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Job Satisfaction of Administrators in a Public Suburban School District

Linda Cartier Borquist
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JOB SATISFACTION OF ADMINISTRATORS
IN A PUBLIC SUBURBAN SCHOOL DISTRICT

by
Linda Cartier Borquist

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
in
PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

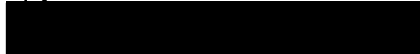
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University of Oregon


1986


TO THE OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH:

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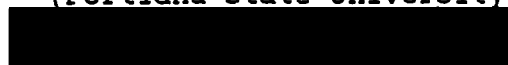

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To Mark and Kelly
who bring a special meaning to my life

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AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Linda Cartier Borquist
for the Doctor of Education in Public School Administration
and Supervision presented December 22, 1986.


Title: Job Satisfaction of Administrators in a Public
Suburban School District.


APPROVED BY MEMBERS OF THE DISSERTATION COMMITTEE:



John Lind, Chairman


Carrol Tama


Michael Carl


Richard Schmuck


Brian Stipak


Robert Casteel

This study grew out of the ideas gleaned from a
review of literature which indicated that autonomy,
responsibility, the work itself, growth, recognition,

feedback, achievement, and interpersonal relationships were the primary sources of job satisfaction.

The population of this study was the ninety administrators of a suburban school district near Portland, Oregon (N=90; validated response = 83; ratio of 92.2 percent).

The two research questions were: (1) Is the job satisfaction of school district administrators related to the personal factors of group membership and sex? (2) What are the sources of overall job satisfaction? Do they confirm findings from previous studies in which autonomy, responsibility, the work itself, growth, recognition, feedback, achievement, and interpersonal relationships were found to be major contributors to job satisfaction?

Utilizing the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldham and free response questions, ratings of job satisfaction were obtained to determine if sex and group membership (elementary principal, secondary principal and vice principal, or central office administrator) made a difference in the level of job satisfaction. Multiple regression analysis was used to predict general job satisfaction obtained from the identified sources of job satisfaction according to the JDS. The level of significance was set at .05.

The findings from the two research questions were:
1) Group membership and sex do not significantly relate to job satisfaction. 2) Approximately 22% of job satisfaction

for administrators was attributed to autonomy and feedback from the work itself.

Data gathered from the free response section of the survey revealed additional information about the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While sources of job satisfaction were the same for both male and female administrators, some differences were noted in the contributing factors toward satisfaction and dissatisfaction for elementary, secondary, and central office administrators.

The main sources of satisfaction--regardless of group membership--involved the work itself, achievement, and interpersonal relationships. Recognition was also seen as a source of satisfaction at the central office and secondary level. Student performance and interaction was seen as a primary source of satisfaction at the elementary and secondary level. Autonomy was a main source of satisfaction at both the elementary and central office level.

The main sources of dissatisfaction--regardless of group membership--involved amount of work, lack of feedback, constraints, and administrative policies. While interpersonal relationships were seen as sources of satisfaction by 25% of those responding administrators in central office positions, 60% of the responding central office administrators identified them as sources of dissatisfaction.

The findings of this study imply that boards of education and upper-echelon administrators should be aware of the motivational potential in the two factors of autonomy and feedback and in the identified areas of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Opportunities which allow for greater administrator autonomy and feedback should be expanded in order to increase job satisfaction.

This investigation suggests that research is needed to confirm results of this study with other populations of school administrators, to address the relationship between the performance of a school administrator and the job satisfaction of the administrator, and to monitor the level of job satisfaction as changes in administrators' jobs are made.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

Research is lacking which compares job satisfaction across administrative job groupings within a single school district. Studies cited in the review of the literature in this study used populations across multiple districts. Schmidt (1976) used 74 secondary administrators in the Chicago suburban area as the population for his study which tested job satisfaction of public school administrators using Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Iannone (1973) utilized 40 elementary and secondary principals in Central New York as the sample for his study on job satisfaction.

Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983) obtained a sample of school principals from the population of school principals in Alberta, Canada. Young (1984) examined job satisfaction of public school superintendents across the continental United States. Arnold (1983) conducted his study using school officials in large school districts in Illinois. The present study assists in determining if job

satisfaction relates to group membership (elementary principal, secondary administrator, or central office administrator).

The relationship of job satisfaction to the personal factor of sex is not clear from previous studies. The first systematic review of the literature which dealt with sex differences and job satisfaction was conducted by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957). These authors found 14 studies which specifically addressed sex as a variable in overall satisfaction studies. Analysis of these articles revealed that women were more satisfied in six of the studies, men were more satisfied in three of the studies, and no sex differences were found in five of the studies.

Perko (1985) found sex was weakly related to job satisfaction of public school teachers in the Portland metropolitan area. Young (1984) found that female and male superintendents from across the United States were equally satisfied with their jobs. The present study further examines how job satisfaction relates to sex.

Further study is needed to determine if there is an interaction between job satisfaction and group membership and sex. The above mentioned studies utilized homogeneous population groups such as secondary administrators, school principals, and superintendents. This study supplies data to determine if there is an interaction between job satisfaction and group membership and sex.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the job satisfaction of school district administrators. A large suburban school district near Portland, Oregon is the population studied. Questions to be considered in the study are as follows: (1) Does sex and group membership (elementary school principal, secondary school administrator, or central office administrator) make a difference in the level of job satisfaction? (2) What are the primary sources of administrators' job satisfaction? (3) What factors in administrators' jobs could be changed to improve job satisfaction?

Answers to the above questions will provide direction for structuring the work environment to motivate not only administrators, but those under their direction. These answers will provide administrators in the organization with insight into the perceptions and feelings of the school-based administrators who have been touted as being the key to providing a quality education, to providing excellence in our public schools.

The importance of studying job satisfaction for administrators can be viewed from two perspectives: the most common perspective relates to the role of administrators in increasing job satisfaction for their subordinates. The second relates to the feeling of the satisfaction that administrators themselves experience.

By discovering those areas which affect administrators' job satisfaction and those areas which detract from it, greater insight into personal attitudes and feelings of administrators can be obtained and utilized to increase productivity in our schools. These discoveries can lead the public and those in the field of public education to address common concerns and goals and to motivate those in our school systems toward excellence.

Previous studies have used a wide variety of districts or large, varying populations (outside the administrative ranks or outside the field of education) from which to collect data and draw conclusions on job satisfaction. This study will utilize previous findings to compare with findings in a single school district. This narrow context should pin-point specific factors within a district which might have influenced the results of a more generalized study. A body of data collected from a confined population allows for an in-depth description of important and recurring variables (Green and Wallat, 1981).

Knowledge of inter-district relationships, history, and structure of a given district may help narrow those factors of job satisfaction which are influenced by the dynamics of a given district. The same environment in a single school district study allows for comparison between male and female job satisfaction and assorted district administrative positions (elementary principal, secondary administrator, and central office administrator).

The following topics will be included as an introduction to this study:

- Pursuing excellence in public school education by developing a productive work climate
- Rationale for the study
- Definition of terms

Pursuing Excellence in Public School Education

Excellence can be defined as something of very good merit or quality (Oxford Dictionary, 1980); high expectations that pervade an organization (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1984); and incidents of "unusual effort on the part of apparently ordinary employees" (Peters and Waterman, 1982, p. xvii).

The pursuit of excellence has been with educators a long time. Educators can recall messages they have grown up with: "If it is worth doing, it's worth doing well", "Give it your best", "Give it your all", "Go for the gold", "Did you try your hardest?", "Win".

Excellence may be a noble ideal to pursue, but what is it within us that motivates us to seek its attainment? What makes us want to achieve? Why do some people appear to have more "ambition" than others? What energizes individuals to do their best or choose not to do their best? What changes in the work environment and organization increase or decrease job satisfaction and the

motivation to achieve?

As school administrators find answers to these questions, they may find more effective ways of relating to their own staffs and other administrators. They may also discover a means of building a work force that would strive to do its own personal best and yet work together as an effective team.

In order to have a productive environment, one must feel trusted and valued. Peters (1985) in A Passion for Excellence states that this passion's roots are in the respect for the dignity, worth, and creative potential of everyone in the organization--pure and simple. He describes the magic words as being ownership and commitment.

Job satisfaction can be a strong and powerful force in producing a work environment in which the worker strives toward excellence. But what is job satisfaction and how can it best be instilled and used? How can job satisfaction be increased and therefore motivate administrators to perform at their peak? In reviewing the literature in Chapter Two, the focus will be on job satisfaction and motivation. This will be followed by a more specific look at job satisfaction and motivation of those in administrative positions.

The focus is on the leadership aspect of job satisfaction for three primary reasons. First, much has been written about the administrator of a school being

primarily responsible for the productivity and achievement in that school. Without strong leadership the drive can be lost or so scattered as not to be effective. Second, in order to instill motivation the leader must also want to achieve. The school leader must have purpose, direction, and motivation to achieve the goals of the school and the district. Third, school administrators may develop increased understanding of how administrators can be motivated to guide their own staffs as well as work with the entire district.

As Peters (1985) said, what it all comes down to is growing and enhancing leadership. The leader needs to learn to be a cheerleader, not a cop; an enthusiast, not a referee; a nurturer, not a devil's advocate; a coach, not a naysayer; a facilitator, not a pronouncer. As Peters and Waterman (1982) state in In Search of Excellence, if you have pride in the organization, you can get people to do anything.

Rationale for the Study

Knowing more about administrators' attitudes may be significant at any time, but it is crucial during these times of educational reform and increased efforts for excellence in our schools. It has been noted that the administrator of a school is the motivating force behind school improvement. The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's report in April 1984 makes two important points: (1) that school leaders "express an expectation and strong desire that instructional programs improve over time" (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1984, p.7) and (2) leaders must carefully monitor new practices and support their staffs for change to take place.

It is equally important to learn about other district administrators' attitudes. Those attitudes directly guide and influence the school-based administrator as well as influencing the various departments of the district. Sex and group membership may make a difference in administrators' job satisfaction and thus influence the interactions which must occur between administrators of an effective school district. Therefore, it is important to determine if sex and group membership are related to administrators' job satisfaction.

All district administrators must have a clear understanding of the district's common mission and be able to state it in direct, concrete terms. The mission

statement serves to unify the entire district staff. Central office administrators set goals for principals. Principals set goals with systems of incentives and rewards to encourage excellence in student and teacher performance. Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (1984) reports that principals "act as figureheads in delivering awards and highlighting the importance of excellence" (p.7). School principals are charged with setting standards for curriculum quality, knowing and applying teaching and learning principles, protecting learning time from disruption, and creating a safe and orderly school environment for optimum learning to take place.

Principals are also responsible for monitoring student and teacher progress, allocating resources for instructional priorities, fostering parent involvement and understanding of the educational goals and school priorities, and involving staff and others in planning for school improvement. The mission statement provides the glue that holds line and staff relationships together.

School principals are important figures in the schools. The district needs to support and recognize the needs of its principals in order to foster the desire for excellence in education within the organization. Without this support, school principals will be ineffectual in carrying out their responsibilities. School site management must be supported for excellence to be attainable.

School principals are expected to be the instructional leaders. Principals must be recognized and rewarded for excellence in order to sustain it. District leaders establish award programs for schools, administrators, teachers and students; they take a visible role in recognizing excellence (Enochs, 1979). When those involved in change are recognized and rewarded over time, the change is more likely to become a part of the school culture.

Learning more about administrators' job satisfaction and attitudes seems essential to establishing a support system that is effective in carrying out the organizational and community expectations. Data in the area of administrator job satisfaction and motivation will produce guiding information that could be useful for those who are recommending and implementing designs for positive change in our public schools. The data should increase the understanding of the goals of administrators and allow for a closer match with the goals of the district. As public school organizations are coping with changing needs, increasing demands, and decreasing resources, a study of those in the front line of change is especially significant.

Modern organizational theory recognizes job satisfaction as a key to effectiveness and change or renewal within an organization (Perko, 1985). It is therefore significant to determine the primary job

satisfiers that lead to administrators' job satisfaction. Knowing and building upon those factors which lead to increased administrators' job satisfaction can increase the effectiveness of the organization. A current study of administrators' job attitudes can lead to the following:

For administrators:

- improved evaluation and recognition of the significance of the job role of the administrator.
- increased job satisfaction of a principal and a more positive outlook toward that position.
- increased understanding of how job satisfaction could be related to motivation and performance of administrators.
- improved understanding of how public school central office administrators could assist in the success and effectiveness of the principal in their school and community.
- increased understanding of other district administrative roles by the principal.
- increased understanding of self and methods of operation.

For the district:

- decreased stress resulting from job satisfaction can lower costs to school districts in terms of medical costs, absenteeism, tardiness, and higher accident rates.

- increased motivation for administrators to carry out district goals and priorities and thus improve school achievement.
- more effective tailoring of college and university course work to fit administrative training programs.
- increased needs-based support from principal and other administrative organizations.
- improved procedures for designing and providing inservice and administrative development programs.
- increased understanding of factors which reward or satisfy administrators and thus assist district and professional organizations in directing resources to support administrators.

For the public:

- increased understandings of administrators and their roles and job demands.
- improved communications and more positive relationship between the administrator and the community and a positive community attitude toward public schools in general.
- increased productivity and quality improvement in our schools.

The information gathered in this study is used to obtain an in-depth analysis of job satisfaction of school district administrators. It is not used to identify particular schools or administrators.

Definitions of Terms

For purpose of this study, the following definitions of terms will be used:

Administrators:

Supervisors in leadership positions in the public school system who are assigned to schools or district office positions. This includes central office administrators, principals, and vice principals.

Hygiene Factors:

(Dissatisfiers)

A factor that contributes negatively towards job satisfaction. Factors that operate to alter individual attitudes about one's job to derive a feeling of dissatisfaction.

Job Satisfaction:

A feeling of being contented or pleased that is derived from having what one wants or needs. One enjoys going to one's place of employment and has a pleasurable feeling for one's job both within and outside the work setting.

Motivation:

Vroom (1964) defines motivation as "a process governing choices made by persons...among alternative forms of voluntary activity" (p.6). Thus motivation may be seen as the willingness of an individual to exert effort to obtain the goals of the organization.

Motivators:

(Satisfiers)

A factor that contributes positively toward increasing job satisfaction. Factors that operate to alter individual attitudes about one's job in order to derive a feeling of satisfaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

To obtain an increased understanding of job satisfaction of school administrators, this chapter will be a summary of findings dealing with job satisfaction and motivation in the business community. Additionally, organizational management theories will be reviewed and research on the components and impacts of job satisfaction on educators will be reviewed with a focus on school administrators.

To gain perspective on leadership positions in the field of education, research that has been done on job satisfaction and motivation in the business community will be compared with the current educational structure. While the products may be different, the underlying principles in motivating humans toward achievement is very much the same.

Motivation in the Work Environment

In the book, In Search of Excellence, Peters and Waterman (1982) conclude that the single most pervasive theme in excellent companies is their profound respect for the individual worker. Kanter (1977, 1984) of the Yale School of Management and author of Men and Women of the Corporation and The Change Masters, also emphasizes the recent shift of industry from scientific management techniques to the nurturing of climates that cultivate people and their ideas. "Businesses are moving from 'trusting the system' to 'trusting people'. People are the source of the creative ideas that provide a competitive edge in an information society" (Cross, 1984, p. 169). Ideas, Kanter (1983) notes, are "the most potent economic stimulus of all" (p.18).

Interest in people and interest in productivity and profits are seen as coinciding ideals. Ironically, this underlying principle, so strongly promoted in recent movements for excellence in the business community, is frequently the opposite of what is recommended for excellence in schools. When Peters and Waterman (1982) went out to search for corporate excellence, they found it at McDonald's as well as 3-M--in something as simple as a hamburger to the complexities of high technology. Their criteria for excellence did not reside in the prestige of the product, but in the attitudes and enthusiasm of the workers. They concluded that one of the main clues to corporate excellence is "the unusual effort on the part of

apparently ordinary employees" (p. xvii).

How do the current books and reports on school reform utilize this simple, yet powerful realization? Do they make recommendations on how to stimulate "apparently ordinary" people to unusual effort? In fact, the reports on school reform do very little to focus on ordinary people. "They imply that the rising tide of mediocrity is made up of embarrassing numbers of ordinary people and that if we wish to return to excellence, we had better go out and find more 'excellent people'" (Cross, 1984, p.170). They advocate colleges to raise admission standards and to select better candidates for training, the federal government to offer scholarships to attract top high school graduates into teaching, and for course work to become more rigorous to "weed out" those non-scholarly individuals. But the reports say little about how to obtain unusual effort from ordinary people.

Peters and Waterman (1982) "observed time and again, extraordinary energy exerted above and beyond the call of duty when the worker is given even a modicum of apparent control over his or her destiny" (p. xxiii). However, with few exceptions, the reports on school reform show little movement toward giving educators more control over their own destinies. In fact, they usually recommend external control from the top charged with regulating, controlling, and seeing to it that the proper checkpoints or test scores are established and maintained. An exception to this is

seen inSizer's (1984) Horace's Compromise, in which he advises those who want excellent schools to "trust teachers and principals...and to believe that the more trust one places in them, the more the response will justify that trust...Proud people rarely join professions that heavily monitor them" (p. 214).

In A Place Called School Goodlad (1984), states that any course of action for school reform should be individualized for a specific school and not a blanket remedy for all. Peters and Waterman (1982) support Goodlad in encouraging the individual's entrepreneurial spirit through decentralization and autonomy, with "overlap, messiness around the edges, lack of coordination, internal competition, and somewhat chaotic conditions" (p.301). Excellent companies, according to Peters and Waterman (1982), had forsworn a measure of tidiness in order to achieve regular innovation.

