

Job Satisfaction: A Study of the Relationship between Right-To-Work Policy and Public School Teachers' Perceptions

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The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between state unionization policy and teacher job satisfaction in the K-12 public school environment in the states of Florida and New York (i.e., a right-to-work state and a non-right-to-work state). Data were collected via electronic survey to analyze personal demographics, human capital, workload, state union policy and job satisfaction information. A mixed effects multiple regression analysis found right-to-Work laws were statistically significant for overall job satisfaction and the job satisfaction facets of work and pay. Via study it was concluded that right-to-work laws had a negative impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Unionization in America

Right-to-work (RTW) Laws were put into effect in 1947 with the passing of the Taft Hartley Act which granted states the power to enact regulations outlawing contractual provisions requiring new employees join unions (i.e., union shop) (Ellwood & Fine, 1987). In addition, the Taft Harley Act outlawed *closed shop* requirements, demanding that workers be union members before they were hired. In sum, states who operated under RTW legislation believed that “no person [should] be required to become a union member or, conversely, be required to abstain from union membership as a condition of obtaining or retaining employment” (Lumsden & Petersen, 1975, p. 1237).

Moore (1998) provided two explanations for the passage of the RTW laws. The first hypothesis indicated these laws were created as an effort to enhance the attractiveness of the state’s labor force to new businesses and to promote a faster economic growth rate (Palomba & Palomba, 1971). Moore’s second hypothesis was that states with low economic development were subjected to pressure by employers to adopt RTW laws unless unions were able to counter the political pressure. Ultimately, Moore (1998) deduced that employers advocate for RTW legislation in order to slow the growth rate and labor union control over the workforce.

From historical maps pertaining to RTW states, high populations of states that have adopted RTW laws were located in the Southeastern Region of the United States; however, the political trend is shifting to the Northern and Midwestern Regions with the additions of Michigan (2012), Indiana (2012), Wisconsin (2015), West Virginia (2016), Missouri (2017), and Kentucky (2017) (Right-To-Work Resources, 2017). Moore (1998) also indicated that poorer states—as defined by economic development, wages, or income—were more likely to adopt RTW laws. The researcher eluded that these particular states were ideally in need of further industrialization.

The most abundant growth in RTW legislation approvals took place during the 1940s and early 1950s shortly after the passing of the aforementioned 1947 Taft-Harley Act. The Taft-Hartley Act was as a necessary amendment to the 1935 National Labor Relations Act (i.e., Wagner Act), which allowed unions to require universal membership or closed shop. In addition, it is important to note that this period of heavy RTW legislation approval also took place shortly after the end of the Great Depression. Using past economic trends and Moore’s suggestion concerning the potency of RTW legislation after a period of economic decline, it may be reasonable to infer that the increase in RTW laws in northern and Midwestern states were influenced by economic resurgence in a post-Great Recession economy.

Vedder (2010), in support of RTW laws, asserted that in some situations labor unions use their influential power to extract agreements where the current marginal labor costs to employers exceed the marginal revenue associated with labor and ultimately, cost employers money. For this reason, one may justify employers’ advocacy for RTW legislation. Nonetheless, from an employee perspective, average pay levels in non-RTW states are over 20% higher than RTW states and is corroborated by Mishel’s (2001) study specifying the mean effect of working in RTW states result in a 4% deduction after controlling for regional cost of living.

