the sustainable leadership behaviors of principals predict organizational commitment and job satisfaction in teachers (Çayak, 2021). Surveys from 338 teachers in Istanbul were collected for data (Çayak, 2021). The Sustainable Leadership Scale (Çayak & Setin, 2018), the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale (Weiss et al., 1967), and the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer et al., 1993) measured sustainable leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, respectively (as cited in Çayak, 2021). The author found that the sustainable leadership behaviors of principals significantly predicted the teachers' overall job satisfaction, especially the intrinsic satisfaction sub-dimension, as well as organizational commitment (Çayak, 2021). This study did not focus on academic advisors or utilize the scales in the current study; however, it did focus on leadership behavior and job satisfaction in an educational context like the current study.

Focusing on a different type of leadership, Freire and Bettencourt (2020) completed a study on ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Ethical leaders influence followers with character traits such as honesty, trust, and care while upholding principled values (Freire & Bettencourt, 2020; Gan, 2018; Ko et al., 2018). For this type of leadership to work, leaders must maintain certain ethical standards and behaviors toward followers and the organization (Gan, 2018). The authors hypothesized that ethical leadership positively correlates with job satisfaction (Freire & Bettencourt, 2020). A total of 234 nursing professionals in Portuguese completed the surveys (Freire & Bettencourt, 2020). Ethical leadership was measured using the 10-item Ethical

Leadership Scale (Brown et al., 2005), and job satisfaction was measured utilizing the Job

Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1994 as cited in Freire & Bettencourt, 2020). The results produced a

positive relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction (Freire & Bettencourt,

2020). Similar to other studies, this research did not focus on the same population or

measurements as the current study; however, it is a solid study with positive results of

antecedents such as leadership behaviors.

In a contrasting study, Paltu and Brouwers (2020) focused on toxic leadership and job

outcomes. Toxic leadership harms the well-being of employees and the organization (Paltu &

Brouwers, 2020). Toxic leaders can be abusive and unpredictable even if they are competent and

effective in their roles (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020; Satiani & Satiani, 2022). Toxic leaders can be

deliberate in their behaviors and often intend to deceive, intimidate, and humiliate employees

(Satiani & Satiani, 2022). The study aimed to examine the relationship between toxic leadership

and job outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, and organizational commitment

(Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). A total of 600 surveys were collected from various workers in the

manufacturing context (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). The Toxic Leadership Scale (Schmidt, 2008),

the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009), the Turnover

Intention Scale (Roodt, 2004), the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991),

and the Organizational Culture Questionnaire (Van der Post et al., 1997) measured toxic

leadership, job satisfaction, turnover intention, organizational commitment, and organizational

culture respectively (as cited in Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). The study found that toxic leadership

had a statistically significant and negative relationship with organizational commitment and a

positive relationship with turnover intention, affecting job satisfaction (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020).

Unfortunately, this study found a positive relationship between toxic leadership and extrinsic job

satisfaction; however, the authors noted that this finding might result from the type of worker and environment (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). While this study did not focus directly on academic advising, nor did it use similar measurements as the current study, it did focus on the negative aspects of leadership and its effects on job satisfaction.

Each of these antecedents demonstrates differing factors that predict job satisfaction. Some antecedents, such as commitment, are also job satisfaction outcomes. While this list of antecedents is far from exhaustive, it provides a guideline for job satisfaction predictors. Gratitude is another leadership behavior that has demonstrated positive work outcomes, including job satisfaction. However, it is not addressed in the context of leadership behaviors, but it is critical to understand more about gratitude, as other leadership behaviors have had a profound impact on job satisfaction.

### *Gratitude as an Antecedent of Job Satisfaction*

One feasible way to improve job satisfaction is through gratitude in the workplace (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Cameron, 2012; Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Fagley & Adler, 2012; Lanham et al., 2012; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Stegen & Wankier, 2018; Waters, 2012). While some research on gratitude and job satisfaction exists, researchers have not looked at different types of gratitude, such as dispositional gratitude, expression of gratitude, and receipt of gratitude as it relates to job satisfaction. Furthermore, while studies have utilized validated measures of gratitude, unfortunately, the instruments have not measured gratitude at work, as the current study does. Additionally, no studies have concentrated on the gratitude and job satisfaction of the academic advisor population. I will focus on the gratitude and job satisfaction research in this section.

Waters' (2012) research focused on job satisfaction and gratitude in the teaching and finance sectors. Waters (2012) noted that the link between gratitude and job satisfaction had not yet been empirically studied at the time of her study. In her study, Waters (2012) hypothesized that dispositional and state gratitude would correlate significantly to job satisfaction, and institutional gratitude will predict variance upon job satisfaction above dispositional and state gratitude. Using quantitative methods, 171 teaching and finance employees completed a four-measure survey (Waters, 2012). The four measures used included the Index of Job Satisfaction survey (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), the Positive Practices Scale (Cameron et al., 2011), the Gratitude Questionnaire (McCullough et al., 2002), and the Gratitude Adjective Checklist (McCullough et al., 2002 as cited in Waters, 2012). The author found that dispositional gratitude, state gratitude, and institutional gratitude positively correlated with job satisfaction (Waters, 2012). The author noted that when state gratitude and institutional gratitude entered the regression, dispositional gratitude was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Waters, 2012). The author noted that the relationship between state gratitude and job satisfaction suggests that organizational leaders should intentionally and regularly prompt grateful emotions to boost job satisfaction (Waters, 2012).

While this study is vital in demonstrating a positive connection between gratitude and teacher job satisfaction, it does not explicitly show a correlation in higher education institutions or academic advising. Although the study utilizes the Index of Job Satisfaction survey, which the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale was derived from, and the GQ-6 to measure job satisfaction and dispositional gratitude, it does not use the GQ-6 with the added "at work" component that my study will use (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Judge et al., 1998; McCullough et al., 2002; Waters, 2012). In this study, Waters (2012) did not address the receipt of gratitude and its' predicted

correlation with job satisfaction. Since Waters' (2012) study, a few other studies have been completed on the connection between gratitude and job satisfaction (Cortini et al., 2019; Lanham et al., 2012; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Stegen & Wankier, 2018).

Lanham et al. (2012) studied how gratitude correlates to burnout and job satisfaction in community and university mental health professionals. In this quantitative study, the authors collected survey data about burnout, job satisfaction, hope, and gratitude from 65 mental health professionals (Lanham et al., 2012). The scales utilized included Maslach's Burnout Inventory (burnout), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (job satisfaction), the Gratitude Questionnaire (dispositional gratitude), and the Adult Trait Hope Scale (hope; as cited in Lanham et al., 2012). The authors completed a hierarchical multiple regression for the dependent variables, and they found that workplace-specific gratitude predicted job satisfaction in mental health workers (Lanham et al., 2012). However, dispositional gratitude did not predict job satisfaction when controlling for demographic-related factors and hope (Lanham et al., 2012). Because of this, Lanham et al. (2012) argued the need to measure both dispositional gratitude and situational gratitude. The results of their study played a role in choosing multiple types of gratitude and specific measures for the current study. Although it does not focus on gratitude and job satisfaction in academic advisors, their study does focus on helping professionals similar to advisors.

More recently, researchers wanted to know if an "attitude of gratitude" would increase job satisfaction among faculty members at a nursing college (Stegen & Wankier, 2018). Their purpose was to identify if implementing gratitude in several ways during the academic year would improve job satisfaction through the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001; Stegen & Wankier, 2018). After completing a survey before the semester started, Stegen and Wankier

(2018) implemented gratitude interventions for nursing faculty through team-building activities. For the interventions, gratitude books were given to faculty to guide in group discussions twice each semester, random faculty received gratitude recognition, a private social media group, and gratitude bulletin board were created, and faculty were encouraged to post gratitude notes to others (Stegen & Wankier, 2018). At the end of the year, the faculty participated in another survey. The authors found a 17.9% increase in job satisfaction for a statistically significant difference of 0.042 in job satisfaction (Stegen & Wankier, 2018). While this study focused on a similar population to academic advisors, it utilized an intervention, which the currently proposed study is not doing. Nevertheless, the research provided reliable information for the current study.

Not many studies have focused on relational gratitude; however, Cortini et al. (2019) completed their study on public accountants in Italy to see if dispositional gratitude, collective gratitude, and relational gratitude affect job satisfaction. The authors used a mixed method for their study (Cortini et al., 2019). In the qualitative portion of the study, a small sample of nine participants answered questions in a gratitude diary for 10 working days. The quantitative portion implemented an online questionnaire for participants to complete (Cortini et al., 2019). The Gratitude Questionnaire scale (GQ-6; McCullough et al., 2002), Collective Gratitude Scale (Akgun et al., 2016), Perceived Gratitude Scale (Martini et al., 2015), and other questions were used (as cited in Cortini et al., 2019). The authors found that both perceived and expressed gratitude positively affected job satisfaction (Cortini et al., 2019). Furthermore, the study found that the most common type of expressed gratitude was toward coworkers, and the most common type of received gratitude was from customers (Cortini et al., 2019). However, this particular study asked participants limited questions about job satisfaction. While the Cortini et al. (2019) study showed a positive correlation, it is with a completely different population than the current

study proposes. The study focused on relational gratitude at work, which my study intends to do. Although Cortini et al. (2019) utilized the GQ-6 as this study does, it is a general measure of dispositional gratitude and not in the context of work.

**Perceived Gratitude From Supervisor.** One of the studies Ritzenhöfer et al. (2019) completed focused on whether a follower's perception of their leader's gratitude expressed toward them correlated with job satisfaction. The authors hypothesized that a follower's perception of their leader's expression of gratitude towards them positively correlated with follower job satisfaction and negatively correlated with turnover intention (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). The first population sampled were students at a large German university, and the second population sampled included employees from various industries, including retail, finance, information technologies, and research and development (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). Participants rated how often their leader expressed gratitude on a 5-point scale for "time 1," and then participants rated their leaders' expression again during "time 2" (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). The authors utilized multiple regression analyses to test the hypotheses, and the results yielded direct effects on follower perception of gratitude towards followers and job satisfaction with a statistically significant number of .001 (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). The results also demonstrated that leaders' gratitude expression decreased turnover intention with a statistically significant number of .001 (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). Some limitations of the study included relying on a single source of data and only reviewing follower perceptions instead of the leader and follower perceptions (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). This study is like my study when looking at a leader's expression of gratitude and its role in job satisfaction.

In another study, authors researched how perceived gratitude expressed by a supervisor affected organizational support, supervisor support, affective organizational commitment, and

job satisfaction (McKeon et al., 2020). The authors received 278 completed surveys from recruited participants (McKeon et al., 2020). Measurements used in the study included the Affective Commitment Scale, the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire-Job Satisfaction scale, the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support scale, and one question to assess supervisor gratitude (McKeon et al., 2020). The results yielded a positive correlation between all variables, meaning they found a positive correlation between perceived gratitude expressed by a supervisor and job satisfaction (McKeon et al., 2020). One limitation noted was that most of their participants were White, creating a lack of diversity in their data (McKeon et al., 2020). Another limitation included the use of one question to assess supervisor gratitude. Because this study will focus on different levels of receipt of gratitude, including from the organization and supervisors, the McKeon et al. (2020) study proves beneficial. However, still, this study does not focus on the academic advising population, which is why the currently proposed exploration is vital to the advising community. Finally, this study did not use identical measurements as the current study intends to use. Both articles showed a correlation between gratitude and job satisfaction as well.

While several studies have focused on linking gratitude and job satisfaction, none has focused on the academic advising population, nor have they utilized specific measures of gratitude at work. Furthermore, most studies have not focused on various aspects of gratitude, such as dispositional, relational, and expression of gratitude. That discovery makes this current study essential to the advising population and gratitude and job satisfaction research.

**Gratitude**

*History of Gratitude*

Gratitude has a rich history in philosophy, literature, and religion (Clay & Stearns, 2020; Harpham, 2004; Kapic, 2015). Harpham (2004) argued that gratitude is a building block of society. Many religions have deep foundations in gratitude, such as Christian, Jewish, Buddhist, Hindu, and Muslim beliefs, offering a more dispositional form of gratitude (Bono et al., 2004; Harpham, 2004; McCullough et al., 2001). Harpham (2004) discussed notable gratitude scholars, including Roman philosopher Seneca, English philosopher Thomas Hobbes, German philosopher Samuel Pufendorf, and Scottish philosopher Adam Smith. Smith was the first scholar to offer a more psychological perspective on gratitude (as cited in Bono et al., 2004). He defined it as something people can feel themselves and express to others that benefits the other person (Harpham, 2004, as cited in Bono et al., 2004). Since the early 1900s, social scientists have sporadically touched on gratitude (Harpham, 2004, as cited in Bono et al., 2004). Up to this point, most researchers viewed gratitude as a moral affect (McCullough et al., 2001). In the latter half of the 20th century, scholars began researching gratitude in a more modern view (McCullough et al., 2001).

At the turn of the century, the field of positive psychology began, and McCullough et al. (2001) began studying gratitude in more depth. The authors believed that throughout the 1900s, gratitude was not thoroughly studied and deserved attention as a positive emotion that was felt regularly and often (McCullough et al., 2001). They found that while gratitude is one of the moral affects, it has received far less attention than other affects, such as empathy (McCullough et al., 2001). However, the authors believed that future research should include examining gratitude in different ways, including as a response to benevolence and a motive for reciprocity

(McCullough et al., 2001). Also noted was the need to study dispositional gratitude (i.e., grateful in general) and receipt of gratitude (i.e., feeling grateful because of others; McCullough et al., 2001).

### *Defining Gratitude*

While many researchers have defined gratitude in various ways, this study embraces a central definition of gratitude rooted in positive psychology research. As defined by Emmons and McCullough (2003), gratitude is a positive emotion experienced as a result of recognizing and responding to benefits received from the actions of others, creating a sense of appreciation and thankfulness. This study adopts this definition because of its popularity in research. The authors described gratitude as something that requires mental and emotional components that recognize benefits originating from someone or somewhere other than oneself (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). For example, one can be thankful for benefiting from the actions of others, but it can also be an appreciation of something other than a person, like God or nature (Emmons, 2001; Emmons & McCullough, 2003).

Some researchers define gratitude as an appreciation of one's life, someone, or something (Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; McCullough et al., 2001). Gratitude is a virtue and emotion that can be episodic, persistent, or collective, and it focuses on people, objects, and life (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Emmons & McCullough, 2003; Fehr et al., 2017; Ford et al., 2018; Fredrickson, 2001; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021; McKeon et al., 2020). Gratitude is a prosocial emotion because the person who experiences gratitude considers themselves a recipient of another person's positive actions (Madrigal, 2020). Prosociality is an array of behaviors or efforts intended to promote or benefit the well-being of others, and examples of other prosocial emotions include shame, empathy, hope, and sadness (Ma et al.,

2017). Madrigal (2020) noted that the person thanked for their actions would more than likely engage in prosocial behavior again because of gratitude but noted that the person must demonstrate a grateful attitude and act in ways that express that attitude. While gratitude has been defined in several ways and consists of many factors, it also produces various outcomes.

*Outcomes of Gratitude*

Gratitude produces a multitude of positive outcomes for people. Grateful people have shown decreased illness symptoms and greater levels of psychological well-being, physical health, and healthier behavior like exercising (Allen, 2018; Starkey et al., 2019). Gratitude can increase well-being and satisfaction with life and work (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Starkey et al., 2019; Valikhani et al., 2019). Key areas include physical health, mental health, well-being, and social connections.

**Physical Health.** Physical health can improve because of gratitude (Allen, 2018). Studies have shown that gratitude can improve sleep (Mills et al., 2015; Siegel, 2018; Starkey et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2009). Gratitude has also been linked to reduced levels of heart disease and increased immunity, promoting heart health and vagal tone (Allen, 2018; Kok et al., 2013; Millstein et al., 2016). Kok et al.'s (2013) study found that positive emotions, specifically gratitude, were linked to improved vagal tone. Furthermore, in their study, vagal tone assessed heart function as a measurement of physical health, thus showing that gratitude can improve vagal tone (Kok et al., 2013). Another study revealed that gratitude could potentially prevent chronic illnesses such as arthritis, inflammatory bowel disease, and kidney disease (Krause et al., 2017; Sirois & Wood, 2016). Some researchers even argue that positive emotions can lower fatigue, ease inflammation, and reduce the number of colds a person catches per year (Cohen et

al., 2008; Kok et al., 2013; Kubzanksy et al., 2015; Mills et al., 2015; Steptoe et al., 2008).

Studies below show the outcomes of gratitude and physical health.

In a study completed by Krause et al. (2017), the authors hypothesized that general

feelings of gratitude would positively correlate with hemoglobin A1C (HbA1c). The Landmark

Spirituality and Health Survey results provided data for the study with 1,775 participants (Krause

et al., 2017). Four questions from research completed by Emmons and McCullough (2003)

measured gratitude; however, the authors did not use a specific scale (Krause et al., 2017). A

blood sample was collected to find the HbA1c level of each participant, and then, participants

provided the number of days each week they engaged in a minimum of 15 minutes of exercise or

more (Krause et al., 2017). The authors found that higher levels of general gratitude correlated

with lower HbA1c levels (Krause et al., 2017). The authors noted the need for more research to

understand why gratitude levels correlate with HbA1c, as the specific reason was not examined

(Krause et al., 2017).

Starkey et al. (2019) completed a study on receiving gratitude and physical health in

nursing as a helping profession. The authors hypothesized that receiving gratitude will predict

increased patient care satisfaction, and in turn, increased patient care satisfaction will be

associated with increased physical health outcomes (Starkey et al., 2019). Data were taken from

the Oregon Nurse Retention Project to recruit 428 nurses, and 146 nurses participated (Starkey et

al., 2019). Five nonscale items about how often participants received thanks from patients,

family members, charge nurses, coworkers, and physicians measured gratitude (Starkey et al.,

2019). Participants answered two questions about sleep and eating habits to measure physical

health (Starkey et al., 2019). The authors found that receiving gratitude predicts better physical

health through psychological well-being and job-related satisfaction (Starkey et al., 2019). More

specifically, the study found that receiving more thanks during the week created greater nurse satisfaction and provided care, improving sleep quality and healthy eating habits and decreased headaches (Starkey et al., 2019). Gratitude has proven to provide positive outcomes in physical health, but it has also been shown to improve well-being.

**Subjective Well-Being.** Well-being requires an absence of mental disorders and the presence of positive psychological resources (Portocarrero et al., 2020). Some indicators of positive well-being include life satisfaction, happiness, and positive affect, while negative well-being may include depression, anxiety, and stress (Portocarrero et al., 2020; Wang, 2020). Additionally, subjective well-being is an aspect of positive well-being and quality of life that focuses on maximizing pleasure and minimizing pain (Portocarrero et al., 2020; Wang, 2020). As Fredrickson (2001) argued with the broaden-and-build theory, when a person experiences positive emotions like gratitude, they begin to build resources that help them deal with future events. Gratitude has been shown to help people lead thriving lives (Lai & O'Carroll, 2017). Dispositional gratitude positively correlates with and is a significant predictor of well-being (Allen, 2018; McCullough et al., 2001, 2002; Portocarrero et al., 2020). Research also shows that gratitude helps protect people from burnout at work (Allen, 2018; Lanham et al., 2012). Furthermore, experiencing positive emotions like gratitude can help undo the effects of negative emotions on one's well-being (Allen, 2018; Fredrickson et al., 2000; Tugade et al., 2021). Lin (2016) found that gratitude could influence individual well-being through increased levels of social support. A more positive well-being at work can create a positive environment for others and increase the organization's bottom line (Rath & Harter, 2015).

Lan et al. (2022) focused a study on gratitude and subjective well-being. The authors explored whether counting blessings will or will not promote gratitude and subjective well-being

in 124 male prisoners in Shandong, China (Lan et al., 2022). Lan et al. (2022) used the GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2001) to measure gratitude and the Subjective Well-Being Scale to measure subjective well-being (Diener, 2000). The participants completed the surveys before the intervention began (Lan et al., 2022). The participants were split into the counting blessings condition group (i.e., intervention) and the control condition group (Lan et al., 2022). In the counting blessings condition, participants wrote down three to five things or people they are grateful for every day for 4 weeks. The control group completed an evening Chinese calligraphy activity for 4 weeks (Lan et al., 2022). Then, participants completed the surveys 4 weeks after the intervention ended (Lan et al., 2022). The authors found that participants in the intervention group reported significantly higher levels of gratitude than the control group (Lan et al., 2022). Finally, the authors argued that an intervention like counting blessings could significantly encourage gratitude and subjective well-being (Lan et al., 2022). One limitation the authors listed included not being able to predict if this intervention can positively affect gratitude and subjective well-being long term (Lan et al., 2022). Although this study did not focus on the advising population, nor did my study plan to use an intervention strategy, the relationship between gratitude and subjective well-being was important to the study. Gratitude not only improves subjective well-being, but research also shows it predicts mental health and psychological well-being.

**Mental Health and Psychological Well-Being.** Gratitude contributes to mental health and psychological well-being (Allen, 2018; Lin, 2017). Allen (2018) argued that people are happier, have more life satisfaction, and are less likely to suffer burnout when they are more grateful. In general, grateful people have reduced anxiety, depression, stress, and loneliness (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021; Nguyen &

Le, 2021; Siegel, 2018; Valikhani et al., 2019; Wolfe, 2021; Wood et al., 2010). Specifically, studies have shown that gratitude helps reduce depression (Allen, 2018; Feng & Yin, 2021; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021; Lin, 2017; Wolfe, 2021). Other studies have shown that gratitude can reduce suicide ideation as well (Krysinska et al., 2015; Stockton et al., 2016).

For example, in one study, Feng and Yin (2021) examined the relationship between gratitude and depression among front-line medical workers during COVID-19. The authors utilized the GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2001) to measure gratitude. Three hundred forty-four (344) front-line medical staff in China completed the survey (Feng & Yin, 2021). Feng and Yin (2021) found that dispositional gratitude negatively correlated with depression levels in front-line medical workers during COVID-19, meaning gratitude helped reduce depression in this population by fostering social support and hope and protecting people from stress and depression in the future.

In another study, Valikhani et al. (2019) hypothesized that gratitude would positively affect the quality of life and negatively affect poor mental health and perceived stress. The authors completed their study on 315 male Iranian soldiers (Valikhani et al., 2019). Valikhani et al. (2019) utilized the GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2001) to measure gratitude, the WHO Quality of Life Assessment (WHOQOL Group, 1998) to measure the quality of life, and the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen & Williamson, 1988) to measure perceived stress (as cited in Valikhani et al., 2019). Ultimately, the authors found that gratitude positively correlated with quality of life and negatively correlated with poor mental health and perceived stress (Valikhani et al., 2019). While this study did not focus on the advising population, it shows a correlation between gratitude, mental health, and psychological well-being. While mental health and well-being are

essential outcomes of gratitude, it is also vital to note that Lee et al. (2018) discovered that a key to well-being is the social exchange of gratitude.

**Social Function.** Social interactions are vital to people's everyday lives (Algoe, 2012). Additionally, social connectedness is the sense of intimacy required to build interpersonal relationships and to feel like one belongs (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021). Emotions help people with various social functions (Algoe et al., 2020). In multiple studies, gratitude improved relationships and social function (Algoe, 2012; Algoe et al., 2020; Allen, 2018; Wood et al., 2010). Additionally, Lin (2016) found that gratitude leads to higher levels of social support. Receiving gratitude from a stranger can improve one's sense of social worth and encourage helping behaviors (Allen, 2018; Starkey et al., 2019).

Research has also found a positive relationship between gratitude and prosociality (Allen, 2018; Ma et al., 2017). Ma et al. (2017) described prosociality as an array of behaviors or efforts intended to promote the well-being of others. Grant and Gino (2010) completed a study on undergraduate and graduate students to examine the effects of expressing gratitude on prosocial behaviors. The study surveyed 69 students in the Southeast United States and participants were divided into a gratitude group or a control group for an experiment (Grant & Gino, 2010). The authors sent participants an email asking for feedback on a cover letter as part of an experiment. In the email, both groups received the same message, but the gratitude group received an extra message offering gratitude for help with the experiment (Grant & Gino, 2010). Then, the participants completed a questionnaire, including the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson et al., 1988) and three other adapted scales measuring prosocial behavior, self-efficacy, and social worth (as cited in Grant & Gino, 2010). The authors found that social worth explained the expression of gratitude's effects on prosocial behaviors, noting that when helpers are

thanked, they feel more socially valued, which motivates them to help more in the future (Grant & Gino, 2010).

Gratitude as a positive emotion is directly associated with relationship formation (Algoe, 2012; Algoe et al., 2008, 2020; Allen, 2018; Grant & Gino, 2010; Ma et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2010). Gratitude is more than reciprocity; rather, it helps form and build relationships (Algoe et al., 2008, 2013). Because it is a positive emotion, gratitude stimulates mutual cyclical growth between members of a relationship (Algoe et al., 2013; Fredrickson, 2001). Additionally, the broaden-and-build theory suggests that when a person experiences positive emotions, they begin to build resources to help deal with future events (Fredrickson, 2001). Not only does the broaden-and-build help boost positive emotions, but it can also boost social connections, which can build trust (Algoe et al., 2013; Fredrickson, 2001). It is all part of the upward spiral of positive emotions, such as gratitude, and the cyclical growth of relationships (Algoe et al., 2013; Fredrickson, 2001). The broaden-and-build theory connects positive emotions like gratitude and individual outcomes such as well-being, physical health, and social function. The following sections will offer information about dispositional gratitude and relational gratitude, specifically in the context of expression and receipt of gratitude.