Yet according to recommendations of recent reports on school reform, schools will do the reverse of this and forswear innovation in favor of tidiness. The curriculum will be tidied up, goals will be articulated, standardized tests will control levels of learnings, prospective teachers will study a core of curriculum with certain courses and certain experiences in specified sequences. Cross (1984) found that "there is not much evidence that the current mania for tidiness will produce orderly schools in which students and teachers pursue learning with the

contagious enthusiasm that is so essential to excellence" (p. 170).

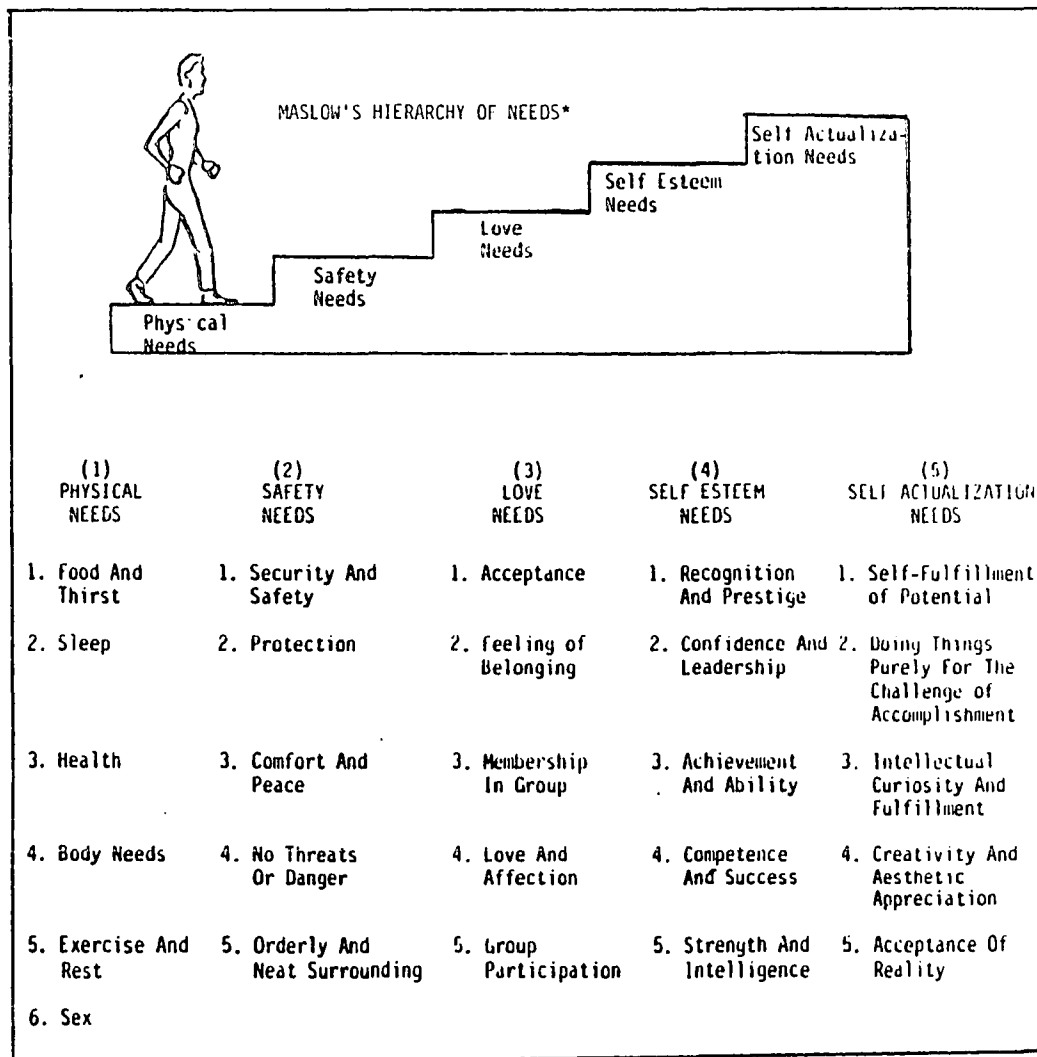
Kanter (1984) takes caution against mechanical solutions which meet ever more refined minimum standards. She further states that "our emerging world requires more social and organizational innovation" (p. 19). We need to create climates that empower individuals to experiment, to create, to test, to develop, and to innovate. This requires a belief and fostering of the individual.

The school reform movement of this decade focuses on quick, top-down, mechanical solutions. Tight control and careful specifications may define minimal standards, but they may also confine or snuff out the spirit of individual innovation and experimentation that researchers say is essential to excellent organizations. The ordinary people in schools need to be stimulated to put forth "unusual effort" and create climates of excellence in our schools.

A Review of Organizational Management Theories

Maslow

Maslow (1943) developed a hierarchy of needs for individuals (Figure I). The five levels of these needs are: (1)Physical needs, which consist of sleep, health and other body needs. (2)Safety needs, which consist of security, safety, protection, no danger of threats, and orderly neat surroundings. (3)Love needs, which entail



*The needs grouped on the first level have the greatest intensity and must be filled before one can step up to the next level.

Figure 1. Adaptation of theory of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943)

acceptance and feelings of belonging, membership in a group, and love and affection with group participation. (4) Self-esteem needs, which include such things as recognition and prestige, confidence in leadership, achievement and ability, competence in success, and strength and intelligence. (5) Self-actualization needs, include doing things purely for the challenge of accomplishments, intellectual curiosity, creativity, and self-fulfillment of one's potential.

The needs grouped on the first level have the greatest intensity, and must be filled before one can move up to the next level. Research by Hoy and Miskel (1982) suggest that the first three levels for the majority of professional educators are often met, but the satisfaction of esteem and self-actualization are rarely met and must be sought after continually.

Herzberg

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory grew out of a research design that was based on a couple of very simple questions: "Can you describe in detail when you feel exceptionally good about your job?" and "Can you describe in detail when you feel exceptionally bad about your job?" (National Industrial Conference Board, 1972, p. 20). Analysis of the responses show that subjects most often mention job experiences or factors relating to a good feeling about the job in terms of the job content.

Herzberg classified the job content factors as satisfiers. Factors or experiences mentioned in connection with feeling bad about the job, were most often related to the surroundings or the peripheral aspects of the job. These were categorized as context factors or dissatisfiers. He found the job satisfiers to be achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Job dissatisfiers were seen as company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security, and personal life.

Herzberg further found that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were discreet feelings, not polar extremes on a continuum. That is, the opposite of satisfaction on the job is not dissatisfaction, instead it is no satisfaction.

Herzberg called satisfiers, which are all related to the job itself, motivators. He called the dissatisfiers hygiene factors. Herzberg stresses that the factors which truly motivate the worker are those that give the worker a sense of personal accomplishment through the challenge of the job itself.

Herzberg found that real motivation is seen as resulting from the worker's involvement in accomplishing an interesting task and from his feeling of accomplishment alone, and not from the working conditions or environmental factors of the job. There is a connection here with

Maslow's theory of self-actualization which says that the motivated person receives satisfaction from the sheer love of doing the work.

Herzberg found that most attempts to motivate workers have taken the form of stressing hygiene factors while ignoring the motivators. An example of this can be seen in fringe benefits. People are dissatisfied if fringe benefits are missing or inadequate. But the existence of fringe benefits is worth little in terms of getting real motivation from people, according to Herzberg (1968). Herzberg insists that the hygiene factors are important and they, like the Maslow low-level needs, must be adequately provided if a person is to rise above them to the self-actualizing concerns of involving oneself in meaningful tasks. If hygiene factors are removed or diminished, a worker may become overly concerned about them instead of the content of his work. But according to Herzberg, management is fooling itself if it expects to get motivated workers in return for better hygiene factors. Longer vacations do not motivate. In his article, "One More Time How Do You Motivate Employees?", Herzberg makes an analogy between motivation and a battery. He states, "I can charge a man's battery and then recharge it, and then recharge it again but it is only when he has his own generator that we can talk about motivation. He then needs no outside stimulation. He wants to do it" (p. 55).

How do you install a generator in an employee? A

continuing theme of Herzberg's prescription for this is to motivate a work force by job enrichment. By this he means that by increasing the challenging content of the job, you will cause the employee to grow both in skill and in a feeling of accomplishment.

Herzberg spells out specific actions that a company can take in developing a program of vertical job loading which amounts to job enrichment. In vertical job loading, the intent is to lessen the distance between the accomplishment of a task and the planning and management needed to do the task. When a job is vertically loaded, responsibilities and controls that formerly were reserved for higher levels of management are added to the job. Ways to increase responsibilities of a job, thus making it more enriching and motivating, are summarized in Table I.

Taylor

A different point of view is seen in Taylor's (1967) view of management. Taylor is known for his development of the scientific management point of view. His research dealt with the principle of scientific or based-on-fact decision making and techniques such as time-motion studies, standardization, goal setting, money as a motivator, scientific selection, and rest pauses.

Drucker (1976) wrote that "Taylor was the first man in history who actually studied work seriously" (p. 26). Taylor's time and motion studies broke down the work task

TABLE I
PRINCIPLES OF VERTICAL JOB LOADING

<u>Principle</u>	<u>Motivators Involved</u>
A. Removing some controls while retaining accountability	Responsibility and personal achievement
B. Increasing the accountability of individuals for own work	Responsibility and recognition
C. Giving a person a complete natural unit of work (module, division, area, and so on)	Responsibility, achievement, and recognition
D. Granting additional authority to an employee in his activity; job freedom	Responsibility, achievement, and recognition
E. Making periodic reports directly available to the worker himself rather than to the supervisor	Internal recognition
F. Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled	Growth and learning
G. Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks, enabling them to become experts	Responsibility, growth, and advancement

Source: Adaptation of Herzberg's Principles of Vertical Job Loading (1968).

into its elements to eliminate wasted motions, so the work would be done in "one best way." He also pushed strongly for standardization in design in the use of tools in order to make work more efficient.

Drucker utilized Taylor's research in coming up with the MBO (Management by Objectives) technique. These objectives were jointly set by the manager and his or her superior, for it was believed that specific, challenging goals led to better performance. It was further seen in studies by Locke (1982) that feedback (knowledge of one's progress in relation to the task or goal) is essential for goal setting to work; and that it is just as essential to have goals if feedback is to work.

Taylor (1967) claimed that money was what the worker wanted most. He argued that the worker should be paid from 30% to 100% higher wages in return for learning to do his or her job according to scientific management principles and for regularly attaining the assigned task.

Money has frequently been attacked by social scientists on the grounds that it is an inadequate motivator. The Hawthorne study, Herzberg's studies, and recent studies by Peters and Waterman would disagree with Taylor on this factor. However, it would seem in the field of education recently, there has been a strong push for motivation through performance-based compensation or merit pay which would be in agreement with Taylor's theory that money serves as a motivator.

Taylor believed that personal ambition was a strong incentive. He believed that men would not work or follow directions unless they obtained some personal benefits from it. He was thus an advocate of individual reward and individual assignment to work. He did not believe in group tasks. He felt that groups could become too cohesive and be susceptible to group think. He also felt that "social loafing" might take place for people working in a group and that they would put out less effort than when they were working alone.

Current views seem to indicate that although people may not work as hard in groups, the benefits in terms of cooperation, knowledge, and flexibility generally outweigh the costs.

Locke (1976) and his students from the University of Maryland, analyzed available field studies that examined the effectiveness of the following motivational techniques: money, goal setting, participation in decision making, and job enrichment. They found that the median performance improvement resulting from individual monetary incentive systems was 30%. This figure was far higher than for any other incentive. Their findings were based on studies of blue collar workers and coincided with the results of recent studies which indicated extrinsic incentives such as money are more important for blue collar workers than for white collar employees.

Taylor's other major motivational technique was goal

setting--the assigning of specific tasks. In studies done by Locke (1982), goal setting was the second most effective motivational technique. If the effect of Taylor's two main motivators, money and goals, are combined there is an expected or potential performance improvement of 46%. Locke found that other kinds of job enrichment such as extreme specialization leads to boredom, low moral, and lack of work motivation due to under-utilized mental capacity. Taylor argues for a matching of men to jobs in accordance to their capabilities. People who do jobs that require very little mental capacity should be people who have very little mental capacity.

McGregor

McGregor (1960) put these two view points of Herzberg and Taylor together and contrasted them through his Theory X and Theory Y. According to the Theory X style of management, the managers would view people as lazy and who would dislike and avoid work. Managers would feel that they needed to use a "carrot and stick method" to motivate workers. Managers would feel that workers would prefer to be led. Such things as sign-in sheets, checklist evaluations, and authoritarianism would rule.

In looking at McGregor's Theory Y style of management, managers would see people as having a psychological need to work; they would desire achievement and responsibility. Reseachers such as Maslow, Drucker,

and Herzberg would have the same underlying philosophies as a Theory Y manager.

Ouchi

Ouchi (1981) calls his management theory Theory Z. This theory is based on the belief that involved workers are the key to increased productivity. He believes that productivity and trust must go hand in hand. A Theory Z manager would recognize that people are complex and would recognize the human side of individuals. He looks at who can work well with whom and recognizes influences outside the job that affect the worker and the effect of a negative work environment on the worker outside the work setting. Characteristics of a Theory Z company are: lifetime employment, slow evaluation and promotion, moderate career specialization, collective decision making, and responsibility, openness and trust, informal implicit control, and holistic concerns.

Theory Z managers build trust by finding ways to decrease the social distance between the employees and themselves through manners of dress, office arrangement and opportunities to socialize together. In reviewing studies by Sergiovanni (1969, 1980) and Lortie (1975) it would seem that teachers would work well with the Theory Z manager. In their studies they found teachers were motivated by 1)achievement (a feeling of having reached and effected students), 2)recognition (letters, verbal statements,

gifts, incentives, and committee appointments from principals, supervisors, parents, students, and peers), 3)responsibility, and 4)interesting work and the opportunity to associate with children or young people.

Other Related Studies

It is important that employers understand what employees want in order to best motivate them in their jobs. A study at George Mason University presented by Hager (1985) compared what workers say they wanted with what managers think employees wanted. "Interesting work" and "appreciation of work done" were the number one and two desires on a ten item list of what workers say they want most from their job (see Figure 2). In contrast, managers place good pay and job security at the top of the list of items they believe employees want most.

One can easily see the misconceptions that can arise when managers seek to satisfy employees by working to give them good pay and job security and still not having employees satisfied when the employees are desperately desiring interesting work and a need to be appreciated. In order to create a truly productive work climate, management and workers need to communicate their needs and desires to one another so that they can establish some common goals to work toward.

The impetus for studying what employees want from their jobs is motivated by data which have shown that job

EMPLOYER/EMPLOYEE DESIRES FROM THE JOB

There are differences between employees and bosses.

Interesting work and a need to be appreciated head a ten-item list of what workers say they want most from their jobs. In contrast, managers place good pay and job security at the top of a list of items they believe employees want most. Here's the list from George Mason University:

<u>What workers say they want</u>	<u>What managers think employees want</u>
1. Interesting work	1. Good pay
2. Appreciation of work done	2. Job security
3. Feeling of being in on-things	3. Promotion and growth
4. Job security	4. Good working conditions
5. Good pay	5. Interesting work
6. Promotion and growth	6. Tactful discipline
7. Good work conditions	7. Loyalty to employees
8. Loyalty to employees	8. Appreciation of work done
9. Help with personal problems	9. Help with personal problems
10. Tactful discipline	10. Feeling of being in on things

Figure 2. A Study of Employer/Employee "Want List".
Source: Kovac, 1985.

satisfaction has implications for individuals, organizations, and society (Young, 1984). Job satisfaction has been found to have a high positive correlation with mental health for several different types of work groups (Kornhauser, 1965). Studies done by Jenkins (1971) found that job satisfaction was related to workers' low cholesterol levels and lower incidents of coronary heart disease.

Job satisfaction has been found to have implications for organizations in the areas of selection and retention. In the area of selection, job satisfaction is important because given the choice between accepting one position over another position, an individual is likely to accept a position which has a higher value for job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964). Porter and Steers (1974) found that job satisfaction related consistently with tardiness, absenteeism, and turn over.

On the societal level, job satisfaction has been found to be related to the broader issues of quantity and quality of life. Palmore (1969) found job satisfaction to be a better predictor of life expectancy than he did tobacco use or physical conditioning. With respect to quality of life, Lawler (1973) captured this issue when he found that there was an increasing acceptance of the view that material possessions and economic growth do not necessarily produce a high quality of life. He concluded, however, that one measure of the quality of life is job

satisfaction.

According to Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) job satisfaction is difficult to assess, because it becomes increasingly contingent and difficult to predict. First, it has become contingent on a person's particular needs and, simultaneously, contingent on a person's expectations from a job. Job satisfaction thus becomes contingent on a person's perceptions of the connections between job activities and characteristics and that person's satisfaction.

Herzberg (1968) found that persons tended to describe good feelings in terms of factors intrinsic to themselves or toward their work activities and bad feelings were due to things outside of themselves or their immediate jobs. This tendency is similar to the common phenomenon of attributing success to personal causes and failure to external causes as noted by Weiner and Sierad (1975). When individuals are lead to believe that their performance is successful, they tend to attribute various pleasing characteristics to the work group. It thus seems important to try to find out what characteristics in a job should be emphasized and built upon in order to create greater job satisfaction for employees and thus a more productive work climate. Turner and Lawrence (1965) developed the requisite task attribute index which included the job attributes of variety, autonomy, required interaction, optional interaction, knowledge, skill, and responsibility.

Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) noted that Hackman and Lawler described jobs in terms of their variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback, opportunity for dealing with others, and friendship opportunities. In 1975, Hackman and Oldham developed a job diagnostic survey which measured the five dimensions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977). The important contributions of these types of surveys are that they generate a list of job characteristics that can be tested for job satisfaction. If a defined job characteristic did provide for the satisfaction of higher order needs, then the individual with those needs should be more or less satisfied to the extent their jobs have those characteristics. This is primarily what Hackman and Lawler (1971) found in their studies.