At the expense of higher salaries and generous benefits, capital formation and entrepreneurial initiatives in non-RTW states are suppressed by union laws that affect employer output growth (Vedder, 2010). The researcher also explains how past negotiations concerning wages and benefits not only affected small businesses, but also how collective bargaining contributed to the bankruptcy of iconic industrial companies in the motor industry. Although, on the surface RTW laws do not have substantive positive impact on the individual employee as

compared to non-RTW states, researchers have heavily addressed the impact of RTW laws on the economy at large (Hicks, 2012; Newman, 1983; Vedder, 2010)

When studied more closely, Hicks and LaFaive (2013) found that RTW legislation had a minimal effect on population, income, and employment prior to 1970. However, from 1971 through 1990, the researchers reported RTW laws boosted average employment and real personal income annual growth by 0.9 percentage points and population growth by 1.3 percentage points. Similarly, from 1991 through 2011 the areas of annual growth rates, personal income, and population growth all rendered significant findings. Results indicated the average annual growth rates for employment increased by 0.4 percentage points, personal income increased by 0.7 percentage points, and population increased by 0.6 percentage points (Hicks & LaFaive, 2013).

When controlling for state real economic growth, region, year, and exogenous regressors (i.e., factors influencing a state's economic conditions and attitudes towards business), Stevans's (2009) findings provided further insight into the issue of RTW laws and their impact on the economy on both macro and micro levels. The results to this study concluded that RTW laws: 1) had no influence on employment, 2) is associated with a decrease in per-capita personal income and wages, 3) is associated with an increase in proprietors' income, and 4) had no effect on economic growth. When removing the endogeneity control, the researcher's findings differed indicating the importance of including this component. Without the endogeneity factor, employment rates were higher in RTW states than non-RTW, per capita income was lower in RTW states as compared to non-RTW states, no statistical difference was found in average wages, average proprietors' income was higher in RTW states relative to non-RTW states, and no statistical difference was found in average real state GDP growth rates.

Right-to-Work Laws and Job Satisfaction

The economic components associated with RTW states and non-RTW states are far from conclusive; however, the findings do support the theme that states operating under RTW laws are more *business friendly*, while states not operating under RTW law are more *employee friendly* (Stevans, 2009). Although the economic outcomes of these legislatures are vital to industry and the sustainability of a productive workforce, industrial-organizational psychology components--in this case employee job satisfaction—can impact the economy as well through employee industrial productivity and organizational outcomes. Job satisfaction alone has been linked to absenteeism, turnover, and job performance (Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004; Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes, & Dick, 2007), each potentially having adverse effects on company sustainability.

Labor unions essentially seek to improve workers' wages, increase job security, enhance working conditions, and provide employee grievance procedures through collective bargaining agreements (Hipp & Givan, 2015). The aforementioned efforts suggest labor unions are advocates for employers, yet, research recognizes that labor unions have a negative impact on the job satisfaction of union members (Freeman & Medoff, 1984; Garcia-Serrano, 2009; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Schwochau, 1987). Hipp and Givan (2015) explained the counter intuitiveness of the labor union/job satisfaction paradox by alluding that labor union members are not necessarily more dissatisfied with their jobs than nonunion members, instead, their ability to complain without fear of potential discrimination enables their dissatisfaction with their job to appear more potent. These findings are important not only because non-RTW states are expected to have

significantly more union members than RTW states (Gius, 2013), but the negative job satisfaction findings of union members may provide further indications of a need for universal RTW legislation.

In addition to the explanation provided by Hipp and Givan (2015), other hypotheses have been developed to explain the inverse relationship of the labor union/job satisfaction paradox. Freeman and Medoff (1984) purported the relationship to be the result of union members' tendencies to work in unpleasant, unsafe, and low paying jobs, while Hammer and Avgar (2005) expressed in their review of literature that labor unions increase its members' employment expectations to unrealistic levels. Ultimately, in their pursuit to find work related problems to collectively bargain, labor unions bring focus to negative aspects of the work environment, which inadvertently triggers its members to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

Research from Eaton, Gordon, and Keefe (1992) as well as Gordon, Beauvais, and Ladd (1984) found a relationship between union satisfaction and job satisfaction of workers. Their respective studies indicated that those who were satisfied with their jobs were more inclined to be satisfied with their union. This relationship suggests it may not be in the best interest of labor unions to heighten the awareness of the dissatisfying elements of the work environment because workers may hold the union liable for the corresponding issues (Gordon & Denisi, 1995).

