

379  
N81d  
No. 2512

A STUDY OF THE JOB SATISFACTION OF FEMALE  
PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS IN  
TEXAS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the  
North Texas State University in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

by

Mary F. Bertl, B.A., M.A.T.S.

Denton, Texas

August, 1986

42

Bertl, Mary F., A Study of the Job Satisfaction of Female Principals and Vice-Principals in Texas Public Schools. Doctor of Philosophy (Administrative Leadership), August, 1986, 151 pp., 50 tables, bibliography, 75 titles.

This study is designed to determine the degree to which female principals and vice-principals in Texas derive job satisfaction from their work and to identify those factors, both negative and positive, which affect the job satisfaction of these principals and vice-principals.

A single questionnaire was used to collect the data for this study. Usable questionnaires were returned by 331 vice-principals and 504 principals. These represented 336 school districts throughout the state. Respondents were compared as to their view of their overall job satisfaction, the importance assigned to intrinsic and extrinsic job facets, their satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic job facets, and the differences in facet satisfaction connected with various personal characteristics.

It was found that both principals and vice-principals viewed themselves as being satisfied with their jobs, principals being significantly more satisfied than vice-principals. Both groups assigned greater importance to intrinsic job characteristics than to extrinsic. Vice-principals assigned a significantly higher importance to the intrinsic facets than the principals. The reverse was

true on the extrinsic job facets. Principals proved to be significantly more satisfied with extrinsic facets than were the principals. Vice-principals showed a significantly higher satisfaction with extrinsic job facets than with intrinsic job facets. The reverse was true for principals.

It was found that the personal characteristics of age, marital status, number of children at home, race, and aspiration level had significant effects on job satisfaction. Educational level, tenure in administration, tenure with the school system, tenure in the present position, and job level did not show significant effects.

This research concluded that female principals and vice-principals should be treated as separate groups in job satisfaction studies. Both groups do derive satisfaction from their job, although they are dissatisfied with some facets of the job.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Problem	
Purposes	
Hypotheses	
Significance of the Problem	
Definition of Terms	
Limitations of the Study	
Assumptions of the Study	
Methodology of the Study	
Organization of the Remainder of the Study	
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE . . . . .	10
Theory Base	
Research on Job Satisfaction	
III. PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY . . . . .	38
Description of the Subjects	
Description of the Collection of Data	
Description of the Questionnaire	
Description of the Variables	
Description of the Research Design	
Description of the Statistical Analysis	
IV. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY . . . . .	50
Hypotheses	
Additional Findings of the Study	
Chapter Summary	
V. SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMEN- DATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS . . . . .	104
Summary	
Findings	
Conclusions, Recommendations, and Suggestions	

TABLE OF CONTENTS--Continued

	Page
Recommendations to the Employer	
Recommendations for Female Educators	
Suggestions for Further Research	
Appendix	
A. SAMPLE COVER LETTER . . . . .	131
B. ADMINISTRATOR'S JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE . . . . .	133
C. KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS . . . . .	139
D. COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS AND REASONS FOR NONRESPONSE . . . . .	142
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	145

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Female Administrator's Own Perception of Their Job Satisfaction . . . . .	51
II. Means of Female Administrators' Responses on Their Perception of Their Job Satisfaction . . . . .	52
III. Importance of Intrinsic Job Facets by Percentage of Respondents . . . . .	54
IV. Importance of Extrinsic Job Facets by Percentage of Respondents . . . . .	55
V. Means of Responses of Female Administrators on Importance of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Facets and Results of <u>t</u> -test Procedure . . . . .	56
VI. Means of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Facet Importance by Job Level and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	57
VII. Extent to Which Job Provides the Intrinsic Job Facets by Percentage of Respondents . .	58
VIII. Extent to Which Job Provides the Extrinsic Job Facets by Percentage of Respondents . .	59
IX. Discrepancy in Intrinsic Job Facets by Percentage of Respondents . . . . .	61
X. Discrepancy in Extrinsic Job Facets by Percentage of Respondents . . . . .	63
XI. Means of Female Administrators' Discrepancy Scores on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Facets and Results of <u>t</u> -test Procedure . .	64
XII. Means of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Facet Discrepancy by Job Level and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	65

LIST OF TABLES--Continued

Table	Page
XIII. Female Principals' and Vice-Principals' Discrepancy on Job Facets and Results of <u>t</u> -test . . . . .	66
XIV. Means of Female Principals' and Vice-Principals' Discrepancy Scores on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Facets and Results of <u>t</u> -test Procedure . . . . .	69
XV. Means of Facet Discrepancy by Age of Respondent and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	71
XVI. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Marital Status and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	72
XVII. Means of Discrepancy Scores by Number of Children Living at Home and Result of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	74
XVIII. Means of Discrepancy Scores by Racial Group and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	75
XIX. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Educational Level and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	76
XX. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Tenure in Administration and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	77
XXI. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Tenure with School System and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	78
XXII. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Tenure in Current Position and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	79
XXIII. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Level of Aspiration and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	80

LIST OF TABLES--Continued

Table	Page
XXIV. Means of Facet Discrepancy Scores by Job Level and Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance . . . . .	82
XXV. Results of Analysis of Variance in Facet Discrepancy by Selected Pairs of Variables . . . . .	83
XXVI. Years Experience in the Education Field for Women Principals and Vice-Principals . . .	84
XXVII. Years Experience in School Administration for Women Principals and Vice-Principals .	85
XXVIII. Years Experience with Current School System for Women Principals and Vice-Principals .	86
XXIX. Years Experience in Current Position for Women Principals and Vice-Principals . . .	86
XXX. Intent of Female Principals and Vice-Principals to Seek a Position with Another School System . . . . .	87
XXXI. Women Principals' and Vice-Principals' Response to "How Often Do You Become So Wrapped Up in Your Work that You Lose Track of Time?" . . . . .	88
XXXII. Women Principals' and Vice-Principals' Response to "How Often Do You Leave Work with a Feeling That You've Done Something Particularly Well?" . . . . .	89
XXXIII. Rating of Resources by Women Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	90
XXXIV. Fairness in Handling of Promotions by the School District . . . . .	90
XXXV. Salaries of Principals and Vice-Principals . .	91
XXXVI. Principals' and Vice-Principals' Building Size Based on Number of Teachers . . . . .	92



LIST OF TABLES--Continued

Table	Page
XXXVII. Principals' and Vice-Principals' Response to "If Financially Able, Would You Prefer Not to Work?" . . . . .	93
XXXVIII. Principals' and Vice-Principals' Reasons for Seeking Present Position . . . . .	93
XXXIX. Principals' and Vice-Principals' Views of the Ease with Which They May Change Their Jobs . . . . .	94
XXXX. Educational Level of Female Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	95
XXXXI. Aspiration Levels of Female Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	96
XXX XII. Mean Facet Discrepancy of Female Principals and Vice-Principals by Job Level and Level of Aspiration . . . . .	97
XXX XIII. Age of Female Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	98
XXX XIV. Race of Female Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	99
XXX XV. Marital Status of Female Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	99
XXX XVI. Female Principals and Vice-Principals by Number of Children Living at Home . . . . .	100
XXX XVII. Age of Children of Female Principals and Vice-Principals . . . . .	100
XXX XVIII. Means of Discrepancy Scores by Marital Status and Children Living at Home . . . . .	101
XXX XIX. Kendall Correlation Coefficients . . . . .	140
L. Proportion of Respondents and Nonrespondents by District Size . . . . .	143

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction deserves increasing research because of its influence on the quality of working life. Previous studies of job satisfaction among school administrators have been few and the number of female administrators included in their samples have, with only a few exceptions, been very limited. Pharis and Zakariya (5), reporting on the status and characteristics of elementary principals throughout the United States, found that the percentage of women in school administration was on the decline. This drop in the per cent of female vice-principals and principals had been gradual but steady since 1948. Byrne, Hines, and McCleary (1) reported similar results for secondary principals and vice-principals. Neither of these studies distinguished between principals and vice-principals nor between full-time building principals and so-called teaching principals. All were classified under the heading of "principal."

After three decades of steadily dwindling representation in the field of educational administration, women have, since 1975, begun to show a small increase in both the number of those attaining administrative positions and in their proportionate share of the available administrative positions (3,

4). As the number of women seeking administrative certification is increasing as well (3, 6), it would follow that more and more women will seek to enter the administrative field. For most, the first administrative position attained will be that of vice-principal or principal.

#### Problem

Because more women are viewing a move into educational administration as a viable career choice, research into the satisfaction that they realize from administrative positions is needed. Therefore, the problem under consideration in this research study is that of assessing the job satisfaction felt by female public school administrators and determining the factors that contribute to that satisfaction, or as the case may be, dissatisfaction.

#### Purposes

This study is designed to determine the degree to which female principals and vice-principals in Texas derive job satisfaction from their work and to identify those factors, both negative and positive, which affect the job satisfaction of these principals and vice-principals. In addition, the data collected in this study will add to the data base that is available for the description and study of female building-level administrators in Texas public schools.

### Hypotheses

In order to explore the problem under study, four hypotheses were selected to serve as the basis of this investigation of job satisfaction.

- $H_0^1$  Female principals and vice-principals do not view themselves as being satisfied with their jobs.
- $H_0^2$  There is no significant difference in the importance that is assigned to intrinsic job facets and to extrinsic job facets by principals and vice-principals.
- $H_0^3$  There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction that female principals and vice-principals derive from the intrinsic and the extrinsic facets of their jobs.
- $H_0^4$  There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the individual factors of:
- a. age
  - b. marital status
  - c. number of children at home
  - d. race
  - e. educational level
  - f. tenure in administration
  - g. tenure with the school system
  - h. tenure in the present position

- i. level of aspiration
- j. current assignment (principal or vice-principal)

#### Significance of the Problem

Interest in understanding job satisfaction has stemmed from the assumption that increased job satisfaction will lead to an increase in productivity and performance. Research has, therefore, tended to link job satisfaction to productivity, turnover, and absenteeism, a linkage supported by Herzberg (2). Whether or not such a linkage does exist has been a subject of much interest and controversy. Most studies report either a weak positive relationship or no correlation between productivity and satisfaction (7). However, some studies have shown a strong positive correlation between job satisfaction and productivity for white collar and managerial personnel. These findings will be considered further in the review of literature in Chapter II.

As the focus of job satisfaction research has shifted from emphasis on increased production to concern for the individual, research has been directed toward the satisfaction of personnel at the managerial level, a group often omitted from earlier research. Job satisfaction research among educational professionals has followed much the same pattern as that of business and industry. That is, research began with concern for the satisfaction and performance of

the worker (teacher) and, during the last decade, has branched out into the study of job satisfaction among school managers or administrators. However, the data on this group is still limited and that on women administrators is even more limited.

The problem under study will provide information that women who are considering entry into an administrative career may find helpful in finalizing their decision to change the direction of their careers. It should also be of interest to those who counsel these women and to those who will be in the position to appoint women to building-level administrative positions. This information will also be helpful to supervisors in planning staff development programs.

#### Definition of Terms

Overall job satisfaction is the satisfaction that results from the interaction of an individual's personal and job orientations with her job and the job environment. It is measured using facet-free questions such as "Are you satisfied with your job?". Facet satisfaction measures satisfaction derived from the specific facets of a job or of the job environment. These facets may be either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. Herzberg (2) describes extrinsic job facets as those which pertain to the job environment. These are generally considered to include the number of

people supervised, the supervisor, working conditions, the size of the organization, salary, interpersonal relations, and administrative policy. The intrinsic job facets, then, are those which pertain to the job itself. These include recognition, achievement, responsibility, the opportunity for advancement, and the work itself. One's level of aspiration is the highest occupational level that the individual hopes to attain during her career.

#### Limitations of the Study

This study does not include all levels of female school administrators. The decision to exclude female superintendents and assistant superintendents from the study was based on the fact that the number of females in those positions in the state of Texas is quite small. This study is, therefore, limited to female principals and vice-principals. A further limitation is in its confinement to the state of Texas and to only public school administrators. However, results should be applicable to other states in which the school system and the employment patterns are similar to those of Texas.

#### Assumptions of the Study

The design of this study and of the questionnaire that is used in gathering data assumes that the responses given by the subjects are given honestly. It is also assumed that

these responses reflect their true reaction to their job situation at the time of the study.

#### Methodology of the Study

The population for this study consisted of all female building principals and vice-principals who were employed in the Texas public schools for the 1984-85 school year. Subjects represented elementary, junior high, and high school principalships and vice-principalships. Lists of names and school addresses were provided by the data service of the Texas Education Agency and by the superintendents and personnel departments of the various school systems.

Data for the study were collected through use of a single questionnaire consisting of twenty-eight items (Appendix B). Questions to measure both overall job satisfaction and facet satisfaction were included, as well as questions to obtain demographic information about the subjects and their jobs. The first of the questionnaires were mailed on April 29, 1985. Cut off date for response was set as June 1, 1985.

#### Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The following chapters will present in detail both the theoretical and research orientation and support for the study, the methodology used for data collection, the data generated by the questionnaire, and the conclusions



drawn from that data. Chapter II will survey the relevant literature. Chapter III will describe the procedure used in the study. Chapter IV will present the findings of the study, while Chapter V will summarize the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Byrne, D. R., S. A. Hines, and L. E. McCleary, The Senior High School Principalship, Virginia, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978.
2. Herzberg, Frederick, Work and the Nature of Man, Cleveland, World, 1966.
3. Kempner, Ken and Jean Stockard, "Woman's Representation in School Administration: Recent Trends," Educational Administration Quarterly, XVII (Spring, 1981), 81-91.
4. McCarthy, Martha and Amy Zent, "Affirmative Action for School Administrators: Has it Worked, Can it Survive?", Phi Delta Kappan, LXIV (March, 1982), 461-463.
5. Pharis, W. L. and S. B. Zakariya, The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study, Virginia National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1979.
6. Taylor, Suzanne S., "Educational Leadership: A Male Domain?", Phi Delta Kappan, LV (October, 1973), 124-128.
7. Vroom, Victor, Work and Motivation, New York, Wiley, 1964.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature relating to theory and research on job satisfaction in the business and industrial areas and in the field of education was examined. Theoretical concepts, research methods, and research findings about job satisfaction will be described.

#### Theory Base

Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (11, p. 37) describe five schools of thought on research into theories of job satisfaction.

1. The "psychological needs school" is exemplified by Maslow, Herzberg, and Likert

who see the development of motivation as the central factor in job satisfaction and concentrated their attention on stimuli which are believed to lead to motivation--the needs of individuals for achievement, recognition, responsibility, and status;

2. The "leadership school" as exemplified by Blake, Mouton, and Fiedler who direct observations at the effect of leadership style upon subordinates;

3. The "effort-reward bargain school" as exemplified by those Manchester Business School staff members who concentrate on the effect of wages and salaries on job satisfaction;

4. The "management ideology school" as exemplified by Crozier and Gouldner who concentrate upon the effect of different types of management behavior upon job satisfaction; and

5. The "work content and job design school" as exemplified by those Tavistock Institute staff members who feel that the work itself is prime determinant of job satisfaction (11, p. 37).

As is pointed out in the article, although each of these researchers may not have had job satisfaction as their primary area of study, each has made a contribution to modern theories of job satisfaction.

#### The Meaning of Job Satisfaction

Locke defines job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering" (36, p. 316). Satisfaction is defined by Lawler as "the difference between what a person thinks he should receive and what he feels he actually does receive on the job" (34, p. 64). Definitions of job satisfaction generally assume the existence of individual needs and see job satisfaction as the result of the fit or congruence between those needs and the job and its environment. This view has its base in Maslow's "heirarchy of needs" although Maslow did not specifically address job satisfaction (38). According to

this hierarchy, the "higher order" needs emerge as important sources of satisfaction only after the "lower order" needs have been met. This means that workers will have different values and work motivations, depending on their particular level in the needs hierarchy. It is posited that only after their physiological and safety requirements have been met will they seek esteem and self-actualism on the job.

### Herzberg's Theory of Job Satisfaction

Distinctions between the job itself and the job environment have their origin in the work of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (22), in which they developed the two-factor theory of motivation to work. This theory was based on the analysis of critical events described by accountants and engineers working in plants in Pittsburgh. The subjects were asked "about events they had experienced at work which either resulted in a marked improvement in their job satisfaction or which had led to a marked reduction in their job dissatisfaction" (20, p. 71). It was found in their study that positive motivators are more intrinsic in nature, including such things as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The negative events or negative motivators were found to be extrinsic in nature and included company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and salary. The intrinsic variables were

described as being "satisfiers" while the extrinsic variables were called "hygiene factors."

Herzberg's conclusions led to the idea that the factors that cause a person to feel job satisfaction are distinctly separate and different from those that produce dissatisfaction. The factors leading to one have very little influence on the other. It should be remarked here that from his research, Herzberg concluded that the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but no job satisfaction; conversely, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, not satisfaction. According to the theory, the individual begins at a position of neutrality, having neither positive nor negative attitudes about his job. If certain motivators are provided, his job satisfaction increases, but when they are not present the result is only a minimal dissatisfaction. If the hygiene factors are not satisfactorially supplied, then job dissatisfaction results. If these hygiene factors are supplied, they lead only to a minimal job satisfaction.