School Administration

It is now appropriate to look at school administration and its characteristics and the satisfactions that people derive from it. What are the job characteristics of school administrators and what satisfactions do administrators seek from their jobs? Many job satisfaction studies have been conducted but these studies have tended to focus primarily on production workers rather than on administrators. As discussed

earlier, principals and other administrators are viewed as instructional leaders within the organization. It is important that motivators for administrators be recognized in order to structure administrative jobs that will be satisfying to the administrator and put administrators in better positions to lead the organization.

Bennis (1976) found that leaders confront problems which may have no solutions or at best only approximate solutions. He feels that conflicting demands and a turbulent environment make leadership difficult. The autonomy of leaders has been reduced by organizational and internal pressure groups in a society which makes demands on the organization and its leader, and by comprehensive regulations imposed by external agencies. Consequently, the leader is seen by Bennis to be isolated and as a boundary person who negotiates between external forces and internal constituents.

Mumford (1972) identified five schools of thought on research into job satisfaction. All of these can be seen as directly related to what an administrator does in his or her school or district to increase job satisfaction for themselves and for their employees. The first school, the "psychological needs school", is exemplified by Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1968), who see the development of motivation as a central factor in job satisfaction and concentrate their attention on stimuli which are believed to lead to motivation--the needs of individuals for

achievement, recognition, responsibility, and status. The "leadership school" directs observations at the effect of leadership style upon subordinates. The "effort-reward-bargain school" concentrates on the effect of wages and salaries on job satisfaction. The "management ideology school" concentrates on the effect of different types of management behavior upon the job satisfaction. The "work content and job redesign school" views the work itself as a prime determinant of job satisfaction.

Herzberg (1968) found in his research that the motivation-hygiene theory is relevant but may vary with different types of occupations. Critical incident studies by Iannone (1973) and Schmidt (1976) attempted to determine the relevance of Herzberg's theory for school administrators. Iannone found through a random sample of 20 elementary and 20 secondary principals that achievement and recognition were mentioned far more frequently as a source of satisfaction than any other job aspects. However, both achievement and recognition were also identified as common source of dissatisfaction. The ratio of satisfaction to dissatisfaction was 83 to 30 for achievement and 74 to 21 for recognition. Discrepancies of satisfaction and dissatisfaction occurred with perceived sources of dissatisfaction in terms of interpersonal relations with subordinates and interpersonal relationship with superiors, which had satisfaction/dissatisfaction ratios of 21 to 38 and 5 to 18 respectively. The only

absolute distinction between satisfaction and dissatisfaction occurred with school district policy and administration for which the ratio was 0 to 33.

Schmidt (1976) conducted a similar study using a sample of 74 educational administrators in Chicago which consisted of principals, their immediate supervisors, and their immediate subordinates. He found that achievement, recognition, and advancement were perceived to be the major determinants of these subjects' overall satisfaction. Interpersonal relations with subordinates, policy and administration, interpersonal relations with superiors, and interpersonal relations with peers were perceived to be the major determinants of overall dissatisfaction. The lack of a clear cut distinction between the category of factors was again obvious when we look at the determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction ratios for the above listed factors: achievement (68 to 12), recognition (25 to 6), advancement (13 to 2), interpersonal relations with subordinates (16 to 51), policy and administration (5 to 21), interpersonal relations with superiors (7 to 18), and interpersonal relations with peers (4 to 13).

To summarize, these studies in education show general support for Herzberg's findings with emphasis upon achievement and recognition as satisfiers and upon interpersonal relations and policy administration as dissatisfiers.

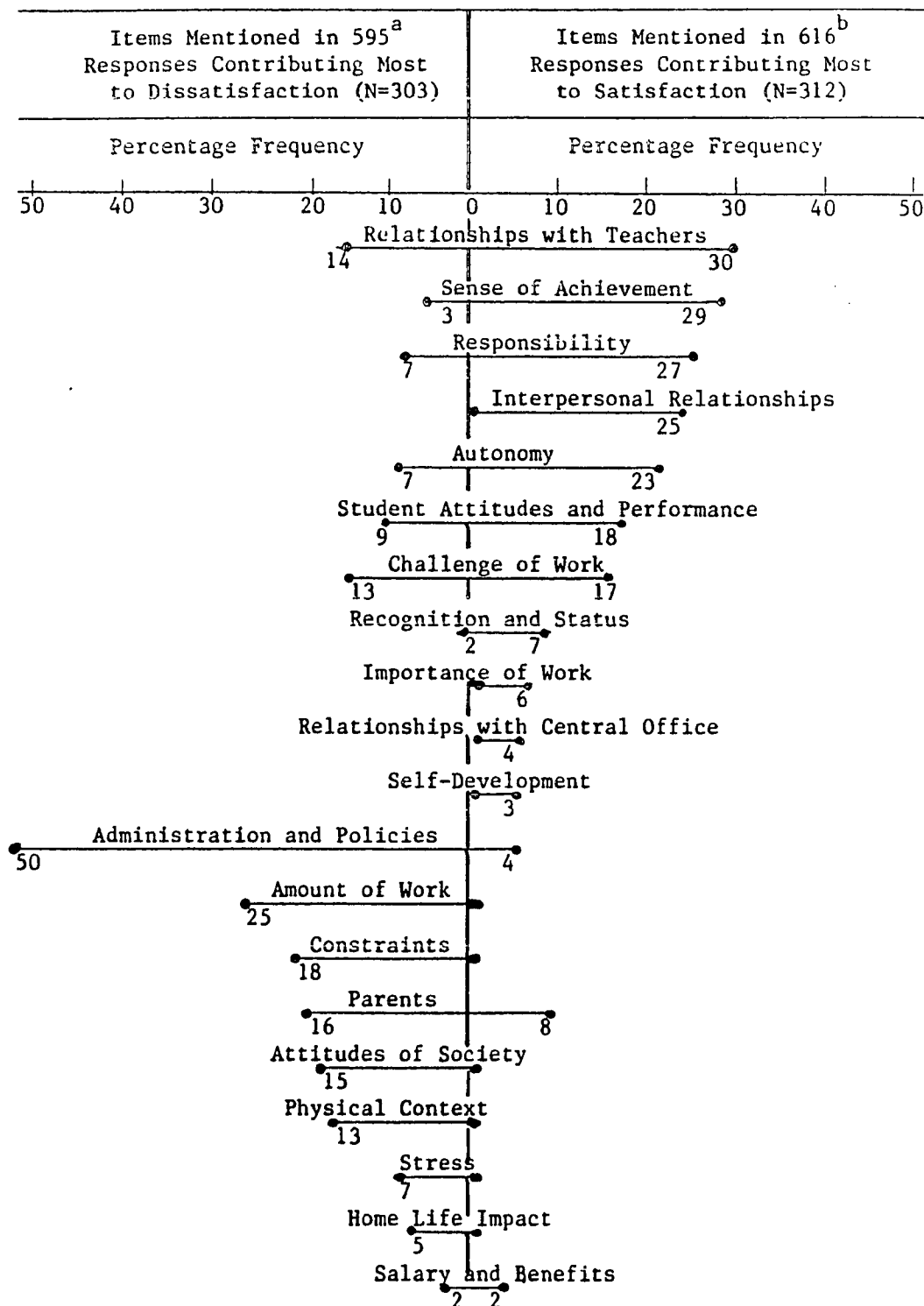
Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983) conducted another

study which considered the satisfaction of school principals with their work. The study identified seven job aspects as being relevant to the overall satisfaction of principals with their work. These aspects were: (1)the work itself, (2)occupational status and prestige, (3)interaction with district administration, (4)interaction with teachers, (5)interaction with students, (6)salary and benefits, and (7)working conditions.

One of the studies which Friesen, Holdaway and Rice's work utilized included a comprehensive review of studies on job satisfaction by Locke (1976) in which he reached the following conclusions: (a)work attributes that have been found to be related to satisfaction are mentally challenging; (b)work satisfaction is derived from work which is varied, allows autonomy, is not physically fatiguing, is mentally challenging, and allows the individual to experience success and is personally interesting; (c)satisfaction with rewards such as pay depends upon the fairness of the distribution and the degree of congruence with personal goals; and (d)satisfaction with working conditions depends upon compatibility with the individual's physical needs and the degree which they facilitate the attainment of work goals.

After identifying the seven job aspects, Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983) prepared a study of public school principals. The two major research questions in the study were: (1)"What aspects are identified by principals as

contributing to their overall job satisfaction, and their overall job dissatisfaction?" and (2)"To what extent do these aspects correspond to those obtained by Herzberg and other researchers?" (p. 45). Friesen, Holdaway and Rice felt it necessary to carry out their study for two reasons. They wanted to know more about the principalship and how the principals felt about their positions. Secondly, changes in societal values, conditions and expectations over the last 10 years or so have tended to make the principals' position more difficult than it formally was, while at the same time many recent studies have shown the cruciality of principals in developing effective schools. A random sample of 410 principals was selected for the study. The principals came from a wide variety of backgrounds and different social settings. The median age of the principals in the the study was 41 years old and almost 91% of them were male. The principals came from an equal distribution of high school and elementary schools. Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice's study was conducted in 1978 and 1979. The analysis of results found that substantial overlap occurred between satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors with eight factors out of twenty identified in the analysis occurring uniquely in relation to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The study also found that salary and benefit received only about 2% of the items mentioned in relationship to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Figure 3).



^a A total of 595 responses was obtained from the 303 principals who identified sources of dissatisfaction.

^b A total of 616 responses was obtained from the 312 principals who identified sources of satisfaction.

Figure 3. Satisfaction of School Principals. Source:
Friesen, Holdaway, & Rice, 1983, p.48-49.

The main sources of satisfaction for many of the principals studied involved interpersonal relationships, achievement, responsibility and autonomy, with students' attitudes and performance, job challenge, recognition and status, and job importance being of secondary significance.

Those factors receiving a high frequency of mention as job dissatisfiers included relationships with parents, administration and policies, amount of work, overall constraints, attitudes of society, and working conditions. Principals may be able to influence some of these matters, and as a result be less dissatisfied with them.

The results of Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice's study generally agreed with Herzberg concerning 1) the association between achievement, responsibility and recognition as sources of overall satisfaction, and 2) between policy and administration and working conditions as sources of overall dissatisfaction. Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983) went on to further compare the results of their studies with the Herzberg theory. In the area of interpersonal relations, the Herzberg studies of production employees concluded that interpersonal relationship with supervisors, subordinates and peers were major sources of dissatisfaction. However, in their study, they found that interpersonal relationships among principals were considered to be sources of more satisfaction than dissatisfaction. This discrepancy can be explained by realizing that for a manager, such as a school principal, the central part of one's work continually

involves dealing with people. This corresponds to Herzberg's "the work itself" for employees lower in the hierarchy. Interaction with people is probably less crucial to the performance of production workers, while a principal is highly involved with people constantly.

The prospect for advancement was not mentioned as either a source of satisfaction or dissatisfaction by the principals, whereas over 20% of the Herzberg subjects mentioned it as a source of satisfaction. They may not have mentioned this because principals may see themselves as having very limited opportunities for promotions to positions to the school's central office or elsewhere. Thus, principals may accept their limited promotion situations rather than let it be a source of concern. It may be equally possible that principals may have reached their position of career aspirations and may not be interested in any advancement.

Dissatisfiers, such as overall constraint, students' attitudes and performance, and attitudes of society for educational administrators, were not apparent in Herzberg's research. This may have resulted from the nature of work of the principals as administrators of educational organizations, which differs in many respects from that of other organizations. Stress was not included in Herzberg's list of dissatisfiers, but almost 7% of the principals classified it as such. Possible reasons for this difference may be seen in the emergence of greater stress

in more recent times, greater awareness of stress, and the probability that senior administrators, such as principals, may experience stress to a greater degree than do occupational groups lower in the hierarchy. Stress also may result from the principal's isolation in his or her own school, whereas in organizations one generally tends to have 'people on ones' like level within the same building for support.

A study was conducted by Arnold (1983) on job satisfaction for school business officials. His study looked at officials and administrators in large school districts in Illinois. He found that there was general job satisfaction among administrators and that dissatisfaction was derived more from the work than from the work environment. He measured work in terms of activity, independence, variety, social status, moral values, security, social service, authority, ability utilization, responsibility, creativity, and achievement. The work environment was viewed as supervision (human relations and supervision) and technical (school district policies, advancement and recognition). Results of the survey indicated that administrators felt satisfaction with work variety, supervision, social services and in relations with co-workers. Administrators earning over \$32,000 a year were more satisfied with work environment factors than those earning under \$20,000 a year. He concluded that salary makes a difference in an administrator's perception

of job satisfaction in the work environment.

Administrators under 40 were not as satisfied with the work environment as administrators over 50. Administrators under 40 were dissatisfied with compensation and advancement and satisfied with security, authority, and achievement. Administrators over 40 were satisfied with compensation, advancement, security, authority and achievement.

Miskel (1973) found that educators who were interested in advancement were not as concerned with security, and that central office administrators were not overly concerned with the security factor in their jobs. He also found that an advanced degree generally had no effect on job satisfaction.

Policy development and implementation in districts vary and evidence indicates that it affects job satisfaction. Lack of participation in district policy formulation can result in a feeling of disenfranchisement for administrators. Arnold (1983) concluded that the district administrative framework should encourage and facilitate communications so that individuals involved perceive they are participating in the decision-making processes of the district.

Administrators need to feel that they are a real part of the decision making process and not just serving on a committee where they feel the decisions of that committee have already been made. They need more than to perceive

that they are involved. They need to feel that they are actually involved and that their opinions count.

Arnold further found that the superintendent's turnover resulted in dissatisfaction over district policies and practices. He felt that a new superintendent may create uncertainties that manifest themselves in job dissatisfaction. Huff (1969) found that administrators are satisfied when they are certain about the role expectations others hold for them. He further found evidence that supports the notion that if the superintendent indicates a strong faith in people and their capabilities, there will be a positive influence in the work environment (Mills, 1977).

It is important to reassess why administrators entered the field of education in the first place. It was found by Lortie (1975), and Schlechty and Vance (1981), that those who aspired to teach and enter teaching, place less importance on financial incentives, perhaps because they do not perceive other higher paying alternatives for themselves or because they are motivated by other factors. However, teachers cite low salaries and low occupational prestige as two of the least encouraging factors related to occupational choice (Bredeson, Fruth & Kasten, 1983; Page & Page, 1982).

Those who enter teaching or education in general explain their choice in terms of service motives and personal values such as a desire to work with children, to

contribute to society, and to foster learning (Lortie 1975, Wood 1978). The primary reward of a job in the field of education is the sense that the educator is contributing to the growth and development of his or her students (Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz and Smylie 1984.) This sense of effectiveness is crucial for an educator's improvement and it also appears to have a strong effect on student learning outcome (Berman and McLaughlin, 1977, Brookover, 1977).

In a review of research on teacher incentives, Rosenholtz and Smylie (1984) found that teacher attrition is most related to teaching conditions that undermine teacher effectiveness; that is to say, the teacher's ability to do an effective job of teaching. These conditions include lack of opportunity for professional growth, inadequate preparation time, conflict with/or lack of approval from administrators, and inability to deal effectively with student misbehaviors. Salaries are a contributing factor in decisions to leave teaching but generally not a strong one (Litt and Tuck 1983).

One of the greatest impediments to teachers' professional growth and skill development is teacher isolation (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1984; Lortie, 1975). Teachers spend most of their time physically isolated from their colleagues and there are often few organizational incentives for teacher interaction about specific problems for educational practice. This impediment may also be related to elementary school principals who are in the

building by themselves, have no colleagues within the building, and must seek out colleague contact outside their environment.

Settings for colleagues that provide opportunities for teachers and administrators to assist each other and to solve problems collectively often characterize effective schools. These settings which provide for colleague interaction also appear to enhance teacher and administrator satisfaction and effectiveness along with student learning outcome (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1984). Experienced teachers profit from the opportunities to assume new challenges and leadership roles, while those teachers without as many years of experience profit from the technical assistance provided by veteran colleagues. Opportunities for leadership and professional recognition serve to enhance the retention of effective experienced teachers and administrators (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1984).

Incentives for educator improvement also seems to be strongly influenced by intrinsic professional rewards in a supportive environment. If educators believe their efforts will result in increased effectiveness with students and they receive support from colleagues, they will be more likely to undertake change (Rosenholtz and Smylie 1984; Darling-Hammond, Wise & Pease, 1983).

In general, increased effectiveness depends on goals and rewards that are personally valued and on a responsive environment in which chances of success are good (Vroom,

1964; Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch 1982). Although there does not appear to be research that specifically addresses the issue of financial incentives as a stimulus for teacher improvement, McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) found in their research on educational change that teachers who receive extra pay for training to promote innovation were less likely to achieve their goals for change than others not offered incentive pay. Rosenholtz and Smylie (1984) concluded that without the promise of intrinsic professional rewards and the support of the work setting combined, financial incentives are not sufficient to motivate teachers to change.

A research report done by the District of Columbia Public Schools (1984b) on teacher incentives found that financial incentives are more important for attracting talented people into the teaching profession than for retaining teachers. They further found that teacher retention is enhanced by professional rewards, success of students, opportunities for professional growth, and indirectly by working conditions that make possible the attainment of these intrinsic rewards. Teacher attrition is highest in the early years of teaching, particularly when assistance and support are absent. Teacher satisfaction, effectiveness and student learning are enhanced in environments that minimized teacher isolation by allowing opportunities for mutual problem solving and assistance. Intrinsic rewards such as recognition,

opportunities for professional growth, and leadership appear to be more potent motivators for teacher improvement than financial incentives alone.