Another explanation of the unionization-job satisfaction paradox is found in the work of Bryson, Cappellari, and Lucifora (2004), positing that workers who are dissatisfied with their job are more likely to join a union and engage in union activities. This example removes labor unions as the cause of the of employer's dissatisfaction and instead, labor unions create a haven for dissatisfied employers to express their grievances. As such, work communities with high levels of employee dissatisfaction become ideal locations for formal organization and the benefits of unionization are greater (Bryson et al., 2004).

The unionization and job satisfaction paradox has been studied throughout numerous occupational settings; however, few have researched these variables in the education field. Gius (2013) is the only researcher at this time to have studied the impact of labor unions on job satisfaction in education. The researcher found no significant relationship between teacher union status and job satisfaction when using 2007 national data. The findings are analogous to the findings of his 2012 study that utilized the same data source (Gius, 2012). This study is similar to the work of Guis (2013), however differs by using a 72-item instrument that assesses all facets of job satisfaction (i.e., work itself, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers) and is validated through psychometric testing. In addition, this study differs by controlling for school level unit-specific heterogeneity as a random effect, as opposed to district level. Considering this topic, in this particular occupational setting, is extremely limited, further research using a variety of instruments, populations, and analyses is warranted.

School Characteristics Effecting Teacher Job Satisfaction

When reviewing the effects of RTW laws on teacher job satisfaction, it is necessary to understand the pre-existing environmental constructs influencing teacher satisfaction in the absence of labor unions. Prior knowledge of these constructs in conjunction with the job satisfaction trends of teachers can better identify potential influences of teacher dissatisfaction. Understanding of these components may also provide context to how labor unions can categorically influence the job satisfaction of teachers positively or negatively.

Ma and MacMillan (1999) identified three specific areas that affect job satisfaction in the teaching profession: (a) teachers' feeling of competence or ability to do the work, (b) administrative control, and (c) organizational culture. Teachers display competence by having knowledge of their subject areas, having access to effective and current instructional strategies, and having the ability to use their content knowledge conjointly with instructional strategies to assist students in meeting the standards associated with their course (Ma & MacMillan, 1999). This supports the similar finding of work stress (a common cause of dissatisfaction) due to cognitive demand, deficiencies in ability, and inadequate resources (Ganzach, 1998; Schaubroeck & Ganster, 1993; Xie & Johns, 1995).

Although teachers spend countless hours within their classrooms with students, school leadership and administrative practices are just as impactful on teacher job satisfaction (Ma & MacMillan, 1999). School administrators are also crucial to the school's learning environment and can be viewed as essential components of school culture. As such, their behaviors and practices can foster either a positive or a negative environment (Davis & Wilson, 2000). By having the ability to assign teacher responsibilities outside of their teaching duties (i.e., extracurricular activities, excessive paperwork, student monitoring) job dissatisfaction may occur because of feelings that the required work responsibilities are non-significant contributors to student achievement and/or outside of the realm of their job description (Ma & MacMillan, 1999). To avoid administrative related teacher job dissatisfaction and the associated effects of job dissatisfaction (i.e., turnover, departure from the profession) (Albert & Levine, 1988), it is suggested that teachers must perceive that the tasks enforced by administrators are both meaningful and apply to the technical core of the school (i.e., teaching and learning) (Ma & MacMillan, 1999).

Finally, organizational culture or teachers' ability to view themselves as an active contributor to the school is a salient feature in determining one's level of satisfaction (Ma & MacMillan, 1999). Organizational culture can be defined as the level of collegiality displayed within an organization in which teachers share positive attitudes and collaborate to enhance students learning (Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Stearns, Banerjee, Mickelson, & Moller, 2014). By its very nature, a collective pedagogical culture should remedy issues of isolation and assist teachers in resolving issues pertaining to teaching practices and professional competence that could lead to job dissatisfaction (Stearns et al., 2014). The components addressed by Ma and Macmillan (i.e., teachers feeling of self, administrative views, and feelings toward organizational) are all captured within the instrument utilized in this study.