#### Locke's Theory

Locke defined job satisfaction as being "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values." He further stated that "job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship

between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (36, p. 316).

Locke viewed satisfaction as being the result of the interaction between a person's values and his perceptions of the job and its environment. This definition is in keeping with the "fit" hypothesis that Locke proposed in 1967 (37). According to this hypothesis, job satisfaction is dependent on the fit between the individuals' goals and needs and the perceived opportunities for their realization of these goals within the work situation. This leads, then, to the conclusion that there is a need for some facet measurement of satisfaction which uses a measure of discrepancy or "fit" between the importance accorded to the facet and its perceived availability.

Locke's theory of "fit" is very closely akin to the expectancy theory of motivation proposed by Victor Vroom (65). Vroom defines "expectancy" as being a person's belief that a particular behavior or course of action will be followed by a high positive outcome. "Valence" is how important or desirable the person views that outcome as being to him. "Instrumentality" is the belief that a given performance is required to attain a given reward. This motivational theory leads to the inequity theory of job satisfaction as proposed by Stacey Adams (2) which views job satisfaction levels as being related to the perceived difference between what is expected or is desired as a fair

and reasonable return and what is actually realized in the job situation. This is a close approximation of Locke's later definition of job satisfaction.

#### Status of the Two Theories

The Herzberg satisfier-hygiene approach to studies of work has come under criticism because of its tendency to ignore the individual's attitudes and orientations which are brought with them to their jobs and which may affect their expectations of work. Seashore and Taber (57) level this criticism in the belief that reactions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction will vary as one's goals and expectations vary. This argument is in line with the theories of Locke (37), Vroom (65), and Adams (2).

Orientations that may affect expectations of work fall into three classifications: psychological orientation, job orientation, and personal attributes, according to Hopkins (24). Support of this contention can be found in the research conducted by Porter (47) and Slocum (61) in which they found that the intrinsic facets of a job are the source of satisfaction for those in white collar and managerial positions, but are not as effective as the dissatisfiers or extrinsic factors when studying blue collar workers. This would be congruent with Maslow's hierarchy of needs: only after their physiological and safety needs are met will the workers seek esteem and self-actualization from their jobs (38).



An additional criticism of the Herzberg two-factor approach was its dependence on the critical events-interview method that was employed in the original research. In this method, subjects were asked "about events they had experienced at work which either had resulted in a marked improvement in their job satisfaction or had led to a marked reduction in job dissatisfaction" (22, p. 71). Responses were then analyzed for frequency of mention and strength of feeling.

Borgatta (6) developed the Work Components Study Questionnaire for testing Herzberg's theory in an industrial setting. This was composed of Likert-type items which represented factors identified as reliable indicators of job satisfaction. Results obtained with the questionnaire were congruent with those that Herzberg et al. (22) had reported. Other questionnaires with a variety of designs have since been used to show the validity of the two-factor theory of job satisfaction (39, 40, 51, 54).

Recalling that the research upon which Herzberg originally based his theory was conducted with clerical and engineering personnel, it should not be a surprise that the greatest support for the theory is found in research conducted with similar groups, that is, those in white collar, managerial, or professional positions. In light of this, it would be supposed that the two-factor theory can be successfully applied to those employed in the educational

field as well as to those in the fields of business and industry. One of the earliest attempts to do so was that of Sergiovanni who, in 1967, applied both Herzberg's two-factor approach and the critical event-interview method to classroom teachers (58). He found general support for the theory as did Holdaway (23), although there was some blurring in the strength of the variables. This apparent overlap of the motivation-hygiene limits was shown in the satisfaction: dissatisfaction ratios of frequency of mention of incidents involving achievement, recognition, work itself, interpersonal relations with subordinates, and interpersonal relations with supervisors. These factors had potential for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction as indicated by the fact that they were frequently mentioned in both categories.

In studying job satisfaction of both teachers and administrators, Miskel (40) used the Herzberg theory but employed a questionnaire similar to that developed by Borgatta (6). His findings supported the two-factor theory as had those of Borgatta. Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (11); Barawske (12); and Schmidt (54) have also found support of Herzberg's theory from studies of principals and assistant principals.

The literature also offers support for the "fit" hypothesis proposed by Locke (37). That is, job satisfaction depends upon the fit between the needs and goals of the individual and the perceived opportunities for the

realization of these goals within their work situation (24, 51). However, studies have established that experiences in the work environment are far more important than are inherent individual psychological characteristics in explaining and predicting job satisfaction. Among these studies are those of Herman and Hulin (19), Hopkins (24), Pritchard and Peters (50), and Seybolt (59).

Results of research conducted to test the theories of Herzberg and of Locke appear to indicate that both the two-factor theory and the theory of "fit" should be combined in job satisfaction research. This appears to offer advantages in particular to studies directed toward measurement of job satisfaction of white collar and managerial personnel. At this level, research indicates that intrinsic job factors do determine the degree of satisfaction that the individual derives from his job, yet personnel in these positions have higher expectations as to the level of rewards that should be provided by the job. They do, for example, expect to be offered greater challenges and to take greater risks than do those employed in lower-level positions.

#### Research on Job Satisfaction

Early studies of job satisfaction were primarily concerned with finding ways to improve the production and performance of workers by, in a sense, shaping the worker to fit the job. More recently, because researchers have come to view job satisfaction as a desirable end result in

itself, studies typically have as one of their goals the identification and study of those facets which can be modified to make the job better fit the worker.

#### Production-Directed Research

Early interest in job satisfaction sprang from the assumption that productivity and performance would improve with increased job satisfaction. Research has, therefore, tended to explore the correlation of job satisfaction with productivity, turnover, and absenteeism, a linkage supported by Herzberg (20). Research was directed toward determining which job facets and which environmental factors would lead to greater worker satisfaction and, in turn, to an increase in productivity and job performance along with a decrease in absenteeism and turnover. Much of the research was conducted among unskilled and semi-skilled workers because of this often unstated motivation for the research.

Most studies have reported either a weak positive relationship or no correlation between productivity and job satisfaction as was reported by Vroom in a survey of literature on job satisfaction (65). Mowday et al. found that high performance and high job satisfaction went together in their study of female clerical workers in a large metropolitan bank (43). Sheridan and Slocum (60) reported that high job performance was a predictor of job satisfaction for managers, but that for machine operators, need deficiency or dissatisfaction was more directly related to performance

than was satisfaction. In fact, this study seemed to indicate that it was job performance that produced job satisfaction, not vice-versa, a conclusion that was supported by Grant (16).

Studies have shown a negative correlation between job satisfaction and withdrawal. Withdrawal takes two forms: absenteeism and turnover. That absenteeism is inversely related to job satisfaction has been shown in numerous studies including those of Baumgartel and Sobol (4), Kovach (33), Lawler and Porter (35), Talacchi (62), and Waters and Roach (66). Likewise, turnover at all levels, whether managerial or line employees, is predicted by the degree of dissatisfaction with the job itself and the work situation (33, 37, 49, 51, 65, 66).

Organization size has been studied to determine its effect on performance, absenteeism, and job satisfaction. Beer (5) found that there was an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and organizational size. Kovach (33) also found that job satisfaction was higher when workers were in small work units. Porter, in studying the relationship between organizational size and job satisfaction for managerial personnel, found that position in the organizational hierarchy affected the relationship. Those in lower and lower-middle management levels were more satisfied when working in companies employing from 1 to 499. Upper middle management and vice-presidents showed greater

job satisfaction when employed in companies of 5,000 or more. The presidents of companies displayed higher job satisfaction in small companies, those employing from 1 to 499 (48). Also, from Porter's work and from Kovach's, it appears that there is a positive relationship between organization size and absenteeism with absenteeism being greater in larger companies. However, from both studies it appears that as the worker moves up the organizational hierarchy into supervisory and managerial positions size of the organization has less and less effect on absenteeism.

#### Humanistic-Directed Research

In the 1950s, the focus of job satisfaction research began to shift toward a more humanistic base. Interest in job satisfaction stemmed from recognition of its influence on the quality of the workers' lives and as a promoter of the mental health of the community (1, 29). Job dissatisfaction and the stress associated with it have been linked to both mental and physical health problems. These include depression, low self-esteem, social isolation, fatigue, psychosomatic illness, work-related injuries, and coronary-vascular disease, as reported in Mortimer (42) and Near, Rice, and Hunt (44). With this shift in emphasis, more job research has been specifically directed toward the satisfaction felt by personnel at the managerial level. In addition, as women have become a permanent part of the

work force and have moved into managerial positions in larger numbers, there has arisen an interest in whether the factors or facets which produce satisfaction are independent of the sex of the subject. It was recognized as early as the 1950s that at least some of these factors might be sex-linked variables.

In reviewing research comparing job satisfaction of men and women, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell concluded that no clear pattern emerged (21). Hulin and Smith (26) analyzed job satisfaction as a function of sex difference using the Job Descriptive Index as a measuring instrument. Their findings led to the conclusion that there are many other variables closely related to sex that cause the fluctuations found in the results of the various studies. If these covariables were held constant, then there were no significant differences in females' responses to the items on the Job Descriptive Index as compared to those of males. Using other measuring instruments, Brief and Oliver (8) and Weaver (68) found the same results. Variables that were found to be closely related to sex differences were age, tenure, educational level, pay level, and level of aspiration. All of the above factors are related to job orientation as identified by previous researchers, with the possible exception of pay level (24, 51). However, pay level is highly dependent on the other factors listed. In addition, there are personal attributes that have an effect

on job satisfaction but do not have as close a relationship to the sex of the respondent as do those listed above. These variables are race, marital status, and the number and the age of children who are living at home.

There is evidence that formal education raises worker job expectations such that the more highly educated workers approach their jobs with greater expectations than do their less educated counterparts. Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello, and Weisner (63) reported that level of formal education had a significant negative effect on job satisfaction. Those with more years of formal education reported lower overall job satisfaction than did those with fewer years of formal education. Similarly, Seybolt (59) found that rewards of pay, variety, and tax complexity had to be higher for the more highly educated employee in order to maintain similar levels of satisfaction. Quinn, Staines, and McCullough (51) found particularly low job satisfaction among those who had attended college but had not actually graduated. The sample used in the study involved a variety of jobs, many of which had educational requirements attached to promotions and pay increases. The low job satisfaction of those with some college education but no degree was attributed to the high expectations and aspirations stimulated by higher education which could not be achieved because of the lack of a degree. Weaver (68), in contrast to the findings of most studies, found a weak positive



relationship between job satisfaction for females and their educational level; however, this difference was not statistically significant.

The fact that those in higher occupational positions and of higher educational level place a greater importance on intrinsic variables in their work than do those at lower levels has been shown in several studies. These include those of Gurin (17); Kohn and Schooler (32); Near, Rice, and Hunt (44); and Quinn et al. (51). Those in higher-prestige positions and with higher educational levels place a greater emphasis on challenge, autonomy, and other intrinsic rewards from their jobs.

Job satisfaction starts high as the young worker enters the job, declines, and then starts to improve again with increasing age, according to Herzberg et al. (21), based on the study of an all-male sample. This pattern was explained as being caused by the high hopes and expectations with which the young worker enters the job field, the realization of the difficulties faced in achieving those goals, and finally, the adjustment of expectations to a more realistic level in keeping with his own abilities and the opportunities offered by the job. Hunt and Saul (28) found no relationship between age and job satisfaction for females; however, for males, they found the same U-shaped relationship that Herzberg et al. had reported (21). Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (14) found that women show the same pattern in satisfaction

changes with age as do men. Wright and Hamilton (69) found that younger workers were more dissatisfied with their jobs than were older workers, a finding which confirmed those of Quinn et al. (51). An explanation offered was that the younger workers expected more immediate rewards than did older workers, particularly in the areas of promotion and pay increase. These were not realized as quickly as the young worker desired. In studying female principals, Fansher and Buxton (10) found a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction. In their national sample, older women reported themselves as more satisfied with their job than did younger women principals.

Analyzing various facets of job satisfaction, Wright and Hamilton (69) also found that the importance that white-collar workers placed on both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards showed no clear-cut variance with age. Only one clearly age-related difference in values was found: younger workers valued the chances for promotion more highly than did their elders. Saleh and Otis (53), in a study dealing only with men, found a decrease in job satisfaction occurring about five years before retirement. This they attributed to the realization that the high hopes of youth would not be attained, plus an increase in health problems that accompanied aging. These health problems were having a pervasive effect on both job and life satisfaction. This study was conducted using a sample composed exclusively of managerial personnel.

As with many of the factors affecting job satisfaction, job tenure has been shown to be a variable influence. Hulin and Smith (27) found that job satisfaction increased with increased tenure with a company. This would seem to be a logical conclusion if one assumes that those who remain with the same company for extended periods of time do so because of the "fit" between their goals and their expectancy of achieving those goals while working within the organization. However, Gibson and Klein (13) and Katz (31) found that satisfaction tended to decrease with increased number of years with the same company. A possible explanation for this finding is that job security becomes less important with years thus its value as a "reward" lessens with time, thus decreasing job satisfaction.

Tenure in the same position appears to be negatively related to job satisfaction, according to research by Hulin and Smith (27) and Katz (31). Their findings were supported by Freisen, Holdaway, and Rice (11) in their study of school principals. This study showed that principals with twenty years or more experience as principals reported lower job satisfaction than did those with fewer years of experience. Also, they listed hygiene factors more frequently as contributing to their job dissatisfaction than did those with fewer years spent as principals. That the level of the individual's position in the organizational hierarchy affects the tenure-satisfaction relationship was suggested

by the work of Gould and Hawkins (15), Porter (47), and Schuler (56).

Pay, while classified as a hygiene factor by Herzberg, carries to some extent a connotation of recognition since an increase in pay will usually accompany such intrinsic satisfiers as promotion and recognition, increased responsibility, and achievement. That income has a positive effect on job satisfaction has been supported by numerous studies, including those of Hulin and Smith (27), Lawler (34), and Lawler and Porter (35). Hulin and Smith (26) reported that women were more satisfied with their pay than were men, even though their average salary was lower than that of males holding similar jobs. Their overall job satisfaction was, at the same time, slightly higher than that of the men. Bartol and Wortman (3) found that there were no significant differences between the satisfaction of women and of men with their salary, provided other factors such as educational level, tenure and position within the organizational hierarchy were controlled. This finding was supported by those of Weaver (67).

Job aspiration levels of women were found to be lower than the aspiration levels of men, according to research reported by Hulin and Smith (26). It was theorized by the authors that this could account for some of the variance in other job satisfaction factors (responsibility, autonomy, challenge, and promotion) between sexes. However, findings

by Bowker, Hinkle, and Worner (7) indicate that there is no significant difference between aspiration levels of men and women. As pointed out earlier, there is evidence that workers increase their job satisfaction over time by adjusting their occupational values, expectations, and aspirations to be more congruent with the satisfactions and rewards that are actually available to them in their work. This is supported by the research of Hall and Nougaim (18), Pennings (46), and Mortimer and Lorence (42). This adjustment may take place in women at all age levels. Schmuck (55), in a study of female school administrators, found that aspiration levels were indeed low while their job satisfaction was high.

Closer investigation into the differences in aspiration levels of men and women has shown that women have as high aspiration levels as do men when that level is measured within fields that are generally perceived as being areas of expertise peculiar to women. Among these are nursing, teaching, and home economy-related fields. However, in fields already dominated by men, they aspire to lower-level positions and are satisfied with lower levels of rewards, according to O'Leary (45), Romer (52), and Taylor (64). O'Leary (45) and Epstein and Bronzaft (9) theorize that this may be due to the women's fear that they will not appear to be feminine if they compete with men and do so successfully. Schmuck (55) found that the women principals

in her study had generally not actively sought that position, but had initially applied for the administrative job because of suggestions from other administrators (male) that they do so, a finding that would seem to support the evaluation of Epstein and Bronzaft (9) and of O'Leary (45).

Marital status and the existence of babies, preteens, and teenagers in the worker's household have been reported as having effects on the job satisfaction of both men and women. Those who are married tend to report higher job satisfaction than do those who are not (8, 21, 51, 68). A possible explanation is that those who are married experience a greater life satisfaction which carries over into their reaction to their job situation. Herzberg et al. (21) did report that the job adjustment of female workers is often made more difficult because they must divide their interests and attention between their work and their traditional role as wife and mother. Hulin and Smith (26) reported that the job satisfaction of married women is negatively affected by these role conflicts. Evidence as to the effects of children in the home on job satisfaction is limited and contradictory, according to Herzberg et al. (21). However, Quinn et al. (51) report that women tend to be less job satisfied when they have preschool children at home, but that children of other ages appear to have little or no effect upon job satisfaction. This finding is supported by Weaver (67) and by Fansher and Buxton (10).

The personal characteristic of race of the respondent has been used in analysis of job satisfaction. Studies by Near, Rice, and Hunt (44) and Quinn et al. (51) have found that white respondents report higher job satisfaction than do nonwhites. This finding was consistent through various occupational levels.