While the study from the District of Columbia dealt primarily with teacher incentives, it can be easily compared to administrative incentives, since most administrators in the public school settings were once teachers who entered the profession for the same reasons cited for beginning teachers. In a report on principals' contributions to maintaining change, Corbett (1982) noted that the principals were not very different from teachers, in terms of their need for incentives. When sources of incentives were available to promote change, change took place. When such sources were not available changes did not take place.

Not only must incentives for innovative behavior be available to teachers and administrators, but they must be made available on a continuing basis. In The Change Masters, Kanter (1983) indicated that in order for change to take place and become a part of the culture of the organization, it must continually be worked at over a longer period of time (a "longer" period of time being three to five years). Thus it is very important that incentives be continued over this length of time so that new practices can become part of the routine. Given the typical organization of schools, principals are the major source of such incentives.

Two particularly effective and yet easily provided incentives are attention and expression of the high value that a principal places on a teacher's performance. Despite these apparently simple and cost-free ways through which innovative behavior becomes maintained, they do not often take place. Similar parallels can be drawn between the amount of expression and attention that the principal and other administrators receive from higher levels of the administration.

Corbett (1982) cites several implications for maintaining change. First, if superiors are not particularly disposed to interact with subordinates about their work, or favor such interaction but cannot find time for it, they are not likely to make a special effort to provide incentives for their employees to continue changes. To stimulate such action, system incentives must be made available to the manager or those in leadership roles, such as principals or their superiors. For the district to readily allocate the necessary resources to support particular administrative behaviors, projected related changes must be seen as ways to obtain district goals or to meet state mandates. Only rarely will a project succeed over time without a tie-in with district priorities.

Secondly, formal project activity, such as meeting to discuss progress, provides a means for refocusing attention on an innovative behavior. Just the fact of knowing that such a meeting is scheduled is often enough to spur

teachers and principals to maintain support for changes. Scheduling several such meetings after the major portion of a project has ended provides a built-in source of incentives. This extension of special events related to a project reduces the burden that an individual might carry alone to promote the continuation or change.

Thirdly, immediate supervisors are most likely to be a source of incentives, for instance, principals are the most likely sources for incentives for teachers. Directors are the most likely sources for incentives for principals. However, they are not the only sources. By creating more opportunity for joint planning and shared classroom responsibilities among teachers or shared projects among administrators, a supervisor could encourage employees to have a greater potential source of incentives for one another. Doing this will reduce some of the administrative burden of maintaining change and considerably improve the chances that new practices will endure.

Corbett (1982) found a provision of incentives was the key to making change become an integral part of the system. If an employee thought that some reward, such as more attention, was the result of engaging innovative behavior or that innovative behavior reduced the chances that something bad would happen to them (such as a poor evaluation), the employee tended to continue the behavior. He further found that when participants were actively solicited to be in a project, they had frequent

opportunities to discuss professional matters in the company of their superiors, outside experts, and other colleagues. If their initial attempts in implementing changes were greeted with a steady stream of attention and encouragement then change more easily became a part of the culture of the organization. Thus the employees worked harder and received recognition commensurate with their efforts. He found this to be a heady experience for most which lead to frustration when the constant attention diminished sharply after implementation. Not surprisingly then, when formal activities ended, so did most of the changes, unless the superiors made some effort to continue the attention and encouragement.

Corbett (1982) found one easily-provided-for effective, intrinsic incentive for teachers was attention. Teachers did not expect principals to observe their classes frequently, or to engage them in long conversation about the new practices, but the teachers greatly appreciated passing remarks, and the recognition of their innovative efforts or sincere inquiry as to how the changes were progressing. Without the extra attention, it was easier to go back to old practices and continue what they were doing prior to the implemented change. The view is repeated in the old adages, "If ignored, it will soon go away" or "Out of sight, out of mind."

Using the evaluation process as a tool to promote change can be seen as a double-edged sword. It can either

be for or against you. Change requires risk and it is easier not to take a risk, try to blend into the background, and thus create no waves and no negative evaluation. If change takes place employees must feel they are in a safe environment where they can risk failure and still be given support in order to begin in a new direction. Thus, evaluation can be seen as an impediment to maintaining change if it cuts off the safe environment where innovative change takes place.

On the other side of the spectrum, some employees may strive to work a little bit harder knowing that their evaluation relies on their ability to implement the change and make it a part of their culture in the organization. Thus, an evaluation may serve as an incentive or motivator to get an employee to conform to the desires of the organization.

In a report covering the synthesis of research on teacher motivation, Silver (1982) notes that the more frequently teachers receive praise, interesting responsibilities, growth opportunities, and chances for advancement as a result of good teaching, the more likely they will be to perceive good teaching as instrumental in attaining desirable outcome. School leaders who most consistently link teaching effectiveness with the teachers' sense of achievement, recognition, and responsibility will have the most professionally motivated teachers.

In using Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), the more

frequently teachers' efforts result in successful teaching the more likely they will be to perceive effort as related to the quality of teaching. School administrators can influence teachers' subjective expectancy by such strategies as observing teaching and explicitly acknowledging good teaching at frequent intervals, specifying some of the achievable teaching behaviors that constitute excellence in teaching, providing genuine training so that many teachers actually gain some of the requisite skills, and by informing teachers of their student learning gains, particularly when those gains are outstanding. Leaders who convince teachers that actions favorably affect student learning will have the most professionally-motivated teachers. This can easily be related to the need that administrators have for their own motivation. They also have a need to be recognized for their efforts. Observing administrators and acknowledging their performances at frequent intervals, telling them when they have achieved excellence in their field, providing good training so that they can gain some new skills, and informing them about the way their school or department is perceived and the competency of the teachers or others under their leadership will also help motivate administrators.

Educators, both teachers and administrators, need their ego built and strengthened by honest insightful praise, specific suggestions, and inservice training.

Change takes time. Changing educators' level of motivation cannot be accomplished overnight. Change requires a thoughtful strategy, insights, and persistence over time. Teachers and administrators must all work together to provide quality education. Involved workers are the key to increased productivity according to Ouchi in his Theory Z theory.

Educators need to build sufficient trust and sufficient incentives for change among themselves for the good of the organization. Administrators need to share the leadership and power in the organization in order to seek ways toward innovation and thus build staff morale. Shared leadership requires that the leader respond to the needs of the group and that each person within that group share the responsibility for the groups' actions.

According to Peters and Waterman (1982), treating people decently and asking them to shine and produce things that worked motivated and turned people into dedicated employees. Rule books were replaced by employees' contributions. These are the characteristics found in America's best run companies. These best companies which also paid attention to employees (not working conditions per se) showed that the individual human being still counted and treated workers as sources of quality and productivity, and did not foster a we/they attitude but lived up to their commitment together as people.

Leslie (1985) reports that Joseph R. Wells, Jr.,

chairman of the board and president of Sun Bank Inc., in a speech at the Sun Belt Strategic Management Conference at Georgia State University stated that excellence at the top, begets excellence throughout the organization. The internalization of excellence creates an organizational climate and exudes excellence externally.

Communication can be seen as a key to motivation. Motivation is built on mutual trust that must be earned. Leaders must be in contact with their staffs in both formal and informal settings and have opportunities to socialize together. Interpersonal communication is essential to build trust. Mutual trust is in turn reflected in decisions centering on the district or school building objectives, individual problems, or in the broad sense the image of the district in the eyes of those with whom the staff members come in contact.

Effective two-way communication has been shown to motivate a staff to reduce burnout and stress (National School Public Relations Association, 1984). In a 1982 survey of 32,000 employees in 26 corporations in the United States and Canada, important information was gathered that would improve communications among the supervisor and his employees. Figure 4 illustrates the current and preferred sources of organizational information. As one will note, getting information from the immediate supervisor is the preferred source of information. Workers want to have that direct contact with their immediate supervisor.

What are respondents' major current and preferred sources
of organizational information?

Ranked in order of preferred sources.

Preferred			Current		
Ranking	Major source for:	Sources of information	Ranking	Major source for:	
1	91.2%	My immediate supervisor	1	56.9%	
2	60.5%	Small group meetings	4	30.3%	
3	50.2%	Top executives	11	11.7%	
4	45.6%	Employees handbook/other brochures	3	30.9%	
5	42.7%	Local employee publication	8	21.4%	
6	42.6%	Orientation program	12	10.9%	
7	40.7%	Organization-wide employee publication	6	24.8%	
8	40.6%	Annual state-of-the-business report	7	21.6%	
9	38.8%	Bulletin boards	5	28.9%	
10	34.3%	Upward communication program	14	8.3%	
11	30.8%	The union	9	20.7%	
12	26.8%	Mass meetings	10	13.8%	
13	24.4%	Audio-visual programs	15	8.0%	
14	9.7%	Mass media	13	9.6%	
15	9.3%	The grapevine	2	38.4%	

A 1982 survey of 32,000 employees in 26 corporations in the United States and Canada produced critical information for school administrators interested in improving their communications with staff. The chart above illustrates the differences between employees' preferred methods of receiving information about their organization and the current practice.

Figure 4. Preferred Sources of Organizational Information.
Source: Leslie, 1985, p. 8.

Summary

Excellent companies exploit ideas, inventions, and innovations. They do not rest on their laurels, but always seek to pioneer products and services. They promote and reward individual leaders within the ranks of the company. For it is individual leaders, not organizations alone, that create excellence (Hickman & Silva, 1984).

Individual leaders who have developed specific skills create superior organizational performance. With their unique skills, they lead others toward excellence, carefully cultivating those with whom they work. Hager (1985) pointed out that leadership consists of a complex cluster of learned behaviors and skills.

Bennis (1976) compiled a list of qualities that successful leaders in 90 corporations shared: a focus on commitment, an ability to communicate well, reliability/accountability, and positive self-regard. These attributes are as important for school administrators as they are for corporate managers. These characteristics also compared favorably with a list of new leadership skills of the future from Hager's own district (Degen, 1985). According to this list, successful administrators who collaborate with others are creative entrepreneurs who take risk and initiate change. With their orientation towards personal growth, they encourage their staff to grow

and learn. Administrators with these skills have a desire for quality which may lead to creative problem solving and "a personal vision for the future that is rooted in strategic planning and realistic assessments of school and community environments" (Degen, 1985, p. 3).

Realizing the tremendous impact that administrators can have on their staffs--and the entire educational organization--it is important to bear in mind that these individuals also need recognition and a sense of achievement. Recognition needs to come from those rewards that administrators personally value in order to increase administrators' effectiveness. Administrators need to be given a vote of confidence and be provided with a safe environment in which it is alright to take risks and share with others. School administrators must receive support and recognition in order to increase their skills and the skills and talents of others.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Population Studied

The population of this study consisted of the administrators of a large suburban school district near Portland, Oregon. The 83 responding administrators of the district were divided into three groups based upon the job site (school building or central office) and upon their working relationship with other administrative personnel within their assigned job site. Tables II-IV provide demographic information for each of the three groups of administrators.

The 26 principals at the elementary schools (K-6) were assigned to group I. Elementary principals work in a school building in which they are the sole administrator. They are responsible for all administrative tasks at the school level. Elementary principals are more isolated than other district administrators from their supervisor by job site and number (one supervisor to 26 elementary

TABLE II
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
OF VARIABLES RELEVANT TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Variable	Category	Frequency		Percent Frequency of all Elementary Administrators Total = 26
		M	F	
Age	31-40	3	2	19
	41-50	7	6	50
	Over 51	8	-	31
Sex	Male	17	-	65
	Female	-	9	35
Highest Academic Degree Earned	Masters	15	9	92
	Doctoral	2	-	8
Age When First Became an Administrator	30 or under	9	1	38
	31-40	8	6	54
	41-50	-	2	8
Total Years in Administration	1- 5	1	6	27
	6-15	5	3	31
	16-25	9	-	35
	Over 25	2	-	8
Number of Districts Where Administrator	1	8	6	54
	2-3	9	3	46
	Over 3	-	-	-
Number of Students in School	400 or less	9	2	42
	401-600	6	7	50
	601-900	2	-	7
	Over 900	-	-	-
Primary Wage Earner	Yes	16	5	81
	No	1	4	19
Spouse Receives Salary	Yes	7	6	50
	No	8	-	31
	N/A	2	3	19

TABLE III
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
OF VARIABLES RELEVANT TO SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Variable	Category	Frequency		Percent Frequency of all Secondary Administrators Total = 18
		M	F	
Age	31-40	1	3	22
	41-50	7	3	56
	Over 51	4		22
Sex	Male	12	*	66
	Female	-	6*	34
Position	Vice Principal	8	4	67
	Principal	4	2	33
Highest Academic Degree Earned	Masters	12	6	100
	Doctoral	-	-	-
Age When First Became Administrator	30 or under	4	-	22
	31-40	6	4	56
	41-50	2	2	22
Total Years in Administration	1- 5	2	4	33
	6-15	3	2	28
	16-25	7	-	39
Number of Districts Where Administrator	1	9	6	83
	2-3	2	-	11
	Over 3	1	-	6
Number of Students in School	600-800	3	1	22
	801-900	1	1	11
	Over 900	8	4	67
Primary Wage Earner	Yes	10	4	78
	No	2	2	22
Spouse Receives Salary	Yes	8	3	61
	No	3	1	22
	N/A	1	2	17

*Six responding administrators did not supply demographic information.
Total respondents = 24.
Those supplying demographic information = 18.

TABLE IV
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
OF VARIABLES RELEVANT TO CENTRAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATORS

Variable	Category	M	F	% of all Central Office Administrators Total = 29
Age	31-40	3	4	24
	41-50	8	3	38
	Over 51	9	2	38
Sex	Male	20	*	69
	Female	-	9	31
Highest Academic Degree Earned	Bachelors	-	2	7
	Masters	13	6	66
	Doctoral	5	-	17
	Respondents Left this Blank	2	1	10
Age When First Became Administrator	30 or Under	6	-	21
	31-40	11	6	59
	41-50	3	2	17
	Over 50	-	1	3
Total Years as Administrator	1- 5	4	3	24
	6-15	6	5	38
	16-25	10	1	38
Number of Districts Where Administrator	1	9	6	52
	2-3	10	2	41
	Over 3	1	1	7
Primary Wage Earner	Yes	17	3	69
	No	3	6	31
Spouse Receives Salary	Yes	8	6	48
	No	7	1	28
	N/A	5	2	24

*Three responding administrators did not supply background information.
Total respondents = 33
Those supplying demographic information = 29

principals). All these factors impact job satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1974; Friesen, Holdaway and Rice, 1983).

The 24 principals and vice principals at the intermediate (7-9) and high school (10-12) level were assigned to group II. Secondary administrators have other administrators who work in the same school building and thus have more administrative teaming opportunities, but perhaps less autonomy. The number of secondary principals (six intermediate and three high school) makes it logistically easier for their groups to interact, share, problem-solve, and receive feedback than it does for the twenty-six elementary principals.

Group III consisted of 33 administrators who are central office department heads, assistant superintendents, the superintendent, and other central office and satellite office administrative positions. Central office contains many administrators on several different levels. Some are in supervisory positions (others are not) but most have quick access to other administrators who have the same or similar jobs and work in the same building. They are not working in buildings with direct contact with students and teachers in a regular classroom setting. Thus, they have more interaction with district administrators, but less interaction with teachers and students. All of this is relevant to job satisfaction (Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice, 1983.)

Hypotheses and Data Analysis

The hypotheses in this study utilize Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). (This survey instrument will be explained in the Design of the Instrument section of this study.) Information obtained from the JDS assists in determining if sex and group membership (elementary, secondary, or central office) are factors which relate to job satisfaction as established by the JDS score for general satisfaction.

Research Question #1

Is the job satisfaction of the school district administrators related to the personal factors of group membership and sex?

Statistical Hypotheses

- #1: Job satisfaction does not relate to group membership.
- #2: Job satisfaction does not relate to sex.
- #3: Job satisfaction does not relate to group membership and sex combined.

Analysis

The above three hypotheses are analyzed using a two-

way analysis of variance factorial design. The program used to run statistical data for this study was SPSS/PC+. Job satisfaction serves as the dependent variable and group membership and sex are the independent variables. The means of group membership and sex are compared. Analysis enabled the reseacher to answer the following questions: Is there an effect for group membership? Is there an effect for sex? Is there an interaction between group membership and sex?

A general satisfaction score was obtained utilizing the JDS. Analysis of variance determined if job satisfaction is related to group membership and sex. The level of significance was set at .05.

Herzberg's studies and other studies cited and summarized in the Data Collection section of this study showed autonomy, responsibility, the work itself, growth, recognition, feedback, achievement, and interpersonal relationships to be primary sources of job satisfaction. These findings relate to the core job dimensions identified in the JDS as illustrated in Table V.

Research Question #2

What are the sources of overall job satisfaction? Do they confirm findings from previous studies as cited above and summarized in the Data Collection section of this study?

TABLE V

RELATIONSHIPS OF RESEARCH BASED JOB SATISFIERS WITH JDS
CORE JOB SATISFIERS AND RELIABILITIES OF
THE JDS SCALES*

Research Based Job Satisfiers	Related JDS Core Job Satisfiers	Internal Consistency Reliability	**Median Off-diagonal Correlation
Autonomy			
Responsibility	Autonomy	.66	.19
The Work Itself	Skill Variety	.71	.19
Growth	Task Identity	.59	.12
	Task Significance	.66	.14
Recognition	Feedback from the		
Feedback	Job Itself	.71	.19
Achievement	Feedback from Agents	.78	.15
Interpersonal Relationships	Dealing with Others	.59	.15

*Source: Adaptation from Hackman and Oldham, 1974, p.18

**"The median off-diagonal correlation is the median correlation of the items scored on a given scale with all of the items scored on different scales of the same type. Thus, the median off-diagonal correlation for skill variety (.19) is the median correlation of all items measuring skill variety with all the items measuring the other six job dimensions" (Hackman & Oldham, 1974, p.18).