Theoretical Framework

For theoretical framing, this study employs the *Bargaining Power Hypothesis* of Moore and Newman (1985). This theory hypothesizes that RTW laws directly weaken the bargaining power of labor unions by limiting the union's ability to require universal membership under the "union shop" clause. In doing so, the union's ability to collectively bargain is diminished because of the combination of: 1) reduced worker attraction to the union, and 2) loss of position because of the reduction in member support. Due to the weakened bargaining power, the expected benefits attributed to union membership are lower than one would find in a non-RTW state. Moore and Newman eluded that the elimination of RTW laws would increase the bargaining power of the union and increase the expected benefits to union workers.

Considering the measureable determinants of job satisfaction (e.g., work environment, pay, promotion, supervision) and their close alignment with areas unions collectively bargain, labor unions in principle serve as champions for employee satisfaction. The *Bargaining Power Hypothesis* indicated that RTW laws prevent labor unions from adequately bargaining for its members and, as a result, members do not receive the expected benefits. In an educational setting, this theory suggests that due to RTW laws restrictions on labor unions, teachers represented by a labor union in a RTW state are less likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction than teachers represented by a union in a non-RTW state.

Purpose and Significance

The broad purpose of this study is to increase the body of literature concerning labor union policies and its impact on employees. Specifically, this study addresses the relationship between right-to-work laws and teacher job satisfaction in addition to the relationship between right-to-work laws and teacher perceptions of work as it relates to each job satisfaction facets. This study is significant because within recent years, state politicians have enacted policies enabling their respective states to adopt RTW laws, yet the effects of RTW policy is lacking contemporary empirical research. Although there is dated research addressing the effects of RTW policy, few evaluate the job satisfaction of labor union policy (i.e., right-to-work vs. non- right-to-work). This study differs from past studies in similar settings by utilizing teacher survey data and analyzing their job satisfaction with a robust instrument deemed reliable and sufficient in measuring job satisfaction from past research. Ultimately, educational leaders, labor unions, and policymakers are provided empirical evidence concerning the impact of RTW legislation and teacher job satisfaction when isolating the K-12 public school teaching workforce within multiple school districts across two distinct, comparable states. The following research questions guide this study:

1. Does state labor union policy influence the overall job satisfaction of public, K-12 teachers?
2. Does state labor union policy influence public, K-12 teachers' perceptions of the job satisfaction facets (i.e., pay, work, supervision, coworkers, supervision, and promotion)?

Methodology

The population is drawn from all public education teachers employed in the RTW state of Florida and the non-RTW state of New York during the 2016-2017 academic year. In addition, data from the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE) and the New York State Department of Education (NYSDOE) was obtained to identify schools to be randomly sampled. To retrieve the participants' contact information, the FLDOE, NYSDOE, and school websites were utilized.

The states of Florida and New York were chosen to isolate the different labor policies (i.e., non-RTW and RTW legislation) for the purpose of comparison. Florida was selected because it operates as a RTW state where collective bargaining is allowed but not mandatory, and employees are not required to join a labor union or receive the associated representation provided by the union. In comparison, New York was chosen because it operates as a unionized state with no RTW laws; therefore, all teachers are provided collective bargaining benefits including, but not limited to, salary negotiations, fringe benefit negotiations, working conditions,

and employee grievance procedures (Hipp & Givan, 2015). For this particular study, Florida and New York, respectively, serve as proxies for RTW and non-RTW work environments.