Various researchers have concluded that there are many facets of work and the work environment that influence job satisfaction. Locke (38) identified facets such as autonomy and freedom from close supervision, good pay and other economic benefits, job security, promotional opportunities, use of valued skills and abilities, variety, and interesting work. Quinn et al. (51) identified the additional facets of relationship with coworkers, convenience of travel to and from work, and reasonable working hours as affecting job satisfaction. As Locke pointed out, the importance that the individual assigns to each facet determines its strength as a determinant of job satisfaction. The theory that the importance assigned to a particular job facet determines its effectiveness in producing overall job satisfaction has led to the use of discrepancy measures to differentiate between the experiences and rewards desired and those actually received. Studies today tend to include a measure of overall job satisfaction through general questions such as "All in all, how satisfied are you with your present job?" with facet specific questions. Discrepancy scores are then

used to measure the degree of satisfaction with each of the individual job facets. This combination of the two approaches will be used in this study.

Job satisfaction research has produced conflicting results when attempting to determine the effect of various personal characteristics and of various job facets on job satisfaction. A partial explanation of these differences may lie in the different occupational groups used in the various studies and in the various methods used in the studies. Certainly, no conclusive evidence is available as to which factors will produce increased job satisfaction and which will produce job dissatisfaction.



## CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Adams, James R., "Relationship Between Self-Reported Stress Levels and Job Satisfaction Among Elementary and Secondary School Principals," unpublished thesis, North Texas State University, 1983.
2. Adams, Stacy, "Toward an Understanding of Inequity," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, LXVI (1963), 422-436.
3. Bartol, K. M. and M. S. Wortman, "Male Versus Female Leaders: Effects on Perceived Leader Behavior and Satisfaction in a Hospital," Personnel Psychology, XXVII (1975), 533-547.
4. Baumgartel, H. and R. Sobol, "Background and Organizational Factors in Absenteeism," Personnel Psychology, XII (1959), 431-444.
5. Beer, Michael, "Organizational Size and Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, VII (March, 1964), 34-44.
6. Borgatta, E. F., "The Work Components Study: A Set of Measures for Work Motivation," Journal of Psychological Studies, XVI (1967), 1-11.
7. Bowker, J., J. Hinkle, and C. Worner, "Do Women Aspire to the Same Administrative Positions as Men?," Educational Administration Quarterly, XIX (1983), 64-81.
8. Brief, A. P. and R. L. Oliver, "Male-Female Differences in Work Attitudes Among Retail Sales Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXI (1976), 526-528.
9. Epstein, G. F. and A. L. Bronzaft, "Female Modesty in Aspiration Level," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XXI (1974), 57-60.
10. Fansher, T. A. and T. H. Buxton, "A Job Satisfaction Profile of the Female Secondary School Principal in the United States," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, LXVI (January, 1984), 32-39.

11. Friesen, D., E. A. Holdaway, and A. W. Rice, "Satisfaction of School Principals With Their Work," Educational Administration Quarterly, XIX (Fall, 1983), 35-58.
12. Garawski, Robert A., "The Assistant Principal: His Job Satisfaction and Organizational Potency," Clearing House, LII (September, 1978), 8-10.
13. Gibson, Frank and C. Teasley, "The Humanistic Model of Motivation: A Review of Research Support," Public Administration Review, XXXIII (1973), 89-96.
14. Glenn, W. D., P. Taylor, and C. N. Weaver, "Age and Job Satisfaction Among Males and Females: A Multi-variate Study," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXII (1977), 189-193.
15. Gould, S. and B. L. Hawkins, "Organizational Career Stage as a Moderator of the Satisfaction-Performance Relationship," Academy of Management Journal, XXI (1978), 434-450.
16. Grant, P. C., "Exploring the Relationship Between Motivation, Satisfaction and Performance," Personnel Administrator, XXIX (July, 1979), 55-69.
17. Gurin, G., J. Veroff, and S. Feld, Americans View Their Mental Health, New York, Basic Book, 1960.
18. Hall, Douglas and Khalil Nougaim, "An Examination of Maslow's Need Hierarchy in an Organization Setting," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, III (February, 1968), 12-35.
19. Herman, J. B. and C. L. Hulin, "Studying Organizational Attitudes from Individual and Organizational Frames of Reference," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, VIII (1972), 84-108.
20. Herzberg, Frederick, Work and the Nature of Man, Cleveland, World, 1966.
21. Herzberg, Frederick, B. Mausner, R. Peterson, and D. Capwell, Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion, Pittsburg, Psychological Service of Pittsburg, 1957.
22. Herzberg, Frederick, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work, New York, Wiley, 1959.

23. Holdaway, E. A., "Facet and Overall Satisfaction of Teachers," Educational Administration Quarterly, XIV (Winter, 1978), 30-47.
24. Hopkins, Anne H., Work and Job Satisfaction in the Public Sector, Totowa, New Jersey, Rowman and Allanheld, 1983.
25. Hulin, C. L., "Effects of Community Characteristics on Measuring Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, L (1966), 185-192.
26. Hulin, C. L. and P. C. Smith, "Sex Differences in Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVII (1964), 88-92.
27. Hulin, C. L. and P. C. Smith, "A Linear Model of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLIX (1965), 209-216.
28. Hunt, J. W. and P. N. Saul, "The Relationship of Age, Tenure, and Job Satisfaction in Males and Females," Academy of Management Journal (1975), 690-702.
29. Kahn, R. L., "The Meaning of Work: Interpretation and Proposals for Measurement," in The Human Meaning of Social Change, eds. A. Campbell and P. E. Converse, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1972, pp. 159-203.
30. Kahn, R. L. and D. Katz, The Social Psychology of Organizations, New York, Wiley, 1978.
31. Katz, D., "Job Longevity as a Situational Factor in Job Satisfaction," Administrative Science Quarterly, XXIII (1978), 204-223.
32. Kohn, M. L. and Carmi Schooler, "Class, Occupation and Orientation," American Sociological Review, XXXIV (1969), 659-678.
33. Kovach, Kenneth, Organizational Size, Job Satisfaction, Absenteeism and Turnover, Washington, D. C., University Press of America, 1977.
34. Lawler, E. E., Motivation in Work Organizations, Monterey, California, Brooks and Cole, 1973.
35. Lawler, E. E. and L. W. Porter, "Perceptions Regarding Management Compensation," Industrial Relations, III (1963), 41-49.

36. Locke, E. A., "What is Job Satisfaction?", Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, IV (1969), 309-336.
37. Locke, E. A., "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction," in the Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, ed. M. D. Dunnette, Chicago, Rand-McNally, 1976.
38. Maslow, A. H., Motivation and Personality, New York, Harper, 1954.
39. Miskel, C., "The Motivation of Educators to Work," Educational Administration Quarterly, IX (1973), 42-53.
40. Miskel, C., "Intrinsic, Extrinsic and Risk Propensity Factors in the Attitudes of Teachers, Educational Administrators and Business Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, LIX (1974), 339-343.
41. Mortimer, J. T., Changing Attitudes Toward Work, Scarsdale, New York, Work in America Institute, 1979.
42. Mortimer, J. T. and J. Lorence, "Work Experience and Occupational Value Socialization: A Longitudinal Study," American Journal of Sociology, 84 (1979), 1361-1385.
43. Mowday, R. T., L. W. Porter, and R. Dubin, "Unit Performance, Situational Factors, and Employee Attitudes in Spatially Separated Work Units," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XII (1974), 231-248.
44. Near, J. P., R. W. Rice, and R. G. Hunt, "Work and Extra-Work Correlates of Life and Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, XXI (1978), 248-264.
45. O'Leary, V. E., "Some Attitudinal Barriers to Occupational Aspirations in Women," Psychological Bulletin, 81 (1974), 809-829.
46. Pennings, J. M., "Work-Value Systems of White-Collar Workers," Administrative Science Quarterly, XV (1970), 397-405.
47. Porter, L. W., "Job Attitudes in Management: Perceived Importance of Needs as a Function of Job Level," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVII (April, 1963), 386-397.

48. Porter, L. W., "Job Attitudes in Management: Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Size of Company," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVII (1963), 386-397.
49. Porter, L. W. and R. M. Steers, "Organization, Work and Personal Factors in Employee Turnover and Absenteeism," Psychological Bulletin, LXXX (1973), 151-176.
50. Pritchard, R. D. and L. H. Peters, "Job Duties and Job Interests as Predictors of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XII (1974), 315-330.
51. Quinn, R. P., G. L. Staines, and M. R. McCullough, "Job Satisfaction: Is There a Trend?", Manpower Research Monograph No. 30, Washington, D. C., U. S. Department of Labor, 1974.
52. Romer, N., "Sex-Related Differences in the Development of the Motive to Avoid Success, Role Identity and Performance in Competitive and Noncompetitive Conditions," Psychology of Women Quarterly (1977), 260-272.
53. Saleh, W. D. and J. L. Otis, "Age and Level of Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology, XVII (1964), 425-430.
54. Schmidt, G. L., "Job Satisfaction Among Secondary School Administrators," Educational Administration Quarterly, XII (Spring, 1976), 68-86.
55. Schmuck, P. A., "Deterrents to Women's Careers in School Management," Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, I (1975), 339-354.
56. Schuler, R. S., "Sex, Organization Level and Outcome Importance: Where are the Differences," Personnel Psychology, XXVII (1975), 365-375.
57. Seashore, S. E. and T. D. Taber, "Job Satisfaction Indicators and Their Correlates," American Behavioral Scientist, XVII (1975), 333-368.
58. Sergiovanni, T. J., "Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," Journal of Educational Administration, V (1967), 55-82.

59. Seybolt, J. W., "Work Satisfaction as a Function of the Person-Environment Interaction," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XVII (1976), 66-75.
60. Sheridan, J. E. and J. W. Slocum, "The Direction of the Causal Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Work Performance," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XIV (1975), 159-172.
61. Slocum, J. W., "Motivation in Managerial Levels: Relationship of Need Satisfaction to Job Performance," Journal of Applied Psychology, LV (1971), 312-316.
62. Tallachi, S., "Organizational Size, Individual Attitudes and Behavior: An Empirical Study," Administrative Science Quarterly, V (1960), 398-420.
63. Tannenbaum, A. S., B. Kavcic, M. Rosner, M. Vianello, and G. Weisner, Hierarchy in Organizations, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 1974.
64. Taylor, Suzanne, "Educational Leadership: A Male Domain?", Phi Delta Kappan, LV (October, 1973), 124-128.
65. Vroom, Victor, Work and Motivation, New York, Wiley, 1964.
66. Waters, L. K. and Donald Roach, "Relationship Between Job Attitudes and Two Forms of Withdrawal From the Work Situation," Journal of Applied Psychology, LV (1971), 92-94.
67. Weaver, C. N., "Relationships Among Pay, Race, Sex, Occupational Prestige, Supervision, Work Autonomy, and Job Satisfaction in a National Sample," Personnel Psychology, XXX (1977), 437-445.
68. Weaver, C. N., "Sex Differences in the Determinants of Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, XXI (1978), 265-274.
69. Wright, J. D. and R. F. Hamilton, "Work Satisfaction and Age: Some Evidence for the 'Job Change' Hypothesis," Social Forces, 56 (1978), 1140-1158.

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES FOR THE STUDY

This chapter contains a description of the procedures used in the study. This description is divided into the following categories: Description of Subjects, Description of the Collection of Data, Description of the Questionnaire, Description of the Variables, Description of the Research Design, and Description of the Statistical Analysis Used.

#### Description of the Subjects

It was the intent of the researcher to include each female principal and vice-principal who was employed by a Texas Independent School District for the 1984-85 school year. With this goal in mind, every effort was made to compile as complete and accurate a master list of principals and vice-principals as possible. Three sources of names and addresses were used: (1) a listing supplied by the data bank of the Texas Education Agency which contained the names and school addresses of female principals and vice-principals employed in Texas public schools for the 1983-84 school year; (2) the 1984-85 Texas School Directory (7); (3) lists supplied by superintendents and personnel directors of thirty-one school districts throughout Texas. In the event

that the superintendent of a school district or his representative indicated that the administrators of that district should not be contacted for participation in the study, then all names from the district which had been obtained through the first two sources were deleted from the master list. Thirteen districts were deleted. The reasons given for their non-inclusion in the study included (1) too much paper work already required of administrators and (2) the district was already participating in numerous research projects and did not want personnel included in another.

There were 1,074 independent school districts in Texas, excluding state schools in 1984-85. Of these, 349 employed one or more women as principals or vice-principals. The final list of subjects for this study consisted of 1,364 names and school addresses representing 336 of those school districts. These included principals and vice-principals at all grade levels, kindergarten through twelfth grade. These administrators were employed in school districts ranging in size from quite small to very large. The smallest district represented reported an enrollment of twenty-eight students in grades kindergarten through eight for the 1984-85 school year. The largest of the school districts reported an enrollment of over 125,000 students in grades kindergarten through twelve.



### Description of the Collection of Data

The twenty-eight question questionnaire was posted in two mailings of approximately equal size. The first mailing was on April 29, 1985, with the second following two weeks later on May 14, 1985. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter which included a statement of the purpose of the study, an assurance of the confidentiality of response, and instructions for the completion and return of the questionnaire (Appendix A). Also enclosed was a stamped, addressed envelope for the return of the completed questionnaire. Those questionnaires which were returned after June 1, 1985, were not included in the study.

Of the 1,364 packets mailed, 835 usable responses were returned. A minimum response rate of 50% had been set as required to provide validity to the study. The return rate was above this (61.14%); therefore, no follow-up mailings were undertaken. However, a sample of the nonrespondents was polled by telephone within two weeks after the deadline for their response in order to determine the reason for nonresponse. Results can be found in Appendix D.

### Description of the Questionnaire

To collect data for the study, a single instrument was used. This consisted of a questionnaire composed of twenty-eight questions which required the subject to check her response to each question. Prior to its use in the study,

the questionnaire was submitted to a panel of five female administrators for review of the ease of understanding of the items. The design of the questionnaire reduced the time required for its completion and also helped to simplify the scoring of items.

One question, number two of the questionnaire, was used to measure the administrator's own view of her job satisfaction. This was a facet-free question, "All in all how satisfied would you say you are with your job?". This was scored as follows:

very satisfied	4
somewhat satisfied	3
not too satisfied	2
not at all satisfied	1

Question number twenty-eight was used as a facet-specific measure of job satisfaction. It consisted of a twenty-two item discrepancy measure. This listing was similar to the one first used in The 1969-70 Survey of Working Conditions (3). The questions were expanded and used again in The 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey (4). These questions were designed to include the following job facets: promotional opportunities, the content of the job, supervision, financial rewards, working conditions, and coworkers. After factor analysis of the items, a final list of twenty-three facet-specific questions were included in the Facet Specific Job Satisfaction measure, one of which

has been eliminated from the current study as not applicable to school administrators. In addition, some of the items have been reworded to make them apply more clearly to employment in the educational administration field. While the surveys previously mentioned (3, 4) used interviews to collect data, the facet-specific portion of the survey used a system of flash cards, adaptable to a questionnaire format as it is used here.

The 1969-70 Survey of Working Conditions used facet-specific and facet-free measures of job satisfaction for mutual validation. These were found to correlate at .46. The internal consistency reliability of the facet-specific job satisfaction measure was found to be .88 overall, with ranges from .57 to .87 on the six facet areas.

To measure the importance of the facets to the subject, the "importance" portion of question twenty-eight was used. To score these items, responses of very important were scored as 3, fairly important as 2, and not important as 1. A mean importance score was then determined for the intrinsic facets and for the extrinsic facets on each questionnaire. The higher the mean score, the more important the group of facets to the subject.

To measure job satisfaction, the discrepancy score between the importance of the facet and the degree to which the subject's present job provided that facet was computed as follows.

Discrepancy		Discrepancy Score
Provide	Importance	
Not at all	Very important	4
In some ways	Very important	3
Not at all	Fairly important	
Quite a bit	Very important	2
In some ways	Fairly important	
Not at all	Not important	
Quite a bit	Fairly important	1
In some ways	Not important	

The lower the discrepancy score, the higher the satisfaction with the facet. To determine overall facet job satisfaction scores, the mean from the twenty-two facets was computed. It was decided not to weight the facets according to their importance to the subject, based on Locke's insistence that the individual weights his responses himself (2). This assumption is consistent with the findings of The 1969-70 Survey of Working Conditions (3) and of The 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey (4). Therefore, the arithmetic mean was used for measuring satisfaction with the intrinsic and extrinsic facets, as well as for the overall rating of facet satisfaction.