Analysis

Utilizing the data and results from Question #1, a measurement of job satisfaction was obtained. Multiple regression with an alpha level of .05 was used to predict general job satisfaction (dependent variable) obtained from the JDS from the seven identified JDS job satisfiers (independent variables). Using dummy variables, group membership and sex were then added as independent variables along with the job satisfiers. Multiple regression with general job satisfaction as the dependent variable was again done to further determine if sex and group membership had an effect on job satisfaction.

Correlations of job satisfaction with each of the job satisfiers as identified by the JDS was obtained to determine those satisfiers which are most closely correlated to job satisfaction.

Data obtained from the free response questions contained in Section 8 of the survey were categorized using content analysis. Sex and group membership differences in the identification of job satisfiers were analyzed. Results were compared to the structured responses of the JDS survey. Comparisons were drawn between the two sources of data which identified primary job satisfiers. Sources of dissatisfaction and changes to increase job satisfaction were also categorized using content analysis.

Design of the Instrument

The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Appendix A) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974) through Yale University, Department of Administrative Sciences, was used to collect the data for this study. This instrument was designed to measure the following classes of variables:

- 1) The objective characteristics of jobs, particularly the degree to which jobs are designed so that they enhance work motivation and job satisfaction.
- 2) The satisfactions individuals obtain from their jobs and work settings.
- 3) The readiness of individuals to respond positively to "enriched" jobs--jobs with high potential for generating internal work motivation.

The theory on which the JDS is based is presented in Figure 5. It proposes that positive personal and work outcomes (high internal motivation, high work satisfaction, high quality performance) are obtained when three "critical psychological states" are present (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the results of the work activities). All three of the critical psychological states must be present for the positive outcomes to be realized (Hackman and Oldham, 1974).

The theory proposes that the three critical psychological states are created by the presence of five "core" job satisfiers (Hackman and Oldham, 1974). These core job satisfiers are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job itself.

Two other dimensions, feedback from agents and dealing with others, are also factors or "cores" which influence work outcomes and are measures obtained from the JDS. Feedback from agents as defined by Hackman and Oldham (1974) is--in essence--recognition and feedback from supervisors. Dealing with others as defined by Hackman and Oldham (1974) is--in essence--interpersonal relationships. Feedback, recognition, and interpersonal relationships are supported by the research to be among the primary job satisfiers. Therefore, this study included feedback from agents and dealing with others as core job satisfiers. This made seven job satisfiers that influence positive personal work outcomes.

Job Satisfier

The JDS provides measures of the seven core satisfiers shown in Figure 5, which are defined as follows:

1. Skill Variety. The degree to which a job requires a variety of activities in carrying out the work, which involves the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employee.

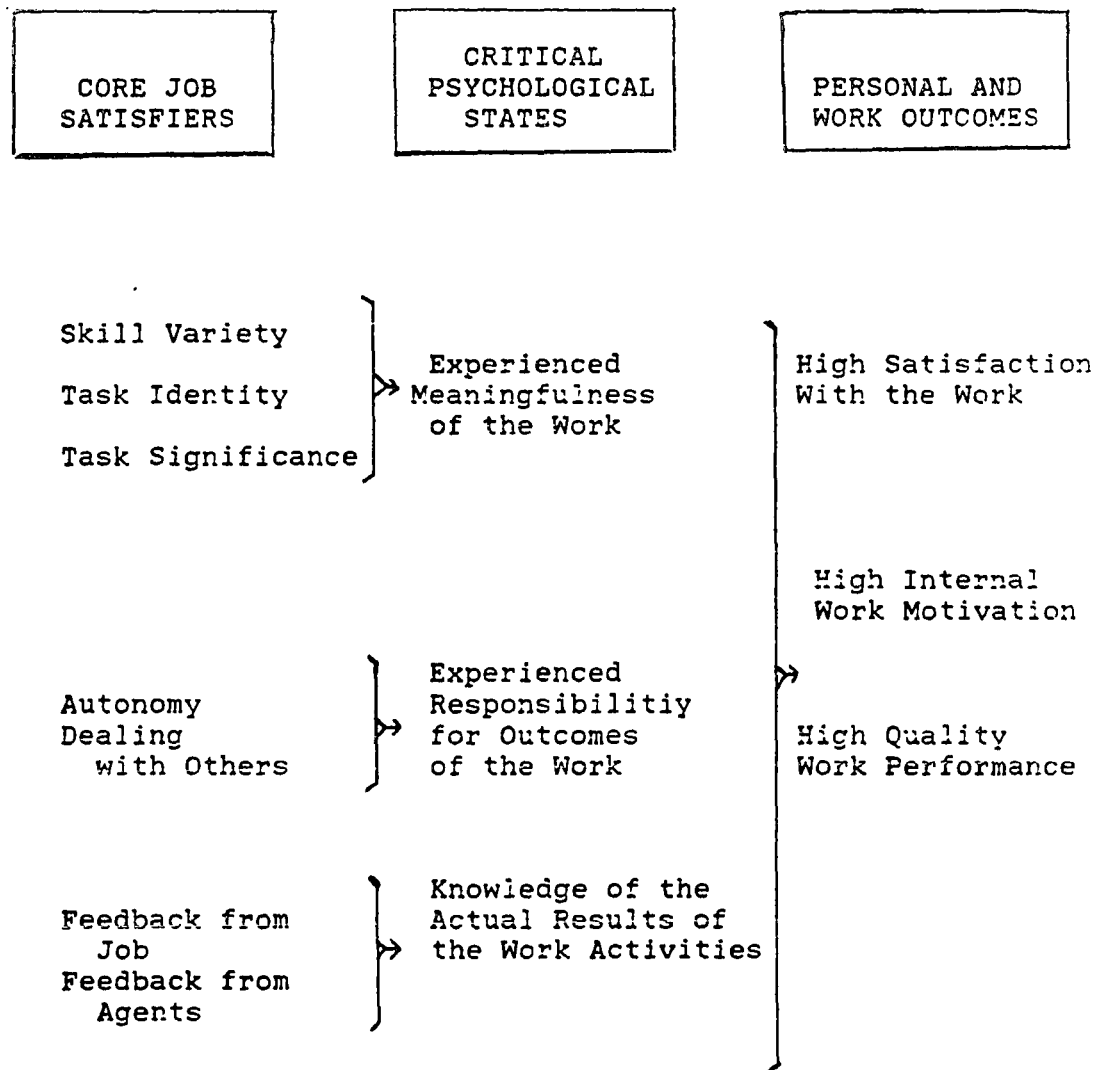


Figure 5. The Relationships Among the Core Job Dimensions, the Critical Psychological States, and On-the-Job Outcomes.
 Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham, 1974, p. 3.

2. Task Identity. The degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work; i.e., doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome.

3. Task Significance. The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people; whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.

4. Autonomy. The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, discretion, and responsibility of the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

5. Feedback from the Job Itself. The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

6. Feedback from Agents. The degree to which the employee receives clear information about his or her performance from supervisors. An employee is recognized for his or her achievements. This dimension is included to provide information to supplement that provided by the feedback from the job itself dimension.

7. Dealing with Others. The degree to which the job requires the employee to work closely with other people in

carrying out the work activities (including dealings with other organization members and with external organizational "clients." This element involves the interpersonal relationships in the work setting.

Critical Psychological States.

The three psychological states of the JDS are shown in Figure 5 as mediating between the core job satisfiers and the outcomes of the work. These are:

1. Experienced Meaningfulness of the Work. The degree to which the employee experiences the job as one which is generally meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile.

2. Experienced Responsibility for Work Outcomes. The degree to which the employee feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of the work he or she does.

3. Knowledge of Results. The degree to which the employee knows and understands, on a continuous basis, how effectively he or she is performing the job.

Affective Reactions to the Job.

The JDS provides measures of personal, affective reactions or feelings a person obtains from performing the job. These are viewed in the context of the theory in Figure 5, as the "personal outcomes" obtained from doing the work.

1. General Satisfaction. An overall measure of the

degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job. The general satisfaction score was used as the primary scale against which the seven core job satisfiers are measured.

The general satisfaction score of the JDS utilizes five questions dispersed in several sections of the instrument to determine the general job satisfaction score. The reliability of the job satisfaction scale has been tested by Hackman and Oldham (1974). Intercorrelations among the five survey items used to determine the JDS general satisfaction score were calculated. The scale reliability for use in this study was calculated using Cronbach's alpha (Carmines and Zeller, 1979).

2. Internal Work Motivation. The degree to which the employee is self-motivated to perform effectively on the job, i.e. the employee experiences positive internal feelings when working effectively on the job, and negative internal feelings when doing poorly.

This study combines the general satisfaction and internal work motivation scores which each have an internal consistency reliability of .76 and a median off-diagonal correlation of .25 on the JDS (Hackman and Oldham, 1974). Studies previously cited by Herzberg (1968), Maslow (1943), Hager (1985), Hackman and Oldham (1974), Lawler (1973), Mumford (1972) also support the notion that motivation is a central and encompassing factor in job satisfaction.

Research cited in Chapter II of this study states

that the primary motivating factors involved with job satisfaction are:

1. Achievement: a personal sense of accomplishment. (Herzberg, 1968; Locke, 1976; Iannonen, 1973; Schmidt, 1976; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1983; McGregor, 1967; Maslow, 1943; Drucker, 1976; Arnold, 1982; Lortie, 1975; Sergiovanni, 1969).

2. Recognition: others notice and comment on what one has done. (Herzberg, 1968; Lortie, 1975; Schmidt, 1976; Corbett, 1982; Silver, 1982; Vroom, 1964; Sergiovanni, 1969; Iannone, 1973; Hager, 1985; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1983).

3. The Work Itself: the work is interesting and valued by the individual. (Herzberg, 1968; Lortie, 1975; Sergiovanni, 1969; Hager, 1985; Locke, 1976; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1983).

4. Responsibility: entrusted to take care of something or to carry out a duty. (Herzberg, 1968; Lortie, 1975; Sergiovanni, 1969; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1983; Ouchi, 1981; McGregor, 1967; Maslow, 1943; Drucker, 1976; Corbett, 1982; Silver, 1982; Arnold, 1982).

5. Growth: opportunities to learn new skills. (Herzberg, 1968; Taylor, 1967; Silver, 1982; Schmidt, 1976).

6. Feedback: the degree to which the employee receives clear information about his or her performance. (Locke, 1976; Taylor, 1967; Drucker, 1976; Corbett, 1982).

7. Autonomy: being allowed to complete a body of work by oneself. (Arnold, 1983; Locke, 1976; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1983).

8. Interpersonal Relationships: meaningful interaction with others in the organization. (Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1983; Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz & Smylie, 1984; Corbett, 1982).

These motivating factors are correlated to the job satisfiers in the JDS as shown previously in Table V. Analysis was done to determine the contribution of these satisfiers to job satisfaction. Tables VI-VII show the relationship between JDS measures and the JDS questions.

Free Response Measure

An additional section, Section 8, accompanied the JDS. The purpose of this section was to obtain the administrators' perceptions of sources of their overall satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their work through free responses. The first two questions were patterned after questions in Friesen, Holdaway, and Rices' (1983) study on the "Satisfaction of School Principals With Their Work."

The questions were formulated to minimize the alleged weakness of the critical-incident method in collecting data. The free responses were designed "to increase psychological 'distance' and to reduce the 'defensiveness' that are claimed to be associated with the critical incident technique" (Friesen, Holdaway, & Rice, 1983, p. 45).

TABLE VI

 RELATIONSHIP OF CORE JOB SATISFIERS AND JDS QUESTIONS

Related JDS Core Job Satisfiers	Relating JDS Questions
Autonomy	#2, #20, #16
Skill Variety	#4, #8, #12
Task Identity	#3, #18, #10
Task Significance	#5, #15, #21
Feedback from the Job Itself	#7, #11, #19
Feedback from Agents	#6, #17, #14
Dealing with Others	#1, #9, #13

TABLE VII

 RELATIONSHIPS OF AFFECTIVE RESPONSES TO JDS QUESTIONS AND
 RELIABILITIES OF THE JDS SCALES

Affective Responses to the Job	Relating JDS Questions	Internal Consistency Reliability	Median Off-diagonal Correlation
General Satisfaction	#24, #34, #30, #52,, #58	.76	.25

Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham, 1974, p.18.

The free response questions also afforded the opportunity of the administrator to provide any information that was not covered in the structured questions in Sections 1-7.

The three questions in Section 8 were:

- 1) Which two factors contribute most to your overall job satisfaction as an administrator?
- 2) Which two factors contribute most to your job dissatisfaction as an administrator?
- 3) What changes might increase your job satisfaction as an administrator?

Data Collection

Permission to conduct this study was obtained on April 25, 1986 from the superintendent of a large suburban school district near Portland, Oregon. The Job Diagnostic Survey was given to all administrators in the school district during the second week in August of 1986.

Permission to reproduce the Job Diagnostic Survey is given in Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Technical Report Number 4, Department of Administrative Sciences, Yale University, "Reproduction in whole or in part is permitted for any purpose of the U.S. Government. Approved for public release; distribution unlimited" (Hackman and Oldham, 1974, p.ii).

In order to increase the rate of return of the

survey, support to conduct the survey was given by the assistant superintendent/personnel, the director of elementary schools, and the director of secondary schools. All three of these people are employed by the school district in which the survey was given. Their support, along with the superintendent's, assisted the rate of return of the survey and helped to emphasize the usefulness of the survey to other district administrators.

The surveys were coded by number and name. A cover letter (Appendix B) was sent along with the survey to all of the school district administrators which explained the usefulness of this study, the measures taken for the confidentiality of their responses on the survey, the time frame for the study, and additional information to be collected. Reminder notices (Appendix C) were sent out two weeks after the survey to 31 administrators who had not returned their survey. Both the cover letter and reminder notice were printed on bright colored paper to stand out among the standard white paper that many memos are printed on.

Phone calls were made to the twelve administrators who had not returned their survey one week after the reminder cards were sent. Ten individuals expressed time constraints as reasons for not returning their survey. Two administrators expressed concern about being too candid in their answers and fear that answers would be traced back to their departments and supervisors. After further

explanation of how the survey results would be compiled and used, they agreed to send in the survey, but wanted a chance to review their answers. The two surveys were never received. On September 29, 1986, 83 or 92.2% of the surveys had been returned. Since this was determined to be the extent of the surveys that would be returned, data compilation and analysis began.

Reliability of the Instrument

The following steps were taken to determine and protect the reliability of the instrument:

- 1) Prior to its publication in 1974, The Job Diagnostic Survey underwent three major revisions. These revisions were based on both psychometric and substantive considerations (Hackman and Oldham, 1974). In the survey's developmental forms, it was taken by over 1500 individuals working on more than 100 different jobs in about 15 different organizations. Tables V and VII present the internal consistency reliabilities of the scales in this study measured by the Job Diagnostic Survey. Also included in the tables for each scale is the median of the correlations between the items composing a given scale and all of the other items which are scored on different scales of the same general type. These median correlations (called in the table "off-diagonal" correlations) provide one reflection of the discriminant validity of the items.

The results suggest that both the internal reliability of the scales and the discriminant validity of the items are satisfactory (Hackman and Oldham, 1974).

2) The instrument utilizes the findings and research as presented in the review of the literature in Chapter II of this dissertation.

3) The instrument utilizes the theories and results of previously conducted studies. The findings of these earlier studies have not been disputed and have been reported as printed information and as presentations at professional meetings.

4) In order to establish the internal and temporal consistency of the survey instrument, the JDS was given during the second week of September to fifteen administrators who previously completed the instrument in August (Appendix D). This sample of fifteen administrators was selected from each of the three groups of administrators and represented both sexes. This follow-up group was selected using stratified random sampling. Twelve administrators returned the second survey. A test-retest reliability coefficient was calculated for the job satisfaction scale by correlating the two scores. The estimated reliability coefficient was .91.

5) Intercorrelations among items used in obtaining the general job satisfaction score are shown in Table VIII. An internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) was computed for this scale. The reliability was .69.

TABLE VIII
CORRELATIONS AMONG ITEMS USED IN
OBTAINING THE JOB SATISFACTION SCORE

Correlations: <u>Items</u>	<u>Item Numbers in the JDS</u>				
	#24	#34	#30	#52	#58
#24	1.0000	.2745*	.0513	.1938	.1608
#34	.2745*	1.0000	.2297	.0853	.2358
#30	.0513	.2297	1.0000	.1033	.3062*
#52	.1938	.0853	.1033	1.0000	.1783
#58	.1608	.2358	.3062*	.1783	1.0000

* - Significant at .01

6) The instrument was reviewed, examined, validated, and approved for use in this study by Dr. Steve Carlson, Director of Planning and Evaluation, Beaverton School District #48 and by Dr. Jack Lind, Portland State University.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the job satisfaction of school district administrators in relationship to group membership (elementary, secondary, or central office administrator) and sex. Sources of overall job satisfaction were to be identified and related to findings from previous studies which showed that achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, growth, feedback, autonomy, and interpersonal relationships were the primary sources of job satisfaction.

Responses and Respondent Information

Of the ninety administrators in the population of this study, 83 responded. The response ratio is 83/90, or nearly 93%.

A validity check to establish the internal and temporal consistency of the survey instrument had a

response ratio of 12/15 or 80%. Correlations run between the first and second set of scores from this group showed a correlation of .91. No follow-up interviews were needed to clarify results.