Procedures

Each participant was provided an electronic survey to identify personnel characteristics and job satisfaction information. Each teacher was emailed the survey through Qualtrics surveying software. In an effort to increase response rates, the sample was emailed with a request to complete the survey on three separate occasions over the duration of two weeks. To ensure adequate power, Cohen's (1988) power analysis was utilized to ascertain the needed sample size and detect the potential effects of unionization policy on the sample. From the results of the power analysis, which included five covariates, one independent variable, one dependent variable, as well as the recommended parameters of a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$), an alpha level of .05, and a power of .80, an adequate sample size was determined to be 97 participants. By applying an oversampling technique, a random sample of 50 Florida public schools and 50 New York public schools were selected, of which, 200 K-12 public school teachers were randomly chosen and provided electronic surveys to achieve the needed sample size. Of the individuals who received a survey, 95 responded which equates to a reasonable response rate of 47.5% and statistical power of .78.

Variables

Independent variable. The presence of RTW policy is the independent variable manipulated in this study. Dummy codes were created to capture the participant's involvement in the aforementioned unionization policy. As such, participants from the state of New York were coded as "0" representing a non-RTW state while participants from Florida were coded as "1" representing a RTW state. As can be seen in Table 1, within our sample, 46.3% of the participants were from a non-RTW state and 53.7% were from a RTW state.

Covariates. Statistical controls included in this study fall into three categories: 1) personal demographics, 2) human capital, and 3) workload characteristics. Within these categories, covariates utilized (i.e., gender, ethnicity, education level, years of experience, and workload) were chosen because of their impact on job satisfaction as suggested by empirical literature (Bolin, 2007; Donohue & Heywood, 2004; Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009).

Personal demographics are represented by gender and ethnicity. Gender is a characteristic historically studied in job satisfaction research, therefore, making it a necessary factor to be included in the analysis. Lead by Crosby's (1982) *paradoxical female hypothesis*, literature has continued to find females to be more satisfied with their jobs than males. In support of gender differences in job satisfaction, Clark (1997) found when using a large British database, females had significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than males. The researcher also suggests the cause of gender differences is due to lower job expectations of females because of a history of inequality. In concordance with the findings of Clark (1997), researchers Bender, Donohue, and Heywood (2005) identified gender difference in job satisfaction; however, their study found females to report higher level of job satisfaction only in woman dominated occupations and when the characteristics of male and female dominated jobs were accounted for, there were no statistical differences. The sample consisted of 77.9% females and 22.1% males. This finding is

not abnormal considering the heavy population of females in the teaching profession.

Ethnicity is another salient demographic factor included in the analysis based on previous research findings, as such the ethnicity proportions of the studies participants are as follows: 80% White, 9.5% Hispanic, 4.2% Black, 3.2% Asian, and 2.1% Multiracial. Within the hiring practices of a human resources department of schools, particularly in education, protected classes (e.g., race, age, and gender) are not discriminated against and all applicants are provided an equal opportunity for employment, as reported by school districts. Although, protected classes are taken into account when hiring, research has shown differences in the job satisfaction of these individuals; for example, Bender and Heywood (2006) found that Asians, African Americans, and those classified as ‘other race’ reported lower job satisfactions than Caucasians. Interestingly, these findings support the negative correlation found within Bashaw’s (1998) research, yet contradict the results of Bartel (1981), who found blacks to be more satisfied with their jobs than whites. Although, these findings lack consistency, significant findings warrant the inclusion of this variable.

The ethnicity variable was dummy coded as White (0) and non-White (1) which equates to an 80/20 distribution as noted in Table 1. Considering the U.S. teaching population is over 80% Caucasian and 76% female (Goldring, Gray, & Bitterman, 2013), the data are characteristic of the teaching population and the potential of response bias in the area of teacher demographics for this sample is less likely.