### Description of the Variables

The dependent variables under consideration were intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction of female building-level administrators. These were measured through a twenty-two item facet-specific questionnaire designed to measure the discrepancy between the importance assigned to each of the job facets and the amount to which the subject's current job provided those facets. Ten of the facets were designated as extrinsic in nature while the remaining twelve were classified as intrinsic facets. Their grouping into these two classifications was based on Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's grouping of the facets (1). The intrinsic facets were chance for promotion, opportunity to develop special abilities, work is interesting, chance to do the things I do best, challenging problems to solve, authority to do my job, seeing the results of my work, enough information to get the job done, enough help and equipment to get the job done, and responsibilities being clearly defined. Those classified as extrinsic in nature were chance to make friends, friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers, convenience of travel to and from work, proper amount of work, adequate pay, job security, competence of supervisor in doing his/her job, pleasant physical surroundings, freedom from the conflicting demands others

make of me, freedom to decide how to get the work done, enough time to get the job done, and reasonable working hours.

The independent variables considered in this study included the following characteristics of the respondents: (1) age, (2) marital status, (3) number of children living at home, (4) educational level, (5) tenure in administration, (6) tenure with the school system, (7) tenure in the present position, (8) highest level of job aspiration, (9) current job level, and (10) race. Information pertaining to these was obtained through the demographic portion of the questionnaire.

#### Description of the Research Design

This research study involved the administration of a twenty-eight question survey document which was distributed and collected by mail. No follow-up mailings were necessary as the response level ran well above that deemed necessary for the validity of the study.

#### Description of the Statistical Analysis

After the questionnaires were administered, the questionnaires returned were checked for completeness. Those which had more than two missing responses on question number twenty-eight, the measure of facet-specific job satisfaction, were eliminated from further processing. For those remaining 835 usable survey forms, intrinsic

and extrinsic importance scores were computed. These were the arithmetical means of the intrinsic and extrinsic facet importance. The intrinsic and extrinsic discrepancy scores as well as the overall facet-specific discrepancy scores were calculated using the arithmetical mean of the facet discrepancies. The data were then prepared for keypunching after which they were taken to the North Texas State University Computing Center for processing.

To determine the administrators' views of their job satisfaction, the count and per cent of the sample making each category of response were tabulated as well as the mean score. These data were also analyzed by job level.

As the responses on both the intrinsic job facets and the extrinsic job facets came from the same sample, the t-test of related samples was used to compare the mean scores on the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic job facets. This was followed by a one-way analysis of variance to determine whether or not differences in importance of intrinsic and extrinsic job facets occurred between principals and vice-principals. The same statistical analyses were used for comparing the mean scores on the discrepancies in intrinsic and extrinsic job facets. The level of significance on the t-test was computed using two-tailed probability. The level of significance above which the null hypothesis would be rejected was set at the .05 level.

To test for variance in the mean of facet-specific job satisfaction, a one-way analysis of variance was used. Variance was tested using the independent variables of age, marital status, children living at home, race, educational level, tenure in administration, tenure in present position, tenure with the school system, level of aspiration, and current job level. Again, the level at which the null hypothesis would be rejected was set at the .05 level. For those variables which contained more than two groups, the Scheffe test was used to determine which groups actually did show significant differences in their means. The Scheffe test is a conservative measure used for multiple comparison of variance between groups. It was applied to the variables of age, marital status, number of children living at home, educational level, tenure in administration, tenure with the school system, tenure in the present position, and level of aspiration. In addition, variance between principals' and vice-principals' discrepancy scores on each job facet was determined using the t-test of independent samples.

Certain of the independent variables under study had been identified in earlier studies (1, 5, 6) as interacting with each other and together producing variance in job satisfaction. To investigate the possibility of this having occurred in this study, the ANOVA procedure was used. This procedure makes it possible to analyze variance



in the dependent variable produced by the simultaneous manipulation of two or more independent variables. The variable pairs subjected to this analysis were marital status and number of children living at home, job level and school size, job level and level of aspiration, and tenure in present position and level of aspiration.

The results of these statistical procedures will be presented in Chapter IV. In addition, descriptive data relative to the subjects will be presented.

## CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Herzberg, Frederick, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work, New York, Wiley, 1959.
2. Locke, E. A., "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction," in the Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, ed. M. D. Dunnette, Chicago, Rand-McNally, 1976.
3. Quinn, Robert, S. Seashore, R. Kahn, T. Mangione, D. Campbell, B. Staines, and M. McCullough, The Survey of Working Conditions: Final Report on Univariate and Bivariate Tables, Document No. 2916-0001, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1971.
4. Quinn, Robert and L. Shepard, The 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey, Ann Arbor, Michigan, University of Michigan Survey Research Center, 1974.
5. Roscoe, John T., Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1975.
6. Seybolt, J. W., "Work Satisfaction as a Function of the Person-Environment Interaction," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XVII (1976), 66-75.
7. Texas Education Agency, 1984-85 Texas School Directory, Austin, Texas, Texas Education Agency, 1984.
8. Weaver, C. N., "Relationships Among Pay, Race, Sex, Occupational Prestige, Supervision, Work Autonomy, and Job Satisfaction in a National Sample," Personnel Psychology, XXX (1977), 437-445.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted for the following purposes:

1. To determine the degree to which female principals and vice-principals in the public schools of Texas derive job satisfaction from their work;
2. To identify those factors, both negative and positive, which affect the job satisfaction of these principals and vice-principals; and
3. To add to the data base available to further the description and study of building-level administrators in Texas.

To achieve these goals, four hypotheses were proposed as guides to the study. In this chapter, descriptive data associated with the individual hypothesis will be presented, followed by the results of the statistical treatments used to test the hypothesis. Following the presentation of the hypotheses, additional descriptive data available from the study will be presented.

#### Hypotheses

Hypothesis One, which stated that female principals and vice-principals do not view themselves as being satisfied with their job, was tested using a single question, number

two on the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Appendix B). That question asked, "All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?" to which the available responses were "very satisfied," "somewhat satisfied," and "not at all satisfied." The responses to this question are summarized in Table I.

TABLE I  
FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR  
JOB SATISFACTION

Responses	Vice-Principals		Principals		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very satisfied	181	54.7	336	70.6	537	64.3
Somewhat satisfied	127	38.4	131	26.0	258	30.9
Not too satisfied	19	5.7	12	2.4	31	3.7
Not at all satisfied	4	1.2	5	1.0	9	1.1
Total	331	100.0	504	100.0	835	100.0

The mean job satisfaction was computed for both the principals and vice-principals, and for the total sample. The means were determined by scoring the response as follows: very satisfied = 4; somewhat satisfied = 3; not too satisfied = 2; and not at all satisfied = 1. The means and standard deviations are reported in Table II. As there appeared to be a rather large variation in the means of the principals and vice-principals in the study, a one-way

analysis of variance was run to determine whether this difference was statistically significant. It was found that for the sample, the F-ratio was 20.5540, clearly a significant difference. Principals viewed themselves as being significantly more satisfied with their jobs than did vice-principals. However, the responses to the personal satisfaction question indicate that administrators do view themselves as satisfied with their jobs, thus Hypothesis One was rejected.

TABLE II  
MEANS OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS RESPONSES ON THEIR  
PERCEPTION OF THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

Sample	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Vice-Principals	3.4653	0.6522	331
Principals	3.6607	0.5796	504
All Administrators	3.5832	0.6165	835

Hypothesis Two, which stated that there is no significant difference in the importance that is assigned to the intrinsic job facets and to the extrinsic job facets by principals and vice-principals, was measured using question number twenty-eight of the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. This consisted of twenty-two job facets which could be classified according to their intrinsic and extrinsic nature. The respondent was asked to rate each

facet as to how important that facet would be in any job. Available responses were "very important," "fairly important," and "not important."

To compute the mean importance score on each individual job facet and on the two groups of job facets, the available responses were assigned values as follows: very important = 3; fairly important = 2; not important = 1. The summary of these responses is presented in Table III and Table IV. Table III presents the intrinsic job facets listed in order of decreasing importance, while Table IV lists the extrinsic job facets in order of decreasing importance.

In viewing the mean response on each individual facet, it did appear that the intrinsic facets were more important to the respondents than were the extrinsic facets. To test whether this difference did, in fact, represent a statistically significant difference in the means of the two groups of facets, a mean intrinsic importance score and a mean extrinsic importance score were computed for each respondent. These importance scores were then subjected to a t-test of related samples to determine the variance in the means of the intrinsic and the extrinsic importance scores. The results of this procedure are presented in Table V.

The results of the t-test indicated that the importance that female principals and vice-principals assigned to the intrinsic job facets was significantly higher than that they

TABLE III  
 IMPORTANCE OF INTRINSIC JOB FACETS BY  
 PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

Facet	Very Important	Fairly Important	Not Important	N	X
Authority to do my job	94.7%	5.3	0.0%	834	2.9472
Work is interesting	90.4%	9.4%	0.2%	833	2.9016
Enough information to get the job done	89.2%	10.8%	0.0%	831	2.8917
Responsibilities being clearly defined	83.5%	16.0%	0.5%	831	2.8303
Seeing the results of my work	82.8%	17.0%	0.2%	831	2.8255
Enough help and equipment to get the job done	82.1%	17.8%	0.1%	834	2.8201
Chance to do the things I do best	80.5%	19.1%	0.4%	832	2.8017
Challenging problems to solve	72.5%	26.6%	1.0%	832	2.7151
Opportunity to develop special abilities	70.6%	28.6%	0.8%	832	2.6971
Chance for promotion	47.7%	36.6%	15.7%	833	2.3193

TABLE IV  
 IMPORTANCE OF EXTRINSIC JOB FACETS BY  
 PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

Facet	Very Important	Fairly Important	Not Important	N	X
Job security	86.4%	13.6%	0.0%	832	2.8642
Freedom to decide how to get the work done	83.8%	16.1%	0.1%	831	2.8363
Friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers	80.1%	19.8%	0.1%	833	2.7995
Competence of supervisor in doing his/her job	73.2%	25.4%	1.4%	830	2.7205
Enough time to get the job done	72.1%	26.7%	1.2%	834	2.7086
Adequate pay	62.3%	37.4%	0.3%	834	2.6223
Proper amount of work	60.0%	36.6%	3.4%	832	2.5661
Reasonable working hours	52.9%	41.9%	5.2%	830	2.5289
Pleasant physical surroundings	54.6%	42.7%	2.6%	833	2.5204
Chance to make friends	41.0%	47.7%	11.3%	831	2.2972
Freedom from the conflicting demands others make of me	40.8%	47.2%	12.0%	832	2.2878
Convenience of travel to and from work	39.0%	43.2%	17.8%	830	2.2118



TABLE V

MEANS OF RESPONSES OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS ON  
IMPORTANCE OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC JOB  
FACETS AND RESULTS OF T-TEST PROCEDURE

Variable	Mean	S.D.	t	df	2-tailed prob.
Intrinsic importance	2.763677	.22744	16.04	834	.001
Extrinsic importance	2.607725	.28476			

assigned to the extrinsic facets. This result is in agreement with the findings of earlier studies which indicated that for professionals and white-collar workers, the intrinsic job facets are more important than are the extrinsic job facets.

To test whether or not principals and vice-principals vary as to the importance they assign to intrinsic and extrinsic job facets, a one-way analysis of variance was used. Results of that procedure are presented in Table VI. For this analysis, principals are presented as Group 1, while vice-principals are presented as Group 2.

As shown in Table VI, vice-principals assign a significantly greater importance to the intrinsic job facets than do the principals. On the other hand, the principals in the study assigned a significantly greater importance to the extrinsic job facets than did the vice-principals. In

TABLE VI  
 MEANS OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC FACET IMPORTANCE  
 BY JOB LEVEL AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Dependent Variable	Groups	Means	F Ratio	F Probability
Importance of Intrinsic Job Facets	1	2.747877	6.1734	.0132
	2	2.787734		
Importance of Extrinsic Job Facets	1	2.632123	9.4282	.0022
	2	2.570574		

light of these findings, Hypothesis Two, which was stated in the null form, was rejected.

Hypothesis Three, which stated that there is no significant difference between the job satisfaction that female principals and vice-principals derive from the intrinsic and extrinsic facets of their job, was measured using question number twenty-eight of the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Appendix B). The twenty-two job facets which made up question twenty-eight were first rated as to their importance. As a second part of question twenty-eight, the subjects were asked to respond to the question "Does your present job actually provide these things?". The results are presented in Table VII and Table VIII.

TABLE VII  
 EXTENT TO WHICH JOB PROVIDES THE INTRINSIC  
 JOB FACETS BY PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

Facet	Quite a bit	In some ways	Not at all	N	X
Work is interesting	77.4%	21.7%	0.8%	833	2.838
Challenging problems to solve	67.2%	29.6%	3.2%	832	2.643
Seeing the results of my work	57.9%	40.3%	1.9%	832	2.595
Authority to do my job	61.5%	34.2%	4.3%	834	2.560
Enough information to get the job done	50.4%	46.8%	2.8%	834	2.477
Chance to do the things I do best	51.1%	44.4%	4.4%	833	2.467
Responsibilities being clearly defined	47.2%	45.7%	7.1%	832	2.401
Opportunity to develop special abilities	45.0%	49.5%	5.5%	833	2.395
Enough help and equipment to get the job done	41.8%	52.6%	5.5%	834	2.363
Chance for promotion	31.0%	59.8%	9.6%	833	2.221

In order to determine the mean on each job facet, the responses were assigned values as follows: quite a bit = 3; in some ways = 2; and not at all = 1. Table VII presented

the results for the intrinsic job facets while Table VIII presents the results for the extrinsic job facets under study.

TABLE VIII  
EXTENT TO WHICH JOB PROVIDES THE EXTRINSIC  
JOB FACETS BY PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

Facet	Quite a bit	In some ways	Not at all	N	X
Friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers	74.4%	24.8%	0.7%	833	2.737
Job security	66.3%	29.3%	4.3%	832	2.620
Pleasant physical surroundings	60.1%	35.5%	4.4%	834	2.556
Convenience of travel to and from work	65.9%	22.4%	11.6%	834	2.543
Freedom to decide how to get the work done	55.5%	41.1%	4.3%	832	2.531
Chance to make friends	49.9%	47.8%	2.3%	832	2.476
Competence of supervisor in doing his/her job	53.0%	39.3%	7.7%	830	2.453
Adequate pay	39.6%	50.1%	10.3%	834	2.293
Proper amount of work	40.7%	46.4%	12.7%	830	2.281
Reasonable working hours	34.3%	51.3%	14.5%	829	2.198
Enough time to get the job done	20.7%	59.2%	20.0%	834	2.007
Freedom from the conflicting demands others make of me	16.4%	61.3%	22.2%	830	1.941

In each of the preceding tables, the facets are listed in order from the greatest mean provision to the least mean provision of the job facets. Of the intrinsic satisfiers or motivators, the one of work being interesting was found to be provided in greatest amount while that available in least amount was the chance for promotion. Of the extrinsic job facets, the friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers was present in greatest amount. The facet, freedom from the conflicting demands others make of me, was present the least. Apparently, the intrinsic job facets overall are present to a greater extent than are the extrinsic job facets.

A comparison of the individual job facets as to the mean of their importance to the respondents (see Table III and Table IV) and the extent to which the present job actually provides that facet appears to indicate that there are differences present which could lead to a lack of job satisfaction for the respondent. To measure satisfaction with the job facets, discrepancy scoring was used. The scoring was determined as follows.

Discrepancy		
Provide	Importance	Discrepancy Score
Not at all	Very important	4
In some ways	Very important	3
Not at all	Fairly important	3
Quite a bit	Very important	2
In some ways	Fairly important	2
Not at all	Not important	2
Quite a bit	Fairly important	1
In some ways	Not important	1

The results of the discrepancy scoring on each individual facet are shown in Table IX and Table X. It should be noted

TABLE IX  
DISCREPANCY IN INTRINSIC JOB FACETS BY  
PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

Facet	Discrepancy				N	X
	1	2	3	4		
Challenging problems to solve	9.3%	73.7%	14.9%	2.1%	832	2.0974
Work is interesting	3.1%	58.8%	36.1%	3.0%	833	2.1116
Chance for promotion	18.0%	51.0%	27.8%	3.1%	833	2.1598
Seeing the results of my work	4.6%	74.7%	18.6%	2.1%	831	2.1817
Chance to do the things I do best	7.2%	61.4%	27.8%	3.6%	832	2.2776
Opportunity to develop special abilities	5.7%	62.9%	28.9%	6.2%	833	2.2833
Authority to do my job	2.1%	64.4%	29.4%	4.1%	834	2.3537
Enough information to get the job done	2.1%	58.8%	36.1%	3.0%	830	2.4007
Responsibilities being clearly defined	2.6%	58.2%	33.0%	6.2%	831	2.4278
Enough help and equipment to get the job done	3.6%	50.0%	40.2%	6.2%	831	2.4897

that the relationship between the discrepancy score and the satisfaction with each facet is an inverse; that is, as the discrepancy scores increase, satisfaction decreases.

Of the intrinsic job facets, the greatest satisfaction, or least discrepancy, is shown with the challenging problems to solve. The least satisfaction is with the help and equipment available to the administrator for getting the job done (Table IX).

In Table X, extrinsic job facets are listed in order from highest satisfaction (lowest discrepancy) to least satisfaction (highest discrepancy). A comparison of this table to Table IV shows that the three facets with which satisfaction is greatest were among those rated as least important among the extrinsic job facets.