### *Dispositional Gratitude*

Dispositional gratitude, also known as trait gratitude, occurs when a person is grateful by nature (Locklear et al., 2020; McGuire et al., 2020). Dispositional gratitude focuses on the simple gratefulness of things, a sense of abundance, and an appreciation of others (Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; McCullough et al., 2002; Stoeckel et al., 2015; Watkins et al., 2003). McCullough et al. (2002) stated that dispositional gratitude is an inclination to identify and respond to others' benevolence and positive self-experiences with grateful emotions. People high

in dispositional gratitude feel more deeply grateful than those less disposed toward gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002). Instead of feeling a fleeting moment of gratitude, dispositional gratitude signifies an overall experience of gratitude emotion (McCullough et al., 2002). Dispositional gratitude can lead to positive outcomes in one's life, ultimately leading to happiness (McCullough et al., 2002). As noted earlier, happiness at work can increase commitment to and contentment with one's job.

**Measurement of Dispositional Gratitude.** To measure dispositional gratitude, McCullough et al. (2001) developed a scale called the Gratitude Questionnaire-6 (GQ-6), which my study utilizes. Several studies aimed to validate the GQ-6 in different countries and languages (Chang et al., 2022; Garg & Katiyar, 2021; Gouveia et al., 2021). Chang et al. (2022) utilized the Spanish GQ-6 to determine if gratitude can help broaden-and-build emotional intelligence connected with higher levels of life satisfaction in older adults. The authors found that gratitude significantly and positively correlated with emotional intelligence and life satisfaction (Chang et al., 2022).

Utilizing the GQ-6, Gouveia et al. (2021) completed a study on Brazilian undergraduate students in two separate samples. The scale was translated to Portuguese through a back-translation process and was given to 10 participants from the target population to ensure that instructions and items were readable and sufficient (Gouveia et al., 2021). In the first sample, 471 undergraduate students, as part of a convenience sample, completed the GQ-6 and demographic questions (Gouveia et al., 2021). The authors split the participant group into two parts; the first group was used in an exploratory factor analysis, while the second group was tested with a confirmatory factor analysis (Gouveia et al., 2021). The first sample yielded an alpha of above .70, but the authors thought it necessary to replicate the one-factor structure in a

second sample (Gouveia et al., 2021). In the second study, 515 undergraduate participants

completed the GQ-6 along with two other scales so the authors could conduct exploratory and

confirmatory factorial analyses (Gouveia et al., 2021). The second study yielded a .71 reliability

score, and the authors noted that the factorial validity and reliability were consistent with their

first study (Gouveia et al., 2021). Gouveia et al. (2021) determined the GQ-6 to be a valuable

gratitude tool in Brazil.

A similar study by Garg and Katiyar (2021) sought to adapt the GQ-6 in India. The

authors also completed two samples to explore validity and reliability with exploratory and

confirmatory factor analyses (Garg & Katiyar, 2021). The first sample consisted of 534

undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate, and Ph.D. students in India and included the GQ-6 and

demographic questions (Garg & Katiyar, 2021). Similar to the study completed by Gouveia et al.

(2021), Garg and Katiyar (2021) divided the participants into two groups using exploratory

factor analysis with the first group and confirmatory factor analysis with the second group. The

first sample found a reliability score of .84 (Garg & Katiyar, 2021). The second sample consisted

of a different group of 534 undergraduates, graduates, postgraduates, and Ph.D. students, and it

utilized the GQ-6 and two other scales (Garg & Katiyar, 2021). The authors evaluated the results

by analyzing correlation coefficient values between the GQ-6 and the other two scales, and they

found it was successfully adapted to utilize in Indian community studies (Garg & Katiyar, 2021).

The authors also noted a limitation of the age range of 18-32, so it may not be representative of

the general public of India.

Cousin et al. (2020) completed the first sample study of GQ-6 on African-American

participants. The purpose of the study was to examine the factor structure, convergent/divergent

validity, and reliability of the following scales: (a) The GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2001), (b) The

Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (Kroenke et al., 2001) to measure depressive symptoms, (c) The

Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Watson et al., 1988), and (d) The Functional Assessment of

Chronic Illness Therapy for Non-illness (FACIT-sp12; Peterman et al., 2002) to measure

spiritual well-being in chronic-illness patients (as cited in Cousin et al., 2020). The sample

population included 298 African-American adults at risk for cardiovascular disease, and it

yielded a one-factor structure consistent with the original scale's factor structure (Cousin et al.,

2020; McCullough et al., 2001). The authors used exploratory factor analysis with the first 149

cases and confirmatory factor analysis with the remaining 149 cases (Cousin et al., 2020). Their

study yielded an alpha of .72 (Cousin et al., 2020). The authors provided evidence of the validity

and reliability of the GQ-6 in the African American population. Additionally, the authors found

that gratitude positively correlated with positive affect and spiritual well-being and negatively

correlated with depressive symptoms within their population sample (Cousin et al., 2020).

  **Dispositional Gratitude and Satisfaction.** Dispositionally grateful people often

experience more positive emotions and greater satisfaction with life (Green et al., 2020;

McCullough et al., 2002). Green et al. (2020) completed a study between dispositional gratitude

and life satisfaction. The authors hypothesized that body-mind-spirit dimensions of wellness

would mediate a relationship between dispositional gratitude and life satisfaction, and they

completed their study on 779 university students in Pakistan (Green et al., 2020). The GQ-6

(McCullough et al., 2001) measured gratitude, the Body-Mind-Spirit Wellness Behavior and

Characteristic Inventory (Hey et al., 2006) measured body-mind-spirit dimensions of wellness,

and the Satisfaction of Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985) measured life satisfaction in this study (as

cited in Green et al., 2020). They found a significant indirect effect of gratitude on life

satisfaction in their population when body-mind-spirit dimensions of wellness mediators were

present (Green et al., 2020). Like the current study, Green et al. (2020) utilized the GQ-6 to measure gratitude. While this study focused on life satisfaction instead of job satisfaction, the authors' research is vital to my study (Green et al., 2020).

Other studies have found a connection between dispositional gratitude and satisfaction. Waters' (2012) study on job satisfaction and gratitude found that dispositional, state, and institutional gratitude positively correlated with job satisfaction. While this study and the study completed by Green et al. (2020) do not show a correlation between dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction, they do show that a relationship between dispositional gratitude and satisfaction of some sort is present (Waters, 2012). A third study yielded a positive correlation between dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction in kindergarten teachers in China (Chen et al., 2021). While these studies focused on dispositional gratitude, some even in higher education none focused on the academic advising population or dispositional gratitude at work. The following section will explore relational gratitude.

### *Relational Gratitude: Expression and Receipt of Gratitude*

**Find-Remind-and-Bind Theory.** The find-remind-and-bind theory is a gratitude theory, and Algoe (2012) argued that gratitude fosters binding relationships between recipients (i.e., those receiving gratitude) and benefactors (i.e., those expressing gratitude). As the theory states, experiencing gratitude assists people in finding new and good relationships (i.e., find), continuing good relationships that currently exist (i.e., remind), and bringing recipients and benefactors closer (i.e., bind; Algoe, 2012; Locklear et al., 2020). The theory embraces the benefactor-recipient dyad, showing the importance of expressing gratitude for that relationship (Algoe, 2012). It is important to understand that while the expression of gratitude is a significant aspect of this theory; receiving any objective benefit does not always create feelings of gratitude

in this dyad (Algoe, 2012). Instead, the find-remind-and-bind theory requires a particular sort of dyad, one that is high-quality, where both partners in the dyad receive and express gratitude (Algoe, 2012). This type of relationship is not exchange-based either, but rather, one of support and responsiveness that promotes gratitude and creates interpersonal bonds, according to Algoe (2012). Future studies of the find-remind-and-bind theory could include gratitude's impact on work relationships. The theory offers an imperative understanding of relational gratitude, which is the expression of gratitude and the receipt of gratitude, and both are vital in a relationship (Algoe, 2012; Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). The study explores relational gratitude between advisors and leaders, advisors and colleagues, and advisors and students.

**Expression of Gratitude.** Relational gratitude requires a high-quality partner dyad where both people receive and express gratitude (Algoe, 2012). Furthermore, it is not an exchange-based relationship but one that promotes mutual support and responsiveness that indicates gratitude and generates interpersonal bonds (Algoe, 2012). Expressing gratitude is a form of communicating gratitude to others to express thanks (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). The John Templeton Foundation's (JTF) gratitude survey results found that only 10% of people express gratitude regularly (Allen, 2018; Kaplan, 2012). However, expressing gratitude can also create high-quality connections and continue to build long-lasting relationships, as the *find-remind-and-bind* theory suggests (Algoe, 2012). While authors have argued that expressed gratitude can increase both life and job satisfaction, the JTF survey found that more than half of people only express gratitude at work once or less per year (Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2022; Kaplan, 2012; Starkey et al., 2019). This percentage has demonstrated that a meek number of people express gratitude at work often, but research has clearly shown that expressing gratitude

can boost job satisfaction (Cain et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2022; Starkey et al., 2019). Several studies below tie the expression of gratitude to job satisfaction in various contexts.

Chen et al. (2022) examined the relationship between civil servants' expression of gratitude towards supervisors and subjective career success. The population consisted of 300 Master of Public Administration alumni and students at two universities in China using four different instruments in their measurement (Chen et al., 2022). The most relevant measurement used was an unnamed three-item scale by Lambert et al. (2010) to measure gratitude expression (as cited in Chen et al., 2022). The other scales included an unnamed 5-item scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990) to measure subjective career success, the Mentoring Functions Questionnaire (MFQ-9; Castro & Scandura, 2004) to measure supervisors' mentoring, and an unnamed 5-item scale (Farh et al., 1997) to measure supervisors' traditionality (as cited in Chen et al., 2022). The authors used confirmatory factor analysis to examine any discriminate validity, and a correlation analysis tested for any direct relationships between expression of gratitude, subjective career success, supervisor's mentoring, and traditionality variables (Chen et al., 2022). The study yielded a direct effect of gratitude expression on subjective career success (Chen et al., 2022). Furthermore, the authors found a positive relationship between civil servants' gratitude expressions to supervisors and subjective career success when mediated by the mentoring behaviors of supervisors (Chen et al., 2022). This study did not use validated measures of gratitude at work, focus directly on job satisfaction, or complete the study on an advising population, but it offers solid information on the expression of gratitude and careers.

One exploratory study completed by Dunaetz and Lanum (2020) reviewed if people appreciate some forms of expressed gratitude over others, including public, group, written, and private forms of gratitude, and the second study reviewed if different personality traits predict an

appreciation of expressed gratitude. Participants included 361 Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) workers (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). The study used an unnamed 12-item measurement on appreciation of forms of gratitude expression, including an example question of "I would feel very appreciated if my colleague thanked me through a sincere email, text, handwritten note, or other means of written communication" (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020, p. 60). Participants were also given the 60-item HEXACO scale (Ashton & Lee, 2007) to measure personality factors: honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). The authors found that the most appreciated form of expressed gratitude in their population was private thanking, followed by written thanking, small group thanking, and lastly, public thanking (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). In their second study, the authors found that higher conscientiousness and lower honesty-humility predict a greater appreciation of public thanking (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). A higher appreciation of group thanking was predicted by higher conscientiousness, emotionality, extraversion, and lower honesty-humility (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). They also found that greater appreciation of written thanking and private thanking was predicted by higher honesty-humility, emotionality, conscientiousness, and openness (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). While this study did not show job satisfaction prediction nor address the academic advising population, it does provide significant research on the area of expressed gratitude.

Contending that the expression of gratitude connects closely to sustained motivation levels at work, Azman (2021) argued that by showing appreciation and communicating gratitude to employees, motivation at work would increase. Azman (2021) researched university employees' perceptions of gratitude in higher education. Using a quantitative approach, Azman (2021) surveyed 104 employees. The study used an unnamed 17-item measurement of

expression of gratitude (Patil et al., 2018) and a 10-item measurement of employee motivation (Singh, 2016, as cited in Azman, 2021). Then, the author used an independent samples t-test to compare the means of both gratitude and motivation groups (Azman, 2021). Azman (2021) found that academic employees felt most appreciated when their subordinates and students expressed gratitude toward them. The question with the highest mean asked about feeling appreciated by subordinates and students (Azman, 2021). Finally, the author found a significant correlation between work motivation and expressed gratitude (Azman, 2021). This finding showed that employee motivation levels increase when more gratitude is expressed in the workplace (Azman, 2021). This study focused on gratitude at work and a similar population to the study, which offers value; however, the study did not focus on job satisfaction or the specific population of advisors.

Gordon et al. (2012) discussed measuring feelings of appreciation as expressions of gratitude in romantic relationships. The authors argued that "appreciative" feelings remind partners of their worth (Gordon et al., 2012). They developed the Appreciation in Relationships Scale (AIR) to measure appreciation in romantic relationships, which is modified and used in the current study (Gordon et al., 2012). The newly created AIR measurement gathered data from four samples. Samples A and D consisted of 194 and 81 psychology students, respectively, and samples B and C consisted of 347 and 93 random participants recruited through Craigslist, respectively (Gordon et al., 2012). Not only did the authors use the new AIR scale, but the GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2001), an adapted version of the Gratitude and Indebtedness scale (Algoe et al., 2008), the Interpersonal Qualities Scale (Murray et al., 1996), the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Wei et al., 2007), and the Couples Satisfaction Index (Funk & Rogge, 2007) to measure all factors (as cited in Gordon et al., 2012). The study found that being appreciative

of one's partner is significant to romantic relationship maintenance (Gordon et al., 2012). While each of these studies focused on expression of gratitude, some even in the workplace none focused on the academic advising population. The following section will explore the receipt of gratitude.

        **Receipt of Gratitude.** Receipt of gratitude is the response to an experience that is beneficial but not attributable to the self (Locklear et al., 2020; McGuire et al., 2020). Receiving gratitude is a form of positive social exchange that signals to benefactors (those expressing gratitude) that they were successful in giving gratitude to beneficiaries (i.e., those receiving gratitude; Lee et al., 2018, 2019; McCullough et al., 2001). Specific periods or events may trigger a receipt of gratitude experience, but it may be situational and can differ from person to person (McGuire et al., 2020). This form of gratitude helps communicate meaningful interactions with others (Lee et al., 2018). However, the authors argued that researchers must explore the recipients' role and how their responses impact gratitude expressers (Lee et al., 2018). While not a lot of research exists on the importance of receipt of gratitude at work to job satisfaction, the few studies below show a connection in several contexts.

        According to Lee et al. (2018), receipt of gratitude connects helping behavior to the helper's well-being. Their study focused on the social exchange between giving assistance and receiving gratitude, which closely aligns with academic advisors' role in helping professions (Lee et al., 2018). The authors surveyed 51 MBA students at a U.S. university over 10 consecutive workdays (Lee et al., 2018). Lee et al. (2018) adapted three items from a Lee and Allen (2002) scale to measure proactive helping. To measure the receipt of gratitude, the authors developed three items based on gratitude research (Lee et al., 2018). Then, Lee et al. (2018) used three items from Grant (2008) to measure perceived prosocial impact and three items from Rich

et al. (2010) to measure work engagement. The authors found that receipt of gratitude is an essential factor that connects helping behavior to the helper's well-being (Lee et al., 2018). They noted that their study highlights the social function and relational benefit of giving help and receiving gratitude (Lee et al., 2018). However, in the limitations section, Lee et al. (2018) noted that their study did not consider the criticality of the helpers' tasks, and they stated that the more critical a task, the more gratitude might be received. While an academic advisor's sole job is to help students, the currently proposed investigation may offer insight into this limitation.

Appreciative communication requires a person to observe something to be grateful for and acknowledge it verbally or nonverbally, as Beck (2016) argued. The author's goal was to examine the effect of appreciation on employees, including their preferred method of receiving appreciation (Beck, 2016). Beck (2016) completed a qualitative study on 27 full-time sales and marketing employees to discuss their workplace gratitude experiences through focus group meetings. Then, the author surveyed over 800 working professionals across multiple sectors about their preferences and perceptions of supervisor gratitude at work (Beck, 2016). No specific scales were utilized in this study. The studies found that employees believe it is essential to receive gratitude from their supervisors and that most participants preferred spoken words of gratitude to other forms (Beck, 2016). One participant noted the significance of receiving gratitude for their morale, and another stated that half of the team recently left the organization due to a lack of gratitude (Beck, 2016). Finally, participants needed to receive supervisor gratitude, and most of them noted the vitality of it being sincere gratitude (Beck, 2016). This study is vital to the current study because of its connection to the receipt of gratitude at work.

Gordon et al. (2012) noted that feeling "appreciated" as a receipt of gratitude in romantic relationships allows the receiving partner to feel valued. The authors argued that "appreciated"

feelings could offer partners a sense of security within their relationship (Gordon et al., 2012). The study found that feeling appreciated in one's relationship proves critical to romantic relationship maintenance (Gordon et al., 2012). These studies focused on the receipt of gratitude, but none of them concentrated on the academic advising population, and only one of the studies focused on gratitude in the workplace specifically. The subsequent section will explore gratitude at work.

### *Gratitude at Work*

Although gratitude is one of the most important ways to boost well-being, people are less likely to express and receive gratitude at work than anywhere else (Allen, 2018; Kaplan, 2012). Additionally, a survey completed by the JTF found that 60% of employees express gratitude to work colleagues once or less per year (Allen, 2018; Kaplan, 2012). Furthermore, 82% of employees in the United States want supervisors to recognize them more, and in 2020, only 38% of employees were satisfied with the amount of appreciation they received at work (Levanon et al., 2021; Novak, 2016). As noted already, research has shown a positive correlation between gratitude and job satisfaction (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Allen, 2018; Beck, 2016; Cortini et al., 2019; Fagley & Adler, 2012; Di Fabio et al., 2017; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Stegen & Wankier, 2018; Waters, 2012).

Gratitude at work is persistent gratitude among organizational members (Fehr et al., 2017; Madrigal, 2020). Workplace gratitude reflects a powerful and positive influence that drives employees to engage in helping behaviors (Sawyer et al., 2021). Waters (2012) argued that institutionalized gratitude is not just a collection of individual employees expressing gratitude at work, but instead, an organizational culture that encourages gratitude both within and between all members. Gratitude at work has been demonstrated to reduce negative effects such as anxiety,

stress, and burnout, and improve well-being, physical health, and relationships, among other areas of improvement (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Algoe, 2012; Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Kaplan, 2012; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021; Kok et al., 2013; Lanham et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2018; Lin, 2016; Starkey et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2010).

Robbins (2019) noted that 53% of employees might have higher levels of organizational commitment if they received more gratitude at work. Furthermore, studies have shown that gratitude is a powerful predictor of turnover intent (Davis et al., 2020). Research shows a significant lack of relational gratitude and dispositional gratitude at work in other industries (Allen, 2018; Azman, 2021; Beck, 2016; Cain et al., 2019; McCullough et al., 2002). Lack of gratitude, or feeling unappreciated at work, is one factor of job underperformance (Beck, 2016; Davis et al., 2020; Lanham et al., 2012; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). A lack of gratitude at work can increase negative emotions, which can discourage teamwork and other prosocial behaviors (Allen, 2018; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Grant & Gino, 2010; Ma et al., 2017). Furthermore, Novak (2016) found that 82% of U.S. employees seek more recognition from their supervisors, and 40% noted they would put more effort into their jobs if recognized more.

Gratitude in the workplace can enhance well-being, reduce negative emotions and stress, improve organizational climate, and boost levels of efficiency, productivity, commitment, and job satisfaction of employees (Allen, 2018; Cameron, 2012; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Lan et al., 2022; Lin, 2017; McCullough et al., 2002; Portocarrero et al., 2020; Valikhani et al., 2019; Wang, 2020). When fostered within the workplace, gratitude can enhance physiological health and cognitive functioning and increase overall work performance (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Cameron, 2012; Feng & Yin, 2021; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021; Lin, 2017; Valikhani et al., 2019). Additionally, Di Fabio et al. (2017) argued that gratitude at work

positively influences the attitudes of coworkers, leaders, and the overall organization. When people feel appreciated, their attitudes change, and when their attitudes change, their behavior often changes (Di Fabio et al., 2017). Gratitude can directly impact the organization by improving organizational climate and enhancing individual well-being and positive emotions (Di Fabio et al., 2017). Workplace gratitude may also promote psychological safety at work (Edmondson, 2002).

Several authors have found a positive correlation between gratitude at work and job satisfaction (Beck, 2016; Cortini et al., 2019; Lanham et al., 2012; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Stegen & Wankier, 2018; Waters, 2012). Beck (2016) found that employees believe receiving gratitude from their supervisors is vital. One participant shared the importance of receiving gratitude for employee morale, and another noted that half of the team had recently left the organization because of a lack of gratitude (Beck, 2016). Cortini et al. (2019) found that employees typically expressed gratitude to colleagues and most commonly received gratitude from clients and customers (Cortini et al., 2019). The study also showed that gratitude positively affected job satisfaction in employees (Cortini et al., 2019). Waters (2012) found that organizational gratitude positively correlated with job satisfaction in teachers and finance workers. Lanham et al. (2012) found that workplace-specific gratitude predicted job satisfaction in mental health workers. After a yearlong intervention, employees' job satisfaction increased (Stegen & Wankier, 2018). Finally, McKeon et al. (2020) found a positive correlation between perceived gratitude expressed by a supervisor and job satisfaction. Moreover, leaders must model the best behavior for expressing gratitude, showing appreciation, and appropriately recognizing employees to change the organizational culture (Cameron, 2012; Dutton, 2014; Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Vasquez et al., 2020).

**Modeled Leader Behavior.** Employees believe that appreciation from their leader is the most imperative source of gratitude (Vasquez et al., 2020). It is vital to have leader buy-in and modeled behavior in any culture. Values, practices, and norms typically create organizational culture, but more importantly, it is created by behavior patterns (Werner, 2017). When leaders show gratitude, they demonstrate their awareness and appreciation of their followers' contributions (Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019). In a study completed by Ritzenhöfer et al. (2019), a follower's perception of their leader's expressed gratitude toward them positively correlated with job satisfaction. According to McKeon et al. (2020), when expressed gratitude from a supervisor was perceived, it affected organizational support, supervisor support, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. In a different study, employees argued that it is crucial to receive gratitude from their supervisors (Beck, 2016). Leaders can build a culture of gratitude through modeled behavior by showing and expressing gratitude. Waters (2012) argued that leaders must seek to normalize gratitude at work through modeling behavior such as expressing gratitude publicly, implementing company reward policies, and building thankful relationships in the work culture. If leaders create a culture of gratitude, they allow their followers to feel supported, cared for, and encouraged to flourish because sincere expressions of appreciation and gratitude can dramatically affect employees (Cameron, 2012; Dutton, 2014). Leaders can also model gratitude by offering support, communicating positive feedback, displaying recognition and praise, and showing respect (Beck, 2016; Cameron, 2012; Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019). Leaders must truly embrace gratitude within the culture and move away from the deficit model for the organization to change (Waters, 2012).

*Appreciation vs. Recognition*

**Appreciation.** Appreciation is one aspect of gratitude, and it is often used synonymously with gratitude. However, appreciation is not gratitude. Simple appreciation is the tendency to enjoy simple pleasures and others in life (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Fagley & Adler, 2012). Researchers argued that appreciation is the acknowledgment of someone's inherent value, further noting that it is not about their accomplishments but rather about the person and their behavior (Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019; Robbins, 2019; Stocker et al., 2019). Experiencing appreciation can boost positive emotions and feelings of connection to the appreciated person or thing (Adler & Fagley, 2005). Appreciation can also redirect employees' thoughts toward positive aspects of the workplace, which fosters the well-being and self-esteem of the recipient; however, a lack of appreciation can prove harmful to one's self-esteem (Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019). Some authors found that day-to-day appreciation in the workplace increases work well-being (Fagley & Adler, 2012; Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019). Stocker et al. (2019) argued that appreciation is a powerful resource in the workplace and can be an instrument for fulfilling basic human needs.

Appreciation is a broader construct than gratitude and encompasses an overall feeling of value or importance of something or someone with a positive emotional connection to it (Fagley, 2016; Fagley & Adler, 2012; Freitas et al., 2021). Appreciation has both state and trait aspects (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Fagley & Adler, 2012). Someone can be inherently appreciative and have moments of unappreciative behavior, or someone typically unappreciative can still have a moment of appreciation for someone or something (Fagley & Adler, 2012). Unfortunately, appreciation is often confused with or utilized instead of gratitude, and some authors even use the two words interchangeably or use appreciation in place of gratitude (Fagley & Adler, 2012;

Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019; Spiro et al., 2016). Several organizations use appreciation

programs or sessions to express gratitude (Baron & Lachenauer, 2014; Stocker et al., 2019).

Even though expressing appreciation can be gratitude in some instances, these programs or

sessions can be ambiguous. While these programs or sessions allow employees to express

positive emotions about one another, it is not generally gratitude, but rather, demonstrates

respect, acknowledgment, or recognition instead (Baron & Lachenauer, 2014; Stocker et al.,

2019).