From existing research involving pay in the teaching profession, human capital endowment factors, as defined by education level and years of experience, are included in the analysis because of their influence on job satisfaction. To demonstrate the relationship between education level and job satisfaction, Fabra and Camisón (2009) found that individuals with higher levels of formal education are likely to be more satisfied with their jobs as compared to those with lower levels of formal education. They allude that individuals with higher levels of formal education can access jobs with characteristics that produce higher levels of job satisfaction. As noted in Table 1, education level ranged from bachelor’s degrees (24.2%), master’s degrees (51.6%), master’s +30/Ed.S. (20%), and doctoral degrees (4.2%).

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

<i>Teacher Characteristics</i>	<i>Count and Percentages</i>
<i>Union</i>	<i>44 (46.3%)</i>
<i>Right-To-Work</i>	<i>51 (53.7%)</i>
<i>Males</i>	<i>23 (24.2%)</i>
<i>Females</i>	<i>49 (51.6%)</i>
<i>White</i>	<i>76 (80%)</i>
<i>Non-White</i>	<i>19 (20%)</i>
<i>Bachelor’s Degree</i>	<i>19 (20.0%)</i>
<i>Master’s Degree</i>	<i>4 (4.20%)</i>
<i>Master’s+30/Ed.S. Degree</i>	<i>30 (21.6%)</i>
<i>Doctorate Degree</i>	<i>5 (3.60%)</i>

In addition to the human capital findings of Fabra and Camisón (2009) pertaining to education level, Van Maele and Van Houtte (2012) found a strong negative correlation between

years of teaching experience and job satisfaction. This indicates, the more years a teacher has acquired working in the same capacity, the more likely they will report lower levels of job satisfaction. The researchers allude that this finding may be due to career exhaustion of the more experienced teachers. The average years of teaching experience in this study is 16.03 years. To further address the sample's high mean for teacher years of experience, the sample is disaggregated and percentages of participant counts at 10-year intervals are provided. The percentage of the number of participants at each interval is as follows: 1-10 years (25%), 11-20 years (45%), 21-30 years (25%), and 31-40 years (5%).

Workload characteristics are defined by the number of contractual workdays for each teacher. Each state and/or school have varying contractual workday requirements. As such, increased numbers of contractual workdays may influence teacher jobs satisfaction differently. In a cross-sectional design, Cole, Panchanadeswaren, and Daining (2004) found that workload was negatively associated to job satisfaction when studying social workers. The average number of contractual workdays for participants in this study was 192 days, see Table 2.

Dependent variables. The dependent variable for this study was provided by the 2009 revised Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which can offer perceptions of overall job satisfaction as a cumulative score composed of each of the job satisfaction facets (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). In addition to overall job satisfaction, each facet of job satisfaction can be analyzed independently as dependent variables to provide further depth in the factors impacting teacher job satisfaction. JDI scales measure job satisfaction by identifying one's appraisal of the five facets of job satisfaction (i.e., work itself, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers). Each facet is then expressed as a question and accompanied with 9 or 18 itemized responses totaling to 72 items. To measure one's overall job satisfaction, the instrument utilizes a total scoring of each job satisfaction facet for each participant. As can be seen in Table 2, job satisfaction total scores ranged from 48-248 with an average score of 177.6.

This study used the JDI for the following reasons: (1) its popularity as one of the leading instruments for measuring job satisfaction (Buckley, Carraher, & Cote, 1992; Smith & Stanton, 1998), (2) its alignment with the school characteristic constructs affecting teacher job satisfaction mentioned in the literature review, and (3) its consistent reliability and validity when measured across different populations (Gillet & Schwab, 1975; Johnson, Smith, & Tucker, 1982).