The First Research Question and Findings

Using a two-way analysis of variance factorial design to determine interrelationships, job satisfaction was compared among elementary, secondary, and central office administrators. Job satisfaction was also compared between male and female administrators at each of these levels.

A general satisfaction score for the school district administrators was obtained. The distribution of the general satisfaction score is roughly normally distributed with a slight left skew. The general satisfaction mean for the population of this study is 5.47 and the standard deviation is .79 (Table IX).

The JDS normative data for administrators states a mean of 4.9 and a standard deviation of 1.0. Hackman and Oldham (1974) stated, "If the target score is (plus or minus) two or more standard deviations from the focal norm, it suggests that the target group is quite discrepant from the normative base" (p. 87). The general satisfaction score for administrators in this study is within the norm for administrators according to the JDS. Administrators in the study are generally satisfied with their jobs.

TABLE IX
JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB SATISFIER
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
Job Satisfaction	5.47	.79	2.80	7.00
Variety	6.44	.57	5.00	7.00
Task Identity	4.74	1.31	1.33	7.00
Task Significance	6.40	.74	3.00	7.00
Autonomy	5.77	.77	3.00	7.00
Feedback from Job	5.24	1.05	2.67	7.00
Feedback from Agents	4.21	1.35	1.33	7.00
Dealing with Others	6.75	.44	5.00	7.00

Using job satisfaction as the dependent variable and group membership and sex as independent variables, a two way analysis of variance (Table X) shows that group membership (.536), sex (.813), and group membership and sex combined (.312) are not significantly related to job satisfaction of school administrators. The level of significance was set at .05. The means of job satisfaction by sex and group membership also show that sex and group membership are not significantly related to job satisfaction (Table XI).

Therefore the following statistical hypotheses of the first research question of this study are correct:

Job satisfaction does not relate to group membership.

Job satisfaction does not relate to sex.

Job satisfaction does not relate to group membership and sex combined.

This finding of no relationship between job satisfaction and sex supports the study by Young (1984). The finding of no relationship between job satisfaction and group membership and between job satisfaction and group membership and sex provides new information not found in the review of the literature.

The Second Research Question and Findings

Job satisfaction according to sex and group membership of school administrators in this study was

TABLE X
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
BY JOB SATISFACTION, SEX, GROUP MEMBERSHIP

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif. of F
Main Effects	.818	3	.273	.424	.737
Sex	.036	1	.036	.057	.813
Job	.809	2	.405	.628	.536
Two-way Interactions	1.524	2	.762	1.184	.312
Sex Group Membership	1.524	2	.762	1.184	.312
Explained	2.342	5	.468	.728	.605
Residual	47.633	74	.644		
Total	49.976	79	.633		

TABLE XI
COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION MEANS
BY SEX AND GROUP MEMBERSHIP

Administrative Group:	Elementary	Secondary	Central Office
Sex			
Male	5.66 (17)	5.16 (14)	5.54 (20)
Female	5.36 (9)	5.56 (11)	5.56 (9)

correlated with each of the seven job satisfiers. Correlations at the .001 level of significance revealed that autonomy and feedback from agents were very highly correlated to job satisfaction. When the level of significance was reduced to the .01 level, high correlations were found between job satisfaction and variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback from the job (Table XII).

With general job satisfaction as the dependent variable, multiple regression revealed an adjusted R Square value of .14760 for autonomy (Table XIII) or 15% of job satisfaction is predictable on the basis of autonomy. When the independent variable of feedback from the job is added to autonomy, the adjusted R Square value become .22037 or 22%. Thus about 22% of job satisfaction can be predicted from the two job satisfiers of autonomy and feedback from the job (Table XIV).

The other job satisfiers of variety, task identity, task significance, feedback from agents, and dealing with others did not reach the .05 level of significance (Table XIV).

Beta weights for each of the two job satisfiers (autonomy and feedback from the job) are shown in Table XIV. The beta weights can be thought of as the regression coefficients that would be obtained if the various predictor variables were equal to one another in terms of means and standard deviations (Huck, Cormier, and

CORRELATIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION
WITH JOB SATISFIERS

<u>Job Satisfiers</u>	<u>Correlation with Job Satisfaction</u>
Variety	.3107*
Task Identity	.3091*
Task Significance	.2857*
Autonomy	.3982**
Feedback from the Job	.3409*
Feedback from Agents	.3552**
Dealing with Others	.0698
* - Significant at .01	
** - Significant at .001	

TABLE XIII

MULTIPLE REGRESSION
Job Satisfaction/Autonomy

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. Job Satisfaction

Beginning Block Number 1. Method: Stepwise

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number 1.. Autonomy

Multiple R .39815
R Square .15852
Adjusted R Square .14760
Standard Error .73547

Analysis of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	7.84662	7.84662
Residual	77	41.65110	.54092

F = 14.50597, Significant at .0003

TABLE XIV

MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Job Satisfaction/Feedback from the Job and Other Non-Significant Job Satisfiers

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable-- Job Satisfaction

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number 2 .. Feedback from the Job

Multiple R .49027
R Square .24036
Adjusted R Square .22037
Standard Error .70338

Analysis of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	11.89734	5.94867
Residual	76	37.60038	.49474

F = 12.02378, Significant beyond .0000

Variables in the Equation

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Autonomy	.37105	.10527	.35615	3.525	.0007
Feedback-Job	.21918	.07660	.28914	3.234	.0018
(Constant)	2.19502	.67871		3.234	.0018

Variables not in the Equation

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Variety	.19579	.21590	.91928	1.915	.0593
Identity	.09619	.09670	.76772	.841	.4028
Significance	.17774	.19773	.93898	1.747	.0848
Feedback-Agent	.17019	.17453	.79893	1.535	.1290
Dealing with Others	.06043	.06835	.95724	.593	.5547

Bounds, 1974). Beta weights of autonomy (.35615) and feedback from the job (.28914) indicate autonomy to be the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

Using general satisfaction as the dependent variable with job satisfiers and sex and group membership (dummy variables) as independent variables, multiple regression with an alpha level set at .05, again revealed no differences in job satisfaction of school administrators based on sex or group membership (Table XV).

Analysis of Free Response Questions

The responses of the administrators to the three open-ended questions contained in Section 8 of the survey were categorized using content analysis. According to Holsti (1969) "content analysis" refers to any procedure for distinguishing themes that permeate a given message. In the open responses of the survey used in the study, the use of content analysis was deemed necessary because the subject's own statements were important to determining the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and the changes that administrators' would make in their jobs to increase their level of job satisfaction.

Ninety-three percent of the responding administrators supplied answers to the open-ended questions. Ninety-one percent of the administrators who provided free responses supplied two satisfiers and two

TABLE XV

MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Job Satisfaction/Job Satisfiers, Sex, Group Membership

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable -- Job Satisfaction

Variables not in the Equation					
Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Variety	.19579	.21590	.91928	1.915	.0593
Identity	.09619	.09670	.76772	.841	.4028
Significance	.17774	.19773	.93898	1.747	.0848
Feed from Agents	.17019	.17453	.79893	1.535	.1290
Dealing with Others	.06043	.06835	.05724	.593	.5547
Dummy Variable: Sex	-.15026	-.16727	.93935	-1.469	.1459
Dummy Variable: Elem.	.09088	.10310	.96154	.898	.3722
Dummy Variable: Sec.	-.03101	-.03364	.87518	-.292	.7715

dissatisfiers which fell into discrete categories. 90% of the responding administrators listed at least one change that they would make in order to increase job satisfaction.

The research-based job satisfiers cited in this study provided the base list of categories for the initial analysis of the free response questions. The coding of the responses was checked following a two-week interval, and a sample of 15 responses was checked by comparison with the classifications of an independent coder. Other categories, such as salary and benefits and student performance/interaction, were added when both the independent coder and this researcher considered it necessary. In total, ten categories were identified in this process relating to job satisfaction and ten were identified relating to dissatisfaction. Examples of the actual comments of the administrators are reported to provide further meaning for the analysis of the data. The intracoder reliability after the two-week interval was 96%, whereas the intracoder reliability of the sample of 15 free responses was 91%.

No significant differences were noted in the sources of job satisfaction between males and females. Administrators from both sexes reported the same sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This confirms findings from the first research question of this study. The finding is also consistent with findings of studies by Young (1984).

There were differences in sources of job satisfaction according to group membership. This difference from the results obtained from the JDS can be explained. Multiple regression looks at the individual ~~contribution of each of the job satisfiers to job~~ satisfaction. Regression for each job satisfier is done in isolation from the other job satisfiers. However, items seldom work in isolation in the work setting. Many factors interact to influence job satisfaction. Interaction of variables, both inside and outside the work environment, is one of the reasons that job satisfaction is such an elusive factor to pin-down.

The free response questions may not have provided hard statistical data, but they are nonetheless important. The answers to these free response questions do provide the feelings and perceptions which people hold to be true in their own minds. Job satisfaction is a feeling that people hold about their jobs. Factors that administrators feel affect their job satisfaction need to be taken into account.

Results and Discussions

Sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for elementary school administrators are summarized in Figure 6. Main sources of satisfaction were interpersonal relationships (60%), student performance/interaction

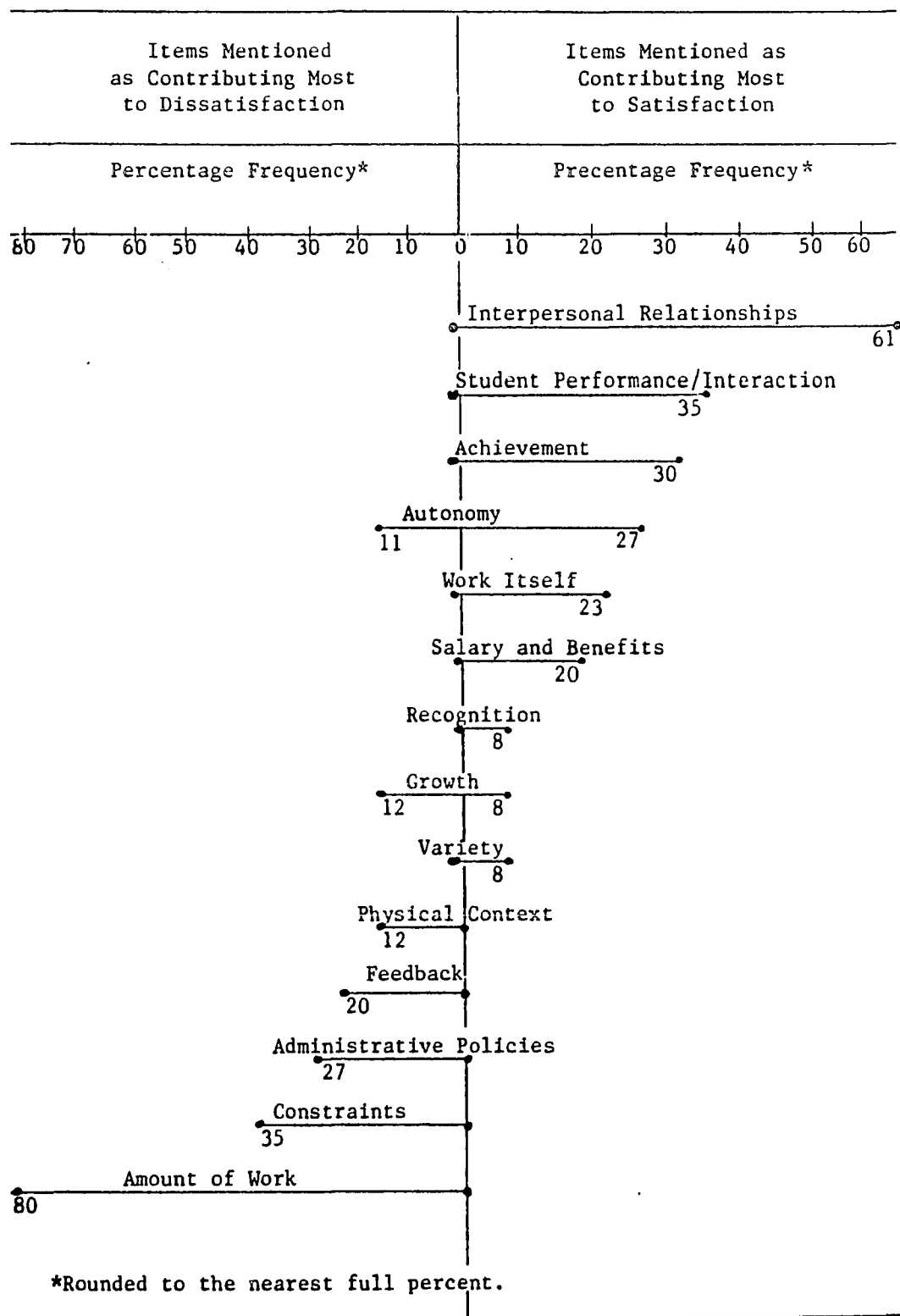


Figure 6. Satisfaction of Elementary School Administrators

(35%), achievement (30%), autonomy (27%), the work itself (23%), and salary and benefits (20%). Main sources of dissatisfaction were amount of work (80%), constraints (35%), administrative policies (27%), and feedback (20%).

Sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for secondary school administrators are summarized in Figure 7. Main sources of satisfaction were achievement (30%), work itself (28%), student performance/interaction (20%), recognition (20%), and interpersonal relationships (20%). Main sources of dissatisfaction were amount of work (32%), constraints (24%), feedback (20%), and administrative policies (18%).

Sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for central office administrators are summarized in Figure 8. Main sources of satisfaction were autonomy (47%), work itself (38%), recognition (34%), interpersonal relationships (25%), and achievement (19%). Main sources of dissatisfaction were interpersonal relationships (60%), administrative policies (22%), amount of work (19%), feedback (15%), physical context (13%), and constraints (12%).

As in studies by Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983), Iannone (1973), and Schmidt (1976), overlap occurred between sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Findings of this study tend to confirm findings by Friesen, Holdaway and Rice (1983). Sources of administrative job satisfaction involved interpersonal relationships,