  **Recognition.** Recognition can be another aspect of gratitude (Cain et al., 2019). One

must recognize the good to be grateful, or express gratitude. Recognition is necessary, but not

sufficient for gratitude. Especially at work, recognition is not always appreciation or gratitude

(Robbins, 2019). Instead, recognition is a way to acknowledge employees, usually for the work

they have done, an anniversary, or completion of a major project. However, leaders often

perceive recognition programs to be gratitude, but they are not unless it is explicitly tied to

gratitude (Robbins, 2019). Robbins (2019) defined recognition as giving positive feedback based

on one's performance. Recognition programs can be formal such as awards, raises, or

promotions, or informal, such as congratulations (Robbins, 2019). Receiving an award for top

sales or a work anniversary is not a form of gratitude; it is recognition. However, if the award is

also tied to a thank you or another form of gratitude, it is also gratitude. Unfortunately,

recognition can be conditional, is based on past performances, and must come from leaders

(Robbins, 2019).

  Gallup's 2016 analysis found that only one in three U.S. employees strongly agree that

they received some form of recognition or praise in the past 7 days (Mann & Dvorak, 2016).

According to White (2014), although 80% of organizations employ some employee recognition

activity, job satisfaction is still declining. The author argued that if employees do not feel valued,

they begin to feel used; that feeling can harness negative results such as increased tardiness and

absences, complaining, and decreased work quality (White, 2014). Mann and Dvorak (2016)

noted that employees are twice as likely to quit their job when they do not feel recognized for

their excellent work. Finally, White (2014) argued that gratitude works best in the workplace

when it becomes part of the culture and is expressed and received by supervisors and employees.

However, it is vital to note a substantial difference between recognition and appreciation.

Appreciation is about who people are, but recognition is about what people do, and this

difference is significant because recognition can be given for more reasons than appreciation or

gratitude (Robbins, 2019). Robbins (2019) noted that recognition is typically based on outcomes,

but leaders may miss important opportunities to appreciate employees even if failure happens.

While recognition at work can motivate, provide a sense of accomplishment, boost

employee engagement, and increase both productivity and loyalty, which will boost job

satisfaction and reduce turnover intent, it is not necessarily an expression of gratitude (Mann &

Dvorak, 2016; Rath, 2004; Robbins, 2019). Recognition can offer a public display of

appreciation and be used as a personal reward or form of motivation, but it does not always

provide the same benefits as a culture of gratitude (Mann & Dvorak, 2016; Robbins, 2019).

Though appreciation and recognition are not gratitude exactly, they are a prominent

aspect of gratitude research. Often, researchers use the terms interchangeably (Robbins, 2019).

One of the scales utilized in this study, the Appreciation in Relationship Scale (AIR), uses the

words "appreciative" and "appreciated" in its statements (Gordon et al., 2012). Here, however,

the author is using the word "appreciative" to define the expression of gratitude and

"appreciated" to define the receipt of gratitude (Gordon et al., 2012). While the term is often

utilized interchangeably with gratitude, my study aimed to focus directly on gratitude, except for the use of the AIR scale statements (Gordon et al., 2012). It is vital to understand that while appreciation and recognition may generate gratitude, these factors are not gratitude, and leaders must truly focus on modeling gratitude by offering support, communicating positive feedback, expressing gratitude, and building thankful relationships (Cameron, 2012; Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019; Waters, 2012).

**Summary**

Literature about academic advisor roles and demands, job satisfaction, dispositional gratitude, relational gratitude, and gratitude at work were discussed in this chapter. This chapter offered the reader a deeper understanding of all the research components of this study. Few studies are available on academic advisor job satisfaction, and gratitude at work, and even fewer studies have investigated how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict academic advisor job satisfaction. In Chapter 3, a methodological plan outlines the study presented. The chapter will explain the approaches used, provide information about the surveys given to participants, and discuss the results.

**Chapter 3: Research Method**

Stress in the workplace can negatively affect advisor job satisfaction producing negative emotions and health issues such as anxiety (Cummings et al., 2020; Mokarami & Toderi, 2019; Rasool et al., 2019; Valikhani et al., 2019; Wadhera & Bano, 2020). Leading to decreased productivity and increased absenteeism and turnover, stress at work can negatively affect the university's bottom line (Perez-Rodriguez et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2020). Ultimately, it can also negatively impact job satisfaction for advisors. As noted in an earlier chapter, in the past, the goal of stress-reducing programs has been to alleviate stress to reach a neutral point rather than improving positive outcomes such as job satisfaction (Gino & Staats, 2019; Horn et al., 2020; Langer, 2010; Lu et al., 2018; Mäkikangas & Kinnunen, 2014; Ouweneel et al., 2012; Wandeler et al., 2016). However, researchers have more recently studied how various forms of gratitude at work can positively affect job satisfaction, reduce stress, and boost employee commitment and productivity (Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; McKeon et al., 2020). Understanding how academic advisors' dispositional gratitude at work and relational gratitude, including expression of gratitude at work and receipt of gratitude at work from different levels, predicts job satisfaction can be useful to organizations.

This quantitative correlational study aims to understand how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict job satisfaction in academic advisors. The independent variables, dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work, are defined as this chapter details the proposed research design and methods used to support the purpose of the study. The following sections outline the research design and method, research questions, population sample, survey instruments, data collection procedures, ethical considerations, and assumptions.

The research question and hypotheses for this study include the following:

- RQ1: How do dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction among academic advisors?

    - *H1$_0$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

    - *H1$_A$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

**Research Methods and Design**

This cross-sectional study used a quantitative correlational nonexperimental approach. The quantitative approach allows for measurable and objective results of the study (Terrell, 2016). While qualitative methods yield narrative data, a quantitative approach produces numerical data allowing larger populations to participate (Doss et al., 2021). According to the literature, little is known about the relationships between the three manifestations of gratitude and academic advisor job satisfaction.

The nonexperimental design determines that the independent variables are not manipulated (Morgan & Renbarger, 2018; Price et al., 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2019). Common nonexperimental quantitative studies include survey research, which is how the data were collected for this study (Morgan & Renbarger, 2018). Nonexperimental research in quantitative studies is typically correlational or predictive, but this study is correlational (Price et al., 2017; Trochim, 2020; Wilson & Joye, 2019). The study is correlational because it attempts to determine how, if at all, the three types of gratitude will predict job satisfaction without manipulating the variables (Doss et al., 2021; Price et al., 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2019). The goal was to determine the degree of relationship the variables have (Doss et al., 2021; Jung & Randall, 2018; Price et al., 2017). After collection, I examined the participants' data on gratitude and job satisfaction without manipulation because participants reported information about themselves that existed before the study (Wilson & Joye, 2019). Additionally, a cross-sectional correlational design focuses on a certain period of time as opposed to a long-term study over time (Wilson & Joye, 2019). Cross-sectional studies offer faster data collection than longitudinal studies, which was the aim of this study (Wilson & Joye, 2019).

**Population**

One specific educational developer group that faces high work demands due to serving large and diverse groups of students is academic advisors (Auguste et al., 2018; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Academic advisors are also in a unique position to express and receive gratitude from several groups of people potentially. Therefore, I recognized academic advisors as an appropriate target population to study, as more research is needed to examine how gratitude affects academic advisor job satisfaction. According to the NACADA website, membership exceeds 14,000 participants (NACADA, 2022). The sample size is not

based on the overall population size but focused specifically on members of NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising (NACADA).

**Sample**

The sample population consisted of academic advisors who are members of NACADA. NACADA is the leading global education community for academic advising, and members advise diverse groups of students in various higher education institutions across the United States and Canada (NACADA, 2021). The population sample included the following qualifying factors: members must live in the United States, be a member of NACADA, have worked a minimum of six months as a full-time academic advisor (or similar title) at their institution, and be 18 years or older. Additionally, inclusionary criteria also incorporated participants who work at regionally accredited higher education institutions that award degrees at the associate's level and higher. Faculty advisors, counselors, and part-time advisors were not included in the study.

**Purposive Sampling**

Purposive sampling, as a type of nonprobability sampling, was utilized in this study (Battaglia, 2011; Daniel, 2012). Sampling can help save time and money while still yielding reliable and beneficial results (Daniel, 2012). The goal of purposive sampling is to produce a logically representative sample of the population (Battaglia, 2011). This type of sampling works well with this study as only a subset of the NACADA population completed the survey. The sample targeted 2,400 academic advisors within the NACADA population. To achieve a statistical power of .05 and a 10% response rate, the G-power analysis determined that a minimum of 153 respondents are necessary. Targeting 2,400 participants allowed for any incomplete responses.

Once NACADA approved the research study, the online survey was distributed via email using a NACADA member directory (see Data Collection section for more information). The sampling strategy included sending emails to NACADA members, and the NACADA research team provided the email addresses. The survey email invitation first listed the qualifying factors for the advisor to review (Appendix A). A link to the survey was within the email. the advisor had to first read the informed consent notification and give consent (Appendix B), and then they answered the inclusionary criteria to move to the survey (Appendix C). If the advisor consented and qualified, they continued with the survey, including demographic information and the survey instrument. If the advisor did not consent or qualify, the site directed them to a note that thanked them for their willingness to participate but explained that they did not meet a qualifying factor. Follow-up emails were sent once a week for 4 weeks.

**Survey Instruments**

I utilized three instruments for this study – the Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ-6; McCullough et al., 2002), the Appreciation in Relationships (AIR; Gordon et al., 2012), and the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJS; Judge et al., 1998). The GQ-6 scale was modified to measure dispositional gratitude at work (McCullough et al., 2002). The AIR scale was modified to measure both the expression of gratitude at work and receipt of gratitude at work, and this measurement was used three times, once each for supervisor, colleagues, and students (Gordon et al., 2012). The OJS Scale measured job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998). The survey included specific institutional, position level, and personal demographic questions. Institutional demographic questions included the type of institution (i.e., public or private), institutional population, and the approximate advisor caseload. Position-level demographic questions included the length of time the advisor has held their current position, the highest degree

awarded at the institution, and the primary format of advising meetings (e.g., online, in-person, or hybrid). Personal demographic questions included age, gender, and ethnicity/race.

Each survey used a Likert scale to measure its questions or statements. The author received permission to use each scale and alter it as noted in Appendices F, G, and H. The following section contains additional information about each survey instrument.

### Gratitude Questionnaire 6 Scale

The Gratitude Questionnaire 6 (GQ-6) measures dispositional gratitude in participants and is one of the most widely used measurements of gratitude to date (Appendix E; Cousin et al., 2020; McCullough et al., 2002). The authors wanted an instrument that measured dispositional gratitude rather than life satisfaction, subjective happiness, or optimism, so they developed the GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2002). McCullough et al. (2002) developed the self-reporting measure and examined the convergence with informant ratings. Then, they examined correlations with other measures, including positive well-being, spirituality, and the Big Five (McCullough et al., 2002). The initial measurement was 39 items; after psychometric research, the authors reduced the scale to six items (McCullough et al., 2002). The instrument is a six-item measurement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Scores can range from 6 to 42, two questions are negative items requiring reverse scoring, and a higher score means the participant has greater dispositional gratitude (Cousin et al., 2020; Jans-Beken et al., 2015; McCullough et al., 2002). McCullough et al. (2002) reported a final alpha of .82 showing internal consistency reliability in their final survey results. The authors measured validity using a one-factor analysis and noted the CFI was .95 and SRMR was .04, both suggesting good validity (McCullough et al., 2002).

In another study, authors utilized the Spanish GQ-6 to determine if gratitude can help broaden and build emotional intelligence connected with higher levels of life satisfaction in older adults (Chang et al., 2022). The GQ-6 results yielded an alpha of .71. Several studies aimed to validate the GQ-6 in different countries and populations (Cousin et al., 2020; Garg & Katiyar, 2021; Gouveia et al., 2021). Gouveia et al. (2021) completed a study on Brazilian undergraduate students where the authors translated the scale into Portuguese. The results yielded an alpha of .70 and .71 (Gouveia et al., 2021). Similarly, Garg and Katiyar (2021) sought the adaptability of the GQ-6 in India. After translating the scale and using it in two samples, the results yielded an alpha of .84 and validity scores including GFI was .929, CFI was .928, and RMSEA was .074 (Garg & Katiyar, 2021). Cousin et al. (2020) conducted the first sample study of GQ-6 on African-American adults at risk for cardiovascular disease, and the results yielded a reliability score of .729 and validity scores yielding a CFI of .94 and SRMR of .06.

While the GQ-6 scale does not measure gratitude at work specifically, I was granted permission from author Dr. Michael McCullough on May 6, 2022, to modify the scale and will do so by adding "at work" to each of the questions (Appendix F). One example of this alteration is that instead of using the original statement "I have so much to be thankful for," the statement was altered to say, "I have so much at work to be thankful for" (McCullough et al., 2002). By adding a work component to the measurement, the participants will understand how to focus their answers on how they feel at work rather than in life in general. With the permission to alter the GQ-6, the current study will contribute to dispositional gratitude at work, both with the academic advising population and gratitude at work research overall.

*Appreciation in Relationships Scale*

The Appreciation in Relationships Scale (AIR) measures both the expression of gratitude and receipt of gratitude in relationships (Appendix E; Gordon et al., 2012). The authors originally developed the scale to assess feeling appreciated and expressing appreciation in romantic partners (Gordon et al., 2012). The authors developed the scale from four different samples and three steps (Gordon et al., 2012). The first sample used exploratory factor analyses, reliability analyses, and descriptive statistics to select the final items for the scale (Gordon et al., 2012). Then, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the final scale items using a second sample to confirm the structure (Gordon et al., 2012). Finally, the authors used two additional samples to examine the convergent and discriminate validity of the scale (Gordon et al., 2012). The original scale was 30 items, and after the authors conducted psychometric studies, the scale was reduced to 16 items that loaded most strongly on two factors (Gordon et al., 2012). The authors reported an alpha of .74 for the nine items in the "appreciative" factor (i.e., expression of gratitude) and a .86 for the seven items in the "appreciated" factor (receipt of gratitude). According to the authors, the scale had strong test-retest reliability (Gordon et al., 2012). The scale is a 16-item measurement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Items 2, 5, 7, 13, and 15 are reverse scored (Gordon et al., 2012). The scores are broken into two subscales, with the Appreciative subscale scores ranging from low 9 to high 63 and the Appreciated subscale scores ranging from low 7 to high 49. A high score in the Appreciative subscale shows a higher appreciation of others (i.e., expression of gratitude), and a high score in the Appreciated subscale shows higher levels of receiving appreciation from others (i.e., receipt of gratitude; Gordon et al., 2012).

de Medeiros et al. (2019) completed a study in Brazil translating the AIR scale into Portuguese. The authors completed both exploratory factor analysis and structural equation modeling to evaluate adequacy (de Medeiros et al., 2019). Then, the authors tested and confirmed the original two-factor scale through confirmatory factor analysis, and the results yielded an alpha of .93 (de Medeiros et al., 2019). Another study using the AIR scale found sub-scale alphas of .84 and .86 in one sample and .85 and .91 in a second sample (Brady et al., 2021). This study focused on how gratitude can positively affect sexual relationships in romantic relationships (Brady et al., 2021).

The scale is the closest instrument discovered to measure both the expression of gratitude and receipt of gratitude. The authors argued that while they use the term "appreciation," they refer to a person's general feelings of gratitude (Gordon et al., 2012). Although this scale measures the expression of gratitude and receipt of gratitude, it does not focus on relationships at work as the current study does. I received permission to use the scale and alter it as seen fit by author Dr. Amie Gordon on March 21, 2022 (Appendix G and H). The scale was altered to use the words "supervisor" instead of "partner," "colleagues" instead of "partner," and "students" instead of "partner" to measure expression of gratitude and receipt of gratitude at work. To clarify, the survey will display the AIR Scale three times, once for once for "supervisor," once for "colleagues," and once for "students." As an example of the alterations, instead of making the original statement "My partner makes sure I feel appreciated," the statement will state, "My supervisor makes sure I feel appreciated" (Gordon et al., 2012). Altering the AIR scale offers a vital contribution to relational gratitude at work, with both the academic advising population and gratitude at work research.

*Overall Job Satisfaction Scale*

The OJS (Judge et al., 1998, 2000) measures the job satisfaction of academic advisors (Appendix E). The scale contains five statements from the 18 statements adapted from the Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Judge et al., 1998). Although the original OJS used a 10-point Likert scale, the authors changed it to a 7-point Likert scale later (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; Judge et al., 1998, 2000). The five statements include (a) "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job," (b) "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work," (c) "Each day of work seems like it will never end," (d) "I find real enjoyment in my work," and (e) "I consider my job rather unpleasant" (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Judge et al., 1998, 2000). Questions number three and five are reverse scored. The lowest score is 17, and the highest possible score is 23, with a higher score showing higher levels of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998, 2000). Because the scale is in the public domain, I did not need permission to use it in the current study.

The authors completed the study in three samples, and it yielded an alpha of .88 (Judge et al., 1998). In comparison, Brayfield and Rothe (1951) reported a reliability score of .87 with the original Index of Job Satisfaction scale. Judge et al. (1998) completed canonical correlation analysis to find a statistically significant relationship between various personality variables and work outcomes such as job satisfaction.

Sinval and Marôco (2020) completed a study to adapt OJS for a Portuguese version in Brazil and Portugal. While the authors called it the Short Index of Job Satisfaction (SIJS), which is also a shortened version of the IJS (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Sinval & Marôco, 2020), the SIJS is essentially another name for OJS. The authors completed the study on two sample groups, both of which were in Brazil (Sinval & Marôco, 2020). Alongside the OJS, participants

completed three other surveys (Sinval & Marôco, 2020). The authors found a reliability of .84

for Brazilian data and .88 for the Portuguese sample (Sinval & Marôco, 2020). The results also

yielded good convergent validity in a .54 AVE for Brazil and a .65 AVE for Portugal (Sinval &

Marôco, 2020). The study ultimately found that the OJS was adaptable in both countries (Sinval

& Marôco, 2020).

Alrawashdeh et al. (2021) completed a study on how physician burnout during COVID-

19 affected job satisfaction levels. The authors used the SIJS, similar to Sinval and Marôco

(2020), and essentially a different name for OJS (Alrawashdeh et al., 2021). The quantitative part

of the study using OJS produced a reliability score of .81 (Alrawashdeh et al., 2021). The results

of the mixed-method study found a 57% burnout rate among physicians during the pandemic,

which decreased job satisfaction (Alrawashdeh et al., 2021).

None of the previous studies focused on the academic advising population and job

satisfaction specifically. While many of the studies focused on job satisfaction, very few have

utilized the OJS Scale. As noted, some of the studies refer to the OJS as the SIJS, even though

the scales are both shortened and similar versions of the IJS (Alrawashdeh et al., 2021; Brayfield

& Rothe, 1951; Judge et al., 1998; Sinval & Marôco, 2020). More research needs to be

completed on academic advisors and job satisfaction.

**Operational Definition of Variables**

The following section provides definitions of each variable within the study.

*Dispositional Gratitude at Work*

Dispositional workplace gratitude is a continuous level independent variable that

measures dispositional gratitude in the workplace. It is measured using a modified version of the

Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ-6). The GQ-6 is a 6-item measurement using a 7-point Likert scale

(1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) and measures dispositional gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002). Dr. McCullough permitted me to modify the scale to focus on dispositional gratitude at work (Appendix F). Overall scores are calculated by adding item scores, including the two questions requiring reverse scoring (Jans-Beken et al., 2015; McCullough et al., 2002). Scores range from 6 to 42, with higher scores indicating higher levels of dispositional gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002).

*Expression of Gratitude at Work*

Expression of gratitude at work is a continuous level independent variable that measures the expression of gratitude in the workplace. A modified version of the appreciative subscale within the appreciation in relationships scale (AIR) measures the expression of gratitude. The AIR Appreciative subscale is a nine-item measurement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Items 2, 5, and 7 are reverse scored, and scores can range from low 9 to high 63 (Gordon et al., 2012). Dr. Gordon allowed me to modify the scale to focus on work relationships (Appendix H).

*Receipt of Gratitude at Work*

Receipt of gratitude at work is a continuous level independent variable that measures the receipt of gratitude in the workplace. A modified version of the appreciated subscale within the AIR measures the receipt of gratitude. The AIR appreciated subscale is a 7-item measurement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Items 13 and 15 are reverse scored, and scores can range from low 7 to high 49 (Gordon et al., 2012). Dr. Gordon permitted me to modify the scale to focus on work relationships (Appendix H).

*Job Satisfaction*

Job satisfaction is a continuous level dependent variable and was measured by using the OJS (Judge et al., 1998). The OJS contains five items and uses a Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; Judge et al., 1998). Both questions 3 and 5 are reversed scored, and scores can range from low 5 to high 35 (Judge et al., 1998). Higher scores demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction.

*Demographic Information*

Demographic information was also collected, including institutional, position-level, and personal demographics of participants.

**Type of Institution.** Participants selected the option that best describes their institution, including *public entity*, *private for-profit entity*, or *private not-for-profit*. The most significant difference between public and private institutions is funding (Burrows, 2021). Typically, funding for public institutions comes from state or federal governments and tuition revenue, and funding for private institutions is through private donors and tuition revenue (Burrows, 2021). Private institutions do not receive government funding (Burrows, 2021).

**Highest Degree Awarded Within the Institution.** Participants selected the highest degree awarded within their institution, including *Associate's or Technical*, *Bachelor's*, *Master's*, or *Doctorate* (i.e., Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., J.D., D.C, etc.).

**Institution Student Population.** Participants selected the category that best defines their student population for all enrollments. The following categories are based on the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education (2022) for size and setting: *fewer than 3,000 students*, *3,000-10,000 students*, or *more than 10,000 students*. This ordinal variable labeled *small* institutions as enrolling less than 3,000 students, *medium* institutions between 3,000 and

10,000 students, and large institutions as more than 10,000 students (Carnegie Classification, 2022; Wilson & Joye, 2019).

**Format of Meetings.** Participants selected the primary method they meet with advisees. The categories include primarily in-person, primarily online, primarily via phone, or a balanced mix. The balanced mix option provided an option for participants to write in their mixed methods.

**Advisor Case-Load Number.** Participants selected the category that best describes the number of advisees they serve: Under 50, 51—100, 101—150, 151—200, or Over 200.

**Primary Degree of Advisees.** Participants selected the primary degree their advisees are seeking, including Associate's or Technical, Bachelor's, Master's, Doctorate (i.e., Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., J.D., D.C, etc.), or a balanced mix.

**Length of Advising Career at Current Institution.** Participants selected the category that best describes how long they have worked as an advisor at their current institution: less than 6 months, 6 months to 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years, or over 20 years. If the participant chose the first option (less than 6 months), they were directed to a note that thanked them for their eagerness to participate but explained that they did not meet the qualifying factor of six or more months at their job to complete the survey.

**Age.** Participants categorized their current age based on the following options: under 18 years of age, 18-29 years of age, 30-39 years of age, 40-49 years of age, 50-59 years of age, 60-69 years of age, or 70 years of age or over. If they wanted to exclude their age, participants had a final option: I do not prefer to disclose. If the participants chose the first option (under 18 years of age), they were directed to a note that thanked them for their eagerness to participate but explained that they did not meet the qualifying factor of 18 years or older to complete the survey.

**Gender.** Participants identified their gender category: Female, Male, Non-binary, Transgender, Gender Non-conforming, or Other. If they did not want to include their gender, participants had a final option: I do not prefer to disclose.

**Ethnicity.** Participants identified their ethnicity and selected all that applied. Options were: American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian/American, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latino/Latina or Spanish origin, Middle Eastern or North African (MENA), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, White, Other (type in a response), or I do not prefer to disclose.

**Data Collection and Analysis Procedures**

The purpose of the study was to examine if varying types of gratitude at work would predict job satisfaction among academic advisors. Purposive sampling was the primary strategy for recruiting participants. I secured the use of NACADA members by filing for approval to utilize their database of survey members. Once NACADA approved the research study, the online survey was distributed via email using a NACADA member directory. An invitation to participate email went to 1,200 NACADA members (Appendix A). Because I received more than 1,200 email addresses, the email addresses were imported into an Excel sheet and assigned a number, and then an online random number generator selected 1,200 addresses. The invitation email was sent to those 1,200 randomly selected email addresses, and participants took a presurvey to determine qualifying factors. If the advisor qualified, they could continue with the survey, which included demographic information and the survey instrument. I sent one follow-up email in week two and a final follow-up email in week three. At the end of this period, there were only 121 completed surveys, I repeated the process by emailing an additional random 1,200 NACADA members. Again, I sent another follow-up email after 1 week, and a final reminder at the 2-week mark.

*Data Collection*

Once I was granted approval by the ACU IRB (Appendix I), I applied with NACADA's IRB to obtain approval to submit surveys to members. NACADA only allows four surveys per year to be sent to members to prevent survey burnout (NACADA, 2021). When the NACADA team granted research approval (Appendix J), data collection began. The study utilized Qualtrics as the survey software and SPSS as the statistical analysis software. The first email went out on May 17, 2023, to all listed participants, and I collected data from May 17, 2023, to June 26, 2023. Participants first answered the qualifying questions, such as their age, length of their current job, and U.S. residency. If they qualified, they could continue through the survey if they chose. If I received any automatic emails from participants who were no longer in their job or out of the office for the allotted period, I removed their email addresses from my list. During week two, I sent a reminder email, and then I sent a final follow-up at the end of week three. At the end of 3 weeks, I determined the response rate and the number of surveys completed, and because I did not have enough, I sent additional participant invitation emails. Utilizing the same random number generator, another 1,200 email addresses were chosen from the list, and I sent them the survey to see if they qualified. If so, participants had 2 weeks to complete the survey. One reminder email was also sent in week two to these participants. At the end of week two during round two, I had enough responses to close the survey. I verified that the number of responses received was equal to or greater than the G*power analysis sample required of 153 participants to achieve α=.05.