Comparison of the discrepancy scores on intrinsic and extrinsic job facets (Table IX and Table X) shows that both the greatest and least discrepancy are found on the extrinsic job facets. To determine whether or not there is a statistically significant difference between the intrinsic and extrinsic facets job satisfaction, the discrepancy score of the two groups of facets was used. A mean discrepancy score was calculated for the intrinsic facets and for the extrinsic facets for each subject. A  $t$ -test of related samples was then used to analyze the variance in the means of these intrinsic and extrinsic discrepancy scores. The results of this treatment are presented in Table XI. There is no significant difference between the intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction of the female administrators in this study.

TABLE X  
DISCREPANCY IN EXTRINSIC JOB FACETS BY  
PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

Facet	Discrepancy				N	X
	1	2	3	4		
Convenience of travel to and from work	35.1%	54.6%	8.2%	2.1%	830	1.7732
Chance to make friends	23.2%	62.9%	12.4%	1.5%	831	1.9227
Pleasant physical surroundings	15.5%	72.7%	10.8%	1.0%	831	1.9724
Job security	15.0%	64.4%	19.1%	1.5%	831	2.0697
Friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers	9.3%	74.2%	16.0%	1.5%	832	2.0773
Reasonable working hours	11.3%	58.8%	23.7%	6.2%	829	2.2474
Proper amount of work	9.3%	56.7%	25.8%	8.2%	830	2.3299
Adequate pay	10.3%	51.5%	32.0%	6.2%	834	2.3402
Freedom from the conflicting demands others make of me	9.3%	53.6%	30.4%	6.7%	830	2.3454
Competence of supervisor in doing his/her job	3.7%	58.3%	30.4%	7.7%	830	2.3819
Freedom to decide how to get the work done	3.1%	58.8%	32.5%	5.7%	831	2.4072
Enough time to get the work done	11.3%	58.8%	23.7%	6.2%	829	2.2474



TABLE XI  
 MEANS OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS DISCREPANCY SCORES  
 ON INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC JOB FACETS AND  
 RESULTS OF T-TEST PROCEDURE

Variable	Mean	S.D.	t	df	2-tailed prob.
Intrinsic Discrepancy	2.253066	.40520	1.59	834	0.113
Extrinsic Discrepancy	2.234870	.37054			

To determine whether or not there was a significant difference in the satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic job facets based on job level, the responses of principals and vice-principals on the two groups of job facets were analyzed. One-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether principals and vice-principals differed significantly in their satisfaction with intrinsic job facets and with extrinsic job facets. The results of that procedure are presented in Table XII.

Table XII indicates that on the intrinsic job facets, the discrepancy scores of the female vice-principals were significantly higher than were those of the female principals. On the extrinsic facets the principals showed a greater discrepancy than did the vice-principals. However, this difference was not statistically significant. It was also noted that there was a rather large variation in the mean intrinsic discrepancy and extrinsic discrepancy for

TABLE XII  
 MEANS OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC FACET DISCREPANCY  
 BY JOB LEVEL AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Dependent Variable	Groups*	Means	F Ratio	F Probability
Discrepancy in Intrinsic Job Facets	1	2.205139	18.1534	.001
	2	2.326042		
Discrepancy in Extrinsic Job Facets	1	2.241567	0.4028	.5258
	2	2.224924		

\*Group 1 = Principals; Group 2 = Vice-Principals.

vice-principals. This indicated a greater satisfaction with extrinsic facets than with intrinsic job facets. To determine on which of the individual facets the two groups of administrators showed statistically significant differences, t-tests were run on the group responses to each of the facets. Results of this procedure are shown in Table XIII. It was found that there were significant differences on seventeen of the twenty-two job facets tested. This indicates that the practice of treating principals and vice-principals as a single group as is usually done in research masks some significant differences that are present between the two groups.

After examining the findings shown in Table XII and in Table XIII, it was decided that variations in intrinsic and

TABLE XIII

FEMALE PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' DISCREPANCY ON  
JOB FACETS AND RESULTS OF T-TEST

Facet	Group*	N	Mean	t-test	Significance
Chance to make friends	1	500	2.0281	4.19192	+
	2	330	1.8431		
Chance for promotion	1	502	2.0849	3.9902	+
	2	331	2.2871		
Friendliness and helpful- ness of coworkers	1	503	2.0096	3.01729	+
	2	330	2.1188		
Convenience of travel to and from work	1	501	1.7345	3.14106	+
	2	330	1.8788		
Opportunity to develop special abilities	1	500	2.2885	0.01268	
	2	330	2.2879		
Enough help and equipment to get the job done	1	500	2.3882	0.52463	
	2	330	2.3564		
Proper amount of work	1	503	2.2406	0.65679	
	2	330	2.2727		
Work is interesting	1	501	2.0769	4.21251	+
	2	330	2.2178		

TABLE XIII--Continued

Facet	Group*	N	Mean	t-test	Significance
Adequate pay	1	503	2.2306	2.36047	+
	2	330	2.3576		
Enough information to get the job done	1	501	2.3039	3.18859	+
	2	329	2.4343		
Freedom to decide how to get the work done	1	504	2.2696	2.90513	+
	2	330	2.3960		
Chance to do the things I do best	1	501	2.2308	3.25198	+
	2	329	2.3861		
Job security	1	502	2.0096	2.9639	+
	2	329	2.1386		
Challenging problems to solve	1	501	2.2913	3.9016	+
	2	329	2.1600		
Competence of supervisor in doing his/her job	1	502	2.2308	3.2838	+
	2	330	2.4059		
Responsibilities being clearly defined	1	500	2.2308	6.8412	+
	2	329	2.5167		
Authority to do my job	1	501	2.2692	5.3267	+
	2	330	2.4893		

TABLE XIII--Continued

Facet	Group*	N	Mean	t-test	Significance
Pleasant physical surroundings	1	502	2.0384	4.1354	+
	2	329	1.8713		
Seeing the results of my work	1	501	2.1557	3.5470	+
	2	329	2.2888		
Freedom from the conflicting demands other people make of me	1	503	2.3269	0.6153	
	2	330	2.2970		
Enough time to get the job done	1	502	2.5577	1.9814	+
	2	330	2.6535		
Reasonable working hours	1	501	2.1972	1.9363	
	2	330	2.2970		

\*Group 1 = principals; Group 2 = vice-principals.

+Significant at the  $p = .05$  level.

extrinsic facet discrepancy should be investigated for each job level as there appeared to be a large difference indicated. A t-test procedure was run to determine the variance in the means of the intrinsic discrepancy and the extrinsic discrepancy scores for the principals and for the vice-principals. Results of that treatment are presented in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV  
MEANS OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' DISCREPANCY SCORES ON INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC JOB FACETS AND RESULTS OF T-TEST PROCEDURE

Group	Discrepancy Variable	Mean	<u>t</u>	df	2-tailed prob.
Principal	Intrinsic Extrinsic	2.205139 2.241567	2.64	503	0.009
Vice-Principal	Intrinsic Extrinsic	2.326042 2.224924	5.40	330	0.001

Although female building-level administrators showed no significant difference in their satisfaction (discrepancy) with the intrinsic job facets and with the extrinsic job facets, further analysis by each job level revealed that there were, in fact, significant differences between intrinsic facet and extrinsic facet satisfaction within each of the two groups. For principals, satisfaction with intrinsic job facets was higher than satisfaction with

extrinsic job facets. The direction is the opposite for the vice-principals, with extrinsic job facets showing greater satisfaction than did the intrinsic. The fact that the direction is opposite for the two groups offers an explanation for the results displayed in Table XI. It further indicates that these two groups should be treated as separate groups in job satisfaction studies. Because there are significant differences in satisfaction with the two classes of job facets within each group, Hypothesis Three, which was stated in the null form, was rejected.

Hypothesis Four, which stated that there is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the individual factors of (a) age, (b) marital status, (c) number of children at home, (d) race, (e) educational level, (f) tenure in administration, (g) tenure with the school system, (h) tenure in the present position, (i) level of aspiration, and (j) current job level, was tested using question twenty-eight of the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire as the source of job satisfaction information. Using the twenty-two job facets of that question, a mean facet discrepancy score was computed for each respondent. This discrepancy score was related inversely to job satisfaction; as the discrepancy score decreased, the job satisfaction increased. One-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether there was a statistically

significant difference in the means when the respondents were grouped according to the ten individual variables listed in the hypothesis. The Scheffe test was used when the independent variable contained more than two groups. This made it possible to determine between which pairs of groups the differences had occurred. Findings are summarized in Table XV through Table XXV.

Table XV presents the analysis of facet discrepancy by age of the respondent. Respondents were placed in groups based on their answer to question twenty of the questionnaire, which asked "How old were you on your last birthday?". There were five responses available which ranged from "under thirty" through "sixty or over."

TABLE XV  
MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY BY AGE OF RESPONDENT  
AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Age of Respondent	under 30	2.328333	3.9259	.0036
	30-39	2.286746		
	40-49	2.251281		
	50-59	2.185180		
	60 or over	2.095385		



Examination of Table XV indicates that there is an increase in job satisfaction with increasing age and that this difference in job satisfaction is statistically significant. Hypothesis Four-A, that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction based on the age of the respondent, was rejected. To determine if there were significant differences between specific age groups, the Scheffe procedure was used. It was found that there was a significant difference between the thirty to thirty-nine age group (Group 2) and the fifty to fifty-nine age group (Group 4).

Table XVI presents the analysis of facet discrepancy by the marital status of the respondents. Subjects were classified as single, married, widowed or divorced based on their response to question twenty-five on the questionnaire.

TABLE XVI  
MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY MARITAL STATUS  
AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Groups*	Means	F Ratio	F Probability
Marital Status	1	2.315875	2.8300	.0375
	2	2.228815		
	3	2.146216		
	4	2.280990		

\*Group 1 = single; Group 2 = married; Group 3 = widowed; Group 4 = divorced.

Hypothesis Four-B, that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction when analyzed by marital status of the respondent, was rejected. To determine between which groups the significant difference was found, the Scheffe procedure was used. It was found, however, that no two groups showed a statistically significant difference. As can be seen in Table XVI, the discrepancy scores for those who are widowed are lower than those of any other status, indicating greater job satisfaction. Those who classified themselves as single and as divorced showed the greater discrepancies, representing the lower satisfaction levels.

Table XVII presents the results of analyzing facet discrepancy according to the independent variables of number of children living at the home of the respondent. One-way analysis of variance was used, followed by the Scheffe procedure. Hypothesis Four-C, which stated that there is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of principals and vice-principals associated with the number of children living at home, was rejected.

As analysis of variance showed a significant difference in job satisfaction based on the number of children living at home, the Scheffe procedure was run in order to determine where those differences might lie. It was found that job satisfaction was significantly lower for those who had five or more children who were living at home (Group 4) than for

TABLE XVII  
 MEANS OF DISCREPANCY SCORES BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN  
 LIVING AT HOME AND RESULT OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Groups*	Means	F Ratio	F Probability
Number of Children at Home	1	2.230223	3.0786	.0269
	2	2.244780		
	3	2.230976		
	4	2.757500		

\*Group 1 = no children living at home; Group 2 = one-two children living at home; Group 3 = three-four children living at home; Group 4 = five or more children living at home.

any of the other three groups. It should be noted, however, that Group 4 was composed of only six members.

Table XVIII presents the results of the one-way analysis of variance in facet discrepancy by racial group. For analysis, the responses to question twenty-one were collapsed into two groups. This was done because the various responses given under the category "Other" resulted in very small groups. It was decided, therefore, to group the respondents into two groups, white and nonwhite.

The results of the analysis of variance indicated that the job satisfaction of the white respondents was significantly higher than that of the nonwhite respondents. Hypothesis Four-D, that there is no significant difference

TABLE XVIII  
 MEANS OF DISCREPANCY SCORES BY RACIAL GROUP AND  
 RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Racial Group	white	2.223986	10.15181	.0015
	nonwhite	2.338257		

in job satisfaction when analyzed according to racial group of the respondent, was rejected.

Table XIX presents the results of analyzing facet discrepancy by the independent variable of educational level. Five categories were available for response, ranging from the minimum that the state of Texas recognizes for an administrative position to the highest degree granted by universities. The one-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether there was a significant difference in the means of the five groups' scores on facet discrepancy (question twenty-eight).

The results of the one-way analysis of variance (Table XIX) indicates that there is no significant difference in the means of job satisfaction when analyzed according to educational level of the respondent. Hypothesis Four-E, which stated that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals

TABLE XIX  
 MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY EDUCATIONAL  
 LEVEL AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANALYSIS  
 OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group*	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Educational Level	1	2.065000	.4445	.7765
	2	2.320000		
	3	2.251897		
	4	2.42173		
	5	2.186304		

\*Group 1 = Bachelor's + 15 hours; Group 2 = Bachelor's + 30 hours; Group 3 = Master's; Group 4 = Master's + additional hours; Group 5 = Doctorate.

associated with the variable, educational level, was retained. As no significant difference was found, the Scheffe procedure was not run.

The independent variable, tenure in administration, was used to analyze variance in the means of facet discrepancy scores. The results of the one-way analysis of variance procedure are displayed in Table XX. Hypothesis Four-F, which stated that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the individual variable of tenure in school administration, was accepted. The Scheffe procedure was not used as there was no indication of significant variance between the groups.

TABLE XX  
 MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY TENURE IN  
 ADMINISTRATION AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group*	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Tenure in Administration	1	2.216905	1.3044	.2598
	2	2.255256		
	3	2.243284		
	4	2.206281		
	5	2.255238		
	6	1.994444		

\*Group 1 = zero to one year; Group 2 = two to five years; Group 3 = six to ten years; Group 4 = eleven to fifteen years; Group 5 = sixteen to twenty years; Group 6 = twenty-one or more years as a school administrator.

Table XXI presents the analysis of variance in the means of facet discrepancy scores when analyzed by the number of years the respondents had been employed by their present school system. There were four responses possible which became the four groups for the one-way analysis of variance. Hypothesis Four-G stated that there is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of principals and vice-principals associated with their tenure with the current school district. This null hypothesis was retained. Again, the Scheffe procedure was not employed as there was no indication for its use based on the one-way analysis of variance.

TABLE XXI  
 MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY TENURE WITH  
 SCHOOL SYSTEM AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group*	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Tenure with Current School System	1	2.304375	1.8543	.1358
	2	2.244829		
	3	2.242759		
	4	2.195176		

\*Group 1 = one to five years; Group 2 = six to ten years; Group 3 = eleven to twenty years; Group 4 = twenty-one or more years with present school system.

Hypothesis Four-H states that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the variable, tenure in the present position. To test this hypothesis, one-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether or not there were significant differences in the facet discrepancy scores when analyzed with reference to the number of years the respondents had spent in their current positions, including the current school year, 1984-85. The results of this analysis are presented in Table XXII.

Although job satisfaction does increase with increased length of tenure within the position as indicated by the drop in the discrepancy score from Group 1 to Group 4,

TABLE XXII  
 MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY TENURE IN  
 CURRENT POSITION AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group*	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Tenure in Present Position	1	2.251179	1.6799	.1698
	2	2.215137		
	3	2.225915		
	4	1.917500		

\*Group 1 = one to five years; Group 2 = six to ten years; Group 3 = eleven to twenty years; Group 4 = twenty-one or more years in the present position.

one-way analysis of variance indicated that this did not represent a significant difference in job satisfaction based on tenure in the present position; therefore, Hypothesis Four-H which was stated in the null form was retained.

Table XXIII presents the results obtained through analysis of variance in facet discrepancy associated with the highest job level to which the respondents aspire. To determine aspiration level, question number twenty-six on the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was used. This question asked the respondent, "What is the highest position which you hope to attain in your administrative career?" This was a free-response question. Responses were placed in seven categories for analysis. These were



TABLE XXIII  
 MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY LEVEL OF  
 ASPIRATION AND RESULTS OF ONE-WAY  
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Leaving administration	2.195455		
Undecided	2.243793		
Vice-Principal	2.151667		
Principal	2.196596	3.7149	.0012
Central Office	2.328462		
Assistant Superintendent	2.290877		
Superintendent	2.320100		

leaving administration, undecided, vice-principal, principal, central office, assistant superintendent, and superintendent. Those who indicated their intent to leave school administration fell into three categories, each with nine or fewer members. These were (a) retiring, (b) moving to college professorship, and (c) moving to a position outside the education field. Those whose aspiration levels were classified as central office responded (a) central office, (b) supervisor, (c) consultant, (d) coordinator, or (e) administrative assistant.

The result of the one-way analysis indicated that there was a significant difference in job satisfaction when

analyzed according to aspiration level of the respondent. Hypothesis Four-I, which was stated in the null form, was therefore rejected. The Scheffe procedure was then run to determine between which groups significant differences were located. However, it was found that no two groups were significantly different, although there was an overall statistically significant difference found. Those with the least job satisfaction (greatest discrepancy score) were those who desired other administrative positions but not at the building level. These included those aspiring to central office positions, assistant superintendent, or superintendent. Those who aspired to leave administration or who aspired to the position of vice-principal or principal were the most satisfied with their job, probably because the majority of these had attained their highest level of job aspiration.