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics

<i>Teacher Characteristics</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
<i>Teaching Experience^a</i>	<i>16.03</i>	<i>8.35</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>40</i>
<i>Workload^b</i>	<i>192.0</i>	<i>76.89</i>	<i>84</i>	<i>200</i>
<i>Overall Job Satisfaction^c</i>	<i>177.67</i>	<i>44.42</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>248</i>

Note. ^aYears. ^bdays. ^cJDI Scale

Results

To address the aforementioned research questions, this study analyzed six Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) mixed effects multiple regression models that accounted for teacher nesting at the school level. This statistic was utilized for eliminating unobserved unit-specific

heterogeneity and reducing type-1 error. The respondents from both Florida and New York accounted for 61 different groups (i.e., schools) within the models, which exceeded the 20-25 group threshold necessary to provide accurate estimates of regression coefficients, standard errors, and associated variance components, thereby, justified the use of this model instead of an OLS fixed effects multiple regression model. In addition to the random effect (i.e., schools), the fixed effect component was also justified because of the fact all predictor variables were level-one teacher variables (i.e., job satisfaction, union association, education level, years as a teacher, gender, ethnicity, and workload).

Shown in Table 3, the presence of RTW laws were significantly related to overall teacher job satisfaction ($b = -23.56, p \leq 0.05$). Considering the direction of the coefficient, the data support that right-to-work legislation has a negative association with overall teacher job satisfaction. When analyzing the influence of RTW laws on the facets of teacher job satisfaction, the teachers' satisfaction with work ($b = -4.79, p \leq 0.01$) and pay ($b = -10.88, p \leq 0.001$) were both found to be statistically significant. The direction of the coefficients for both work and pay were negative, indicating negative relationships between RTW laws and teacher work satisfaction and pay satisfaction. Other results found to be statistically significant were the relationships between teachers' satisfaction with pay and years as a teacher ($b = 0.20, p \leq 0.05$) and teachers' satisfaction with promotion and non-white ethnicity ($b = 4.70, p \leq 0.01$). Although not statistically significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level, teachers' satisfaction with supervision and years as a teacher ($b = -0.344, p \leq 0.10$) was found to be on the verge of significance and worthy of noting.

Table 3
Mixed Effects Regression Models of Teacher Job Satisfaction

	Overall Job Satisfaction (1)	Work (2)	Pay (3)	Supervision (4)	Coworkers (5)	Promotion (6)
<i>Fixed Effects Variables</i>						
<i>Right-To-Work</i>	-23.56** (11.79)	-4.79*** (1.87)	-10.88**** (1.98)	-2.50 (3.82)	0.42 (2.68)	0.08 (1.55)
<i>Education Level</i>	1.74 (6.59)	-0.50 (1.00)	-1.04 (1.12)	2.96 (2.09)	0.12 (1.66)	0.93 (0.96)
<i>Years as Teacher</i>	-0.31 (.59)	-0.007 (0.09)	0.20** (.101)	-0.344* (.189)	-0.11 (0.14)	-0.13 (0.08)
<i>Gender</i>	-13.62 (10.91)	-1.71 (1.65)	0.33 (1.86)	-4.27 (3.45)	-3.76 (2.75)	-1.43 (1.60)
<i>Ethnicity</i>	2.44 (12.66)	0.15 (1.94)	2.15 (2.16)	-1.08 (4.03)	-2.76 (3.15)	4.70*** (1.83)
<i>Workload</i>	-0.11 (.119)	0.000 (0.009)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.006 (0.008)
<i>Constant</i>	207.81**** (20.41)	37.51**** (3.11)	6.57**** (3.48)	49.63**** (6.49)	51.46**** (5.08)	7.94**** (2.95)

<i>Random Effects</i>						
<i>Variables</i>						
<i>School</i>	406.52 (414.73)	14.71 (8.78)	9.53 (11.94)	1.26 (36.74)	0.180 (16.93)	0.000 (0.000)
<i>N</i>	95	95	95	95	95	95

Note. Standard of errors appear in parentheses

Dependent Variables: Overall Job Satisfaction, Work, Pay, Supervision, Coworkers, and Promotion

p ≤ 0.10, **p ≤ 0.05, *p ≤ 0.01, ****p ≤ 0.001*

Conclusion

Findings from this study do not align with the results of past research that suggests that labor unions fail to be related to higher job satisfaction (Freeman & Medoff, 1984; Garcia-Serrano, 2009; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Schwochau, 1987), nor do they align with the research purporting there is no relationship between RTW laws and teacher job satisfaction (Gius, 2012, 2013). Unlike previous research, this study found a significant negative relationship between RTW laws and overall teacher job satisfaction indicating that teachers in non-RTW states reported higher levels of job satisfaction.