All participants received an invitation (Appendix A) via email. The invitation email notified potential participants of the qualifying factors, including a required age of 18 or older, U.S. residency, and at least 6 months of employment as an advisor at their current institution. If

the participant confirmed eligibility via the inclusionary criteria questions (Appendix C), the survey directed them to the next screen. That screen reviewed the electronic informed consent (Appendix B), which offered the participant information on the study's purpose, expectations, inclusionary criteria to participate, and risks and benefits (if any) associated with participating. Also outlined was information about confidentiality, anonymity, volunteer participation, and the right to withdraw. If the participant understood and accepted the informed consent, they were required to check a box to confirm consent by selecting "yes." If they clicked "no," the survey directed them to a screen explaining their disqualification and thanked them for their interest in participating. If they clicked "yes," a new screen appeared and directed participants to begin the entire instrument with the demographic questions (Appendix D), the GQ-6 (Appendix E), the AIR scale (Appendix E), and the OJS (Appendix E), descriptive questions, and a box for general comments or questions. Then, the participants clicked submit and a final screen thanked them for their participation.

Participants were able to edit responses if needed while completing the survey. They were also able to exit the survey at any point and reenter it later by clicking on the survey link in the original email until the survey closed. Once the participants clicked "Submit" at the end of the survey, they were not able to reenter or edit any responses. At the end of 6 weeks, data collection began. Once the desired number of surveys were completed, I discarded any incomplete surveys.

### *Data Storage and Management*

After exporting the data from Qualtrics into an Excel spreadsheet, I downloaded it and saved it on a password-protected laptop. Potentially identifiable information and IP addresses were not recorded to protect privacy and anonymity. I then imported the scrubbed and cleaned

data into SPSS for analysis. For record-keeping purposes, the data must be kept and preserved for a minimum of 7 years after the completion of the dissertation.

*Data Assumptions and Analysis*

Once the raw data were downloaded from Qualtrics into an Excel document, I inspected the information for accuracy. If any surveys were missing significant sections, I deleted them. If any surveys were missing answers from the OJS, GQ-6, or AIR questions, I deleted them. The final viable responses were a minimum of 153 ($N = 153$). Then, I imported all cleaned and scrubbed data into SPSS for analysis. To test the hypotheses, I used inferential statistics, and more specifically, multiple regression. Multiple regression predicts a dependent variable based on several independent variables (Berry & Feldman, 1985; Laerd Statistics, 2015). I also computed descriptive statistics on demographic information and other general questions.

**Standard Multiple Regression Procedure.** SPSS uses a default method called the "Enter" method to build a multiple regression model (Laerd Statistics, 2015). This procedure allows the user to decide which independent variables to include in the final multiple regression model (Laerd Statistics, 2015). To run the model, I opened SPSS and clicked *Analyze*, then *Regression*, and then *Linear* from the menu. Next, once the linear regression box populated, I entered the dependent variable (i.e., job satisfaction) in the appropriate box and added each independent variable (dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work) into the appropriate box. Then, I selected the *Statistics* button, and a new dialogue box appeared. In that dialogue box, several options were selected already; in addition, I selected the following options: (1) Confidence intervals, (2) Casewise diagnostics, (3) Durbin-Watson, (4) Model-fit, (5) Descriptives, (6) Part and partial correlations, and (7) collinearity diagnostics. After clicking the Continue button, the linear regression dialogue box appeared

again. Then, I clicked the Plots button, and another dialogue box appeared. In the new box, I

selected the following plot options: (1) Histogram, (2) Normal probability plot, and (3) Produce

all partial plots option, and then I selected the continue button. Once it returned to the linear

regression dialogue box, I clicked the save button and then chose the following options: (1)

Unstandardized, (2) Cook's, (3) Leverage values, (4) Studentized, and (5) Studentized deleted.

Finally, I selected the Continue and OK buttons, and the output was generated. From here, I

tested the assumptions.

  **Assumptions.** The first two assumptions were already met and included: (a) one

continuous dependent variable (i.e., job satisfaction) and (b) multiple independent variables

(dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at

work). I used SPSS to run the standard multiple regression procedure to test the remaining six

assumptions: (a) independence of observations, (b) a linear relationship between the dependent

variable and each independent variable or the dependent variables and independent variables

mutually, (c) data shows homoscedasticity, (d) data does not show multicollinearity, (e) no

significant outliers, and (f) residuals have a normal distribution (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

  *Independence of Observations*. To ensure the study design did not have related

observations, I tested the assumption of independence of observations (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

To test it, the Durbin-Watson statistic in SPSS was used and was run during the multiple

regression model. I reviewed the SPSS Statistics output in the *Model Summary* table to test this

assumption. More specifically, I directly examined the *Durbin-Watson* output number ranging

from 0 to 4 (Laerd Statistics, 2015). However, Laerd Statistics (2015) recommends that this

number be closer to 2, which indicates no correlation between residuals. If the number is

between 0 and 4 but remains close to 2, then I can report that there is an independence of

residuals as assessed by the Durbin-Watson statistic. Finally, if there was an independence of errors, I could move on to test the next assumption; however, if there was not, I would need to reconsider the type of analysis completed for this study.

   ***Linear Relationship***. A linear relationship between (a) the dependent variable and the independent variables collectively and (b) the dependent variable and each of the independent variables must exist. This assumption must be tested in the two parts previously listed (Laerd Statistics, 2015). To test part (a) of the assumption, I used SPSS to plot a scatterplot of studentized residuals against predictive values using the *Chart Builder* function. First, I clicked *Graphs*, then *Chart Builder* in SPSS. Next, once the *Chart Builder* dialogue box appeared, I chose the *Scatter/Dot* option and was given several options. I dragged and dropped the *Simple Scatter* option into the main chart preview area of the box. Then, I dragged and dropped the predictive values (PRE_1) to the X-axis area and the studentized residuals (SRE_1) into the Y-axis area. I then selected the *OK* button, and a scatterplot was generated. Next, I analyzed the scatterplot, and because the residuals formed horizontally, then the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables was linear (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

   Once part (a) was tested, then I moved on to test part (b). To test part (b) of the assumption, I used the partial regression plots already completed during the multiple regression model process. I examined the partial regression plot between each independent variable and the dependent variable separately. I looked at the partial regression plot between dispositional gratitude at work and job satisfaction to see if a linear relationship existed. It did, so I moved on to the expression of gratitude at work and job satisfaction partial regression plot and then the receipt of gratitude at work and job satisfaction partial regression plot. Once all three relationships were linear, the assumption was met, and I moved on to the following assumption.

If a relationship was not linear, I would have had to transform my data by applying a transformation to the independent variable in the nonlinear relationship, or I would need to reevaluate the type of analysis for this study (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

   *Homoscedasticity.* For this assumption, the variance of the residual must be constant for all data points (Laerd Statistics, 2015). To test this assumption, I used the scatterplot created in SPSS for the linear (a) assumption test. If heteroscedasticity was present, the plot would have created a funnel or fan shape, and if that happened, then the assumption failed. To deal with heteroscedasticity, I would have to transform the data or run a different type of test. However, the residuals were randomly spread across the predicted values, or no pattern appeared, so homoscedasticity existed (Laerd Statistics, 2015). In this case, there is homoscedasticity, and the assumption passed. I then moved on to the next assumption test.

   *Multicollinearity.* The data must not show multicollinearity to meet this assumption (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Multicollinearity occurs with two or more highly correlated independent variables (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Two states of identifying multicollinearity must be completed to test this assumption: (a) inspection of correlation coefficients and (b) Tolerance/VIF values (Laerd Statistics, 2015). First, I tested the (a) correlations using the *Descriptives* found in the multiple regression model. I reviewed the *Correlations* table to ensure that none of the independent variables had correlations of 0.7 or greater. If none of the correlations were greater than 0.7, then the first part of the assumption was met. Then, I tested (b) Tolerance and VIF, but I also reviewed the *Coefficients* table was generated during the multiple regression model. In the *Collinearity Statistics* section of the table, if the *Tolerance* number was less than 0.1 and the *VIF* number was greater than 10, then collinearity existed. However, if the *Tolerance* number was

greater than 0.1 and the *VIF* number was less than 10, the assumption was met, and I moved to the next assumption.

      ***Outliers.*** In the multiple regression model, some data points are considered unusual, so that is what I checked for this assumption (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The data should have no (a) significant outliers, (b) high leverage points, or (c) highly influential points to meet this assumption (Laerd Statistics, 2015). To check for (a) outliers, I used the *Casewise diagnostics* that ran in the multiple regression model to examine the table. The *Casewise diagnostics* table points out any cases where the standardized residual is greater than ±3 standard deviations (Laerd Statistics, 2015). If all the standardized residuals were ±3, then SPSS would not generate this table, and I would know that the (a) part of the assumption was met. However, SPPS generated a table, so I had to review the outliers, determine why it was an outlier, and deal with it. For example, if there were a data entry error, then I would correct the error and rerun the *Casewise diagnostics* to see if the outlier is eliminated. If it was removed, I moved on to the (b) part of the assumption.

      To test for the (b) part of the assumption, the studentized deleted residual, I looked at the section labeled *SDR_1*. I first put the *SDR_1* column in descending order to put higher values at the top. Then, I looked for any studentized deleted residuals of ±3 standard deviations. I examined four values greater than ±3 standard deviations and then decided that these outliers do not need to be removed from the data set. Then, I was able to move on to the final part of the assumption.

      To test the (c) part of the assumption, leverage points, I utilized the *Leverage value* part of the multiple regression model performed previously (Laerd Statistics, 2015). I put the *LEV_1* column in descending order to move larger values to the top. Next, I inspected the values for any

safe or unsafe values. Leverage values of less than 0.2 are safe, values of 0.2 to less than 0.5 are risky, and values of 0.5 or higher are unsafe (Laerd Statistics, 2015). If any of the values were of concern or unsafe, I would need to consider removing them from the data set. However, the data did not show any highly influential points, so this assumption was met, and I moved on to the final assumption.

      ***Normal Distribution.*** The normal distribution is the final assumption to test (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The residuals must be distributed normally to run inferential statistics (Laerd Statistics, 2015). I checked normality through (a) a histogram and (b) a Normal Q-Q Plot. To check through (a) a histogram, this plot was already generated with the multiple regression model. When revising the *histogram*, I verified that the standardized residuals appeared normally distributed and then ensured the mean had an approximate value of 0 and the standard deviation an approximate value of 1 (Laerd Statistics, 2015). To confirm the findings, I reviewed the *P-P Plot*, which was generated with the multiple regression model. The points were approximately aligned along the diagonal line, so the residuals were normally distributed and met the assumption. If not met, I would need to reevaluate the analysis I was using or utilize transformation to resolve the issue (Laerd Statistic, 2015).

      **Analysis.** Once all assumptions were met, I continued with the multiple regression analysis to test the research question:

- RQ1: How do dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction among academic advisors?

After running the multiple regression model procedure and testing the data to meet the assumptions, I analyzed the data using the generated tables and data set. I reassessed the data for accuracy based on the final number of viable responses and outliers.

*Regression Model Fit.* I determined how well the regression model fit the data by examining (R) the correlation between the independent variables (x), the dependent variable (y), and ($R^2$) the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable (y) that can be explained by the independent variables (x) in the regression model (Laerd Statistics, 2015). I did this by using (a) multiple correlation coefficients, (b) the percentage of variance explained, and (c) the statistical significance of the overall model, and I used the tables and data generated from the multiple regression model procedure. The (a) multiple correlation coefficient (*R*) is the Pearson correlation coefficient between the predicted scores and actual values of the dependent variable. A score of 0 means no linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable exists, and a score of 1 means a perfect linear relationship exists (Laerd Statistics, 2015). More specifically, a score that is closer to 1 indicates a strong level of correlation between variables. The (b) coefficient of determination (*$R^2$*) is the measure of the proportion of variance (Laerd Statistics, 2015). I found the data needed in the R Square section of the table. The value given becomes the percentage of effect size. Finally, the (c) statistical significance of the model was available in the *Sig.* portion of the table. This value must be less than .05 to be statistically significant. This concludes the interpretation of the overall model fit.

*Interpreting the Coefficients.* Next, I interpreted the Coefficients by first determining if the constant (intercept) was statistically significant by reviewing the Coefficients table section "Sig." If the value is less than .05, it is statistically significant. Then, I examined the slope coefficients for continuous independent variables (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The slope coefficient

value was found in the "B" column of the table. For this study, an example of a positive slope coefficient means that an increase in dispositional gratitude is associated with increased job satisfaction. Furthermore, I also used the confidence level (CI) section of the table to determine the lower and upper bounds of the slope coefficient (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Additionally, if the confidence intervals cross the number 0, then the slope coefficient is statistically significant. Once the test was completed, the regression equation was filled in with the appropriate values.

*Descriptive Statistics.* I calculated the total scores for each scale, GQ-6, AIR, and OJS, including the reverse score items in each measurement. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the sample population, including evaluating frequency distributions and percentages of all demographic information. Furthermore, descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables are presented. Chapter 4 displays summary tables of the data. Following the analysis, the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction) was established. Finally, I calculated Cronbach's alpha to examine internal consistency and reliability for each measurement.

**Ethical Considerations**

This cross-sectional study used a survey-based design and collected data from academic advisor members of NACADA in the United States. The online survey asked questions about dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, receipt of gratitude at work, and overall job satisfaction, as well as collected demographic information from participants. The following section will outline how ethical considerations integrate into the research design, including informed consent, beneficence, and respect for confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy (CITI Program, 2021; Office of Research & Sponsored Programs, 2018; Price et al., 2017).

The guidelines established by the Institutional Review Board protect research participants (CITI Program, 2021; Office of Research & Sponsored Programs, 2018). Participants are also protected by any state or federal guidelines as well as any NACADA research requirements. Before the study began, the ACU IRB approved the study's method for data collection including the informed consent, survey instruments, and other aspects of the research design through the IRB application process. NACADA's research team also approved the research design before surveys were sent to members. The participants were required to review and electronically sign the informed consent document before they could begin the survey. The informed consent also provided information about voluntary participation and informed the participants that they could exit the survey at any point to withdraw without penalty. The instructions also included information on exiting the survey and returning later if necessary.

The Belmont Report outlines three ethical principles concerning human subject treatment in research, including respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (Gerstein, 2018; National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979; Price et al., 2017). Respect for people allows participants to enter research voluntarily with enough information to make an informed choice (Gerstein, 2018). Respect for persons also allows participants with limited capacity to utilize a third party to help make an informed decision (Gerstein, 2018). Beneficence is a principle that minimizes harm for participants while maximizing benefits for the greater good (Gerstein, 2018; Price et al., 2017). Finally, the principle of justice is the fair distribution of research burdens and benefits, meaning those who may be at risk of harm are not of a different demographic class than those who may benefit (Gerstein, 2018; Price et al., 2017).

Furthermore, the academic advising population is not considered a vulnerable population that requires specific protections. However, as stated in the informed consent, participants could experience mild psychological discomfort when completing surveys about gratitude at work and job satisfaction. If participants do experience discomfort, they can exit the survey at any time without penalty or exit the survey and return later, as stated in the informed consent. The survey took no longer than 10 to 15 minutes to complete and participants could choose any environment they felt comfortable taking the survey.

To ensure confidentiality and privacy, participants did not provide their name or the name of the institution in which they work. Email addresses were not captured in the survey or released once survey collection was completed. While some demographic information was required, it was not detailed enough to identify the participants. Furthermore, as noted in that section of the survey, participants could choose an "I prefer not to disclose" option for some demographic questions (CITI Program, 2021; Office of Research & Sponsored Programs, 2018). Lastly, the results of the survey are not reported in aggregate form to reduce concerns about the anonymity, confidentiality, and privacy of participants. Due to the nature of the study, the only incentive is the benefit of adding value to the advising community.

I complied with the ethical considerations stated above throughout my research study. I did not collect any data before receiving IRB and NACADA approval. The study did not exceed the 1-year period allowed by the IRB.

**Assumptions**

The study has several assumptions. The first assumption is that participants will honestly select responses to the qualifying factors and self-report their responses about gratitude at work and job satisfaction. The second assumption is that the NACADA members selected represent

the population of academic advisors in the United States. Finally, after thoroughly considering each variable in this study, I assume that each scale chosen is reliable and valid.

**Limitations**

As with any study, there will be limitations to the research design. One limitation of nonprobability purposive sampling is that it restricts the sample population definition; however, it is appropriate for small sample studies (Battaglia, 2011). Furthermore, the NACADA members who complete the survey may only partially represent all academic advisors in the United States, and not all types of institutions may be represented in the final sample. Because it is a cross-sectional study, the results will only show measures of gratitude and job satisfaction at one point in time (Lanham et al., 2012; Wilson & Joye, 2019).

Another limitation is that the two gratitude surveys have never previously been validated to use with "at work" added to the statements. Although I received permission to alter the surveys as needed for the workplace, this will be the first study to date that will utilize the instruments in this manner. A final limitation is that because the survey is anonymous, the results will not be at an organizational level; therefore, the results cannot directly assist specific employees or employers in implementing strategies or interventions.

**Delimitations**

Because this study focuses solely on academic advisors, the results of this study are limited to participants of the advising community in the United States. More specifically, the study is limited to members of the NACADA advising community only, which delimits the ability of any advisor to participate in the study.

There are many ways to measure job satisfaction; however, I chose the OJS for simplicity and easy understanding for participants as it is a shortened version of the IJS scale (Brayfield &

Rothe, 1951; Judge et al., 1998). Also, other variables may be present when exploring the relationship between gratitude and job satisfaction, including but not limited to workplace stress, burnout, and relationships (Black et al., 2019; Ganji et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Maric et al., 2021; Salazar & Diego-Medrano, 2021; Waters, 2012). However, based on the broaden-and-build theory that frames the current study, I carefully chose to focus on the positive emotional aspect of gratitude and job satisfaction over the negative emotions (Fredrickson, 2001).

**Summary**

This chapter has outlined the research design and method, research questions, population sample, survey instruments, data collection procedures, ethical considerations, assumptions, and limitations. The study's design should explain the correlation between dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, receipt of gratitude at work, and job satisfaction. Ensuring research is conducted under proper design and ethical guidelines is vital to the study.

After the surveys are collected, the next chapter discusses the data collection process, analysis procedures, and research results. Chapter 4 further discusses details about the statistical analysis and data.

**Chapter 4: Results**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to understand how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predicted job satisfaction in academic advisors. I developed one research question with corresponding hypotheses to guide the methodology.

Presented in this chapter are the findings of the study including a brief discussion of the data collected alongside the demographics and descriptive statistics. This chapter also addresses how I managed missing data. Also presented are assumptions for multiple regression and outliers, and all hypotheses are tested using multiple regression analyses.

**Findings**

*Summary of Respondents*

The population sampled included academic advisors who are members of NACADA, serve in a full-time role at an institution of higher education in the United States, have worked a minimum of 6 months at their institution, and are 18 years or older. Faculty advisors, counselors, and part-time advisors were not included in the study.

After receiving approval from ACU's IRB and then NACADA's IRB to distribute surveys to members, NACADA sent me a list of 8,294 email addresses in an Excel spreadsheet. The online survey was distributed through Qualtrics and remained open for approximately 5 weeks. To achieve a statistical power of .95 and a 10% response rate, the G-power analysis determined that a minimum of 153 respondents were necessary based on parameters of seven independent variables with regression. Hoping for a minimum response rate, the first round of emails was sent to 1,200 advisors. A reminder email was sent after 2 week, and a final email reminder was sent at the 2-week mark. Nineteen emails bounced for unknown reasons. During

the first collection period, 170 ($N = 170$) surveys were collected for a response rate of 14.3%. However, only 121 ($N = 121$) of those surveys were completed for a response rate of 10.2%. A second round of emails was sent to a new group of 1,200 advisors at the end of 3 weeks. Twenty-seven (27) emails bounced for unknown reasons. A total of 87 ($N = 87$) surveys were collected for a response rate of 7.4% during the second collection period. However, only 84 ($N = 84$) of those surveys were fully complete with a response rate of 7.2%. At the close of survey collection, 257 ($N = 257$) were collected for an overall response rate of 10.9%; however, only 206 ($N = 206$) surveys were completed for a final response rate of 17.4%. After surpassing the 10% response rate of 153, the survey closed at the end of 5 weeks.

Once the survey closed, I downloaded the raw data from Qualtrics to a password-protected Excel spreadsheet on a password-protected laptop. I inspected the information for accuracy and examined the raw data for errors, missing responses, and normality deviation. A total of 52 surveys were missing significant sections and were deleted. The final number of usable surveys was 206 ($N = 206$). Then, I uploaded the usable data into SPSS v. 29.0. No IP addresses or other potentially identifiable information was collected in the survey to protect anonymity and privacy. Finally, I used SPSS to compute demographic, descriptive, and inferential statistics.

### *Descriptive Statistics of Respondents*

The final sample included 206 participants who completed the 79-item online survey that included 59 items in three measurement scales assessing the dependent variable, the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale, the independent variables, the Gratitude-6 Scale and the Appreciation in Relationship Scale, 12 demographic questions, eight descriptive statistics questions, and a section for general comments.

The three categories for demographic questions included individual, position-level, and institutional information. Individual demographics acquired personal characteristics such as age range, identified gender, and ethnicity. As shown in Table 1, most respondents (30.6%) reported an age range between 30 and 39 years of age. The age range is somewhat consistent with other studies in which the average age of academic advisors is 40–41 years of age (Zippia, 2023).

**Table 1**

*Age Range of Participants*

| Age range | $n$ | % |
|---|---|---|
| 18-29 years of age | 42 | 20.4 |
| 30-39 years of age | 63 | 30.6 |
| 40-49 years of age | 47 | 22.8 |
| 50-59 years of age | 38 | 18.4 |
| 60-69 years of age | 14 | 6.8 |
| 70 years of age or over | 1 | 0.5 |
| I do not prefer to disclose my age range | 1 | 0.5 |
| Total | 206 | 100 |

In Table 2, most respondents (79.1%) reported their identified gender as female. These data are consistent with other studies in which most of the gender reported was female (NACADA, 2021, 2022; Zippia, 2023). Zippia (2023) noted that 61.8% of academic advisors in the United States identified as female. According to NACADA (2021, 2022), the member demographics reported a 73% female-member majority in 2017 and a 67.2% female-member majority in 2019.

**Table 2**

*Gender Identity of Participants*

| Gender | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Female | 163 | 79.1 |
| Male | 35 | 17 |
| Non-binary | 8 | 3.9 |
| Transgender | 2 | 1 |
| Gender non-conforming | 1 | 0.5 |
| I do not prefer to disclose my gender category | 1 | 0.5 |
| Total | 210 | 100 |

*Note.* Some respondents marked more than one response creating a total of 210 responses.

As shown in Table 3, most respondents (84.5%) identified as White. Similarly, Zippia (2023) reported that 67% of academic advisors in the United States reported their ethnicity as White. NACADA (2021, 2022) stated that 62.6% of members reported their ethnicity as White in 2017 and 57.8% in 2019.

**Table 3**

*Ethnicity of Participants*

| Ethnicity | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| American Indian or Native Alaskan | 6 | 2.9 |
| Asian or Asian American | 8 | 3.9 |
| Black or African-American | 14 | 6.8 |
| Hispanic, Latino/Latina, or Spanish Origin | 9 | 4.4 |
| Middle Eastern or North African (MENA) | 1 | 0.5 |
| Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander | 1 | 0.5 |
| White | 174 | 84.5 |
| Other | 3 | 1.5 |
| I do not prefer to disclose my ethnicity | 3 | 1.5 |
| Total | 219 | 100 |

*Note.* Some respondents marked more than one response creating a total of 219 responses.

I asked respondents position-level demographic questions including the length of time the advisor has held their current position, the highest degree awarded at the institution, the primary degree sought by advisors' students, and the primary format of advising meetings. Position-level demographics are reported in Tables 4, 5, 6, and 7.

As shown in Table 4, most respondents (49%) have been in their current position for 1 to 5 years. According to NACADA (2021), 34.9% of members reported their number of years advising as less than 3 years and 16.8% as 3–5 years advising years. Together, 51.7% of members worked for 1 to 5 years, showing similarity to this survey's respondents (NACADA, 2021). Additionally, NACADA (2022) stated that 31.6% of members reported their number of

years advising as less than 3 years and 15.9% as 3–5 years advising years. Combined, 47.5% of

members worked 1 to 5 years consistent with this survey's respondents (NACADA, 2022).

**Table 4**

*Length of Time in Current Position of Participants*

| Length of time in current position | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| 6 months to 1 year | 37 | 18 |
| 1 to 5 years | 101 | 49 |
| 6 to 10 years | 35 | 17 |
| 11 to 20 years | 22 | 10.7 |
| Over 20 years | 10 | 4.9 |
| Total | 205 | 99.6 |

*Note*. A total of 205 respondents answered this question, with one missing response.

As shown in Table 5, most respondents (44.7%) primarily met with advisees in-person.

While 27.7% of advisors met with advisees via Zoom and 13.6% via two or more methods.