Hypothesis Four-J stated that there is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the individual factor of current job level, those levels being principal or vice-principal. The results of the one-way analysis of variance in facet discrepancy with job level is reported in Table XXIV. For this analysis, Group 1 = principals while Group 2 = vice-principals. The results indicate that although the female principals reported greater job satisfaction (lower

TABLE XXIV  
 MEANS OF FACET DISCREPANCY SCORES BY JOB LEVEL AND  
 RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Independent Variable	Group*	Mean	F Ratio	F Probability
Job Level	1	2.225179	2.1439	.1435
	2	2.261390		

\*Group 1 = principals; Group 2 = vice-principals.

discrepancy score) than did the vice-principals, this was not a statistically significant difference; Hypothesis Four-J was therefore retained.

To determine whether some of the individual variables under consideration in Hypothesis Four might interact with each other to produce significant differences in the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals, the ANOVA procedure was run. The following pairs of variables were analyzed for their simultaneous effect on job facet discrepancy scores: marital status and number of children living at home, marital status and income level, job level and school size, job level and level of aspiration, and tenure in current position and level of aspiration. Results of the analysis of variance is presented in Table XXV. It was found that there was not a significant interaction between any of the pairs of variables which were tested.

TABLE XXV  
RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN FACET DISCREPANCY  
BY SELECTED PAIRS OF VARIABLES

Variable Pair	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Significance of F
Marital Status/Children at Home	2.06588	.581	.628
Marital Status/Income Level	1.05832	.887	.579
Job Level/School Size	4.67741	.382	.861
Job Level/Aspiration	1.49681	1.253	.277
Tenure in Position/Aspiration	1.44271	1.208	.268

#### Additional Findings of the Study

The data presented in this section has been organized into three classifications. The first of these relates to the number of years or tenure of the administrators in various areas including the field of education, administration, with the current school district, and in the current position (Tables XXVI-XXX). The second segment deals with the job and working conditions (Tables XXXI-XXXVI). The third section deals with personal characteristics of the administrators (Tables XXXVII-XXXVIII).

It was found that 45 per cent of the principals and 26 per cent of the vice-principals had worked in the field of education for more than twenty years. No principals

and very few vice-principals had been employed in the field of education for five years or less as is shown in Table XXVI.

TABLE XXVI  
YEARS EXPERIENCE IN THE EDUCATION FIELD FOR  
WOMEN PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Years	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
1-5	0	1
6-10	3	13
11-15	22	33
16-20	30	27
21-25	21	13
26 or more	24	13

It was found that 76 per cent of the principals and 91 per cent of the vice-principals had held administrative positions for ten years or less. Very few vice-principals had been in school administration for more than fifteen years (Table XXVII).

Of the principals, 72 per cent had been with their current school district for more than ten years while 66 per cent of the vice-principals had been with their school district for more than ten years. This included the 1984-85 school year, the year of this study (Table XXVIII).

TABLE XXVII  
YEARS EXPERIENCE IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION FOR  
WOMEN PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Years	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
0-1	2	9
2-5	34	61
6-10	40	21
11-15	19	7
16-20	4	1
21 or more	1	1

Comparison of the years of experience in the field of education (Table XXVI), the years of experience in school administration (Table XXVII), and the years of experience with the current school district (Table XXVIII) for these female administrators, indicates that they have not been very mobile in the geographic sense. Employment has been primarily with one school system, that with which they are presently employed.

It was found in the study that 63 per cent of the principals had been in their current position for five years or less while vice-principals showed that 79 per cent had held their present position for five or fewer years. This included the 1984-85 school year. Results are summarized

TABLE XXVIII  
YEARS EXPERIENCE WITH CURRENT SCHOOL DISTRICT FOR  
WOMEN PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Years	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
1-5	9	12
6-10	19	31
11-20	48	42
21 or more	24	14

in Table XXIX. Comparison of the years experience in school administration (Table XXVII) with the years experience in the current position (Table XXIX) shows that of the vice-principals, 70 per cent have been in school administration for five years or less while 79 per cent have been in the current position for ten years or less.

TABLE XXIX  
YEARS EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT POSITION FOR  
WOMEN PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Years	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
1-5	63	79
6-10	27	15
11-20	10	6
21 or more	1	0

This indicates that a large majority are currently in their first administrative position. Principals appear to be more likely to have held other administrative positions prior to the current one.

In response to the question asking whether they would make a genuine effort to find a new job with another employer within the next year, a majority of both principals and vice-principals indicated their intention to remain with their school district (Table XXX). However, more vice-principals than principals indicated that they were considering making an effort to change school systems. This intent to remain with the current school district is in keeping with results on other questions which measured employment patterns and mobility of the subjects. These indicate that these women administrators have not been geographically mobile at any point in their careers in the field of education.

TABLE XXX

INTENT OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS TO  
SEEK A POSITION WITH ANOTHER SCHOOL DISTRICT

Response	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Very likely	7	12
Somewhat likely	7	12
Not too likely	23	26
Not at all likely	63	50



Several questions were asked related to the job itself and to working conditions. Question number four on the Administrators Job Satisfaction Questionnaire asked "How often do you get so wrapped up in your work that you lose track of time?". Both principals and vice-principals indicated that this occurs often (Table XXXI). Question number five asked "How often do you leave work with a feeling that you've done something particularly well?". To this question, 29 per cent of the principals responded "very often" as compared to 25 per cent of the vice-principals (Table XXXII). Everyone indicated that they do feel a sense of accomplishment at some times in their job, although this appeared to occur somewhat more often for principals than for the vice-principals responding to the question.

TABLE XXXI

WOMEN PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' RESPONSE  
TO "HOW OFTEN DO YOU BECOME SO WRAPPED UP IN  
YOUR WORK THAT YOU LOSE TRACK OF TIME?"

Response	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Very often	56	49
Pretty often	32	39
Once in a while	11	11
Never	1	1

TABLE XXXII

WOMEN PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' RESPONSE TO  
 "HOW OFTEN DO YOU LEAVE WORK WITH A FEELING THAT  
 YOU'VE DONE SOMETHING PARTICULARLY WELL?"

Response	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Very often	29	25
Pretty often	55	53
Once in a while	16	22
Never	0	0

In question eighteen of the questionnaire, the respondents were given a list of four resources that they might receive from their employer or from those people that they work with that could help them work at their best. The respondents were asked to rate these as being supplied to a high enough degree for them to work at their best or at too low a degree for them to work at their best. Responses are summarized in Table XXXIII. Both principals and vice-principals indicated that the resource that they were most lacking in was time.

Respondents were asked, "In your school system, how fairly are promotions generally handled?". Thirty-one per cent of the principals and 16 per cent of the vice-principals indicated that in their school systems, promotions were handled completely fairly. The least favorable category

TABLE XXXIII  
 RATING OF RESOURCES BY WOMEN PRINCIPALS  
 AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Resource*	Principals		Vice-Principals	
	Enough %	Not Enough %	Enough %	Not Enough %
1	81	19	79	21
2	84	16	77	23
3	77	23	70	30
4	37	63	45	55

\*Resource 1 = help or assistance from those you work with; Resource 2 = the authority to make decisions; Resource 3 = the facts and information you need; Resource 4 = time in which to do what others expect of you.

of response to this item was "not too fairly handled." This response was used rather than an emphatic "not at all fairly" in the expectation that few would be willing to rate promotional policies as clearly unfair in light of their own promotion into an administrative position. Results in each category are summarized in Table XXXIV.

TABLE XXXIV  
 FAIRNESS IN HANDLING OF PROMOTIONS  
 BY THE SCHOOL DISTRICT

Response	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Handled completely fairly	31	16
Handled somewhat fairly	57	64
Not too fairly handled	12	20

It was found that salaries for both principals and vice-principals ranged from under \$25,000 to over \$45,000 for the 1984-85 school year. However, only 8 per cent of the vice-principals made \$40,000 or above as compared to 24 per cent of the principals in the study (Table XXXV).

TABLE XXXV  
SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Salary	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Under \$25,000	2	6
\$25,000-\$29,999	10	27
\$30,000-\$34,999	34	37
\$35,000-\$39,999	31	21
\$40,000-\$44,999	17	8
\$45,000 and over	6	0

School size was measured using the number of teachers in the building in which the administrator was located. Less than 2 per cent of the principals were in buildings with 100 or more teachers. Vice-principals tended to be employed in larger schools; 19 per cent of these were in buildings of 100 or more teachers. It was predictable that there would be few vice-principals employed in the smaller schools. In fact, only 2 per cent of the

vice-principals were employed in schools with fewer than twenty-five teachers (Table XXXVI).

TABLE XXXVI  
PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' BUILDING SIZE  
BASED ON NUMBER OF TEACHERS

Number of Teachers	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
1-12	3	0
13-24	22	2
25-49	57	35
50-99	16	44
100-149	1	14
150 and over	0	5

To determine the orientation of principals and vice-principals toward work, the question was asked, "If you were financially able, would you prefer not to work?", to which an overwhelming majority of both replied "No" (see Table XXXVII).

Principals and vice-principals were asked, "Of the following reasons, which was the most important in your seeking your present position?". Thirty per cent of the principals and 21 per cent of the vice-principals indicated that they did not actively seek their present position (Table XXXVIII).

TABLE XXXVII  
 PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' RESPONSE TO "IF  
 FINANCIALLY ABLE, WOULD YOU PREFER NOT  
 TO WORK?"

Response	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Yes	17	23
No	83	77

To investigate how easily principals and vice-principals felt they could change jobs, two questions were asked. Question number sixteen was used to investigate job changes within the education field while question seventeen was used

TABLE XXXVIII  
 PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' REASONS  
 FOR SEEKING PRESENT POSITION

Reason	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Salary	8	7
Opportunity for advancement	48	66
Did not actively seek this position	30	21
Other	14	6

to investigate job changes into fields outside education. Both groups indicated that they thought they could more easily change jobs within the field of education than make a change into a field outside education. Results are summarized in Table XXXIX.

TABLE XXXIX  
PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' VIEWS OF THE EASE  
WITH WHICH THEY MAY CHANGE THEIR JOBS

Rating*	Within Education		Outside Education	
	Principals %	Vice- Principals %	Principals %	Vice- Principals %
1	10	12	13	19
2	39	39	47	38
3	38	37	30	35
4	13	11	10	8

\*Rating 1 = very hard; Rating 2 = somewhat hard;  
Rating 3 = somewhat easy; Rating 4 = very easy.

It was found that less than 1 per cent of the principals and vice-principals in the study did not have a Master's degree. Of the 504 principals, 87 per cent had a Master's plus additional hours, while of the 331 vice-principals, 88 per cent held a Master's degree plus additional hours. A larger percentage of principals held a Doctorate than did vice-principals (Table XXXX). The

TABLE XXXX  
 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS  
 AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Educational Level	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Bachelor's + 15 hours	0.2	0.3
Bachelor's + 30 hours	0.2	0.0
Master's	5.6	8.9
Master's + additional hours	87.2	88.0
Doctorate	6.8	2.8

type of administrative certification held by these women was not investigated. In Texas, the minimum certificate in administration carries an educational requirement of a Bachelor's degree plus fifteen hours in administration. This is a temporary certificate and is apparently held by only a small number of the principals and vice-principals in the study.

Question twenty-six of the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was used to determine the highest position the respondents hoped to reach during their administrative career. This was a free-response question. Responses were grouped into seven groups for treatment. Forty-eight per cent of the principals had already reached the highest level to which they aspired, that of principal.



Of the vice-principals, 45 per cent indicated that a principalship was the highest position they hoped to attain during their career. Results are summarized in Table XXXXI.

TABLE XXXXI  
ASPIRATION LEVELS OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS  
AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Level of Aspiration	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Leaving Administration	3	2
Undecided	8	7
Vice-Principal	0	7
Principal	48	45
Central Office	12	15
Assistant Superintendent	16	12
Superintendent	13	12

It was found that job satisfaction was highest for those women administrators who had already reached their highest level of aspiration. As in earlier measurements, facet discrepancy was used to determine job satisfaction. The lower the discrepancy score, the higher the job satisfaction. Two principals indicated their desire to become vice-principals, representing a move down the hierarchy. For these, the mean facet discrepancy score is higher than for any aspiration level, indicating a lower job satisfaction (Table XXXXII).

TABLE XXXXII  
 MEAN FACET DISCREPANCY OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS AND  
 VICE-PRINCIPALS BY JOB LEVEL AND  
 LEVEL OF ASPIRATION

Level of Aspiration	Job Level	Mean Facet Discrepancy
Leaving Administration	Principal	2.2062
	Vice-Principal	2.1667
Undecided	Principal	2.2031
	Vice-Principal	2.31053
Vice-Principal	Principal	2.6300
	Vice-Principal	2.1082
Principal	Principal	2.1731
	Vice-Principal	2.2332
Central Office	Principal	2.3479
	Vice-Principal	2.3058
Assistant Superintendent	Principal	2.2709
	Vice-Principal	2.3308
Superintendent	Principal	2.2971
	Vice-Principal	2.3576

It was found that 42 per cent of the principals in the study were in the forty to forty-nine year old age group. Vice-principals were somewhat younger with 42 per cent of these being in the thirty to thirty-nine age group. Three per cent of both principals and vice-principals were sixty years of age or older (Table XXXXIII).

TABLE XXXXIII  
AGE OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Age Group	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Under 30	0	3
30-39	23	42
40-49	42	34
50-59	32	18
60 or over	3	3

Respondents were asked to give their race as white, black, or to give their race in the blank listed as other. Within the latter response, the number within each group was quite small; therefore, it was decided to analyze data by the two large groups, white and nonwhite. The distribution of principals and vice-principals in these two categories are shown in Table XXXXIV. As can be seen, of these two racial groupings, those who categorized themselves as white make up by far the larger group of both principals and vice-principals. Those who described themselves as nonwhite make up approximately the same proportion of the principal and vice-principal positions.

It was found that 74 per cent of the principals and 73 per cent of the vice-principals were married. Results are summarized in Table XXXXV.

TABLE XXXXIV  
RACE OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Racial Group	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
White	87	86
Nonwhite	13	14

TABLE XXXXV  
MARITAL STATUS OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS  
AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Marital Status	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Single	9	11
Married	74	73
Widowed	6	2
Divorced	11	14

Of the principals in the study, 52 per cent indicated that they had no children living at home. Fifty per cent of the vice-principals indicated that they had one to two children living at home (Table XXXXVI). The fact that a larger proportion of the vice-principals reported having children living at home and also reported a larger number living at home can be accounted for by the age difference

TABLE XXXXVI  
 FEMALE PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS BY  
 NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME

Number of Children	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
None	52	43
One or two	44	50
Three or four	4	6
Five or more	0	1

in the two groups. As a group, the vice-principals in the study were younger than were the principals and were therefore more likely to have children who were still young enough to be living at home.

Respondents were asked whether or not they had children who were either preschoolers or in grades K-6 at the time of the study. These responses are summarized in Table XXXXVII.

TABLE XXXXVII  
 AGE OF CHILDREN OF FEMALE PRINCIPALS  
 AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Age of Children	Principals %	Vice-Principals %
Preschooler	5	13
Grades K-6	16	25

As shown in Table XXXXVII, a larger percentage of the vice-principals reported young children than did principals. This too is probably a result of the age difference between the two groups.

Table XXXXVIII presents data which shows the administrators' mean facet discrepancy as compared by marital status and whether or not they had children living at home. Within each marital group, those with no children living at home showed greater job satisfaction (lower facet discrepancy) than did those with children living at home. The difference

TABLE XXXXVIII  
MEANS OF DISCREPANCY SCORES BY MARITAL STATUS  
AND CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME

Marital Status	N	Children at Home	Discrepancy
Married	356	Yes	2.2380
	260	No	2.2162
Widowed	11	Yes	2.2609
	26	No	2.0977
Divorced	56	Yes	2.3912
	45	No	2.2438

in job satisfaction is least for those who are married. Those who were divorced and had children living at home showed the lowest mean job satisfaction of all six groups. This may be the result of an overall dissatisfaction with their life situation. However, as reported earlier,

statistical analysis did not indicate a significant interaction between any of the pairs of variables under consideration in Hypothesis Four.

#### Chapter Summary

The data presented in this chapter was divided into two parts: the treatment of the data for the hypotheses and the additional descriptive data collected by the study. Hypothesis One was rejected. Hypotheses Two and Three, which were stated in the null form, were rejected at the  $p = .05$  level. Hypothesis Four was also stated in the null form. For analysis, it was divided into ten sub-hypotheses. Of these ten, Hypotheses Four-A, B, C, D, and I were rejected at the  $p = .05$  level. Hypotheses Four-E, F, G, H, and J were retained.

## CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Nie, Norman H. et al., Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd ed., New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975.
2. Roscoe, John T., Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, 2nd ed., New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1975.



## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

#### Summary

The study was conducted to serve the following purposes:

1. To determine the degree to which female principals and vice-principals in Texas public schools derive job satisfaction from their work;
2. To identify those factors, both negative and positive, which affect the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals in Texas public schools; and
3. To add to the data base that is available for the description and study of female building-level administrators in Texas public schools.

The first step in the study was to compile a list of the female principals and vice-principals employed in the Texas public schools for the 1984-85 school year. The second step was to prepare the questionnaire to collect the necessary data for the study, followed by the administration of the questionnaire.

The data collected were examined using four hypotheses to guide its analysis. These hypotheses were as follows.

1. Female principals and vice-principals do not view themselves as being satisfied with their job.
2. There is no significant difference in the importance that is assigned to the intrinsic job facets and to the extrinsic job facets by female principals and vice-principals.
3. There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction that female principals and vice-principals derive from the intrinsic and the extrinsic facets of their jobs.
4. There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the individual factors of (a) age, (b) marital status, (c) number of children living at home, (d) race, (e) educational level, (f) tenure in administration, (g) tenure with the school system, (h) tenure in the present position, (i) level of aspiration, and (j) current job level (principal or vice-principal).

Hypothesis One was tested using percentages and means. Hypothesis Two and Hypothesis Three were tested using the t-test of related samples and one-way analysis of variance. Hypothesis Four was tested using one-way analysis of variance. When significant differences were found in situations that involved more than two groups, the Scheffe procedure was used to determine between which groups the differences were found.

The population for the study consisted of 1,364 women principals and vice-principals who were employed in the Texas public schools for the 1984-85 school year. Of the 1,364 questionnaires mailed to these administrators, 835 were returned in usable condition. Of these 835 questionnaires, 331 were returned by vice-principals and 504 were returned by principals.

### Findings

Hypothesis One, which stated that principals and vice-principals would not view themselves as being satisfied with their job, was rejected. It was found that 54.7 per cent of the vice-principals and 70.6 per cent of the principals viewed themselves as being very satisfied with their job. The mean for both groups was computed. The mean satisfaction of the principals was higher than that of the vice-principals, a difference that proved to be statistically significant. Both means, however, were within the range that would be considered as being satisfied with the job, both falling between somewhat satisfied and very satisfied.

Hypothesis Two, which was stated in the null form, was rejected. It was found that there was a significant difference in the importance that administrators assigned to the intrinsic and extrinsic job facets. The intrinsic facets were rated as more important than were extrinsic facets by

both principals and vice-principals. This is in keeping with the findings of studies cited in Chapter II in which it was shown that those in the professions and white-collar jobs placed greater importance on the intrinsic job facets than on the extrinsic job facets.

Further analysis showed that while both principals and vice-principals assigned more importance to intrinsic facets than to extrinsic facets, there were significant differences in the importance that the two groups assigned to these two classifications. Vice-principals assigned a significantly greater importance to the intrinsic job facets than did the principals. Principals, however, assigned a statistically significant greater importance to extrinsic job facets than did the vice-principals. This finding contradicts research cited earlier which indicated that those at higher job levels assign greater importance to intrinsic job facets than do those at lower job levels.

Hypothesis Three, which was also stated in the null form, was rejected as applied to the vice-principals and principals as separate groups. Although results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in satisfaction with the intrinsic and extrinsic job facets for the female building-level administrators as a group, when analysis was carried out with the two job levels treated as separate groups, it was found that each group did show a significant difference in their satisfaction

with these two sets of job facets. For the vice-principals, satisfaction with extrinsic job facets was significantly higher than with intrinsic job facets. The reverse was true for principals for whom satisfaction was greater on the intrinsic job facets than on the extrinsic job facets.

Hypothesis Four was in part retained and in part was rejected. Hypotheses Four-A, B, C, D, and I were rejected while Hypotheses Four-E, F, G, H, and J were retained.

It was found that facet-specific job satisfaction did increase with age. This increase did continue into the group aged sixty and above who would be approaching the traditional age of retirement. That satisfaction was the highest in this group contradicts the findings of earlier studies conducted among men which showed that satisfaction decreased for those within five years of retirement. For women principals and vice-principals in this study, job satisfaction showed a significant increase with age; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

It was found that there were significant differences in facet job satisfaction related to marital status. Those who listed themselves as single showed the lowest satisfaction while those who were widowed showed the greatest satisfaction of any of the four categories used. It was found, however, that no two groups showed statistically significant differences in their job satisfaction.

Analysis showed that there was a significant difference in facet job satisfaction based on the number of children who were living in the subject's home. Those who had no children living at home showed the highest facet job satisfaction while those with five or more showed the lowest satisfaction. In the further investigation of the effect of marital status and children on job satisfaction, it was found that for all marital status categories, job satisfaction was highest for those who reported having no children living at home. Those who were divorced and had children living at home reported the lowest job satisfaction of the groups. This may well reflect the additional stresses placed on the single parent by conflicts between the requirements of the job and those of parenting.

It was found that those who categorized themselves as white had a higher facet job satisfaction than did those who placed themselves in the nonwhite group. This difference in job satisfaction proved to be statistically significant. This finding is congruent with those of earlier studies which found lower satisfaction among non-white workers than among white.

It was found that there was no significant difference in the facet-specific job satisfaction of building-level administrators when analyzed according to educational level. Those with the least education, a Bachelor's + 15 hours, showed the greatest satisfaction, followed by the highest

educational level, those who held Doctorates. Those who were the least satisfied were those who held a Master's + additional hours. While studies have indicated that increased formal education tends to reduce job satisfaction, it does not appear to be true with these female administrators. An explanation may lie in the fact that all of these educational levels lie relatively close to each other and do not represent the wide range in educational level that can be found in other job satisfaction studies.

Tenure in administration, tenure with the school system, and tenure in the current position did not produce significant differences in job satisfaction. However, measurements in all of these areas indicated that those with the longest tenure experienced the greatest job satisfaction. Those who remain in a position or with an employer probably do so because of the agreement between their own goals and those of the employer. This congruency should result in increased job satisfaction over time.

Analysis showed that there was a significant difference in job satisfaction based on level of aspiration, although no two groups showed statistically significant differences with each other. Over half of the principals and vice-principals in the study listed the principalship as being the highest administrative position desired. Those who had attained the highest position to which they aspired,

whether principal or vice-principal, showed higher facet job satisfaction than did any other groups.

Although principals showed a higher facet-specific job satisfaction than did vice-principals, this difference was not statistically significant. However, when the individual job facets were analyzed to determine whether or not there were significant differences in the satisfaction of principals and of vice-principals, it was found that there were indeed significant differences on the majority of the individual job facets. Studies which treat principals and vice-principals as a single group overlook these differences, yet many of these differences can be attributed to differences in the jobs themselves and the stance the individual must adopt in order to successfully fill that position. For example, vice-principals showed a significantly higher satisfaction with their chance to make friends than did the principals in this study. This reflects the distance that the principal must maintain in order to project herself as the managerial head of the school. The vice-principal is generally freer to mingle with the staff of the school than is the principal.

While both principals and vice-principals reported their lowest satisfaction on "enough time to get the job done," the satisfaction of the vice-principals was significantly lower than that of the principals. This lower satisfaction on the part of the vice-principal may result



from their own recent appointment to the position and consequent lack of familiarity with their duties. Principals, on the other hand, with more years of experience in administration are better able to plan their day.

The principals and vice-principals in this study showed the greatest differences in satisfaction on the job facet, "responsibilities being clearly defined." Principals showed greater satisfaction with this facet than did vice-principals. The duties and responsibilities of the building principal are defined by the central administration of the school district. The vice-principal, on the other hand, receives a job description from both the central administration and from the building principal. This duality of job description can contribute to the uncertainty of the vice-principal as to her specific responsibilities.

On the job facet, "authority to do my job," vice-principals reported a significantly lower satisfaction than did principals. This is probably related to their lower satisfaction on the facet, "responsibilities being clearly defined," as a clear statement of duties and responsibilities tends to be viewed as conferring the authority to carry out those duties.

The job facet, "chance for promotion," showed a significantly higher satisfaction among principals than among vice-principals. This coincides with the results obtained when testing job satisfaction as a function of

aspiration level and job level. That indicated that more of the administrators aspired to the position of principal than to any other position. As those principals who listed "principal" as their highest level of aspiration have already attained that level, they no longer desire promotion and are therefore satisfied with their chances of promotion, whatever those chances may be. Vice-principals, however, have yet to attain the highest position they desire. Because they still desire promotion, they are less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion, even though their opportunity for promotion may be as good as that of the principals.

Principals reported greater satisfaction on the facet "work is interesting" than did vice-principals. This is a reflection of the differences in the two positions and the duties each entails. The vice-principal typically deals with such items as student discipline, textbooks, calling substitutes, and administering student activity programs. While these are necessary to the operation of the school, they are not among the more enjoyable or interesting duties of administrators. Principals, if they are the only building-level administrator at their school, will handle these duties plus the more interesting duties of curriculum development, staffing, scheduling, and planning. Where the principal has an assistant or vice-principal, the less interesting duties can be delegated and often are.

Principals reported lower satisfaction on the job facet of "challenging problems to solve" than did vice-principals. This may again be a function of the length of time spent in administration. For the vice-principal with fewer years in the field of administration, there is probably some degree of challenge presented with solving each problem with which she is faced simply because many are being handled for the first time. For the principal who has been meeting administrative problems for a longer time, there is less challenge in solving those same problems. What appeared as a challenge in the beginning may become merely routine with experience.

Data available on the characteristics of the subjects indicate both similarities and differences between the female principals and vice-principals who participated in this study. From the data it is possible to paint a portrait of the average or "typical" female vice-principal and principal who was employed in Texas public schools in 1984-85.

Both the "typical" principal and the "typical" vice-principal work because they wish to and would continue to work even if it were not a financial necessity. Both often become so absorbed in their work that they lose track of time. In fact, both report that the lack of time in which to do what is expected of them in their job is the resource in which they are most lacking. Both have worked in the

same school district for eleven to twenty years and consider it unlikely that they will seek a new job with a new employer during the next year. However, they feel it would be easier to change jobs within the field of education than to move into a job outside the education field. Both have been in their present position for from one to five years. Their reason for seeking that position was that the position represented the opportunity for advancement. For both, the principalship is the highest administrative position to which they aspire. Both hold a Master's degree plus they have completed additional college hours. They are white, between forty and forty-nine years old, and are now married.

On the other characteristics, the "typical" female principal differs from the "typical" female vice-principal. She has spent from sixteen to twenty years in the field of education, six to ten of those years in administration. Her salary is between \$35,000 and \$39,000. She has reached the highest administrative position that she wishes to attain and considers the opportunity for promotion to be only fairly important as a facet of her job. She is principal of a school which employs fewer than fifty teachers. She has no children living at home.

The "typical" female vice-principal has been employed in the education field for from eleven to fifteen years. Of those years, from two to five years have been spent in educational administration. Her current position is her

first administrative position, but she hopes to move up to a principalship. In fact, she considers the opportunity for promotion to be a very important facet of her job. She works in a school which employs from fifty to ninety-nine classroom teachers and she earns an annual salary of from \$30,000 to \$34,999. She has one to two children who are living at home, but they are in grades higher than sixth grade.

In contrasting these two positions, it becomes obvious that these female administrators have set their career goals at a relatively low level in terms of position in the hierarchy, number of employees supervised, and salary. The female vice-principal seeking a principalship can anticipate conditions similar to those under which today's principals are working. If she attains a principalship, it will probably be within the next five years. She will become the principal of a small school which employs fewer than fifty teachers. This will be an elementary school. Her work as principal will earn her an annual salary of approximately \$5,000 more than she earned as a vice-principal.

Twelve per cent of the vice-principals indicated that the highest position they hoped to attain was that of superintendent of the school district. This position does require a higher level of educational preparation than does that of principal although it does not require a Doctorate in the state of Texas. Approximately 3 per cent of the vice-principals indicated that they held a Doctorate at the

time of the study. Eighty-eight per cent held a Master's plus additional college hours. While their years in the education field and their level of formal education indicate that they are well on their way to meeting the requirements to fill the highest administrative position in the school district, this is the goal of only a few. This probably reflects a realistic view of their opportunities of attaining that position.

#### Conclusions, Recommendations, and Suggestions

Review of the data collected in this study and analysis of the findings leads to the following conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions with regard to the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals.

1. It was found that the correlation between the view that administrators had of their own satisfaction, or their personal satisfaction, and the results of the facet-specific discrepancy scores was significant. The correlation was  $-.3895$ , indicating higher facet-free satisfaction tended to be accompanied by less facet discrepancy, hence a greater facet satisfaction (Appendix C). Comparison between individual job facets and other questions directed toward the measure of the same job characteristic produced comparable results. Therefore, it is concluded that discrepancy scoring is an acceptable method to employ in the study of job satisfaction among administrators.

2. It was found that the subjects assigned greater importance to intrinsic job facets such as interesting work, authority to do the job, and enough information to get the job done, than they assigned to the extrinsic job facets. The extrinsic facets included such things as job security, friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers, and competence of the supervisor in doing his or her job. In addition, it was found that intrinsic facet discrepancy showed a greater negative correlation to the female principals' and vice-principals' own view of their overall job satisfaction than did the extrinsic facet discrepancy scores. This indicates that a greater satisfaction with intrinsic job facets is accompanied by a higher view by the administrator of her general satisfaction with her job. However, the correlation of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction with each other is high, thus it is difficult to draw any conclusion as to the relative merits of the two groups of facets in predicting facet-free job satisfaction.

3. It was found that 45 per cent of the principals and 26 per cent of the vice-principals had worked in the field of education for more than twenty years. Principals had a median of six to ten years of experience in school administration while vice-principals had a median of two to five years experience in school administration. These women had, as a rule, spent more than ten years as classroom teachers before moving into the administrative field. Nationally,

the median number of years that women spend in the classroom before moving into administrative positions is from ten to nineteen years as compared to that of men which is two to nine years (1). It is concluded that the women of Texas, like their counterparts in the national study, are slower than men to move into the administrative field.

4. Principals and vice-principals in the study had been employed in the same school district for more than ten years. Both the median and the mean for both job levels fell within the eleven to twenty years range. Both principals and vice-principals were relatively new to their current position, the mean and median tenure for both being from one to five years. This is the same result that has been attained nationally. It is concluded that these women have not been geographically mobile during their careers, and have remained with the same district in which they taught rather than seeking administrative positions in other districts. This conclusion is further strengthened by the fact that few indicated that they would seek a new position with another school district within the next year, even though the majority of vice-principals had indicated that they chose to move to a higher position than the one they held.

5. Both the long tenure with the same organization and short tenure in the current position are circumstances which have been reported by earlier researchers as being associated



with high job satisfaction. This same relationship is shown in this study. It is thus concluded that the female administrators in this study have remained with the same district because they perceive the district's goals and their own as being in agreement; additionally, the district is perceived as offering the opportunities for advancement that are desired.

6. The majority of both principals and vice-principals indicated that a principalship was the highest position that they hoped to attain during their administrative career. This finding is the same as that found in national studies of female principals and vice-principals (2). As stated earlier, in light of hiring patterns, both in Texas and nationally, this represents a realistic career goal while the goal of becoming superintendent of a school district does not. The fact that few women are currently chief executive officers in public school districts leaves women without a role model to follow. In addition, while the classroom has traditionally been the accepted domain of women, that of school management has not. Women tend to accept this role designation and do not aspire to move to higher administrative levels which would put them into competition with men in what is traditionally a male domain. It is concluded that the aspiration levels of female principals and vice-principals are low, in keeping with

their own and society's view of their own abilities and opportunities for advancement.

7. Those principals who indicated that their highest level of aspiration was the principalship had the highest job satisfaction of any other group. Second to them in facet satisfaction were those vice-principals who indicated that the position of vice-principal was the highest position which they wished to attain. It is concluded that attaining the maximum promotional level desired does result in high job satisfaction. This may be attributed to the satisfaction derived from successfully attaining the goal toward which the administrator has worked and the perception of the promotion as being recognition by others of exceptional performance in the previous position.

8. The findings of this study indicate that there are significant differences in the job satisfaction of female principals and vice-principals associated with the individual characteristic of age. There is no decrease in job satisfaction for those nearing retirement as has been indicated in research studies with other groups. It appears that those factors which produce job satisfaction for these administrators strengthen as the administrators age, producing a continuing increase in job satisfaction up to retirement. Approximately one half of the women in this study had spent five or fewer years in school administration yet 69 per cent were forty years of age or older at the

time of the study. This late entry into the work area in which they will continue until retirement may account for their continued satisfaction with their job. Other factors which may account for the increase in job satisfaction with age are changing marital status and remaining children leaving home as the administrators age. This leaves them with more time to spend at their job without experiencing the conflict between their work role and their role as wife and mother that was present when they were younger.

9. Those administrators who are married have lower job satisfaction than do those who are widowed, but they display higher job satisfaction than those women who are single or divorced. It would appear from this that the role conflict between that of wife and that of school administrator is not a major detriment to the satisfaction of these principals and vice-principals.