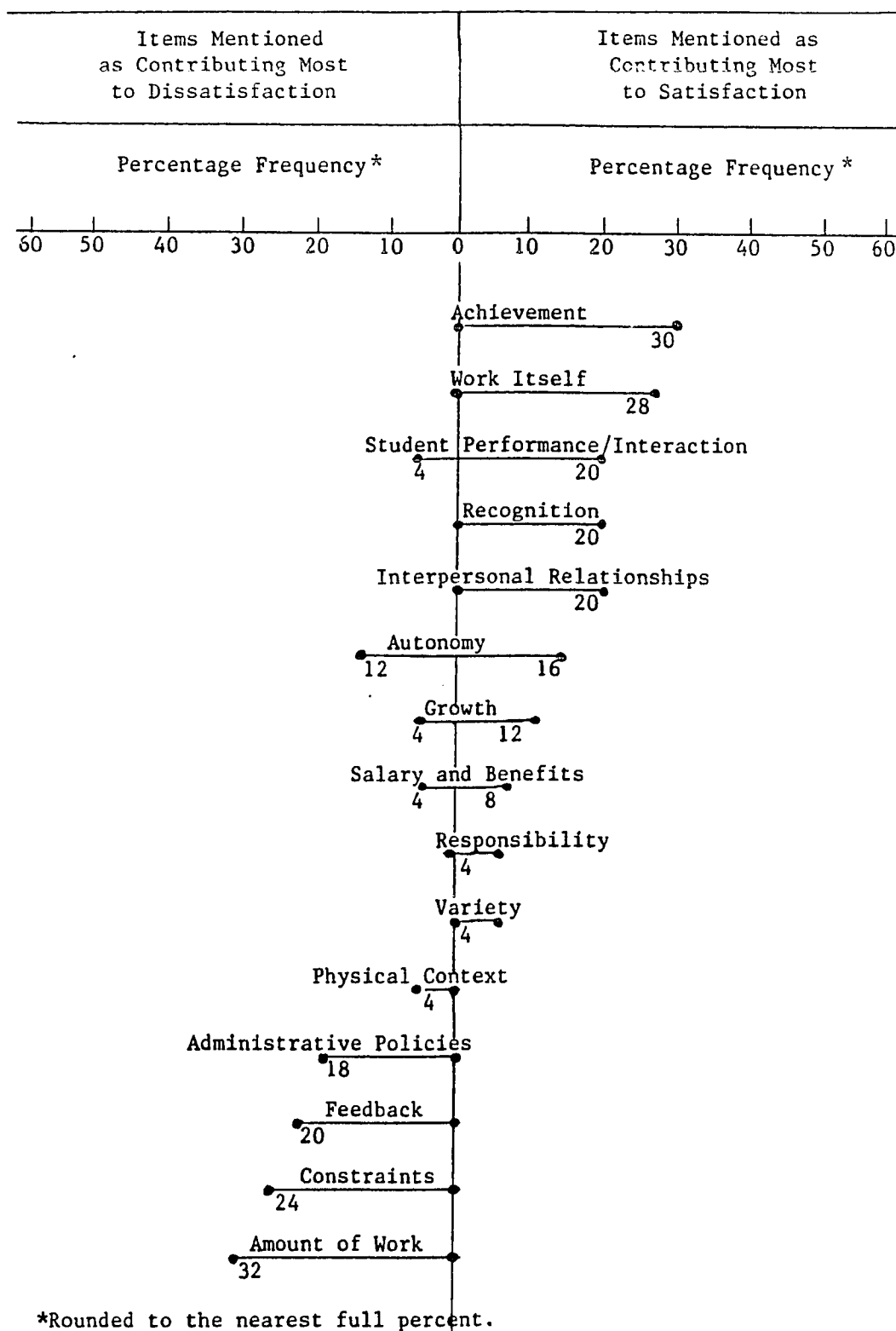
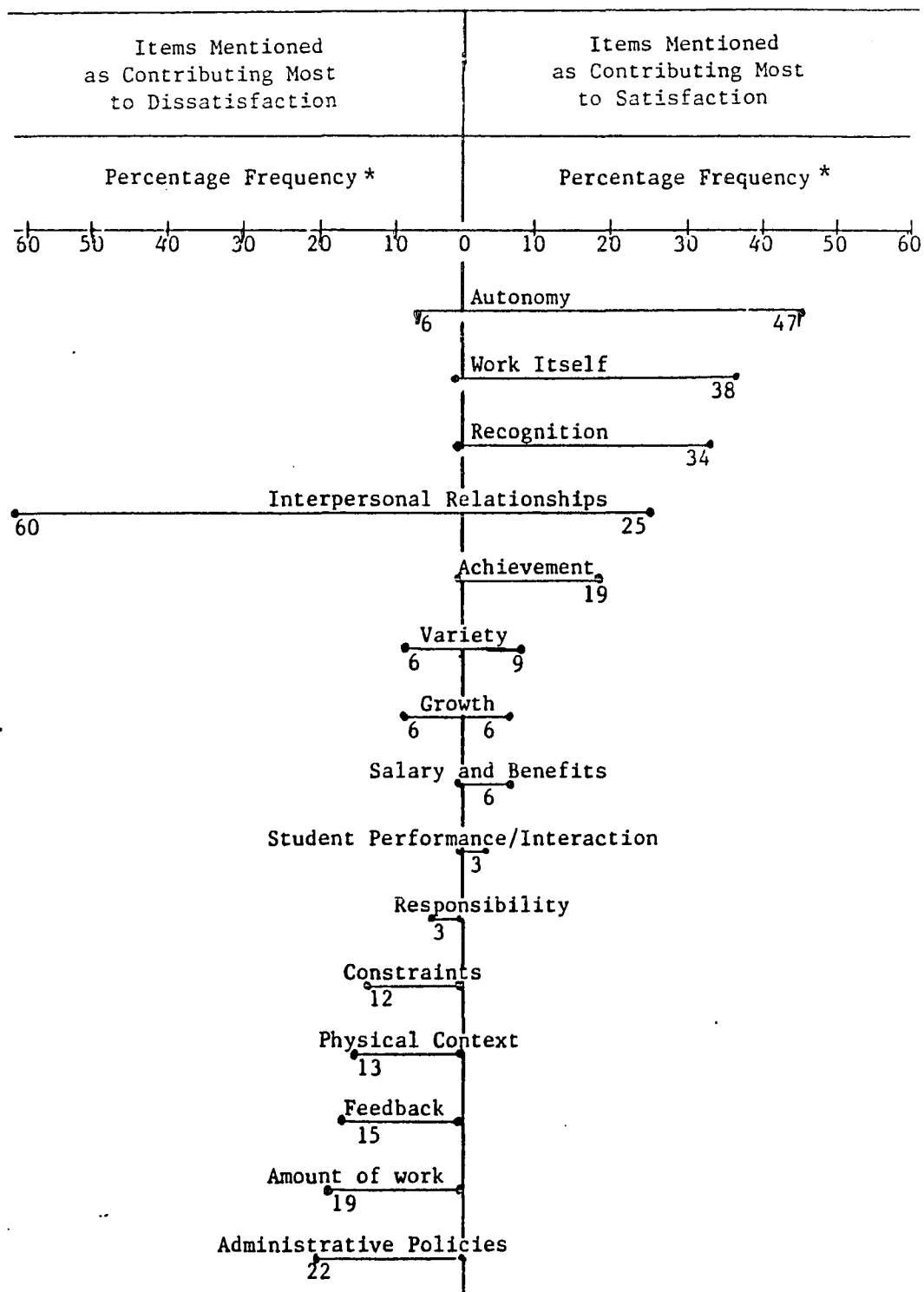


Figure 7. Satisfaction of Secondary Administrators



*Rounded to the nearest full percent.

Figure 8. Satisfaction of Central Office Administrators.

achievement, autonomy, the work itself, student performance and interaction, and recognition. Common factors relating to job dissatisfaction included administrative policies, amount of work, and constraints. This study further listed feedback as a major factor relating to job dissatisfaction.

Results of this study differ from Iannone's (1973) study which found that achievement and recognition were most frequently mentioned as sources of satisfaction. Schmidt (1976) listed achievement, recognition, and advancement as the major sources of satisfaction. While findings from this study agree that these are sources of satisfaction, autonomy, the work itself, and interpersonal relationships were found as the major sources of job satisfaction.

Iannone (1973), Schmidt (1976), and Herzberg (1968) found interpersonal relations to be major sources of job dissatisfaction. This study did not confirm this finding. Interpersonal relations was seen more as a source of satisfaction than dissatisfaction except among central office administrators.

This study agreed with studies done by Herzberg (1968), Iannone (1973), and Schmidt (1976) in which administrative policies and constraints were sources of dissatisfaction.

Sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction confirmed findings by Herzberg (1968) with the exception of interpersonal relationships which was cited by elementary

and secondary administrators as more of a source of satisfaction than dissatisfaction.

The work itself and feedback were cited as primary sources of job satisfaction. This confirms results presented by Hager (1985).

Examples of comments made by administrators when identifying aspects of their work that led to job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and changes that would increase their level of job satisfaction are given below.

Sources of Job Satisfaction

1. Autonomy

"The opportunity to exercise individual style and decision making"; "Independent thought and action"; "Ability to be creative"; "The chance to use personal skills and talents; "The degree of autonomy I have in the daily operation of the school"

2. Responsibility

"Feeling that I can help others"; Challenge to solve problems"; Helping others to achieve their potential"; Quality school because of my efforts"; "Status"; Challenge of District-wide responsibility"

3. Work Itself

"Meaningful tasks to accomplish"; Challenges of my job"; "Satisfaction I get from doing my job well"

4. Growth

"Opportunities for professional improvement";
"Being able to work with colleagues to learn how to do my job better"

5. Recognition

"The recognition of professional ability"; "The quality of support from the District"; "Feeling appreciated and valued for a job well done";
"Respect of friends and the community";
"Interaction of students and staff--strokes!";

6. Achievement

"Seeing a plan come together and work"; "Making a significant contribution"; "Goal achievement when well-aligned to building needs"

7. Interpersonal Relationships

"The intellectual and creative challenges in working with people"; "Opportunities to work with professionals at all levels"; "Atmosphere of cooperative effort"; "Working with a variety of people as a team"

8. Salary and Benefits

"Being paid for a job I've done for years";
"Salary"; "High pay for outstanding performance"

9. Student Performance/Interaction

"Being with little people--they're fun"; "Kids learning and feeling good about themselves";
"Having a small part in providing excellent

educational opportunities for boys and girls";
"High academic progress"

10. Variety

"The flexibility and variety of the job keeps it
stimulating and interesting"; "Variety of
experiences"

Sources of Job Dissatisfaction

1. Amount of Work

"Inadequate time to do each task well"; "Not enough
time or support to be an instructional leader";
"Opportunities to concentrate on fewer changes";
"Lack of 'downtime', inability to take vacation
time to renew oneself"; "Increased mandates from
the central office which pressures staff and
reduces effective time with students"; "The total
commitment it takes to do the job correctly and
the time it takes me away from my family"; "Too
many meetings"; "Too much paperwork that appears
unnecessary"; "The number of District priorities at
a given time"

2. Administrative Policies

"Lack of full authority to evaluate personnel and
take steps to dismiss individuals not meeting
expectations without being involved in layers of
paperwork"; "Bureaucratic hassle to implement new
ideas and programs"

3. Constraints

"Uncooperative parents"; Lack of resources";
Negative attitude of others"; "The role the school
is forced to work with in terms of social and moral
responsibility"; "The problem of trying to please
everyone-teachers, parents, students, central
office"; "A school finance system (state) that
perpetrates problems with no resolve"

4. Physical Context

"Isolation- not part of the 'in' group";
"Loneliness of the position"; "Difficulty in
developing non-professional relationships"

5. Feedback

"Lack of specific feedback from my supervisor";
"Greater involvement with my supervisor"; "Lack of
recognition of contributions of all employees";
"Quality of my supervisor's supervision"; "Lack of
positive feedback, only hear the negative";
"Excellent performance is taken for granted- no
recognition"

6. Growth

"Lack of job security"; "Personnel advancement and
procedures"; "Inequitable involvement in District
projects"; "Stuck in VP position- no movement"

7. Autonomy

"Lack of opportunity to increase span of control,
use management skills"; "Having total control"; "I

don't get to use some of my skills to the fullest"

8. Salary

"Money"

9. Teacher/Student Performance

"Marginal teachers who show little or no growth despite our efforts to improve their skills and effectiveness"; Union teachers who don't want to be team players"; "Time taken from building solid instructional programs for kids at the school level"

10. Interpersonal Relationships

"Not enough opportunities to network with colleagues"; "Distrust of fellow employees"; Favoritism between supervisor and employee"; "Weak administrators (not very good at their job)"; "Lack of adequate communication"; "Lack of openness in the organization"; "Impersonal or cold atmosphere of total administrative approach"; "Conflict with co-workers"; Withholding of information"; "Disrespect of the feelings and needs of co-workers"; "Power plays/turf games"

Changes to Increase Job Satisfaction (Table XVI)

1. Increase Growth Opportunities

"More opportunities to serve on committees with other administrators"; "More opportunities to interact with other administrators regarding how

TABLE XVI
CHANGES THAT WOULD INCREASE JOB
SATISFACTION FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Changes	Percentage of Total Group Who Mentioned the Change		
	Group Membership		
	Elementary	Secondary	Central Office
1. Reduce District Priorities	23	40	18
2. Increase Growth Opportunities	19	32	19
3. More Feedback/Interact with Supervisor	39	8	18
4. More Opportunity for Positive Interaction with Colleagues	15	-	24
5. Have "Real" Team Management	-	-	25
6. More Recognition (non-monetary)	19	-	3
7. More Time in the Schools	12	-	3
8. More Resources	-	-	13
9. Increase Salary and Benefits	-	4	6
10. Weed out the Ineffective	4	-	3
Blank	4	28	9

to be a better administrator. People to talk to about the job on a confidential, non-evaluative basis"; "More time given to educational leadership"; "More opportunities for conferences and professional development"; "Opportunities to extend skills and knowledge with colleagues"

2. More Feedback/Interaction With Supervisor

"Lack of clear definition of job and contingencies for performance"; "More feedback from peers and supervisor"; "More time with my supervisor. He is overscheduled and has no time unless there is a problem. He responds quickly and effectively to problems"

3. More Recognition (non-monetary)

"Recognition for a job well done"; "Recognition with specific feedback so I know exactly what was valued so it can be repeated or enhanced"

4. More Opportunities for Positive Interaction With Colleagues

"Creative goal setting with others"; "Invitations to more social events held by principals, etc."

5. More Time in the Schools

"Less time away from the building at meetings that only indirectly impact what happens to kids";
"Less time out of the building and more time in the classroom"; "...devote more time to being in the schools"

6. Weed out the Ineffective

"Police our own (both teachers and administrators) and weed out the ineffective"

7. Reduce District Priorities

"Not enough time to perform thorough planning";
"Reduction in the number of mandates from the central office with clear priorities and emphasis on children's learning"; "Fewer 'high' priorities"; "Too many priorities and they cease to be priorities"

8. Have "Real" Management

"Real team management- not just when it suits the administrator involved. Have your input toward decisions, even if it cannot be accepted";
"Friction within a team"; "Continual attention to ways of promoting better cohesion between Divisions (Business, Instruction, Personnel)"; "Be a member of the management team, not just an office worker"

9. Increase Salary and Benefits

"Increase salary"; "Unlimited tuition reimbursement to support advanced degree work"

10. More Resources

"More administrative help for large elementary schools"; "Stable funding"; "More service from central office and less monitoring and control";
"Let me be in charge of setting priorities for my

building and then provide the needed training to accomplish the priorities identified"; "Less financial constraint to do the job expected of me"

SUMMARY

Results from this study showed that: 1) job satisfaction does not relate to group membership. 2) job satisfaction does not relate to sex. 3) job satisfaction does not relate to group membership and sex combined.

The job satisfiers of autonomy and feedback from the job were most highly correlated to job satisfaction. These two job satisfiers account for roughly 22% of general job satisfaction.

Answers from the free response questions in this study indicated no significant differences in the sources of job satisfaction for male or female administrators. Answers from the free response questions in this study indicated some similarities and differences in job satisfaction for the three groups of administrators.

The main sources of satisfaction--regardless of group membership--involved the work itself, achievement, and interpersonal relationships. Recognition was also seen as a source of satisfaction at the central office and secondary level. Student performance and interaction was seen as a primary source of satisfaction at the elementary and secondary level. Autonomy was a main source of

satisfaction at both the elementary and central office level.

The main sources of dissatisfaction, regardless of group membership, for many of the administrators studied involved amount of work, lack of feedback, constraints, and administrative policies. While interpersonal relationships were seen as sources of satisfaction by 25% of those responding administrators in central office positions, 60% identified them as sources of dissatisfaction.

Of those administrators responding to the question on changes that would make their job more satisfying, several listed increased growth opportunities, more feedback and interaction with supervisors, and reduction of District priorities. Central office administrators also listed having "real" team management and more opportunities for positive interaction with colleagues as primary changes to increase job satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The study was designed to determine two factors.

1) Is job satisfaction of school district administrators related to the personal factors of group membership and sex? 2) What are the sources of overall job satisfaction for school district administrators? Instruments and procedures were utilized to find answers to the above two questions.

The study revealed that: 1) job satisfaction of school district administrators is not related to sex, group membership, or to sex and group membership combined. 2) Main sources of job satisfaction included autonomy, recognition, the work itself, interpersonal relationships, achievement, responsibility, variety, growth, student performance and interaction, and salary and benefits. Autonomy and feedback from the job most highly correlated with job satisfaction. Feedback was listed as a main source of dissatisfaction by school administrators. Other

main sources of dissatisfaction were amount of work administrative policies, physical context, and constraints.

The remainder of this chapter deals with the implications, limitations, and recommendations of the study.

Implications

Both the JDS and free response questions revealed an overall satisfaction with the job of the school administrator. The satisfaction score was nearly a normal distribution of job satisfaction among administrators. There was no multi-modal distribution which may have indicated some favoritism among administrative groups.

The mean of the job satisfaction score for administrators was 5.47. Most administrators in the study are generally satisfied with their jobs. This does not preclude a need for improvement. Often in the evaluative process it is assumed no improvement is needed if people are satisfied. This attitude is a disservice to the employees and to the organization. There should always be creative ways to improve and continually become more effective.

Through the JDS, this study showed that autonomy and feedback are most highly correlated with job satisfaction. Yet, the free response answers revealed that autonomy and feedback were reported as having relatively low

frequencies of satisfaction, except among central office administrators where autonomy was listed by 47% as an area of satisfaction.

Feedback was never reported as an area of satisfaction, but rather an area of dissatisfaction. Administrators wanted more specific feedback and recognition from their supervisor or other upper-echelon administrators.

All groups of administrators desired increased growth opportunities and more feedback and interaction with their supervisor. This expression of wanting to do the job well, coupled with an already high level of job satisfaction, is a powerful force. Most administrators are in their administrative position because they are leaders who want to grow and be productive. By giving administrators even more autonomy in decision making and allowing administrators to be more innovative would perhaps increase their productivity. Autonomy as a motivating factor toward better job performance is supported in the review of the literature by Peters and Waterman (1982), Sizer (1984), Goodlad (1984), Kanter (1984), and Herzberg (1968).

School administrators are often viewed as having control both of themselves and their school or department. Because of this controlling image, administrators may not be seen as needing feedback or recognition on a regular basis.

School administration is a job which requires important decisions that affect staff, students, parents, the community, colleagues, and other facilities of the school district. Bennis (1976) found that leaders confront problems that may have only approximate solutions. The school administrator must keep a delicate balance between all interacting factors and often does this in physical isolation.

Many administrators were drawn into the field of education because of their desire to be with people. Those who enter education explain their choice in terms of service motives and personal desire to work with others (Lortie, 1975). Administrators enjoyed the interactive nature of teaching and being involved in a school. As teachers, most administrators enjoyed the ongoing feedback they received from students, parents, and other school staff.

As administrators moved from teaching positions into administrative positions this need for feedback and reassurance did not disappear. A concern for people brought many administrators into school district positions. Feedback and reassurance is a natural desire for most people and something that administrators need.

Because administrators are perceived as leaders, they may not be seen as needing feedback from supervisors, colleagues, and from other sources on a regular basis. Administrators are sometimes asked to serve on special

committees or given a special assignment. If no direct feedback is given to administrators as to how they presented themselves, they are left to wonder how their performance was perceived. Did the administrator do the job as expected of them? How did the administrator's presentation sound? What areas could be improved in order to a better job? If an administrator is not asked for a future assignment is it because they performed poorly or simply because their supervisor or colleague wanted to give them relief from a duty as a recognition for doing a good job and felt that it was another administrator's turn to do "extra duty". Without specific, ongoing feedback people are left to come to conclusions in their own minds. Erroneous conclusions may be drawn by the individual.

Ongoing feedback does take concerted effort. Constructive communication takes trust among individuals in the organization. Individuals need to know the feedback is sincere, specifically related to the individual's actions, and given in the light of assisting the administrator in doing a better job. Individuals must know what it was that they did that supported action the district wanted to see repeated and what action it did not want repeated.

School administrators often work in environments that are physically isolated from their supervisors. One of the greatest impediments to professional growth and skill development is isolation (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1984; Lortie, 1975). Supervisors are not as apt to come

face to face with employees to give them the feedback and recognition that is needed. This is especially true of elementary principals where 20% of the responding principals rated feedback as a source of dissatisfaction.