**Table 5**

*Primary Format of Advising Meetings of Participants*

| Primary format of advising meetings | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| In-person | 92 | 44.7 |
| Zoom (or other video conferencing) | 57 | 27.7 |
| Phone | 9 | 4.4 |
| Email | 20 | 9.7 |
| Combination (two or more methods equally) | 28 | 13.6 |
| Total | 206 | 100 |

Table 6 presents percentages of the primary degree sought by advisor's students. The majority of advisees (90.33%) sought a bachelor's degree.

**Table 6**

*Primary Degree Sought by Advisor's Students*

| Primary degree sought by advisor's students | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Associate's or Technical | 54 | 26.2 |
| Bachelor's | 186 | 90.3 |
| Master's | 46 | 22.3 |
| Doctorate | 17 | 8.3 |
| Total | 303* | 100 |

*Note.* Although I asked for a primary degree, some respondents marked more than one response creating a total of 303 responses.

Respondents were also asked about institutional demographic questions including the type of institution (public or private), institutional population, highest degree awarded, and the approximate advisor caseload. Institutional-level demographics are reported in Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10.

As shown in Table 7, most respondents (78.2%) work at a public university. This aligns, although a little higher, with similar demographics from NACADA (2021, 2022). In 2017, 61.3% of NACADA members worked for a public institution, and the percentage increased to 62.7% in 2019 (NACADA, 2021, 2022).

**Table 7**

*Type of Institution that Employs Participant*

| Type of institution (institution category) | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Public entity | 161 | 78.2 |
| Private for-profit entity | 9 | 4.4 |
| Private not-for-profit entity | 36 | 17.5 |
| Total | 206 | 100 |

Table 8 demonstrates that most respondents' institutions (66%) have a population of more than 10,000 students. The institution population varies across the United States, and I did not find any recent comparable data for the population of an institution in academic advising studies.

**Table 8**

*Population of Institution that Employs Participant*

| Population of institution | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| fewer than 3,000 students | 22 | 10.7 |
| 3,000 - 10,000 students | 48 | 23.3 |
| more than 10,000 students | 136 | 66 |
| Total | 206 | 100 |

In Table 9, most respondents (68%) work at a university whose highest degree awarded is a doctorate. The percentage captured in the survey is higher than NACADA's (2017, 2019) reported demographics. In 2017, 45% of NACADA members worked for an institution that

awarded doctorate degrees, and in 2019, that percentage was 47.3% of members (NACADA, 2021, 2022).

**Table 9**

*Highest Degree Awarded at Institution that Employs Participant*

| Highest degree awarded at institution | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Associate's or Technical | 16 | 7.8 |
| Bachelor's | 11 | 5.3 |
| Master's | 39 | 18.9 |
| Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., J.D., D.C., etc.) | 140 | 68 |
| Total | 206 | 100 |

As shown in Table 10, most respondents (65%) had a caseload of more than 200 students. I did not find any recent comparable data for approximate advisor caseload in academic advising studies. However, in a national Academic Advising survey completed by NACADA in 2011, the average caseload for small, medium, and large institutions was 233, 333, and 600 advisees, respectively (Robbins, 2019).

**Table 10**

*Approximate Advisor Caseload*

| Approximate advisor caseload | *n* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Under 50 students | 3 | 1.5 |
| 51-100 students | 19 | 9.2 |
| 101-150 students | 26 | 12.6 |
| 151-200 students | 23 | 11.2 |
| Over 200 students | 134 | 65 |
| Total | 205* | 99.5 |

*Note.* A total of 205 respondents answered this question, with one missing response.

This section outlined the demographic points depicted in the study. Most of the demographics seemingly aligned with national-level and NACADA demographic information available. Although, I found limited to no data to compare to the approximate advisor caseload, primary degree sought by advisor's students, or primary format of advising meetings.

### *Descriptive Statistics of Variables*

Table 11 displays the descriptive statistics for dependent (i.e., job satisfaction) and independent (i.e., dispositional gratitude at work and relational gratitude at work) variables. Table 11 also presents the descriptive statistics for overall relational gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work to and from students, colleagues, and supervisors respectively. I excluded all surveys that were missing any responses for the variable measurements.

**Job Satisfaction.** As previously noted, the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJS) scores range from low 5 to high 35 (Judge et al., 1998). The sample appeared to report mid to high

scores of job satisfaction overall (*M = 27.69)*. Little research has focused on advising and job satisfaction, so I found no research reporting mean norms of the OJS with the advisor population. However, Judge et al. (2000) presented a similar sample score for OJS (*M = 25.88*) with a comparable participation rate (*N = 424*).

**Dispositional Gratitude at Work**. The sample appeared to report high levels of dispositional gratitude (*M = 32.78*). The Gratitude Questionairre-6 Scale (GQ-6) scores range from low 6 to high 42 with higher scores meaning higher levels of dispositional gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002). While no studies on academic advisors have utilized the GQ-6, a different study reported similar mean norms for the GQ-6. Chang et al. (2022) had a similar number of participants (*N = 191*) and a similar reporting score (*M = 33.12*).

**Relational Gratitude at Work**. The Appreciation in Relationships Scale (AIR) scores range from low 16 to high 112 (Gordon et al., 2012). A higher score means a person's appreciation level is higher (Gordon et al., 2012). The sample reported (*M = 79.03*) for students, (*M = 82.37*) for colleagues, and (*M = 77.68*) for supervisors, thus showing mid-range scores for all groups. I found limited research reporting mean norms of the AIR Scale.

**Expression of Gratitude (AIR Appreciative Subscale).** The AIR scores for the expression of gratitude (appreciative subscale) range from low 9 to high 63 (Gordon et al., 2012). Table 11 presents the descriptive statistics for expressing gratitude to students. The sample reported mid to high levels of expressed gratitude to students (*M = 47.6*). Descriptive statistics for expressing gratitude to colleagues are presented in Table 11. The sample reported mid to high levels of expressed gratitude to colleagues (*M = 48.27*). Descriptive statistics for expressing gratitude to supervisors are shown. The reported levels are a bit lower than students and colleagues but also mid to high range (*M = 44.83*). A high score in the appreciative subscale

shows a higher appreciation of others or higher levels of expressed gratitude (Gordon et al., 2012). The results yielded a reliability score of .778 for the expression of gratitude to students, .841 for the expression of gratitude to colleagues, and .842 for the expression of gratitude to supervisors.

      **Receipt of Gratitude (AIR Appreciated Subscale).** The AIR scores for the receipt of gratitude (Appreciated subscale) range from low 7 to high 49 (Gordon et al., 2012). Table 11 presents the descriptive statistics for receiving gratitude from students. The sample reported mid to high levels of receipt of gratitude from students ($M = 31.9$). The descriptive statistics for receiving gratitude from colleagues are presented in Table 13. The sample also reported mid to high levels of receipt of gratitude from colleagues (*M = 34.1*). Descriptive statistics for receiving gratitude from supervisors are shown. The reported levels are also mid to high and align with students and colleagues ($M = 32.85$). A high score in the appreciated subscale shows higher levels of receiving gratitude from others (Gordon et al., 2012). The results yielded a reliability score of .917 for receipt of gratitude from students, .917 for the receipt of gratitude from colleagues, and .939 for the receipt of gratitude from supervisors.

**Table 11**

*Descriptive Statistics for Dependent and Independent Variables*

| Variables | N | Min | Max | M | SD | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Satisfaction* | 205 | 10 | 35 | 27.69 | 5.101 | -1.13 | 1.058 |
| Dispositional Gratitude at Work** | 205 | 7 | 42 | 32.78 | 6.377 | -0.97 | 1.036 |
| Student Total Relational Gratitude at Work** | 205 | 40 | 105 | 79.03 | 11.602 | -0.44 | 0.344 |
| Expression of Gratitude to Students ** | 205 | 27 | 63 | 47.6 | 7.333 | -0.33 | -0.16 |
| Receipt of Gratitude from Students ** | 205 | 9 | 49 | 31.9 | 7.494 | -0.61 | 0.633 |
| Colleagues Total Gratitude at Work** | 205 | 39 | 112 | 82.37 | 16.006 | -0.53 | -0.251 |
| Expression of Gratitude to Colleagues ** | 205 | 21 | 63 | 48.27 | 8.191 | -0.46 | -0.191 |
| Receipt of Gratitude from Colleagues ** | 205 | 7 | 49 | 34.1 | 8.998 | -0.7 | -0.058 |
| Supervisor Total Gratitude at Work** | 205 | 28 | 112 | 77.68 | 18.888 | -0.49 | -0.444 |
| Expression of Gratitude to Supervisors ** | 205 | 21 | 63 | 44.83 | 9.566 | -0.35 | -0.537 |
| Receipt of Gratitude from Supervisors ** | 205 | 7 | 49 | 32.85 | 10.55 | -0.63 | -0.479 |

*Note.* *indicates a dependent variable; **indicates an independent variable.

**Descriptive Statistics Questions.** In the survey, the participants were asked four questions that were unrelated to the scales. The goal was to obtain a little more information from participants on how often they express gratitude to and receive gratitude from students, colleagues, and supervisors. Table 12 presents results from the question, "How often do you express gratitude to." The highest percentage of expression of gratitude to students was "Several times a week" (43.2%). For colleagues, the highest percentage was also "Several times a week" (49%). Finally, the highest percentage for supervisors was "At least once a month" (40.8%). The "Never" response was seemingly the lowest percentage for all three groups.

**Table 12**

*Descriptive Statistics for Expression of Gratitude to Students, Colleagues, and Supervisors*

| Response choice | Students | | Colleagues | | Supervisors | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | % | *n* | % | *n* | % |
| One or more times a day | 25 | 12.1 | 33 | 16 | 9 | 4.4 |
| Several times a week | 89 | 43.2 | 101 | 49 | 74 | 35.9 |
| At least once a month | 59 | 28.6 | 53 | 25.7 | 84 | 40.8 |
| A couple times a year | 23 | 11.2 | 15 | 7.3 | 27 | 13.1 |
| Once a year | 6 | 2.9 | 1 | 0.5 | 4 | 1.9 |
| Never | 4 | 1.9 | 3 | 1.5 | 8 | 3.9 |
| Total | 206 | 100 | 206 | 100 | 206 | 100 |

*Note*. Descriptive statistics for expression of gratitude to each level.

Table 13 presents results from the question, "How often do you receive gratitude from… (students, colleagues, and supervisors)." The highest percentage of receipt of gratitude from students was "Several times a week" (39.8%). From colleagues, the highest percentage was again "Several times a week" (39.3%). Finally, the highest percentage from supervisors was "At least once a month" (45.1%). The "Never" response was the lowest percentage for students and supervisors, and the "Once a year" response was the lowest percentage for colleagues.

**Table 13**

*Descriptive Statistics for Receipt of Gratitude from Students, Colleagues, and Supervisors*

| Response choice | Student | | Colleague | | Supervisor | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | % | *n* | % | *n* | % |
| One or more times a day | 23 | 11.2 | 22 | 10.7 | 9 | 4.4 |
| Several times a week | 82 | 39.8 | 81 | 39.3 | 59 | 28.6 |
| At least once a month | 68 | 33 | 66 | 32 | 93 | 45.1 |
| A couple times a year | 28 | 13.6 | 27 | 13.1 | 27 | 13.1 |
| Once a year | 3 | 1.5 | 2 | 1 | 12 | 5.8 |
| Never | 2 | 1 | 8 | 3.9 | 6 | 2.9 |
| Total | 206 | 100 | 206 | 100 | 206 | 100 |

*Note*. Descriptive statistics for receipt of gratitude from each level.

Table 14 presents results from the questions, "I feel appreciated at work (Q1)," and "If my supervisor were more grateful or showed more appreciation for my work, I would want to work harder (Q2)." This question used a 5-point Likert scale. For Q1, the highest percentage of participants (50.5%) selected "Agree," while the lowest percentage of participants (3.9%) chose "Strongly disagree" as a response. In Q2, the highest percentage of participants (29.1) selected "Neutral" as a response, while the lowest percentage of participants (8.7%) chose "Strongly disagree."

**Table 14**

*Descriptive Statistics for Appreciation*

| Response choice | I feel appreciated at work | | If my supervisor were more grateful or showed more appreciation for my work, I would want to work harder. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | % | *n* | % |
| Strongly disagree | 8 | 3.9 | 18 | 8.7 |
| Disagree | 27 | 13.1 | 54 | 26.2 |
| Neutral | 25 | 12.1 | 60 | 29.1 |
| Agree | 104 | 50.5 | 42 | 20.4 |
| Strongly agree | 42 | 20.4 | 32 | 15.5 |
| Total | 206 | 100 | 206 | 100 |

### *Hypothesis Testing Assumptions*

This section reviews the assumption testing completed: normality, linearity and homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. These assumptions had to be met to test the hypothesis and perform the multiple regression analysis. Next, the findings are discussed.

**Normality.** As shown in Tables 11 to 14, assumptions for normality with the relational gratitude independent variables were met as the skewness and kurtosis were between -1 and +1 (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The normality with the dependent variable and dispositional gratitude independent variable are slightly outside of the recommended range; however, there is an allowable margin of error, and the assumption was met (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Figure 1 presents the histogram. Even though the mean is 6.17, the standardized residuals appear normal; therefore, the assumption has been met. To further confirm the findings, Figure 2 shows that the

points along the diagonal line of the *P-P Plot* are aligned; this confirms that the residuals are

normally distributed, and the assumption is met.

**Figure 2**

*Histogram of Variables*
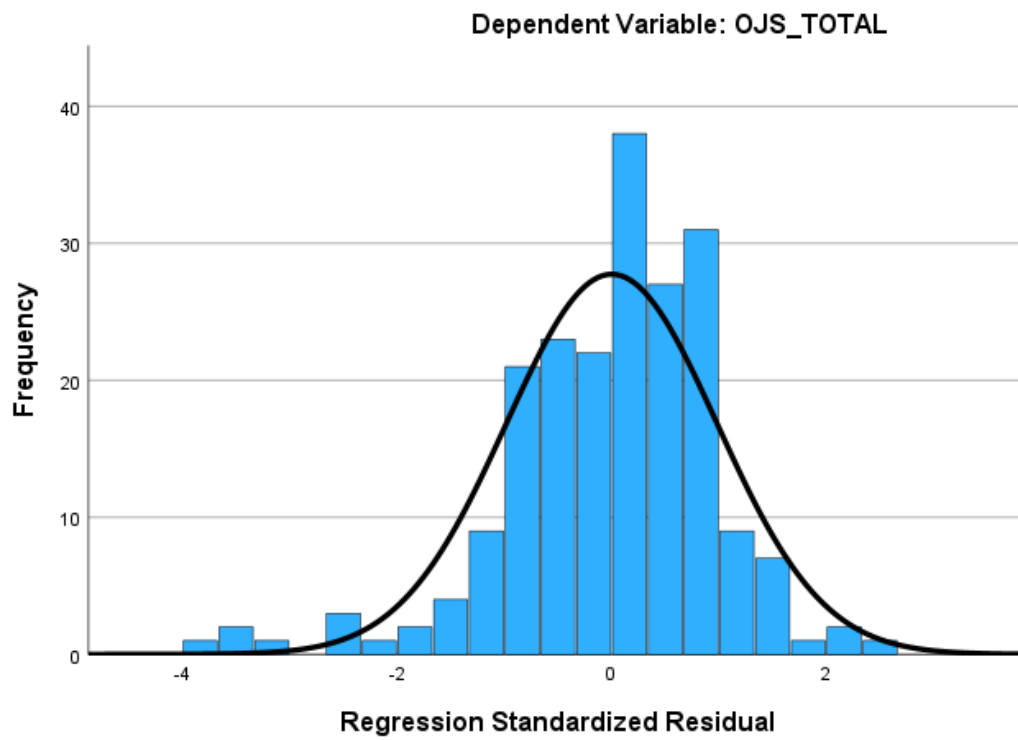


*Note. M* = 6.17E-16; *SD* = 0.983; *N* = 205

**Figure 3**

*Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual: Dependent Variable*
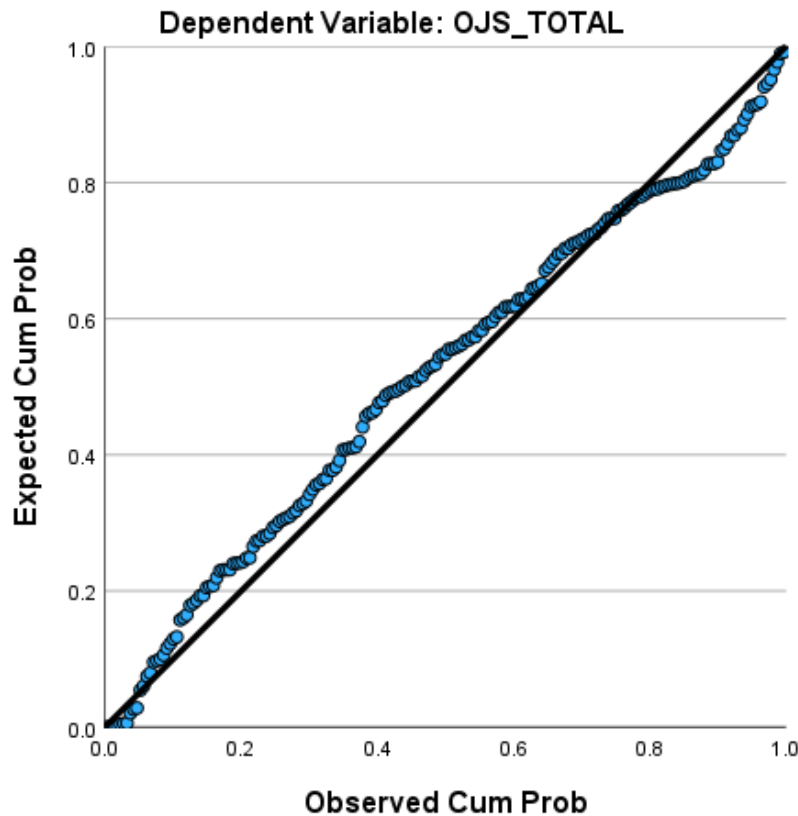


**Linearity and Homoscedasticity.** Figures 3 to 9 illustrate the linearity and homoscedasticity when investigating the relationship among the variables. The partial regression plots demonstrate a linear relationship between OJS and GQ-6 (Figure 3), OJS and AIR Student Expressed Gratitude (Figure 4), OJS and AIR Student Received Gratitude (Figure 5), OJS and AIR Colleague Expressed Gratitude (Figure 6), OJS and AIR Colleague Received Gratitude (Figure 7), OJS and AIR Supervisor Expressed Gratitude (Figure 8), and OJS and AIR Supervisor Received Gratitude (Figure 9; Laerd Statistics, 2015). Figures 3 to 9 also show a lack of funnel or fan shapes; therefore, demonstrating homoscedasticity (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Both assumptions were met.

**Figure 4**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (GQ-6)*
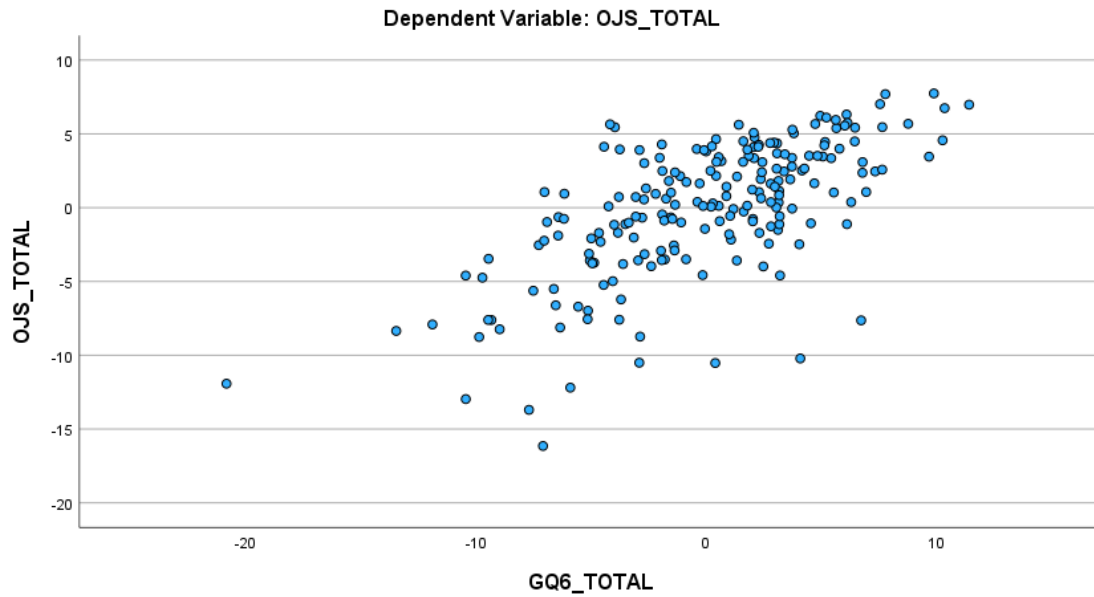


**Figure 5**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (AIR Student Expressed)*
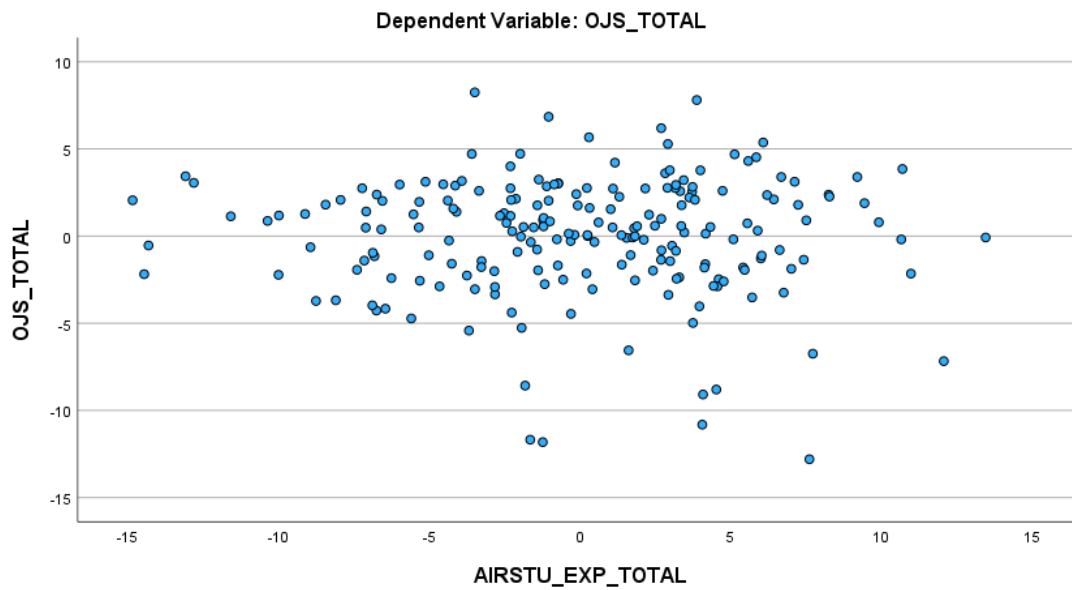
**Figure 6**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (AIR Student Received)*



Dependent Variable: OJS_TOTAL
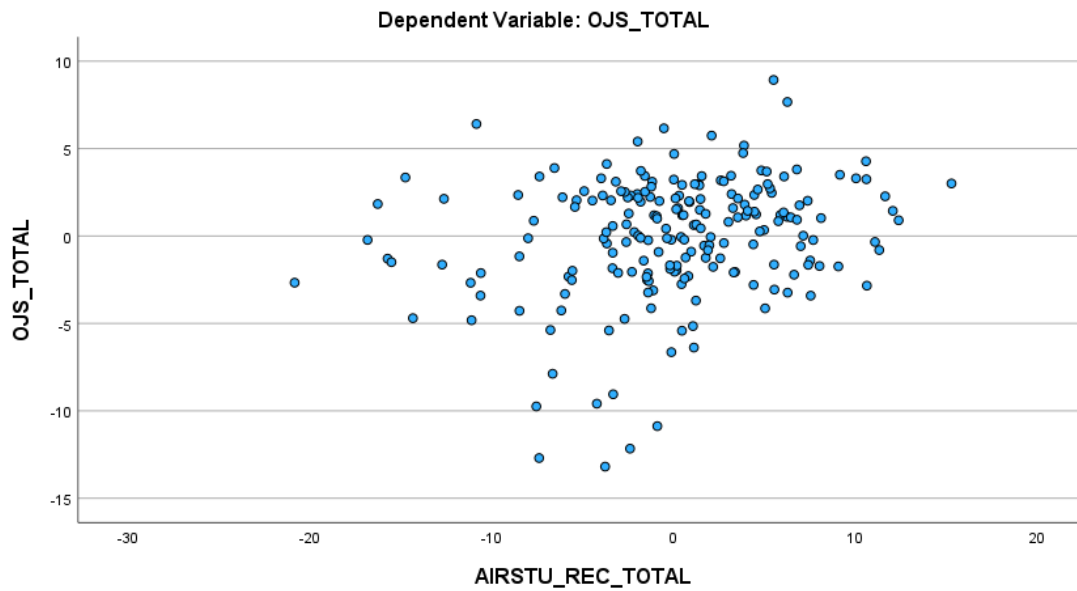
**Figure 7**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (AIR Colleague Expressed)*