Considering this study accounted for unit specific heterogeneity at the school level, factors related to school culture or school dynamic did not impact the outcome in cases where multiple teachers from the same school were surveyed. Therefore, the finding that indicated employees reported more positive perceptions of job satisfaction in non-RTW states is beyond the influence of school specific variables and can be assumed it is associated with the particular unionization legislature.

The finding indicating there is negative association between RTW laws and teacher job satisfaction and a positive association between the absence of RTW laws and teacher job satisfaction is aligned with Moore and Newman’s (1985) *Bargaining Power Hypothesis*. Their theory suggests that RTW laws directly weaken the bargaining power of labor unions by prohibiting certain union security agreements. Enforcing these regulations may cause a reduction in worker attraction to the union resulting in the union losing bargaining position because of the decrease in member support. As a consequence of the union’s loss in bargaining power, the effects of collective bargaining and predictors of job satisfaction are lessened.

Other findings from this study support past research in the area of teacher pay satisfaction indicating RTW legislation has a negative relationship with teacher pay satisfaction. Buckman, Tran, and Young (2016) found that teachers in non-RTW states had higher levels of pay satisfaction than teachers in RTW states which is also aligned with the research of Currall, Towler, Judge, and Kohn (2005). The cause of teachers’ dissatisfaction with pay in RTW states may be due to the difference in teacher salaries and wages, considering, teachers in non-RTW states—on average—have higher salaries, wages, and benefits than teachers of RTW states (Mishel, 2001).

In addition to the significant negative association between RTW laws and teacher pay satisfaction, teachers’ years of experience was found to be significant and positively associated with satisfaction with pay. This finding is not uncommon considering teacher are typically

provided pay increases for years of experience in traditional salary schedules. Also, veteran teachers are more likely to hold advanced degrees which are compensated in traditional salary schedules.

A unique finding in this study is that the population of non-white teachers had a significant positive relationship with satisfaction with promotion as compared to white teachers. This finding may indicate that school districts are taking strides to increase equity and diversity in leadership. Although, this hypothesis cannot be confirmed in this study, this finding should be further researched to determine additional relationships associated with the satisfaction of promotion practices based on teacher ethnicity.

Advocates in support of RTW laws who seek to remove or limit the power of labor unions must take into account the impact these laws have on employees. Although there is some evidence indicating RTW laws have a positive impact on the economy, the employee satisfaction components found in this study should be addressed. When comparing the education setting and the business setting, the product schools produce is students' success and unlike business companies that fail due to poor product quality, the outcome of failing schools has a greater impact on society. Signs of unsatisfied workers such as low teacher attendance, poor work quality, and teacher turnover influence the overall quality of a school and impacts student learning; therefore, if RTW laws negatively impact teacher job satisfaction, legislators and school leaders need to address how to effectively bargain for teachers to increase teacher job satisfaction in RTW states.

Just as all studies, the findings of this study should be interpreted though its limitations. The present study addresses the impact of RTW laws on teacher job satisfaction by analyzing the data of two largely populated, comparable states. Thus, the study's findings are only generalizable to this population; however, by only using one setting, the endogeneity based on state bargaining culture is controlled. It is suggested that future researchers examine this topic by surveying a national sample with a reliable job satisfaction instrument such as the JDI and control for state level endogeneity (i.e., bargaining culture of each state) as defined by Stevans (2009), in addition to school-level heterogeneity. Furthermore, it may be of interest for future researchers to isolate states with RTW laws and determine if union and non-union members report significantly different job satisfaction levels.

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