As revealed by the responses to the question on desired changes which would increase administrators job satisfaction, administrators most wanted a reduction in the number of district priorities. This was especially noted at the secondary and elementary levels. The secondary level may be experiencing this need most acutely because of the present reorganization occurring in the intermediate schools in the district where the study was conducted. Elementary principals are the sole administrator in their school and therefore are responsible for all administrative tasks. These factors may make the desire for less district priorities stronger at these two levels.

A link can be drawn between three of the results. Administrators expressed a need for feedback and autonomy and a reduction of district priorities. While most administrators may not be looking for a reduction in actual workload, what this can mean is that additional prioritization of existing tasks is desired. When all tasks are a high priority, no prioritization exists.

If priorities are clearly set, administrators should be given autonomy in reaching the desired goal. Prioritization is best made by direct feedback and interaction with supervisors. What this suggests is that

if additional time is spent giving feedback and re-prioritizing tasks, the work will get done and administrators will be more motivated as they achieve their desires for feedback, autonomy, and re-prioritization.

Elementary and central office administrators expressed a desire for more opportunities to interact positively with colleagues. Perhaps this is because elementary school administrators are physically isolated in their schools from other administrators and central office administrators are more segregated by department and perceived "turf" as revealed by comments in the free responses of the survey instrument.

Central office administrators expressed a strong desire for "real team" management and positive interactions with colleagues. Over twice as many central office administrators felt that interpersonal relationships were a source of dissatisfaction rather than satisfaction. Because of the leadership and controlling nature of an administrator's job, personal relationships among administrators can be strained when administrators must work together and yet look out for the interests of their own departments. Strong egos, a desire to be in control and autonomous, and a close working environment may interfere with the formation of close interpersonal relationships.

Opportunities and training for central office administrators that would allow central office administrators to experience how working together can

achieve the some ends would be beneficial. Settings for colleagues that provide opportunities for administrators to assist each other and to solve problems collectively often characterize effective schools (Kanter, 1983; Goodlad, 1984).

These settings which provide for colleague interaction also appear to enhance teacher and administrator satisfaction and effectiveness along with student learning outcomes (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1984). Relationships among departments and clear interrelations among a limited number of common district goals may prove beneficial for all administrators. Sergiovanni (1969, 1980), Lortie (1975), and Ouchi (1981) all recognize that creating environments that foster closer interpersonal relationships increases worker productivity.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1) It is difficult to capture all of the factors that determine an individual's job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is hard to pin down because it becomes increasingly contingent upon factors outside the work environment and difficult to predict. Job satisfaction is contingent on a person's particular needs and upon ones expectations from a job (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977). Many variables, both inside and outside the work setting, influence job satisfaction. An individual's physical and

psychological make-up and health, emotional state, personal relationships, financial standing, and personal attitude all impact an individual's satisfaction. These factors are not easily controlled. Most of these factors will not be controlled by factors inside the work setting.

This study revealed that the two factors of autonomy and feedback accounted for about 22% of overall job satisfaction. While this may seem like a small percentage, when all other outside factors that may influence job satisfaction are taken into account, this small percentage which can be controlled in the work setting becomes very powerful. Further study with other populations is needed to confirm that the two factors of autonomy and feedback are correlated to job satisfaction across sex and group membership.

2) A single suburban school district was used as the population for the study. This resulted in both a small population size and a unique population. Demographics revealed that the population of this study roughly consisted of 66% of the school administrators being male, 33% female; 50% in the 41-50 year old age bracket and 30% who are over age 51, and 20% who are under 41 years of age; 25% had less than 5 years of experience in school administration, 27% had 6-15 years of administrative experience, and 39% had over 16 years of experience as a school district administrator.

Further study is needed to determine if results from

this study can be generalized to other school district administrators in districts of varying size, location, and demographics.

3) A regular process of monitoring job satisfaction of administrators is needed to see if the expressions of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction continue to suggest patterns of significant changes that should be considered by those structuring administrative job roles. Monitoring would also assist in determining increases in administrators' job satisfaction as a result of changes made in administrative jobs.

4) Additional study is needed to see what would improve administrators' rankings of those items that were listed as sources of dissatisfaction. The present study lists such dissatisfiers as amount of work, administrative policies, feedback, and constraints. If policies change, feedback is given more often, some constraints removed, and the amount of work reduced, will the sources of dissatisfaction become sources of satisfaction? Further study would help to find answers to this question.

5) Additional study is needed to address the relationships between the performance of a school administrator and the job satisfaction of the administrator. This study has looked at sex and group membership as they relate to job satisfaction. The study further identified sources of job satisfaction and

dissatisfaction. Further study is needed to link these factors to administrators' performance.

SUMMARY

The current study has provided data which showed that the sex and group membership of public school administrators in a suburban school district near Portland, Oregon do not relate to job satisfaction.

Sources of job satisfaction were the same for both male and female school administrators. However, some differences were noted in the contributing factors toward job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for elementary, secondary, and central office school administrators.

The main sources of satisfaction--regardless of group membership--involved the work itself, achievement, and interpersonal relationships. Recognition was also seen as a source of satisfaction at the central office and secondary level. Student performance and interaction was seen as a primary source of satisfaction at the elementary ;and secondary level. Autonomy was a main source of satisfaction at both the elementary and central office level.

The main sources of dissatisfaction--regardless of group membership--for many of the administrators studied involved amount of work, lack of feedback, constraints, and

administrative policies. While interpersonal relationships were seen as sources of satisfaction by 25% of those responding administrators in central office positions, 60% identified them as sources of dissatisfaction.

More emphasis needs to be placed on team building and the interrelationship of departments working toward common goals is needed. Perhaps focusing on a few, specific goals would help ease the perceived friction between individuals by sharing ideas and resources. This might also reduce the number of district priorities and amount of work which were also factors of job dissatisfaction across all three administrative groups.

Administrators indicated that autonomy and feedback are major forces in contributing to their job satisfaction. The implication is that boards of education and upper-echelon administrators should be aware of the motivational potential in these two job factors and should continually strive to expand the job opportunities so that these growth needs can be fulfilled. If these two indicators reflect life as it is, then encouragement and support for administrators who desire to be creative, to experiment with new educational programs, and to delve into different educational endeavors are needed to allow more opportunities for autonomy. Furthermore it follows that, a concerted effort on the part of boards of education and those administrators in administrator supervisory positions

to recognize administrators and give specific-ongoing
feedback regarding job performance is essential.

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APPENDIX A

Job Diagnostic Survey and Free Response Questionnaire

JOB DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY

On the following pages you will find several different kinds of questions about your job. Specific instructions are given at the start of each section. Please read them carefully. Use the attached scan sheet to record your answers. Make sure that the question numbers correspond to the answer sheet numbers. QUESTIONS ARE PRINTED ON BOTH SIDES OF THE PAPER. When filling in the appropriate bubble on the scan sheet, look at the numbers inside the bubble, not the letters above. Use a #2 pencil.

The questions are designed to obtain your perceptions of your job and your reactions to it.

There are no "trick" questions. Your individual answers will be kept completely confidential. Please answer each item as honestly and frankly as possible.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Linda Borquist

SECTION ONE

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job, as objectively as you can.

Please do not use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Questions about that will come later. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as you possibly can.

You are to record the number which is the most accurate description of your job on the scan sheet.

1. To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (either 'clients', or people in related jobs in your own organization)?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; dealing with other people is not at all necessary in doing the job.	Moderately; some dealing with others is necessary.	Very much; dealing with other people is an absolutely essential part of doing the job
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2. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; the job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done.	Moderate autonomy; many things are standardized and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.	Very much; the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done.
--	--	---

3. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

My job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service.	My job is a moderate-sized "chunk" of the overall piece of work; my own contribution is seen in the final outcome.	My job involves doing the whole piece of work, the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product.
--	---	--

4. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
Very little; the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over.	Moderate variety	Very much; the job requires me to do many different things.

5. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are <u>not</u> likely to have important effects on other people.	Moderately significant.	Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.

6. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing your job?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
Very little; people almost never let me know how well I am doing.	Moderately, sometimes people may give me "feedback;" other times they may not.	Very much; managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant "feedback" about how well I am doing.

7. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing--aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.	Moderately, sometimes doing the job provides "feedback" to me; sometimes it does not.	Very much; I get almost constant "feedback" about how well I am doing.

SECTION TWO

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate description of your job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can deciding how accurately each statement describes your job--regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Fill in the number on the answer sheet which corresponds to each statement based on the following scale:

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?			
1	2	3	4
Very	Mostly	Slightly	Uncertain
Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Inaccurate	
5	6	7	
Slightly	Mostly	Very	
Accurate	Accurate	Accurate	

8. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
9. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.
10. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
11. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
12. The job is quite simple and repetitive.
13. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone--without talking or checking with other people.
14. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.

15. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
16. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
17. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
18. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
19. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
20. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
21. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

SECTION THREE

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job.

Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own, personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

Fill in the number on the scan sheet for each statement, based on this scale:

How much do you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly
6	7			
Agree	Agree Strongly			

22. It's hard, on this job, for me to care very much about whether or not the work gets done right.
23. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

24. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.
25. Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial.
26. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.
27. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.
28. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.
29. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.
30. I frequently think of quitting this job.
31. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.
32. I often have trouble figuring out whether I'm doing well or poorly on this job.
33. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.
34. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
35. My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job.
36. Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly my responsibility.

SECTION FOUR

Now please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Once again, record the appropriate number on the scan sheet for each statement.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job?

1	2	3	4
Extremely	Dissatisfied	Slightly	Neutral
Dissatisfied		Dissatisfied	
5	6	7	
Slightly	Satisfied	Extremely	
Satisfied		Satisfied	

37. The amount of job security I have.
38. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.
39. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.
40. The people I talk to and work with on my job.
41. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.
42. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.
43. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.
44. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.
45. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.
46. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in this job.
47. How secure things look for me in the future in this organization.
48. The chance to help other people while at work.
49. The amount of challenge in my job.
50. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

SECTION FIVE

Now please think of the other people in your organization who hold the same job you do. If no one has exactly the same job as you, think of the job which is most similar to yours.

Please think about how accurately each of the statements describes the feelings of those people about the job. It is quite all right if your answers here are different from when you described your own reactions to the job.

Once again, record a number on the scan sheet for each statement, based on this scale:

How much do you agree with the statement?			
1	2	3	4
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral
5	6	7	
Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly	

51. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.
52. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.
53. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.
54. Most people on this job feel a great deal of personal responsibility for the work they do.
55. Most people on this job have a pretty good idea of how well they are performing their work.
56. Most people on this job find the work very meaningful.
57. Most people on this job feel that whether or not the job gets done right is clearly their own responsibility.
58. People on this job often think of quitting.
59. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.
60. Most people on this job have trouble figuring out whether they are doing a good or a bad job.

SECTION SIX

Listed below are a number of characteristics which could be present on any job. I am interested in learning how much you personally would like to have each one present in your job.

Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which you would like to have each characteristic present in your job.

NOTE: The numbers on this scale are different from those used in previous scales.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
Would like Would like Would like
having this only having this having this
a moderate very much <u>a lot.</u>
amount (<u>or less</u>)

61. High respect and fair treatment from my supervisor.
62. Stimulating and challenging work.
63. Chances to exercise independent thought and action in my job.
64. Great job security.
65. Very friendly co-workers.
66. Opportunities to learn new things from my work.
67. High salary and good fringe benefits.
68. Opportunities to be creative and imaginative in my work.
69. Quick promotions.
70. Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.
71. A sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work.

SECTION SEVEN

People differ in the kinds of jobs they would most like to hold. The questions in this section give you a chance to say just what it is about a job that is most important to you.

For each question, two different kinds of jobs are briefly described. You are to indicate which of the jobs you personally would prefer--if you had to make a choice between them.

In answering each question, assume that everything else about the jobs is the same. Pay attention only to the characteristics actually listed.

Use the following scale for all of the questions in this section:

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----
Strongly	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Strongly
Prefer A	Prefer A		Prefer B	Prefer B

JOB AJOB B

- | | |
|---|---|
| 72. A job where the pay is very good. | A job where there is considerable opportunity to be creative and innovative. |
| 73. A job where you are often required to make important decisions. | A job with many pleasant people to work with. |
| 74. A job in which greater responsibility is given to those who do the best work. | A job in which greater responsibility is given to loyal employees who have the most seniority. |
| 75. A job in an organization which is in financial trouble--and might have to close down within the year. | A job in which you are <u>not</u> allowed to have any say in how your work is scheduled, or in the procedures to be used. |
| 76. A very routine job. | A job where your co-workers are not very friendly. |
| 77. A job with a supervisor who is often very critical of you and your work in front of other people. | A job which prevents you from using a number of skills that you worked hard to develop. |

JOB A

78. A job with a supervisor who respects you and treats you fairly.
79. A job where there is a real chance you could be laid off.
80. A job in which there is a real chance for you to develop new skills and advance in the organization.
81. A job with little freedom and independence to do your work in the way you think best.
82. A job with very satisfying team-work.
83. A job which offers little or no challenge.

JOB B

- A job which provides constant opportunities for you to learn new and interesting things.
- A job with very little chance to do challenging work.
- A job which provides lots of vacation time and an excellent fringe benefit package.
- A job where the working conditions are poor.
- A job which allows you to use your skills and abilities to the fullest extent.
- A job which requires you to be completely isolated from co-workers.

1. Which two factors contribute most to your overall job satisfaction as an administrator?
2. Which two factors contribute most to your overall job dissatisfaction as an administrator?
3. What changes might increase your job satisfaction as an administrator?

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

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Circle the letter of the appropriate response to the following items of background information about you.

1. Sex
 - A. Female
 - B. Male
2. What is your present assignment?
 - A. Elementary Principal
 - B. Intermediate Principal
 - C. Intermediate V.P.
 - D. High School Principal
 - E. High School V.P.
 - F. Central Office Admin.
3. Age
 - A. 20-25 F. 46-50
 - B. 26-30 G. 51-55
 - C. 31-35 H. 56-60
 - D. 36-40 I. 61-65
 - E. 41-45 J. Over 65
4. Marital Status
 - A. Never Married C. Divorced
 - B. Married D. Widowed
5. Highest earned academic degree
 - A. Bachelor's
 - B. Master's
 - C. Doctoral
6. How old were you when you first obtained an administrative position?
 - A. 25-30 D. 41-45
 - B. 31-35 E. 46-50
 - C. 36-40 F. Over 50
7. Total years in administration
 - A. 1-5 E. 21-25
 - B. 6-10 F. 26-30
 - C. 11-15 G. 31-35
 - D. 16-20 H. Over 35
8. In how many separate districts have you been an administrator?
 - A. One C. 4-5
 - B. 2-3 D. Over 5
9. How many years have you been an administrator in this district?
 - A. 1-5 D. 16-20
 - B. 6-10 E. 21-25
 - C. 11-15 F. Over 25
10. How many students are there in your school?
 - A. Fewer than 300
 - B. 301-400
 - C. 401-500
 - D. 501-600
 - E. 601-800
 - F. 801-900
 - G. Over 900
 - H. N/A
11. Do you hold any other paid position outside of your job?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
12. Are you the primary wage earner in your immediate family?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
13. Does your spouse hold a position for which they receive a salary?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
 - C. N/A

APPENDIX B

Administrative Job Satisfaction

August 11, 1986

Dear Colleague,

As many of you know, I am working on my doctoral dissertation on administrative job satisfaction. While I realize many of us have a distain for questionnaires and this is a busy time, I would greatly appreciate your support by filling out and returning the attached questionnaire by August 30. I plan to have my dissertation complete by November and with your support I will be able to accomplish this goal.

Boyd Applegarth, Mike Vermillion, Steve Lynch, Dell Squire, and Steve Carlson are aware of my study and the use of this questionnaire. Results from a study on administrative job satisfaction will provide useful information for our district by giving insights into our roles and present working conditions. Overall results will be made available to anyone who requests them. However, individuals' responses will not be shared. Your questionnaire and responses will be held confidential.

The questionnaires are numbered so that I can keep track of those that are returned. I need to have all questionnaires returned in order to get a clear picture of the administrators in our organization and be able to draw valid conclusions.

I will also be conducting a validity check of the questionnaire and will be asking some of you to fill out the questionnaire again in two weeks. Again, should you be so "lucky" as to be chosen, I would appreciate your prompt return of the questionnaire.

Tom Morris, secretary of ABSA, has agreed to keep the list of code numbers with names, so that neither one of us will put the returned questionnaire with a specific name. The list of names and numbers will be destroyed upon return of the questionnaires and completion of the study.

Again, I value your support and thank you for your time and assistance. If you should have any questions, please give me a call. My home phone number is 645-0412 or a message can be left at Cooper Mountain, 649-0264.

Please return the questionnaire to Cooper Mountain.

Thank you,

Linda Borquist

APPENDIX C

Reminder Notice

Dear Colleague:

I know that you are busy, but... would you PLEASE return the questionnaire on administrative job satisfaction that was sent to you on August 11. Attached is another copy of the questionnaire in case you have misplaced the original. Please send your response to Cooper Mountain School. I would greatly appreciate having the questionnaire by September 5.

Thanks a lot.

Linda Borquist

APPENDIX D

Survey Retest Letter

September 8, 1986

Dear Colleague,

Thank you for the return of my questionnaire. I appreciate your time and effort. I am now conducting a validity check of the questionnaire and am again at your mercy to complete the same questionnaire. (Hopefully, the second time around will go a bit quicker!)

Please return this second questionnaire to Cooper Mountain by September 15.

Thanks a lot.

Your indebted colleague,

Linda Borquist