Dependent Variable: OJS_TOTAL
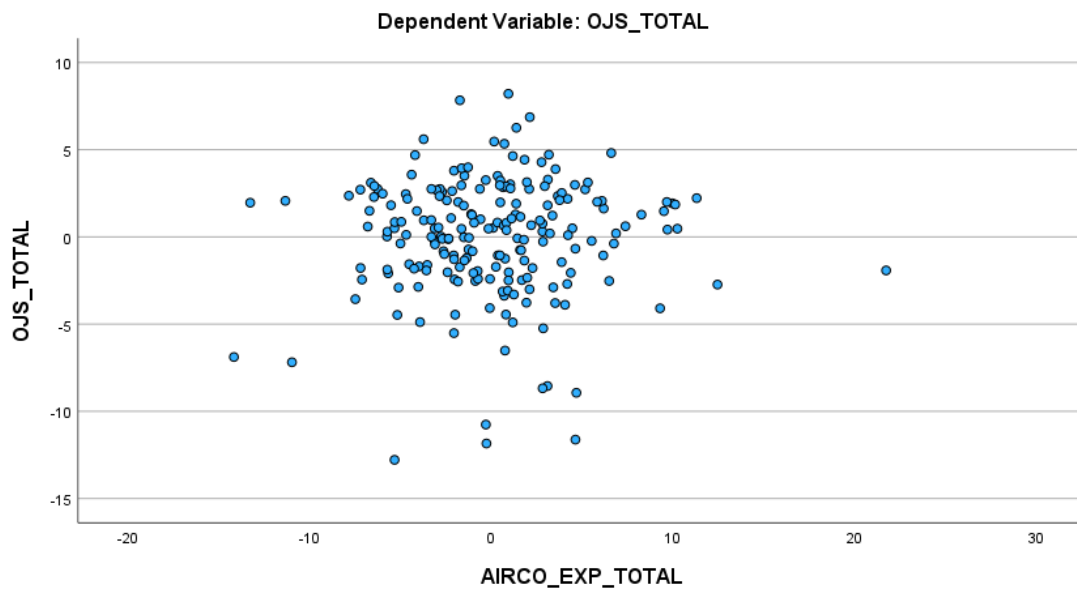
**Figure 8**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (AIR Colleague Received)*
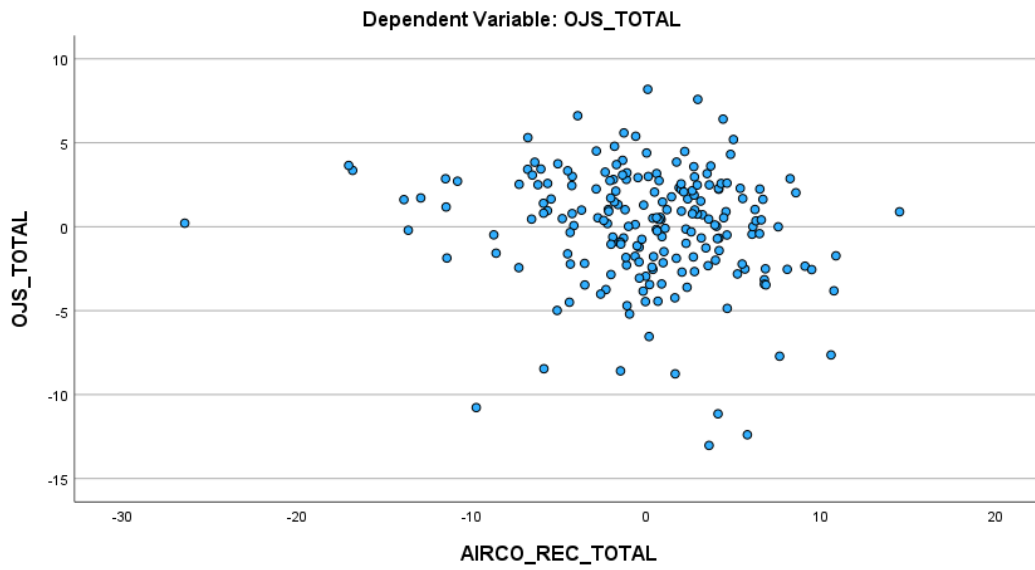


**Figure 9**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (AIR Supervisor Expressed)*
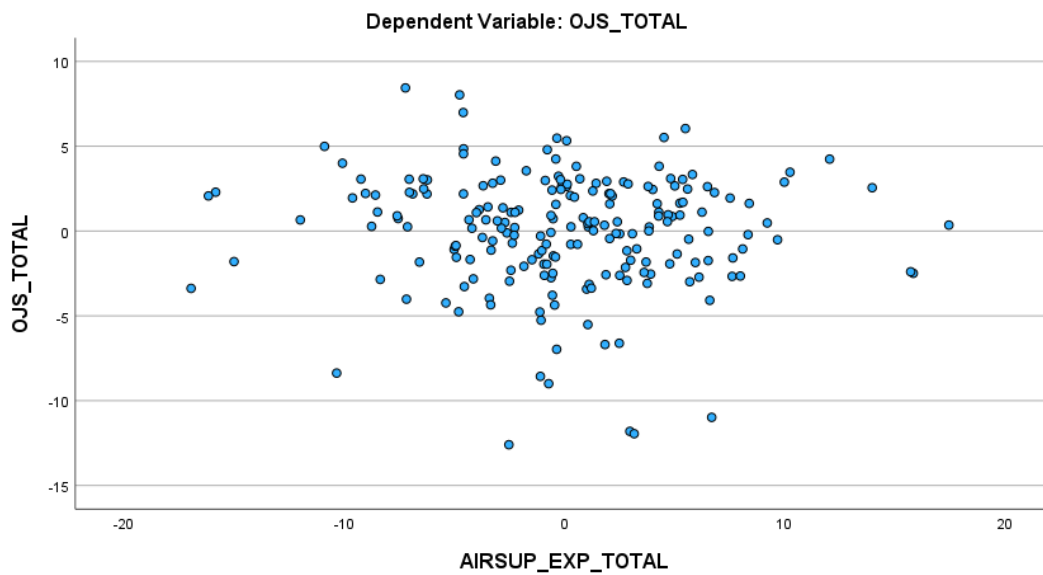
**Figure 10**

*Partial Regression Plot: Independent Variable (AIR Supervisor Received)*
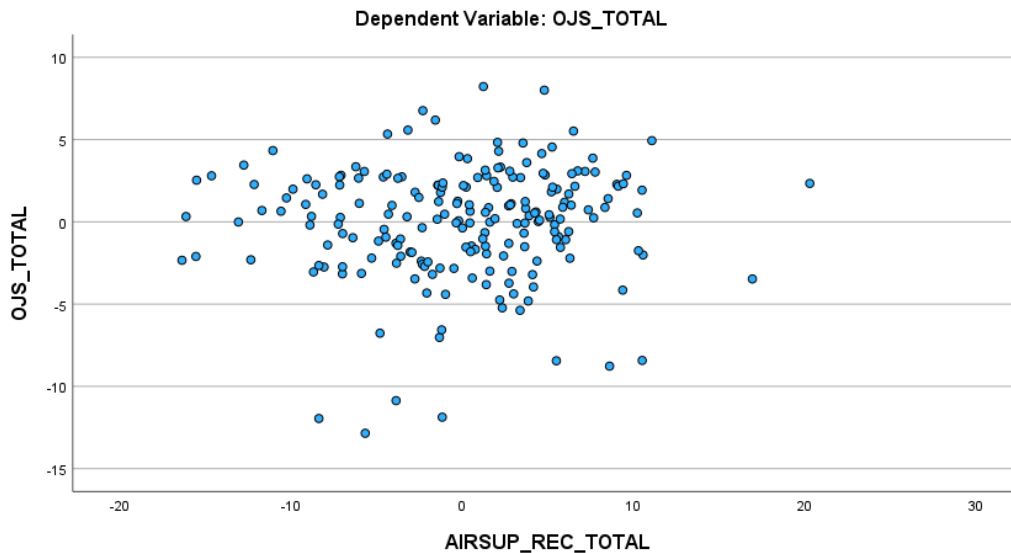


**Multicollinearity.** Multicollinearity happens when two or more independent variables highly correlate with each other (Laerd Statistics, 2015). I conducted two tests for this assumption: a) inspection of correlation coefficients and b) Tolerance/VIF values (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Laerd Statistics (2015) noted that none of the independent variables can have correlations greater than 0.7. As shown in Table 15, the only correlation greater than 0.7 is the GQ-6 at 0.722. However, because it is scarcely over 0.7, this assumption was still met. In the second test, Tolerance/VIF values, the Tolerance number must be less than 0.1 and the VIF number must be greater than 10 for collinearity to exist. If the Tolerance number is greater than 0.1 and the VIF number is less than 10, then the assumption is met (Laerd Statistics, 2015). As shown in Table 15, all the tolerance values are greater than .01 and less than 10, so there were no multicollinearity problems, and the assumption has been met.

**Table 15**

*Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)*

| Independent variable | Tolerance | VIF |
|---|---|---|
| Dispositional Gratitude (Independent) | 0.609 | 1.643 |
| Student Expressed Gratitude (Independent) | 0.53 | 1.889 |
| Student Received Gratitude (Independent) | 0.636 | 1.573 |
| Colleagues Expressed Gratitude (Independent) | 0.328 | 3.048 |
| Colleagues Received Gratitude (Independent) | 0.362 | 2.765 |
| Supervisor Expressed Gratitude Supervisor (Independent) | 0.345 | 2.895 |
| Supervisor Received Gratitude (Independent) | 0.352 | 2.844 |

**Outliers.** To check for outliers, I ran the Casewise diagnostics to check for any cases where the standardized residual is greater than ±3 standard deviations (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Table 16 displays the standardized residuals for the data. SPSS generated a table with four outliers; however, upon review, all four cases had standardized residuals of just over -3. Therefore, the outliers were not removed, and the assumption was met.

**Table 16**

*Outlier Assumption*

| Case number | Std. Residual |
|---|---|
| 37 | -3.716 |
| 49 | -3.151 |
| 62 | -3.43 |
| 160 | -3.469 |

*Hypothesis Testing*

The following question and corresponding hypotheses were explored:

- RQ1: How do dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction among academic advisors?

  - *H1$_0$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

  - *H1$_A$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

*Multiple Regression Analysis*

This section reviews the multiple regression analysis completed. Multiple regression is a method utilized to study relationships between the dependent variable and independent variable(s) based on the data sample (NCSS Statistical Software, 2023). It also can predict one continuous dependent variable based on multiple independent variables (Laerd Statistics, 2015). I started by using the "Enter" method in SPSS to build a multiple regression model (Laerd Statistics, 2015). After running this method for OJS, GQ-6, and the AIR Student Total, AIR

Colleague Total, and AIR Supervisor Total, I decided to run it again for OJS, GQ-6, and each

AIR variable within the subscale (e.g., AIR Student Expressed and AIR Student Received, etc.).

While there are several types of multiple regression including stepwise regression and

hierarchical multiple regression, I chose to use a standard multiple regression (Laerd Statistics,

2015). Multiple regression was run to predict job satisfaction from dispositional gratitude at

work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of

gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to

supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors. The overall regression was statistically

significant ($R^2 = .568$, $F_{(7, 197)} = 36.938$, $p < .001$).

Of the seven independent variables, three were statistically significant predictors of job

satisfaction. Dispositional gratitude at work ($\beta = .607$, $p < .001$) and receipt of gratitude from

students ($\beta = .134$, $p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of Job Satisfaction. Even

though receipt of gratitude from colleagues ($\beta = -.096$, $p$ .032) was also a statistically significant

predictor of job satisfaction, it presented an inverse relationship. The inverse relationship

indicated that for every unit receipt of gratitude from colleagues increased, job satisfaction

decreased by .096 units at a statistically significant level. As shown in Tables 17 and 18, the

following four independent variables were not statistically predictors of Job Satisfaction:

Expression of gratitude to students ($\beta = -.016$, $p = .729$), expression of gratitude to colleagues ($\beta$

$= .018$, $p = .719$), expression of gratitude to supervisors ($\beta = -.035$, $p = .417$), or receipt of

gratitude from supervisors ($\beta = .029$ $p = .445$).

**Table 17**

*Multiple Regression Chart*

| Variable | β | Std. Error | Std. Coefficients Beta | t | Sig. (*p)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dispositional Gratitude at Work | 0.607 | 0.048 | 0.759 | 12.632 | <.001 |
| Expression of Gratitude to Students | 0.016 | 0.045 | 0.022 | 0.346 | 0.729 |
| Receipt of Gratitude from Students | 0.134 | 0.04 | 0.197 | 3.353 | <.001 |
| Expression of Gratitude to Colleagues | 0.018 | 0.051 | 0.029 | 0.36 | 0.719 |
| Receipt of Gratitude from Colleagues | 0.096 | 0.044 | 0.169 | 2.165 | 0.032 |
| Expression of Gratitude to Supervisors | 0.035 | 0.043 | 0.065 | 0.813 | 0.417 |
| Receipt of Gratitude from Supervisors | 0.029 | 0.038 | 0.060 | 0.765 | 0.445 |

*Note.* Dependent variable: Overall Job Satisfaction Total.

**Table 18**

*Correlation Matrix*

| Variable | OJS (Y) | GQ-6 at Work (X₁) | AIRSTU_EXP (X₂) | AIRSTU_REC (X₃) | AIRCOL_EXP (X₄) | AIRSUP_REC (X₇) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| OJS (Y) | --- | | | | | |
| GQ-6 at Work ($X_1$) | **0.722 | --- | | | | |
| AIRSTU_EXP ($X_2$) | 0.233 | 0.234 | --- | | | |
| AIRSTU_REC($X_3$) | **0.292 | 0.178 | 0.551 | --- | | |
| AIRCOL_EXP ($X_4$) | 0.219 | 0.401 | 0.415 | 0.141 | --- | |
| AIRCOL_REC ($X_5$) | *0.240 | 0.465 | 0.209 | 0.185 | 0.734 | |
| AIRSUP_EXP ($X_6$) | 0.321 | 0.497 | 0.266 | 0.055 | 0.437 | |
| AIRSUP_REC ($X_7$) | 0.368 | 0.537 | 0.153 | 0.048 | 0.322 | --- |

*Note.* **indicates an extremely significant correlation ($p < 0.001$); *indicates a significant correlation ($p < 0.05$), but the relationship is inverse; no asterisk indicates no significant correlation ($p > 0.005$). There is no comparative significance between same data, --- is used to fill the gap.

*Note.* OJS = Job satisfaction; GQ-6 = Dispositional gratitude at work; AIRSTU_EXP = Expression of gratitude to students; AIRSTU_REC = Receipt of gratitude from students; AIRCOL_EXP = Receipt of gratitude to colleagues; AIRCOL_REC = Receipt of gratitude from colleagues; AIRSUP_EXP = Expression of gratitude to supervisors; AIRSUP_REC = Receipt of gratitude from supervisors.

**Summary of Findings**

This study examined how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predicted job satisfaction among academic advisors. More specifically, it examined dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors. The first independent variable, dispositional gratitude, was defined as an inclination to identify and respond to others' benevolence and positive self-experiences with grateful emotions (McCullough et al., 2002). The next independent variable, expression of gratitude, was defined as relational gratitude requiring a high-quality partner dyad where both people receive and express gratitude, and a relationship that promotes mutual support and responsiveness that communicates and indicates gratitude and generates interpersonal bonds (Algoe, 2012; Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). The final independent variable, receipt of gratitude, was defined as the response to an experience that is beneficial but not attributable to the self, and a form of positive social exchange that signals to benefactors (i.e., those expressing gratitude) that they were successful in giving gratitude to beneficiaries (i.e., those receiving gratitude; Lee et al., 2018; Locklear et al., 2020; McCullough et al., 2001; McGuire et al., 2020). Job satisfaction, the dependent variable, was defined as an attitude that combines a person's positive and negative workplace experiences (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Choi et al., 2021; Ganji et al., 2021; Judge et al., 1998; Pareek & Kulshrestha, 2021). After all assumptions were met, I tested one research question using multiple regression analyses (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

The findings led to the overall regression presenting statistically significant results ($R^2 = .568$, $F_{(7, 197)} = 36.938$, $p < .001$). The overall model rejected the null hypothesis ($H1_{A0}$) that none

of the independent variables were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. Specifically, results presented dispositional gratitude at work and receipt of gratitude from students as statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. The results also revealed a statistically significant inverse relationship between receipt of gratitude from colleagues and job satisfaction. However, expression of gratitude to students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors the following not statistical predictors of job satisfaction.

As previously stated, no other study has examined dispositional gratitude at work (i.e., as measured by GQ-6), expression of gratitude at work (i.e., as measured by the AIR scale), or receipt of gratitude at work (i.e., as measured by the AIR scale) in the academic advising population. Furthermore, no study to date has looked at job satisfaction (i.e., as measured by OJS) in academic advisors. Finally, no scale to date has appropriately measured relational gratitude at work (i.e., as measured by the approved edited AIR scale).

Chapter 4 presented an overview of the data including the demographics and descriptive statistics. This chapter also addressed how missing data were managed, assumptions were met, and multiple regression analyses were used to test all hypotheses. Ultimately, the findings revealed that dispositional gratitude at work and receipt of gratitude from students were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. Furthermore, the findings also revealed a statistically significant inverse relationship between receipt of gratitude from colleagues and job satisfaction; this means that as the receipt of gratitude from colleagues increased, job satisfaction decreased at a statistically significant level.

In Chapter 5, results will compare and extend previous research findings. Also discussed in Chapter 5 includes recommendations for practice, limitations, and implications. Finally, the chapter will finish with recommendations for future research.

**Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations**

Studies show that educational developers and faculty in higher education often experience stress, fatigue, and burnout because they are required to implement new initiatives, meet diverse student needs, and complete more with a lack of resources, reduced budgets, and minimal staff (Kolomitro et al., 2020; Sabagh et al., 2018). Specifically, academic advisors face high job demands due to serving large and diverse groups of students (Auguste et al., 2018; He et al., 2020; Knotts & Wofford, 2017; McGill, 2021; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Ruiz Alvarado & Olson, 2020; Sanders & Killian, 2017). Additionally, Brantley and Shomaker (2021) argued that academic advising is among the highest turnover roles in higher education.

Studies have also shown that job satisfaction produces outcomes such as increased job performance, productivity, organizational commitment, organizational effectiveness, and decreased turnover (Choi et al., 2021; Judge et al., 2017; Maric et al., 2021; Mullen et al., 2018; Saridakis et al., 2020; Walsh et al., 2018; Wolomasi et al., 2019). Studies have also shown that gratitude produces many positive outcomes such as greater levels of psychological well-being, physical health, healthier behavior, and increased well-being and satisfaction with life and work (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Starkey et al., 2019; Valikhani et al., 2019). Research has proven that one practical way to improve job satisfaction is through gratitude in the workplace (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Cameron, 2012; Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Fagley & Adler, 2012; Lanham et al., 2012; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Stegen & Wankier, 2018; Waters, 2012). However, researchers argued that people are less likely to express and receive gratitude at work than anywhere else (Allen, 2018; Kaplan, 2012). Even though some research on gratitude and job satisfaction exists, researchers have not examined different types of gratitude, such as expression of gratitude, and receipt of gratitude as

it relates to job satisfaction. Furthermore, there is limited research on dispositional gratitude, but no studies have focused on dispositional gratitude with a specific work-related gratitude measure. To date, no other studies have concentrated on gratitude and job satisfaction within the academic advisor population.

A quantitative correlational design was used to answer this research question:

- RQ1: How do dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction among academic advisors?

  - *H1$_0$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

  - *H1$_A$:* The overall model of dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction.

I ran a multiple regression to understand how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction. The overall regression model was statistically

significant, explaining 56.8% of the variance in job satisfaction. More specifically, three variables were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction: dispositional gratitude at work, receipt of gratitude from students, and receipt of gratitude from colleagues. Unexpectedly, receipt of gratitude from colleagues had an inverse relationship with job satisfaction. As receipt of gratitude from colleagues increased, job satisfaction decreased to a statistically significant level. In this chapter, I present a discussion of the findings in light of previous studies, address study limitations, review implications, and provide recommendations for both practice and research.

**Discussion of the Findings**

In this study, the overall regression model was statistically significant explaining 56.8% of the variance in job satisfaction. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was confirmed.

More specifically, participants with higher levels of dispositional gratitude also had higher levels of job satisfaction. Studies have shown that dispositional gratitude indicates an overall experience of gratitude emotion, and those with higher dispositional gratitude often feel more deeply grateful than those less disposed toward gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002). Dispositional gratitude can lead to positive outcomes such as happiness, and research has indicated that happiness at work can increase job contentment (McCullough et al., 2002).

A few researchers focused on dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2021; Lanham et al., 2012; Waters, 2012). Waters (2012) focused her research on job satisfaction and gratitude in the teaching and finance sectors. Her study found that dispositional gratitude, state gratitude, and institutional gratitude individually positively correlated with job satisfaction (Waters, 2012). However, the author noted that when state gratitude and institutional gratitude

entered the regression, dispositional gratitude was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Waters, 2012). Lanham et al. (2012) researched how gratitude correlates to burnout and job satisfaction in community and university mental health professionals. The authors found that workplace-specific gratitude predicted job satisfaction in mental health workers (Lanham et al., 2012). However, dispositional gratitude did not predict job satisfaction when controlling for demographic-related factors and hope (Lanham et al., 2012). Another study completed research on dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction among kindergarten teachers in China (Chen et al., 2021). The study found a positive correlation between dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2021). In some form, each of these studies found a positive correlation between dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction, even though Lanham et al. (2012) and Waters (2012) also had findings that did not show a positive correlation. Even with these studies, no study has looked at dispositional gratitude at work specifically as this study did (Chen et al., 2021; Lanham et al., 2012; Waters, 2012*)*. More specifically, while each of these studies utilized the GQ-6, none of them added the words "at work" as my study did. In addition, my study focused on a specific population that has not been the attention of dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction studies. These differences may be why my results showed a positive correlation regardless of demographics, variables, or regression.

At the end of my dissertation survey, participants had an opportunity to provide any general written comments. Some of these comments are included in this chapter as they might add light to the findings. One participant stated, "I have the opportunity to affect the lives of my students and their families, this is a blessing…I am so happy to be in this position and to develop the relationships I have over the years." The participant noted that being an academic advisor and serving families has made them "so happy," and as previously stated, happiness is a positive

emotion. Positive emotions are indicators of flourishing and optimal well-being and help us attain psychological growth (Fredrickson, 2001, 2003). Developing the relationships helped the advisor create social connections, which can generate positive emotions like happiness and gratitude as explained by the upward spiral of the broaden-and-build theory in Chapter 3 (Alanoglu & Karabatak, 2021; Cain et al., 2019; Colbert et al., 2016; Fredrickson, 2001; Kardaş & Yalçin, 2021). Because dispositional gratitude has been shown to increase positive outcomes, it is not surprising that this study resulted in a statistically significant relationship between dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction (McCullough et al., 2002).

One potential reason why there was a statistically significant relationship between dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction in this study with this population may be explained by the purpose of an advisor's role. Most advisors understand that their primary role is to serve and support students from beginning to end by encouraging persistence, guiding them to graduation, and providing the resources needed to achieve it (Aydin et al., 2019; Hart-Baldridge, 2020; Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). The desire to serve students is an innate characteristic of an advising role. A recent study found that academic advisors often choose to stay in their role because it is a service job, and their motivation stems from serving students (Solon et al., 2022). Solon et al. (2022) noted that advisors have an intrinsic desire to support and help students and this can create satisfaction in one's job. Motivation factors are important to job satisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959; Hur, 2018). The work itself can function as a motivation factor; for example, if the work provides an advisor with a sense of purpose, and challenges them, but does not discourage them, then advisors are more likely to have increased job satisfaction (Herzberg, 2003; Herzberg et al., 1959). In this study, it is possible that the intrinsic desire to help motivates the advisor and

that motivation is connected to their dispositional gratitude, and ultimately, increases their job satisfaction.

Another statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction in this study was the receipt of gratitude from students. Receipt of gratitude has not been the focus of gratitude research until recently (Algoe, 2012; Beck, 2016; Gordon et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2018). Separate from the measurement scales, the participants were asked, "How often do you receive gratitude from students, colleagues, and supervisors?" Participants could choose one of the following responses: (a) one or more times a day, (b) several times a week, (c) at least once a month, (d) a couple times a year, (e) once a year, or (f) never. When asked, "How often do you receive gratitude from students?," the highest percentage of participants (39.8%) selected "Several times a week," followed by "At least once a month" (33%), with the lowest percentage of participants selecting "Once a year" (1.5%) and "Never" (1%). Only 11.2% of participants selected "One or more times a day." While this does not completely align with the findings that receipt of gratitude from students predicts job satisfaction, it does offer some potential insight.

In their recent study, Lee et al. (2018) focused on the social exchange between offering assistance and receiving gratitude and found that receiving gratitude connects helping behavior to the helper's well-being. Given that students are the primary focus of the advisor's social exchange, the findings from Lee et al. (2018) aligned with the findings of my study. The academic advisor's role is to help students (Aydin et al., 2019; Hart-Baldridge, 2020; Leach & Patall, 2016; Menke et al., 2020; Pasquini & Eaton, 2019; Sanders & Killian, 2017). From these helping behaviors, advisors may receive gratitude from students, and receiving gratitude can boost positive outcomes like job satisfaction. To revisit an example given in Chapter 2, the advisor and student exchange requires a high-quality partner dyad that promotes mutual support

and responsiveness (i.e., the expression of gratitude) and requires a positive social exchange (i.e., the receipt of gratitude; Algoe, 2012; Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020; Lee et al., 2018; Locklear et al., 2020; McCullough et al., 2001; McGuire et al., 2020). The advisor-student relationship is different than advisor-colleague and advisor-supervisor relationships because of their role in the student's educational journey.

In her find-remind-and-bind theory, Algoe (2012) argued that gratitude fosters binding relationships between recipients (i.e., those receiving gratitude - advisors) and benefactors (i.e., those expressing gratitude - students). In the theory, expressing and receiving gratitude assists people in finding new and good relationships (i.e., find), reminding of and continuing good relationships that already exist (i.e., remind), and bringing recipients and benefactors closer (i.e., bind; Algoe, 2012; Locklear et al., 2020). Other studies have also shown a positive connection between gratitude and relationships (Algoe et al., 2020; Allen, 2018; Wood et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2021). As a positive emotion, gratitude encourages mutual cyclical growth between members of a relationship (Algoe et al., 2013; Fredrickson, 2001). Conversely, Herzberg et al. (1959) argued that relationships at work are part of the hygiene factors in their motivation-hygiene theory outlined in Chapter 2. The authors noted that hygiene factors help reduce job dissatisfaction, but instead of increasing job satisfaction, the factors bring employees to more of a neutral point (Herzberg et al., 1959). So, in this situation, if relationships at work, as hygiene factors, decrease, then job satisfaction may also decrease; however, if relationships at work increase, job satisfaction does not necessarily increase.

In addition, receiving gratitude may also induce more feelings of gratitude as well as the desire to express gratitude to others (Algoe et al., 2008; Allen, 2018; Chang et al., 2012). Research has shown that gratitude is not only the result of a helping behavior but also a producer

of a helping behavior (Algoe et al., 2008; Chang et al., 2012). Meaning, that if the advisor helps

the student, and the student expresses gratitude, the advisor, receiving the gratitude, can then

have induced feelings of gratitude. Therefore, because they now feel grateful, the advisor eagerly

wants to engage in more helping behaviors because of the relationship between the advisor and

student (Algoe et al., 2008, 2013; Cheng et al., 2013). Overall, receiving gratitude from students

may induce positive emotions, including more gratitude, and positive emotions can help the

advisor broaden their awareness and build long-lasting personal resources as part of the broaden-

and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Watkins, 2016). One

participant stated, "I have been an academic advisor for over 20 years and I love working with all

my students." These types of exchanges could explain why advisor job satisfaction increases

through building relationships with and receiving gratitude from students. More specifically, if

the advisor-student exchange leads to an upward spiral of positive emotions as explained by the

broaden-and-build theory, the spiral could ultimately lead to continuous positive emotions

resulting in higher levels of job satisfaction (Catalino et al., 2014; Fredrickson, 2001;

Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002).

Receipt of gratitude from colleagues was identified as another statistically significant

predictor of job satisfaction; however, it presented an inverse relationship. More specifically, for

every unit receipt of gratitude from colleagues increased, job satisfaction decreased by .096 units

at a statistically significant level. This statistically significant relationship is different from that

of dispositional gratitude and receipt of gratitude from students, which showed as gratitude

increased job satisfaction also increased. While many studies have shown a positive relationship

between gratitude and positive outcomes like job satisfaction, my study shows a counterintuitive

finding that receiving gratitude from colleagues decreases job satisfaction. While it is uncertain

which in this case, receiving gratitude may either decrease positive emotions or increase negative emotions with advisors and colleagues. Nevertheless, reducing positive emotions can reduce positive outcomes.

One possible explanation for this specific finding of the inverse relationship between receipt of gratitude from colleagues and advisor job satisfaction may be that people feel indebted when faced with gratitude. According to Merriam-Webster (n.d.), one definition of indebted is "owing gratitude or recognition to another." The website lists words such as "beholden" and "obligated" as synonyms for indebted (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). One of Fredrickson's (2001) examples in the broaden-and-build theory was gratitude as a positive emotion and indebtedness as a negative emotion. The author explained that often when someone (the receiver) feels grateful for something another person did, the receiver wants to return the favor (Fredrickson, 2001). Alternatively, Fredrickson (2001) argued that if a person feels indebted, as a negative emotion, they feel obligated to repay them. Goyal et al. (2022) noted that indebtedness is linked with action inclinations specifically with the want to alleviate a debt. The authors argued that indebtedness is not always negative and involves awareness that a person has been helped and the socially norm way to respond is through reciprocation (Goyal et al., 2022). However, other researchers argue that when a person feels indebted to another person, they often feel the need to find ways to repay them or restore equity in the relationship, and because of this, they may have a hard time experiencing gratitude (Kim & Lim, 2022; Solom et al., 2017). Furthermore, Algoe (2012) argued that in the find-remind-and-bind theory, if the relationship, between the advisor and colleague in this case, is not one of high quality, receiving any objective benefit does not always create feelings of gratitude in this dyad. In this dissertation study, the participants may

not have high-quality relationships with their colleagues, which could lead to them feeling indebted instead of grateful.

The advisor-colleague relationship is unlike the advisor-student relationship where helping students is part of the advisor's purpose. The advisor's sole job role is not to serve their colleagues, and so the relationship is different than that of the advisor-student one. One participant stated,

> In the past, it was given I would trust coworkers. Now, I don't…I feel like we've lost the selfless advisors who wanted what is best for the student. It is not about what the students can do to help your resume.

The participant is describing a relationship that does not seem high quality; therefore, it makes sense that they may feel indebtedness or something similar instead of receiving gratitude. In general, research has shown us that if relationships are high-quality, they can promote gratitude and potentially boost job satisfaction. However, if the relationship is not good, it can destroy both gratitude and job satisfaction. The participant's example may be recalling a poor relationship; therefore, invoking negative feelings that could decrease job satisfaction.

Another potential explanation may be reciprocity. According to Zhan et al. (2021), reciprocity, as explained in social exchange theory, is the norm held by two parties maintaining a long-term social exchange relationship. Reciprocity means that both parties believe the mutual exchange of resources and assistance will eventually balance out; however, reciprocity could lead to either the positive emotion of gratitude or the negative emotion of ego depletion (Zhan et al., 2021). One potential reason could be related to the theory of ego depletion by Zhan et al. (2021). The authors found that sometimes when a person (i.e., the receiver or advisor) feels obligated to repay the colleague (i.e., helper), it may create a negative reaction toward the

colleague (i.e., helper) and cause ego depletion and negative feelings in the short term (Zhan et al., 2021). Reciprocity can cause the person receiving the benefit to feel obligated to give back by helping the colleague (Grant & Dutton, 2012). It is possible in this study that gratitude from colleagues was not received well. It is also unknown if the colleague was also an advisor. Furthermore, if the form of gratitude expressed by the colleague was a gesture, perhaps the advisor felt obligated to return the favor or do something in exchange for the expression of gratitude; in this case, it created negative feelings, or even neutral feelings, that could have potentially led to decreased job satisfaction (Grant & Dutton, 2012; Zhan et al., 2021).

Receipt of gratitude from supervisors was not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction in my study. This finding was surprising as other researchers have found a positive relationship between gratitude from supervisors and job satisfaction. For example, McKeon et al. (2020) and Ritzenhöfer et al. (2019) found a positive correlation between perceived gratitude expressed by a supervisor and employee job satisfaction. Beck (2016) found that employees believe it is essential to receive gratitude from their supervisors. However, these studies did not focus on the academic advising population as my study did. One potential reason why this type of gratitude was not statistically significant is that, in this study, academic advisors may simply have not received gratitude from their supervisors. In addition, it may be because advisors found job satisfaction through receiving gratitude from their students. Receiving gratitude from those they work closely with (students) may be enough for them. One participant noted, "Regardless if my supervisor is grateful for my contribution to the staff, I always work for my students. My supervisor's opinion is not a factor in my motivation to work hard for my students." While this is only one possible assumption, it would need to be reviewed further in future research.

Another potential reason receipt of gratitude from supervisors was not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction may be because the supervisor is not expressing gratitude in a manner that the advisor receives it. Another participant noted,

> The gratitude expressed by my superior does not match that of the needs of our team of our advisors, which I believe creates dissatisfaction. For example, saying that you appreciate us, but not valuing our work or opinions, does not feel valid.

A study completed by Dunaetz and Lanum (2020) examined if people appreciate some forms of expressed gratitude over others, including in public, in groups, written, and private forms of gratitude. Their study found that the most appreciated form of expressed gratitude in their population was private thanking, then written thanking, small group thanking, and lastly, public thanking (Dunaetz & Lanum, 2020). It is also important to note that just because it did not show statistical significance does not mean receiving gratitude from supervisors is entirely insignificant. Another participant stated, "I have a great deal of satisfaction with my department and my immediate supervisor. They are the only reasons I stay at this school." Another possible explanation could point to the phrasing utilized in the Appreciation in Relationships Scale (Gordon et al., 2012). The scale was specifically designed for romantic partnerships, and although permission was received to modify the scale to focus on work relationships, some of the phrasings may still have indicated more than a working relationship. The wording possibly confused or skewed the way participants rated their supervisor(s).

One final potential explanation that receiving gratitude from colleagues decreased job satisfaction and receipt of gratitude from supervisors did not predict job satisfaction is that there is not a culture of gratitude from colleagues or supervisors. To reiterate, receiving gratitude from students seems more meaningful because helping students is the primary role of most advisors,

and it is sort of embedded in the helping profession culture. However, a culture of gratitude may not be present in the advisor-colleague or advisor-supervisor relationship, or within the organization at all. Therefore, receiving gratitude from colleagues or supervisors may not feel genuine or necessary. Furthermore, there is a chance that because it is not part of the culture, gratitude is not even being expressed by these two groups appropriately or at all.

Expression of gratitude to students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, and expression of gratitude to supervisors were not statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. Unrelated to the measurement scales, the participants were asked four questions in the survey to obtain a little more information on how often they express gratitude to and receive gratitude from students, colleagues, and supervisors. When asked, "How often do you express gratitude to (students, colleagues, or supervisors)," the highest percentage was "Several times a week" for both students (43.2%) and colleagues (49%). For supervisors, the highest percentage was "At least once a month" (40.8%). So, even though the findings did not find that expression of gratitude to students, colleagues, and supervisors were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction, the answer to the question above shows that they are expressing gratitude.

Again, one can only make assumptions as to why this group of variables were not predictors of job satisfaction in this dissertation research, but one possible reason may be the term gratitude itself. People often confuse gratitude with appreciation or recognition. While appreciation and recognition may be one aspect of gratitude, they are not necessarily gratitude (Cain et al., 2019; Fagley & Adler, 2012; Kranabetter & Niessen, 2019; Robbins, 2019; Spiro et al., 2016). A participant commented that a definition of gratitude would have aided them in responding to the questions. A lack of a gratitude definition in the survey could have potentially caused confusion or lack of understanding among participants.

Another possible explanation as to why the expression of gratitude to students, colleagues, and supervisors were not predictors of job satisfaction is the wording of the AIR scale. As previously explained, the AIR scale was originally for romantic partnerships, not work relationships. The wording of the scale questions potentially complicated the survey for participants. For example, one question from the AIR scale was originally worded for a romantic partner, but the word "partner" was changed to "colleague" (i.e., in this example) stating, "I am sometimes struck with a sense of awe and wonder when I think about my colleagues being in my life." Changing the word from "partner" to "colleague" does not seem to translate well in this specific example. A couple of participants noted that this question seemed inappropriate when asking about colleagues, supervisors, and students.

Finally, the results of the dissertation study show that although the model counts for 56.8% of the variance, there is still over 40% of the variance that is not explained, meaning there are other factors that influence job satisfaction. One participant said, "Gratitude from my boss would be nice, but doesn't make up for poor management. Too often gratitude is used to plaster over bad decisions." Another participant noted, "The gratitude I receive from my supervisor, coworkers, and students is psychologically very important to me, and makes me feel safe, valued, and stable. It is a crucial part of my job satisfaction. Yet after COVID, gratitude cannot make up for low salaries and working more than 40 hours without overtime." Yet another participant stated,

> While I am grateful for my supervisor, there is also an element of expecting people to fulfill the duties they are hired to complete. To me, that doesn't necessitate excessive gratitude…It is my responsibility to advise them well, so that is what I do.

Several other participants commented that even if they do receive gratitude from their immediate supervisor, they do not feel that higher administration appreciates them. While there may be a plethora of reasons why expressing gratitude to students, colleagues, and supervisors, and receiving gratitude from supervisors was not significant to this population's job satisfaction, further research is necessary to fully understand the reasoning.

**Limitations**

Understanding the findings of the study in the context of its limitations is necessary. The study utilized nonprobability purposive sampling through a list of emails given to the author from NACADA. Because only NACADA members completed the survey, results may only represent a portion of all academic advisors in the United States, and the final sample may not represent all types of institutions. As a cross-sectional study, a second limitation is that the results only show measures of gratitude and job satisfaction at one point in time (Lanham et al., 2012; Wilson & Joye, 2019). Unfortunately, an advisor may have more or less gratitude or job satisfaction if they had completed the survey on a different day or at a different time of year.

A third limitation of the study is that two of the gratitude surveys have never been validated to use "at work" within the statements. While I did receive permission to alter the surveys as needed for the workplace, this is the first study to date that will utilize the scales in this manner. Finally, a fourth limitation is that because the survey was anonymous, the results are not at an organizational level; therefore, the results cannot directly assist specific employees or employers in implementing strategies or interventions.

**Delimitations**

One delimitation is that while there are many ways to measure gratitude and job satisfaction, I chose the OJS to measure job satisfaction for participant simplicity and ease of

understanding (Judge et al., 1998). I chose the AIR scale to measure relational gratitude (Gordon et al., 2012) because it was the closest and best option to measure both receipt and expression of gratitude. However, even though I was permitted to modify the scale to focus on work relationships, the wording may have still limited or confused participants in their responses because it was originally written to measure romantic relationships, not work relationships.

Additionally, when exploring the relationship between gratitude and job satisfaction, other variables may be present including but not limited to workplace stress, burnout, and work-related relationships (Black et al., 2019; Ganji et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Maric et al., 2021; Salazar & Diego-Medrano, 2021; Waters, 2012). However, based on the study's framework, the broaden-and-build theory, I chose to focus on the positive emotional aspect of gratitude and job satisfaction over the negative emotions (Fredrickson, 2001). Finally, the study was limited to NACADA members only, which delimits the ability of non-member advisors to participate in the study. Because of the population choice of full-time academic advisors, other roles similar to advisors, including but not limited to part-time advisors, counselors, and faculty advisors were not included in this research project. Limiting the population to only full-time academic advisors who are members of NACADA allowed me to narrow the scope of this project.

**Recommendations**

The following sections will outline recommendations for practice for leaders and organizations as well as recommendations for future research.

*Recommendations for Practice*

People are less likely to express and receive gratitude at work than anywhere else even though gratitude is one of the most significant ways to boost well-being (Allen, 2018; Kaplan, 2012). In a JTF survey, 60% of employees reported expressing gratitude to work colleagues once

or less per year (Allen, 2018; Kaplan, 2012). Conversely, in my study, when asked, "How often do you express gratitude to (students, colleagues, or supervisors)," the "Once per year" choice received the lowest percentages of the question for colleagues (0.5%) and supervisors (1.9%). More information on these findings can be found in Table 12 in Chapter 4. Additionally, other researchers found that while 82% of employees in the United States want to be recognized more by their supervisors, only 38% of employees were satisfied with the amount of appreciation they received at work in 2020 (Levanon et al., 2021; Novak, 2016). However, in my study, when prompted with, "I feel appreciated at work," 20.4% of participants selected "Strongly Agree," and 50.5% of participants selected "Agree," while only 13.1% of participants selected "Disagree," and only 3.9% selected "Strongly Disagree." While the results yielded that the overall regression model was statistically significant explaining 56.8% variance of job satisfaction, only dispositional gratitude at work and receipt of gratitude from students were positive statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. However, throughout this dissertation study, it has been noted that other research has shown a positive correlation between gratitude and job satisfaction (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Allen, 2018; Beck, 2016; Cortini et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Fagley & Adler, 2012; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Stegen & Wankier, 2018; Waters, 2012). Based on the findings of this dissertation study, boosting dispositional gratitude, implementing interventions, and creating a culture of gratitude may help implement more gratitude at work.

**Organizations Can Help Boost Dispositional Gratitude.** Given the finding that dispositional gratitude is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction, one recommendation for practice is for organizations to help boost dispositional gratitude in their employees. Dispositional gratitude is an inclination to identify and respond to others'

benevolence and positive self-experiences with grateful emotions (McCullough et al., 2002). People with high dispositional gratitude feel more deeply grateful than people less disposed toward gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002). Dispositional gratitude signifies an overall experience of gratitude emotion rather than a fleeting moment of gratitude (McCullough et al., 2002). The findings of my study concluded that dispositional gratitude is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction, so the first recommendation is for organizations to find ways to help boost dispositional gratitude.

Organizations can utilize various methods to help boost dispositional gratitude in employees. One way is through encouraging mindfulness. Langer (2016) argued that mindfulness consists of observing the new and can be easy. The author noted that one must learn to stay present and learn new and exciting facts about themselves to practice mindfulness (Langer, 2016). Guiding employees to learn something new, whether about themselves, their peers, or their role, can help guide mindfulness in the workplace.

Boosting dispositional gratitude in others can also be as simple as showing others the positive impact dispositional gratitude has had in one's life. A colleague or leader can model the behavior and benefits of dispositional gratitude by showing others how to react with positive emotion and gratefulness. Moreso, they can also model appropriate ways to express gratitude to and receive gratitude from others in the workplace. Modeling what genuine gratitude looks like is vital as well, as developing harmful gratitude at work can cause damage instead of benefit (Wood et al., 2016).

A final way to boost gratitude is through interventions. Interventions are activities the organization can utilize to boost gratitude, and more information about interventions is offered in the next section.

**Organizations Can Implement Gratitude Interventions.** Given the findings that dispositional gratitude and the receipt of gratitude from students were the only positively statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction, one way to potentially boost gratitude in organizations is to implement gratitude interventions. A gratitude intervention is an exercise utilized to increase feelings of gratitude in a person's life (Locklear et al., 2020). One type of gratitude intervention is writing gratitude lists or journaling (Emmons & McCullough 2003; Otsuka et al., 2012). Emmons and McCullough (2003) completed an intervention study on gratitude where they asked the participants to complete a list of things, they were grateful for each day over 3 weeks instead, and they found that participants experienced higher levels of positive affect during a 2-week period. Similarly, Otsuka et al. (2012) measured gratitude in participants as a pre-intervention baseline, and then they had participants write down five people they were grateful for each week for 4 weeks. After 4 weeks, the authors measured postintervention gratitude and found that, when compared to the baseline gratitude scores, participants had significantly higher gratitude-related feelings (Otsuka et al., 2012). Having employees complete a similar intervention may prove helpful in increasing gratitude and job satisfaction.

Stegen and Wankier (2018) wanted to identify if implementing gratitude in several ways during the academic year would improve job satisfaction through the broaden-and-build theory. After participants completed a survey before the semester started, Stegen and Wankier (2018) implemented gratitude intervention activities including gratitude books to guide group discussions twice each semester, random gratitude recognition at meetings, and a private social media group and gratitude bulletin board created to encourage employees to post gratitude notes to others. Employees completed another survey at the end of the year, and the authors found a

17.9% increase in job satisfaction in the moderately high and high categories for a statistically significant difference of 0.042 in job satisfaction (Stegen & Wankier, 2018). An organization can incorporate a gratitude board where employees can write notes or provide a place for employees to share notes of gratitude. Organizations can also implement interventions such as the book and discussion example Stegen and Wankier (2018) provided to help create an attitude of gratitude among employees.

Emmons and Mishra (2011) noted that a solid gratitude intervention must include an activity that helps one reflect on things for which they are grateful and provides a way for the person to record or express this gratitude. While there are many other intervention ideas, organizations should get creative and find ways to incorporate gratitude that meets the needs of their people.

**Leaders of Organizations Must Create a Culture of Gratitude.** Given the findings that receipt of gratitude from colleagues inversely predicted job satisfaction, or decreased job satisfaction as the receipt of gratitude increased, and the expression of gratitude to students, colleagues, and supervisors were not statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction, leaders should create a culture of gratitude within organizations to boost gratitude. In this dissertation study, the findings revealed that both dispositional gratitude and receipt of gratitude from students were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. The findings also showed a statistically significant inverse relationship between the receipt of gratitude from colleagues and job satisfaction, and no statistical significance between the receipt of gratitude from supervisors and job satisfaction. Finally, the expression of gratitude to students, colleagues, and supervisors were not statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction either. Unfortunately, a lack of gratitude at work can increase negative emotions, which can then discourage teamwork and other

prosocial behaviors (Allen, 2018; Di Fabio et al., 2017; Grant & Gino, 2010; Ma et al., 2017).

Therefore, it is important to create a culture of gratitude for many reasons. Gratitude at work has

been shown to reduce negative effects such as anxiety, stress, and burnout, as well as improve

well-being, physical health, and relationships, among other areas of improvement (Alanoglu &

Karabatak, 2021; Algoe, 2012; Allen, 2018; Cain et al., 2019; Kaplan, 2012; Kardaş & Yalçin,

2021; Kok et al., 2013; Lanham et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2018; Lin, 2016; Starkey et al., 2019;

Wood et al., 2010).

Creating a culture of gratitude allows followers to feel supported and encouraged to

flourish as sincere expressions of gratitude can considerably affect employees (Cameron, 2012;

Dutton, 2014). The organization cannot just bring its people to a neutral point, but instead, must

work towards improving outcomes like job satisfaction (Gino & Staats, 2019; Langer, 2010; Lu

et al., 2018; Mäkikangas & Kinnunen, 2014; Ouweneel et al., 2012; Wandeler et al., 2016). One

important way to create a culture of gratitude is by talking about it within the organization.

Encouraging people to express gratitude to and receive gratitude from others is significant to

building a culture. Simple ways to express gratitude may include showing support, giving

positive feedback, and even occasionally through recognition and appreciation (Kranabetter &

Niessen, 2019).

Organizations can also help educate their employees on the importance of a genuine and

honest expression of gratitude. In this study, one participant noted, "When asked about

'gratitude' I consider a simple 'Thanks!' from a student or other to be a form of gratitude, so

simply being told 'thank you' is probably the most common form of gratitude received." While

gratitude is much deeper than a phrase or form of appreciation, one of the most straightforward

forms of expressing gratitude is through a simple, but authentic, statement of "thank you." Beck (2016) found that most participants preferred spoken words of gratitude over other forms.

Finally, when creating a culture of gratitude, leader buy-in and modeled behavior in any culture are crucial. While this dissertation study found that expressing gratitude to or receiving gratitude from supervisors was not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction, several studies have shown the importance of receiving gratitude from a supervisor (Beck, 2016; McKeon et al., 2020; Ritzenhöfer et al., 2019; Vasquez et al., 2020). By showing and expressing gratitude, leaders can build a culture of gratitude through modeled behavior. Leaders must seek to normalize gratitude at work by modeling behaviors such as expressing gratitude publicly or one-on-one, implementing organizational reward policies, and building thankful relationships in the work culture (Waters, 2012). For the organization to change, leaders must genuinely embrace gratitude within the culture and retreat from the deficit model (Waters, 2012). It is important to note that followers can also model gratitude behavior. If academic advisors, or other employees, know how they best receive gratitude, they can model that behavior as well. Future research can help aid in better understanding these types of applications.

### *Recommendations for Future Research*

To better understand how gratitude at work predicts job satisfaction, more studies are required to examine the relationship between gratitude at work and job satisfaction overall. While there are studies that focus on dispositional gratitude and job satisfaction, few studies concentrate on relational gratitude and job satisfaction. Furthermore, more studies are necessary on gratitude at work and job satisfaction with the academic advisor population, as currently; there is limited research in this area. Recommendations for future research include clarifying

gratitude, broadening the sample of academic advisors, adding additional targets to gratitude studies, and expanding the variables in gratitude research.

**Researchers Should Clarify What They Mean by Gratitude.** While researchers have defined gratitude in many ways, this study embraces a central definition by Emmons and McCullough (2003) as defined in Chapter 2. However, I unfortunately failed to provide a clarification of gratitude to the participants. One participant mentioned that a definition of gratitude would have helped them answer the questions. Future studies should include a definition or clarification of gratitude in the survey to help reduce any confusion or lack of understanding among participants.

**Researchers Should Broaden the Sample of Academic Advisors.** One recommendation for future research is to broaden the sample size of academic advisors. By attaining more surveys, a more comprehensive sample response may provide greater insight. However, NACADA members are just one sub-sample of academic advisors nationwide. Not all academic advisors are NACADA members; therefore, another recommendation is to seek participants outside of NACADA. NACADA membership requires an annual cost that all advisors, or advisor institutions, are willing or able to obtain. Acquiring a more diverse sample size of advisors may ensure results are generalizable or the sample is more representative of the population as compared to NACADA members only. For this dissertation study, it was easier to receive approval to complete research on NACADA members, as almost all NACADA members are specifically academic advisors. While there may be a generalized database somewhere that provides contact information for academic advisors (i.e., not just NACADA members), I did not seek such a list.

**Researchers Should Add Additional Targets of Gratitude in the Study.** One

opportunity for research is to add additional targets of gratitude to the study. Future research

could examine the expression of gratitude to or receipt of gratitude from other coworkers within

the organization. For example, one participant stated, "While I feel that my immediate

supervisor, coworkers, and students demonstrate gratitude for the work the whole team does, I

don't get that same sense from upper administration or faculty." The participant goes on to say,

"An opportunity for future research would be to investigate possible relationships between the

organizational structure of advising and how folks feel gratitude from outside of their immediate

unit/department." Future research could replicate this study while adding faculty, counselors, or

upper administrators to see how gratitude predicts job satisfaction from other levels.

**Researchers Should Expand the Variables in Future Studies.** The results of my study

show there is still over 40% of the variance that is not explained meaning there are other factors

that influence job satisfaction. Several participants mentioned advisor burnout, so another

opportunity for future research could include whether gratitude lessens burnout or how burnout

in academic advisors affects job satisfaction. Burnout is real in academic advising as briefly

discussed in the first two chapters of this dissertation. Sometimes, simple gratitude is not enough,

so future studies could focus on more complex forms of gratitude, appreciation or recognition,

and job satisfaction. In one participant view, they expressed that monetary rewards are more

highly valuable than gratitude. The participant states:

> While I acknowledge that the expression of gratitude contributes greatly to a good work
>
> environment, at my institution, advisor burnout has been caused more by low pay and
>
> large caseloads. We are asked to do too much for too little. This is acknowledged by our
>
> supervisors, who continuously acknowledge this and express gratitude for all we do and

> how well we do it, but the pay remains low. I know of one advisor who has 3 kids and qualifies for (and has to accept) food stamps, because even though she works full-time, the pay is too low to support her family. (Considering all advisors at my institution are required to hold at least a master's degree, this is especially sad.) The median salary of the students we advise (once they graduate) is over $10,000 more than we make advising them. These working conditions are demoralizing, regardless of how much our supervisors and co-workers appreciate us and "express gratitude." This may skew the results of your survey. (participant quote)

While this participant's opinion helps explain why I chose the topic and population I did for this dissertation study, it also offers more insight into potential future research areas.

**Researchers Should Include Additional Designs.** This study was a quantitative-only design, so future studies could also utilize a mixed methods design to examine dispositional gratitude at work, relational gratitude at work, and job satisfaction. I offered a general comments section for participants, but after reviewing the comments, I believe it would be beneficial to future research to employ a qualitative aspect of a similar study. Interviewing participants, in addition to the survey, may provide additional significant information and depth to this study. Interviews can be conducted with individuals or in focus groups (Price et al., 2017). Price et al. (2017) argued that qualitative research can assist in the clarification of quantitative results through triangulation. Using a mixed methods design could potentially strengthen the study as using both quantitative and qualitative research can better help us understand human behavior (Price et al., 2017). Furthermore, future studies could include longitudinal design. Longitudinal research studies variables and individuals over a period, unlike a cross-sectional study that collects data at one point in time (Caruana et al., 2015). Additionally, longitudinal studies allow

researchers to analyze change over time for either individuals or the group as a whole (Caruana et al., 2015).

**Researchers Should Change Potentially Exclusive Language Before Collecting Data.**

One participant noted how gender-specific the survey questions were written. Most of the surveys utilized in this dissertation study were written more than a decade or 2 ago, so the statements are he/she specific. It is important that all people feel comfortable completing the survey(s), so future researchers can change potentially exclusive language like he/she to "they/them" pronouns to encompass all gender categories. I recommend if the surveys are utilized in a similar or replicated study that permission to change any specific gender references in the survey(s) to "they/them" is granted from the survey author.

## Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predicted job satisfaction in academic advisors. One research question with corresponding hypotheses was developed to guide the methodology. The results yielded that the overall regression model was statistically significant explaining 56.8% variance of job satisfaction. More specifically, both dispositional gratitude and receipt of gratitude from students were a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction. Additionally, the results revealed the significance of gratitude at work on job satisfaction in academic advisors.

To date, no studies have examined how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude at work, and receipt of gratitude at work predict job satisfaction in academic advisors. Additionally, limited studies have focused on relational gratitude at work and job satisfaction. Even more, no study has measured dispositional gratitude (i.e., as measured by the GQ-6) or

relational gratitude (i.e., as measured by the AIR scale) with the "at work" modifications approved by the authors. It is crucial to organizational success for leaders to understand the connections between gratitude and job satisfaction at work, especially in an academic advisor role.

To conclude, this study provided a quantitative correlational study aiming to understand how dispositional gratitude at work, expression of gratitude to students, receipt of gratitude from students, expression of gratitude to colleagues, receipt of gratitude from colleagues, expression of gratitude to supervisors, and receipt of gratitude from supervisors predict job satisfaction among academic advisors. The dissertation study accomplished its objective by finding an overall statistical significance in gratitude at work to job satisfaction. This chapter discussed the findings of the study in terms of connection to past literature, contribution to current literature, study limitations, recommendations for application, and recommendations for future research. Finally, this chapter concluded with the significance of gratitude at work on job satisfaction in academic advisors and the impact it can have on leaders and organizations.

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**Appendix A: Survey Email Invitation**

You are invited to participate in an online survey on job satisfaction and gratitude at work among academic advisors. The aim of this study is to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and dispositional gratitude at work, receipt of gratitude at work, and expression of gratitude at work.

To qualify as a study participant, you must have worked as a full-time academic advisor for a minimum of 6 months at your current institution, be at least 18 years of age, and a U.S. resident. If you meet the above criteria and want to participate, please click on the link below to confirm eligibility and begin the survey. The survey also includes personal demographics and professional/institutional demographics, and it should take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. No identifiable information is collected in the demographic questions, and no IP addressed are collected at all. Responses will remain anonymous and kept confidential and will only be shared as part of aggregate data to support this dissertation.

<Qualtrics Link Here>

You may exit the survey at any time for any reason. You must clock submit/next to submit your responses. If any questions arise, please email me at xxxxxxxx@acu.edu.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

# Appendix B: Informed Consent

**Consent Form**
Please review, then scroll to the bottom to select the appropriate response.

**Research Title: The Impact of Gratitude on Academic Advisor Job Satisfaction**

You may be able to take part in a research study. This form provides important information about that study, including the risks and benefits to you as a potential participant. Please read this form carefully. You may also wish to discuss your participation with other people, such as your family doctor or a family member.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or stop your participation at any time and for any reason without any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

To qualify for this study, you must meet the following criteria:
• You must be a full-time employee at a regionally accredited higher education institution within the United States and have worked there for at least six months.
• You hold the title of Academic Advisor.
• You are 18 years of age or older.

**PURPOSE AND DESCRIPTION:** The purpose of this study is to learn more about academic advisor job satisfaction and gratitude, including receiving and expressing gratitude. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete an anonymous electronic survey.

**RISKS & BENEFITS:** There are minimal risks to taking part in this research study. Below is a list of the foreseeable risks. The risks are minimal and unlikely:

• While unlikely, it is possible for you to experience some emotional discomfort while taking the survey. The risk is minimal, though, as the survey focuses on your level of gratitude and satisfaction.
• If you feel any discomfort at any point, you are free to skip questions or end the survey at any time.
• All studies carry the risk of Breach of Confidentiality.

Although you may not experience any direct personal benefits from participating in this study, you may benefit indirectly by knowing you will help us better understand gratitude and job satisfaction. You may stop the survey at any time.

**PRIVACY & CONFIDENTIALITY:** Your participation in this survey will be confidential to the extent allowable by law. Your personal identity is not requested or recorded, and the survey is anonymous. Responses are anonymized by Qualtrics before the researchers receive them, and because it is anonymized, your IP address will not be collected or recorded. Qualtrics also encrypts all data coming in and uses a firewall system monitored 24/7 by security personnel that is designed to prevent others from accessing your survey. You may read more about the security of the survey here: https://www.qualtrics.com/security/ .

**CONTACTS:** If you have questions about the research study, the lead researcher is Alex Widener, EdD Doctoral Candidate at Abilene Christian University, and may be contacted at amw18b@acu.edu. If you are unable to reach the lead researcher or wish to speak to someone other than the lead researcher, you may contact Dr. Kristin O'Byrne, Associate Professor of Organizational Leadership, Abilene Christian University at kko16a@acu.edu. If you have concerns about this study, believe you may have been injured because of this study, or have general questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact ACU's Chair of the Institutional Review Board and Executive Director of Research,

Qi Hang, Executive Director of Research
qxh22@acu.edu

**Additional Information**
If you are located in the state of California, you may review your rights under the California Consumer Privacy Act.

**Consent Signature Section**
Please click the button below if you voluntarily agree to participate in this study. Click only after you have read all of the information provided and your questions have been answered to your satisfaction. If you wish to have a copy of this consent form, you may print it now. You do not waive any legal rights by consenting to this study.

○ Yes, I consent
○ No, I do not consent

**Appendix C: Inclusionary Criteria**

To confirm your eligibility in this survey, please respond to the following statements:

I confirm that I am a full-time employee at a regionally accredited higher education institution within the United States for at least 6 months.
o   Yes
o   No

I confirm I hold the title of Academic Advisor.
o   Yes
o   No

I confirm I am 18 years of age or older.
o   Yes
o   No

# Appendix D: Demographic Questions

**Q9**

Please select the category of your institution.

○ Public Entity
○ Private For-Profit Entity
○ Private Not-For-Profit Entity

**Q10**

Please select the highest degree awarded within your institution.

○ Associate's or Technical
○ Bachelor's
○ Master's
○ Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., J.D., D.C., etc.)

**Q11**

Please select the category that best defines your institution's student population for all enrollments.

○ fewer than 3,000 students
○ 3,000-10,000 students
○ more than 10,000 students

**Q12**

Please select the category that best describes the number of advisees you serve.

○ Under 50 students
○ 51-100 students
○ 101-150 students
○ 151-200 students
○ Over 200 students

**Q13**

Do you use the following methods to work with your advisees?

|  | Yes | No |
| --- | --- | --- |
| In-person | ○ | ○ |
| Zoom (or other video conferencing) | ○ | ○ |
| Phone | ○ | ○ |
| Email | ○ | ○ |

**Q14**

Please indicate the primary method you use to work with your advisees (only select one).

○ In-person
○ Zoom (or other video conferencing)
○ Phone
○ Email

**Q15**

Do you work with advisees seeking the following degrees?

|  | Yes | No |
|---|---|---|
| Associate's or Technical | ○ | ○ |
| Bachelor's | ○ | ○ |
| Master's | ○ | ○ |
| Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., J.D., D.C., etc.) | ○ | ○ |

**Q16**

Please indicate the primary degree sought by your advisees (only select one).

○ Associate's or Technical

○ Bachelor's

○ Master's

○ Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., J.D., D.C., etc.)

Page Break

**Q17**

Please select the length of time you have been advising at your current institution.

○ 6 months to 1 year

○ 1 to 5 years

○ 6 to 10 years

○ 11 to 20 years

○ Over 20 years

**Q18**

Please select your age range.

○ 18-29 years of age

○ 30-39 years of age

○ 40-49 years of age

○ 50-59 years of age

○ 60-69 years of age

○ 70 years of age or over

○ I do not prefer to disclose my age range

**Q19**

Please identify your gender category (select all that apply).

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Non-binary
- ☐ Transgender
- ☐ Gender Non-conforming
- ☐ Other
  _____
- ☐ I do not prefer to disclose my gender catagory

**Q20**

Please identify your ethnicity (select all that apply).

- ☐ American Indian or Alaskan Native
- ☐ Asian/American
- ☐ Black/African American
- ☐ Hispanic/Latino/Latina or Spanish Origin
- ☐ Middle Eastern or North African (MENA)
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ White
- ☐ Other
  _____
- ☐ I do not prefer to disclose my ethnicity

**Q21**

General Comments (questions, comments, or anything you want to share that wasn't asked)

_____

**Appendix E: Survey Questions**

## OJS

Q1

Please rate the following statements based on how you feel about your current job.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Most days I am enthusiastic about my work. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Each day of work seems like it will never end. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I find real enjoyment in my work. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I consider my job rather unpleasant. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

[1]

## GQ-6

Q2

Please rate the following statements based on your general feelings of gratitude at work.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I have so much at work to be thankful for. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| If I had to list everything that I felt grateful for at work, it would be a very long list. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| When I look at my workplace, I don't see much to be grateful for. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I am grateful to a wide variety of people at work. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| As I get older I find myself more able to appreciate the people, events, and situations that have been part of my work history. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Long amounts of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone at work. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

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[1] Adapted from "Dispositional Effects on Job and Life Satisfaction: The Role of Core Evaluations," by T. A. Judge, E. A. Locke, C. C. Durham, and A. N. Kluger, 1998, *American Psychological Association, 83,* Article 1. Copyright 1998 by the American Psychological Association.

# AIR Supervisor

Q3

Please rate the following statements while thinking about your immediate supervisor/boss.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I tell my supervisor/boss often that s/he is the best. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I often tell my supervisor/boss how much I appreciate her/him. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| At times I take my supervisor/boss for granted. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I appreciate my supervisor/boss. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Sometimes I don't really acknowledge or treat my supervisor/boss like s/he is someone special. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I make sure my supervisor/boss feels appreciated. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My supervisor/boss sometimes says that I fail to notice the nice things that s/he does for me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I acknowledge the things that my supervisor/boss does for me, even the really small things. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

---------- Page Break ----------

Q3

Please continue to rate the following statements while thinking about your immediate supervisor/boss.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I am sometimes struck with a sense of awe and wonder when I think about my supervisor/boss being in my life. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My supervisor/boss makes sure I feel appreciated. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| When I am with my supervisor/boss, sometimes s/he will look at me excitedly and tell me how much s/he appreciates me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My supervisor/boss often tells me the things that s/he really likes about me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| At times my supervisor/boss takes me for granted. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My supervisor/boss often expresses her/his thanks when I do something nice, even if it's really small. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My supervisor/boss doesn't notice when I do nice things for her/him. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My supervisor/boss makes me feel special. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

## AIR Colleagues

Q4

Please rate the following statements while thinking about your current coworkers.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I tell my coworkers often that they are the best. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I often tell my coworkers how much I appreciate them. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| At times I take my coworkers for granted. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I appreciate my coworkers. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Sometimes I don't really acknowledge or treat my coworkers like they are someone special. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I make sure my coworkers feel appreciated. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My coworkers sometimes say that I fail to notice the nice things that they do for me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I acknowledge the things that my coworkers do for me, even the really small things. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

······ Page Break ······

Q29

Please continue to rate the following statements while thinking about your current coworkers.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I am sometimes struck with a sense of awe and wonder when I think about my coworkers being in my life. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My coworkers makes sure I feel appreciated. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| When I am with my coworkers, sometimes they will look at me excitedly and tell me how much they appreciates me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My coworkers often tell me the things that they really like about me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| At times my coworkers take me for granted. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My coworkers often express their thanks when I do something nice, even if it's really small. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My coworkers don't notice when I do nice things for them. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My coworkers make me feel special. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

## AIR Students

**Q5**

Please rate the following statements while thinking about your current advisees/students.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I tell my advisees/students often that they are the best. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I often tell my advisees/students how much I appreciate them. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| At times I take my advisees/students for granted. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I appreciate my advisees/students. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Sometimes I don't really acknowledge or treat my advisees/students like they are someone special. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I make sure my advisees/students feel appreciated. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My advisees/students sometimes say that I fail to notice the nice things that they do for me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| I acknowledge the things that my advisees/students do for me, even the really small things. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

---------- Page Break ----------

**Q30**

Please continue to rate the following statements while thinking about your current advisees/students.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neutral | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I am sometimes struck with a sense of awe and wonder when I think about my advisees/students being in my life. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My advisees/students makes sure I feel appreciated. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| When I am with my advisees/students, sometimes they will look at me excitedly and tell me how much they appreciates me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My advisees/students often tell me the things that they really like about me. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| At times my advisees/students take me for granted. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My advisees/students often express their thanks when I do something nice, even if it's really small. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My advisees/students don't notice when I do nice things for them. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| My advisees/students make me feel special. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

## Descriptive Questions

**Q6**

How often do you express gratitude to the following:

| | One or more times a day | Several times a week | At least once a month | A couple times a year | Once a year | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Your supervisor/boss | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Your coworkers | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Your advisees/students | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

**Q7**

How often do you receive gratitude from the following:

| | One or more times a day | Several times a week | At least once a month | A couple times a year | Once a year | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Your supervisor/boss | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Your coworkers | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Your advisees/students | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

**Q8**

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I feel appreciated at work. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| If my supervisor/boss were more grateful or showed more appreciation for my work, I would want to work harder. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

**Appendix F: Permission to Use and Alter the Gratitude Questionnaire-6**

**myACU** powered by Google                           Alex Widener ████

**GQ-6 Permission**

**Michael Mccullough** ████████                  Fri, May 6, 2022 at 10:55 AM
To: Alex Widener ████████

Hi Alex! Thanks for this.

You are very welcome to use the questionnaire in your work. Feel free to make whatever modifications you think best.

Good luck in your work!

All best wishes,

Mike

Michael McCullough

> On May 6, 2022, at 9:16 AM, Alex Widener ████████ wrote:
>
>
[Quoted text hidden]


**myACU** powered by Google                           Alex Widener ████

**GQ-6 Permission**

**Alex Widener** ████████                          Fri, May 6, 2022 at 8:16 AM
To: ████████

Hello Dr. McCullough,

My name is Alex, and I am a doctoral student at ACU.

For my dissertation, I am looking at how various forms of gratitude predict job satisfaction in academic advisors.

I am requesting permission to use the GQ-6 in my study, and asking if I may modify it to say "at work" - Is that okay?  If not, do you have a recommendation on how to incorporate "at work" into your scale?

Your work on gratitude has been a tremendous benefit to my study! I look forward to hearing from you soon.

I am also happy to share my data once the research is complete if you'd like.

Thank you,
Alex Widener (she/her)

**Appendix G: Permission to Use the Appreciation in Relationships Scale**

---

**myACU** powered by Google

Alex Widener ███████████

**Fwd: permission for AIR**

**Amie Gordon** ███████████          Mon, Mar 21, 2022 at 8:49 AM
To: Alex Widener ███████████
Cc: Jordan Tate ████

You are both welcome to adapt the scale however you see fit! It would be great to have a version that works in an organizational context - I have always thought that gratitude at work would have a similar function to gratitude in close relationships in terms of promoting loyalty/job maintenance/job satisfaction etc.

And the item you mentioned (Below) actually was one of the highest loading items when I did a factor analysis on two different samples. I just didn't include it in my prior email since it didn't seem appropriate, but you are right, I think if you remove "look at me excitedly and" then the item would work fine! I also think if you have the room to include more items, there are others that would work well and that you could adapt as needed for a work context! (I also use "they" instead of he/she these days since it is a bit less clunky and more gender-neutral).

When I am with my partner, sometimes he/she will look at me excitedly and tell me how much he/she appreciates me.

Best of luck!
Amie
[Quoted text hidden]
--
Amie M. Gordon
Assistant Professor
Department of Psychology
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Ann Arbor, MI 48109

Well-being, Health, and Interpersonal Relationships Lab (WHIRLab website)
Lab Manager: Maria Luciani ███████████

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Alex Widener ███████████

**Fwd: permission for AIR**

**Alex Widener** ███████████          Mon, Mar 21, 2022 at 8:12 AM
To: Jordan Tate ███████████

Hi Amie,

I am also working on my dissertation about gratitude at work. My study is very similar to Jordan's, just with a different population. Would it be okay if I also use these questions in the same context as Jordan?

I often tell my partner how much I appreciate him/her.

I make sure my partner feels appreciated.

Appreciated:
When I am with my partner, sometimes he/she will look at me excitedly and tell me how much he/she appreciates me.
-This first one seems like it may not be appropriate for a work context
My partner makes sure I feel appreciated.
My partner makes me feel special.

I think it is also important to include a reverse-scored item for each, so we used:
"I often take my partner for granted" and "My partner often takes me for granted"

We are curious if you think "When I am with my partner, sometimes he/she will look at me excitedly and tell me how much he/she appreciates me" would be work appropriate if we remove the "excitedly" from the statement? We are looking for receipt of gratitude questions, and we feel this is a great question to gauge that between leader/follower, peer to peer, etc. in the workplace. Please let me know what you think!

Thank you so much,
Alex Widener
[Quoted text hidden]

**Appendix H: Permission to Alter the Appreciation in Relationships Scale**

**myACU** powered by Google                                      Alex Widener ████████████

**Fwd: permission for AIR**

Amie Gordon ████████████                                  Thu, Mar 31, 2022 at 7:13 AM
To: Alex Widener ████████████

I think that you can adapt it in whatever way makes sense to you and seems to read well/be face valid!
[Quoted text hidden]

**myACU** powered by Google                                      Alex Widener ████████████

**Fwd: permission for AIR**

Alex Widener ████████████                                  Tue, Mar 29, 2022 at 6:03 PM
To: Amie Gordon ████████████

Hi Amie,

I have one more question. Can this scale be used with a non-specific person(s)? For example, we can easily use "supervisor" in place of "partner" for a dyad relationship. However, how do you feel about adding a group of people - like "colleagues" or "team"? Thoughts?

Thank you,
Alex
[Quoted text hidden]

# Appendix I: ACU IRB Approval

Date: February 9, 2023

PI: Alexandria Widener

Department: ONL-Online Student, 17260-EdD Online

Re: Initial - IRB-2023-26

*The Impact of Gratitude on Academic Advisor Job Satisfaction*

The Abilene Christian University Institutional Review Board has rendered the decision below for *The Impact of Gratitude on Academic Advisor Job Satisfaction.* The administrative check-in date is --.

Decision: Exempt

Category:

Research Notes:

Additional Approvals/Instructions: In my opinion, this study meets criteria to be considered exempt from IRB oversight. Data to be collected does not potentially put participants at risk for legal or occupational harm and there is no intervention. Informed Consent covers required parameters.

If at any time the details of this project change, please resubmit to the IRB so the committee can determine whether or not the exempt status is still applicable. All approval letters and study documents are located within the Study Details in Cayuse IRB.

The following are all responsibilities of the Primary Investigator (PI). Violation of these responsibilities may result in suspension or termination of research by the Institutional Review Board. If the Primary Investigator is a student and fails to fulfil any of these responsibilities, the Faculty Advisor then becomes responsible for completing or upholding any and all of the following:

• When the research is completed, inform the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs. If your study is Exempt, Non-Research, or Non-Human Research, email orsp@acu.edu to indicate that the research has finished.
• According to ACU policy, research data must be stored on ACU campus (or electronically) for 3 years from inactivation of the study, in a manner that is secure but accessible should the IRB request access.
• It is the Investigator's responsibility to maintain a general environment of safety for all research participants and all members of the research team. All risks to physical, mental, and emotional well-being as well as any risks to confidentiality should be minimized.

For additional information on the policies and procedures above, please visit the IRB website
http://www.acu.edu/community/offices/academic/orsp...

or email orsp@acu.edu with your questions.

Sincerely,

Abilene Christian University Institutional Review Board

**Appendix J: NACADA IRB Approval**

**NACADA Research Proposal**

Elisa Shaffer
To: Alex Widener
Cc: Michele Holaday

Mon, Apr 24, 2023 at 10:37 AM

Hi Alex,

Good news, right after I sent the previous email to you, I was able to get a hold of the sub-committee chair. They were completing their information to send back to me with an approval response to move forward with your survey.

As noted in the Guidelines at https://nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Research-Support/Member-Surveys/SurveyGuidelines.aspx, all approved surveys must be carried out within eight months of approval, so your deadline for having it out is 12/24/2023.

*I have cc'd Michele Holaday, who will assist you by preparing the list of emails for current NACADA members as defined in your proposal.*

Although the survey must be issued through your institution's survey distribution system (since that is where the IRB was issued and also allows you to retain ownership of the data), Michele can assist you by either sending you the list of email addresses to utilize within your system (or she can send your email out via the NACADA system). In either case, the email should include the following elements:

- Opening explanation (example: You are invited to participate in a research study on _____, reviewed and approved by the NACADA Research Committee and sponsored by <your institution>. The survey is being conducted by <your name>. The purpose of the study is _____.)
- Information about the survey procedure (example: If you agree to participate, you will be asked to respond to a web-based survey taking roughly _____ minutes. Participation is voluntary and there are no penalties for not participating in the research.)
- Privacy information and consent statement.
- Contact information (example: If you have any questions about the content of the survey, please contact <your name> at _____. If you have any technical questions about the survey instrument, please contact _____.)
- Link to the survey.

Attached you will find a document entitled *"Template-Sample Survey email"* that may further assist you with crafting your email.

Please note that this email list is to be utilized only for distribution and reminder messages for this survey. Contact Michele with questions about member numbers or emails at

Finally, NACADA Research Committee reviewed and approved surveys are selected because they are believed to have the best chance of adding meaningful research to the literature base of our field. As such, we highly encourage researchers to submit a manuscript based on their research for consideration by the *NACADA Journal*. Find *NACADA Journal* publication guidelines at http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Journal/Publication-Guidelines.aspx and *NACADA Review* guidelines at https://nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/NACADA-Review/For-Authors.aspx

Again, congratulations. Good luck with your research. Please let me know if you need anything else now or in the future.

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