10. Those principals and vice-principals who reported children living at home consistently reported lower job satisfaction than did those who had no children living at home. It appears that there are role conflicts between that of mother and that of principal or vice-principal. Of the job facets used in the study, that related to the time in which to do what was expected of the administrator was reported as the single facet with which the satisfaction was the lowest. The time needed to fulfill the requirements of the job and the time which the rearing of children

requires does give rise to stresses for the woman who must fill both roles. For those who are single parents, the conflict between the two roles appears to be even greater. Of those who reported having children living at home at the time of the study, those who were divorced reported the lowest job satisfaction, followed by those who were widowed. The principals and vice-principals who were married and had children living at home reported the highest job satisfaction of the three marital groups with children at home. It is concluded that the presence of children in the home does tend to lower the job satisfaction of female administrators, particularly when she is a single parent.

11. It was found that the job satisfaction of the non-white administrators was lower than was that of the white administrators. This finding is in agreement with those of job satisfaction studies conducted among other occupational groups. Based on correlation coefficients (Appendix C) a possible explanation for this can be found. Two individual characteristics were shown to have a significant correlation to racial group. Of these two, number of children at home showed a positive correlation to racial group while tenure in administration showed a negative correlation to racial group. The first indicates that nonwhites tended to report more children living at home than did whites. Nonwhites tended to have been in administrative positions for shorter periods of time than had the white respondents. The fact

that having children living at home has a negative effect on job satisfaction has been discussed previously. It is concluded that the presence of children in the home is a factor in the lower satisfaction of the nonwhite female administrators. This lower satisfaction may also be the result of the difficulty the nonwhite faced in achieving an administrative position, as evidenced by the tendency for nonwhite females to have shorter tenure in administration than did white females.

12. It was found that there were significant differences between principals and vice-principals in this study. Vice-principals assigned a significantly greater importance to the intrinsic job characteristics than did principals. They also rated the extrinsic job characteristics as being significantly less important than did the principals in the study. This is an apparent contradiction to the findings of other studies which were conducted with other occupational groups in which the importance of intrinsic job facets was greater for those at higher levels in the organizational hierarchy. It is concluded that this finding is the result of the younger age of the vice-principals and also of their shorter tenure in administration. Their expectations are high as they enter this new field. Principals have begun the adjustment to the situation as it is, having developed a more realistic view of building-level administration through their own experiences.

As the importance that vice-principals assigned to the intrinsic job facets was greater than that of the principals, their job had to provide those facets in greater strength to produce satisfaction. It is concluded that this had not been the case as the vice-principals also showed a significantly lower satisfaction with the intrinsic job facets than with the extrinsic job facets.

Principals in the study showed greater satisfaction with the intrinsic job facets than with the extrinsic job facets, although they assigned greater importance to the intrinsic job facets than to the extrinsic facets. It is concluded that the principals in the study did find that their work as principal provided the intrinsic facets in the desired strength but did not provide the extrinsic variables in the amount desired.

Because of the differences found between the female vice-principals and principals in this study, it is concluded that while there are similarities between the positions of vice-principal and principal, there are significant differences both in the positions themselves and in the characteristics of the women who hold them. Further, these differences make it desirable to treat the two positions separately when job satisfaction research is undertaken.

13. Both female principals and vice-principals view themselves as being satisfied with their jobs with only 5 per cent of the sample reporting themselves as being

moderately satisfied or not at all satisfied with their jobs. Facet discrepancy scores also indicate that female principals and vice-principals are satisfied with their jobs, although the degree of satisfaction indicated is lower than that indicated by the facet-free response. This is congruent with earlier research studies which have used a combination of the two types of measures to determine job satisfaction. Especially in the field of education, facet-free measures have tended to produce indications of greater satisfaction than have studies which have incorporated specific job facets into their measures of job satisfaction. The explanation suggested for this difference is that as educators work with children, work which is deemed by society to be very fulfilling and satisfying work, the educator responds to facet-free questions on job satisfaction in such a way as to conform to the expectations both of the individual and of society. It is therefore recommended that either facet-specific measures or a combination of facet-free and facet-specific measures be used in conducting job satisfaction research, especially among educational professionals.

#### Recommendations for the Employer

As a result of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made to those who are in the position to recommend the hiring of women for administrative positions.

1. It is recommended that the duties and responsibilities of the vice-principal be clearly defined.

2. It is recommended that efforts be made to include more responsibilities which will provide the vice-principal with opportunities to satisfy her expectations of her job. These would include more involvement in decision-making at the building level and greater opportunity for exposure to the community as a school leader.

3. It is recommended that the vice-principalship be used as a training ground for future principals. To meet this purpose, in-service programs for vice-principals should be directed toward developing the leadership and decision-making skills of the vice-principal.

4. It is recommended that building principals be encouraged to delegate a variety of duties to their vice-principals, including those that will provide the opportunity for recognition and for developing leadership skills.

5. It is recommended that in-service programs be directed toward developing the skills of both women principals and vice-principals in time management.

#### Recommendations for Female Educators

The following recommendations are offered to those women who are considering entering the administrative field and to those already employed as administrators.



1. The positions of vice-principal and principal should be viewed as providing a satisfying career for women in the field of education.

2. Recognize that there will be facets of the job with which you will not be satisfied. Chief among these will be the amount of time that the job requires.

3. Recognize that the positions of vice-principal and of principal involve different duties and therefore will not provide the same degree of satisfaction in every area. Vice-principals tend to be less satisfied with the intrinsic facets than do principals. The greatest differences lie in definition of responsibilities, authority, interesting work, chance for promotion, and seeing the results of work done.

4. If you do desire promotion, consider exploring the opportunities in other school districts in addition to those available in your current district. From this study it does appear that this is an option that women seldom take.

#### Suggestions for Further Research

In regard to further research into the job satisfaction of building-level administrators, the following suggestions are offered for consideration.

1. It is suggested that similar studies be conducted with both male and female vice-principals and principals as the subjects.

2. It is recommended that a longitudinal study be conducted to follow building-level administrators, both male and female, through various stages in their careers to determine what variations in job satisfaction do, in fact, occur at the various stages in the administrators' careers.

3. It is suggested that studies be directed toward description of vice-principals as a group separate from principals in order to further measure their differences from principals.

## CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Byrne, C. R., S. A. Hines, and L. E. McCleary, The Senior High School Principalship, Virginia, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978.
2. Pharis, W. L. and S. B. Zakariya, The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study, Virginia, National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1979.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE COVER LETTER

April 29, 1985

Dear Fellow Educator:

Your position as an administrator places you in a special group in the field of education. Your help is being solicited in a study of factors which influence the job satisfaction felt by female administrators in the state of Texas.

Your completion and return of the enclosed questionnaire will be an important contribution to this study which will be used to satisfy the dissertation requirement of my doctoral program at N.T.S.U. Data that is collected in this study will be evaluated as group statistics, so the confidentiality of the information that you and other individuals supply will be maintained.

Thank you for helping to make this study successful by your complete and accurate response to this questionnaire. Please return the questionnaire by May 10, 1985, in the enclosed envelope.

Sincerely yours,

*Mary F. Bertl*  
Mary F. Bertl

APPENDIX B

ADMINISTRATOR'S JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire  
Administrator's Job Satisfaction  
Confidential

Directions

Below are questions dealing with job satisfaction and the various factors that influence job satisfaction. These require that you simply check the appropriate response.

1. What is your job title?  
 principal  vice-principal
2. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?  
 very satisfied  not too satisfied  
 somewhat satisfied  not at all satisfied
3. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?  
Would you  
 decide without hesitation to take the same job  
 have some second thoughts  
 decide definitely not to take the same job
4. How often do you get so wrapped up in your work that you lose track of time?  
 very often  once in a while  
 pretty often  never
5. How often do you leave work with a feeling that you've done something particularly well?  
 very often  once in a while  
 pretty often  never
6. How likely is it that you will make a genuine effort to find a new job with another employer within the next year?  
 very likely  not too likely  
 somewhat likely  not at all likely
7. If you were financially able, would you prefer not to work?  
 yes  no

8. About how many teachers are there in your building?
- |                                |                                       |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-12  | <input type="checkbox"/> 50-99        |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 13-24 | <input type="checkbox"/> 100-149      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25-49 | <input type="checkbox"/> 150 and over |
9. How many years have you worked in the field of education, including the current school year?
- |                                      |   |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-5 years   | <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years  | <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 26 or more years |
10. How many years have you been a school administrator, including the current school year?
- |                                     |   |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 0-1 year   | <input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2-5 years  | <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 or more years |
11. How many years have you been employed with your present school district, including the current school year?
- |                                     |   |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-5 years  | <input type="checkbox"/> 11-20 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 or more years |
12. How many years have you been in your present position?
- |                                     |   |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-5 years  | <input type="checkbox"/> 11-20 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 or more years |
13. How much does your pay or income from your job figure out to be a year, before taxes and other deductions are made?
- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under 25,000  | <input type="checkbox"/> 35,000-39,999   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25,000-29,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40,000-44,999   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30,000-34,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45,000 and over |
14. In your school system, how fairly are promotions generally handled?
- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> completely fairly | <input type="checkbox"/> not too fairly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> somewhat fairly   |   |
15. Of the following reasons, which was the most important in your seeking your present position?
- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> salary                      | <input type="checkbox"/> did not actively seek this position |
| <input type="checkbox"/> opportunity for advancement |  |
| Other _____  | (specify)  |





24. Are any of your children in grades K-6?

\_\_\_\_\_yes \_\_\_\_\_no

25. What is your marital status?

\_\_\_\_\_single \_\_\_\_\_widowed  
 \_\_\_\_\_married \_\_\_\_\_divorced

26. What is the highest position which you hope to attain in your administrative career?

\_\_\_\_\_

27. Are you willing to relocate in order to attain that position?

\_\_\_\_\_yes \_\_\_\_\_no

28. Below are two sets of questions about selected aspects of jobs. First, we'd like to know how important to you each of these things are in any job you might have. Secondly, does your present job actually provide these things?

	How Important To You			Does Your Present Job Actually Provide This?		
	very important	fairly important	not important	quite a bit	in some ways	not at all
1. chance to make friends						
2. chance for promotion						
3. friendliness and helpfulness of coworkers						
4. convenience of travel to and from work						
5. opportunity to develop special abilities						
6. enough help and equipment to get the job done						
7. proper amount of work						
8. work is interesting						
9. adequate pay						
10. enough information to get the job done						
11. freedom to decide how to get the work done						
12. chance to do the things I do best						
13. job security						
14. challenging problems to solve						
15. competence of supervisor in doing his/her job						

	How Important To You			Does Your Present Job Actually Provide This?		
	very important	fairly important	not important	quite a bit	in some ways	not at all
16. responsibilities being clearly defined						
17. authority to do my job						
18. pleasant physical surroundings						
19. seeing the results of my work						
20. freedom from the con- flicting demands other people make of me						
21. enough time to get the job done						
22. reasonable working hours						

Do you want a copy of the results of this study?

\_\_\_\_\_yes

\_\_\_\_\_no

APPENDIX C

TABLE XXXIX

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

TABLE XXXXIX

## KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Extrinsic Discrepancy	.4626 sig .000								
Personal Satisfaction	-.3906 sig .000	-.3328 sig .000	-.3895 sig .000						
Tenure in Position	-.0603 sig .018	-.0293 sig .149	-.0429 sig .063	.0640 sig .026					
Tenure in Administration	-.0670 sig .007	-.0201 sig .229	-.0347 sig .098	.0784 sig .007	.6031 sig .000				
Racial Group	.0513 sig .041	.08444 sig .002	.0760 sig .004	.0348 sig .151	-.0397 sig .118	-.0682 sig .017			
Number of Children at Home	.0384 sig .092	.0259 sig .181	.0286 sig .155	.0222 sig .251	-.1385 sig .000	-.1550 sig .000			
Marital Status	-.0228 sig .212	-.0195 sig .243	-.0127 sig .323	.0051 sig .438	.0001 sig .499	.0216 sig .243			
Aspiration Level	.1404 sig .000	.0828 sig .001	.1018 sig .000	-.0461 sig .066	-.1214 sig .000	-.0812 sig .003			
Income Level	-.1240 sig .000	-.1152 sig .000	-.1333 sig .000	.1297 sig .000	.1913 sig .000	.2797 sig .322			
School Size	.0248 sig .184	-.0500 sig .032	-.1259 sig .017	-.0671 sig .017	-.0757 sig .008	-.0718 sig .008			
Job Level	.1344 sig .000	-.0221 sig .224	.0429 sig .068	-.1642 sig .000	-.1518 sig .000	-.3085 sig .000			
Intrinsic Discrepancy		Extrinsic Discrepancy	Facet Discrepancy	Personal Satisfaction	Tenure in Position	Tenure in Administration			

TABLE XXXIX--Continued

Number of Children at Home	.0594 sig .039								
Marital Status	-.0015 sig .482	.1086 sig .000							
Aspiration Level	.0382 sig .110	.0461 sig .066	.0278 sig .177						
Income Level	.0144 sig .322	-.1926 sig .000	.0576 sig .028	-.0249 sig .189					
School Size	-.0010 sig .488	.0545 sig .041	.0101 sig .372	.0429 sig .069	.1248 sig .000				
Job Level	.0357 sig .151	.0982 sig .002	-.0240 sig .235	-.0162 sig .302	-.2588 sig .000	.4614 sig .000			
Racial Group		Number of Children at Home	Marital Status	Aspiration Level	Income Level	School Size			

APPENDIX D

COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS AND  
REASONS FOR NONRESPONSE

COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS AND  
REASONS FOR NONRESPONSE

The researcher had only one reliable statistic to use for comparison of those principals and vice-principals who did respond to the survey document and those who did not. This was the size of the school district in which the administrator was employed during the 1984-85 school year. Of the 1,364 questionnaires mailed, 835 were returned in usable form, 52 were returned but not in usable form, and 477 were not returned. For respondents, N = 887; for nonrespondents, N = 477. The proportion of the respondents and nonrespondents by district enrollment is presented in Table L.

TABLE L  
PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS  
BY DISTRICT SIZE

District Size	% of Respondents	% of Nonrespondents
Under 1000	6	4
1000-5000	21	19
5000-10,000	11	11
10,000-15,000	16	14
15,000-20,000	8	7
20,000-25,000	7	7
25,000 and over	31	38



The best response rate was from the administrators in school districts with enrollments of under 1000; 70 per cent of those mailed were returned. The lowest response rate was from districts of over 25,000; 54 per cent of the survey questionnaires were returned. In order to determine reasons for nonresponse, six principals and five vice-principals in six school districts were contacted by telephone two weeks after the response deadline. The researcher identified herself, explained the reason for contact, and, with the subject's permission, asked "What was the primary reason for your not returning the Administrator's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire?" In four cases the reason given was lack of time because of the administrator's work load. In six cases the response was that the administrator already had more than enough paper work that was job related. One responded that she no longer responds to research questionnaires unless they are required of her.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Books

- Gurin, G., J. Veroff and S. Feld, Americans View Their Mental Health, New York, Basic Book, 1960.
- Herzberg, Frederick, Work and the Nature of Man, Cleveland, World, 1966.
- Herzberg, Frederic, B. Mausner, R. Peterson, and D. Capwell, Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion, Pittsburgh, Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, 1957.
- Herzberg, Frederick, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work, New York, Wiley, 1959.
- Hopkins, Anne H., Work and Job Satisfaction in the Public Sector, Totowa, New Jersey, Rowman and Allanheld, 1983.
- Kahn, R. L., "The Meaning of Work: Interpretation and Proposals for Measurement," in The Human Meaning of Social Change, eds. A. Campbell and P. E. Converse, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1972, pp. 159-203.
- Kahn, R. L. and D. Katz, The Social Psychology of Organizations, New York, Wiley, 1978.
- Kovach, Kenneth, Organizational Size, Job Satisfaction, Absenteeism and Turnover, Washington, D. C., University Press of America, 1977.
- Lawler, E. E., Motivation in Work Organizations, Monterey, California, Brooks & Cole, 1973.
- Locke, E. A., "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction," in the Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, ed. M. D. Dunnette, Chicago, Rand-McNally, 1976.
- Maslow, A. H., Motivation and Personality, New York, Harper, 1954.
- Mortimer, J. T., Changing Attitudes Toward Work, Scarsdale, New York, Work in America Institute, 1979.

Roscoe, John T., Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1975.

Tannenbaum, A. S., B. Kavcic, M. Rosner, M. Vianello, and G. Weisner, Heirarchy in Organizations, San Francisco, Josey-Bass, 1974.

Vroom, Victor, Work and Motivation, New York, Wiley, 1964.

#### Articles

Adams, Stacy, "Toward an Understanding of Inequity," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, LXVI (1963), 422-436.

Bartol, K. M. and M. S. Wortman, "Male Versus Female Leaders: Effects on Perceived Leader Behavior and Satisfaction in a Hospital," Personnel Psychology, XXVII (1975), 533-547.

Baumgartel, H. and R. Sobol, "Background and Organizational Factors in Absenteeism," Personnel Psychology, XII (1959), 431-444.

Beer, Michael, "Organizational Size and Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, VII (March, 1964), 34-44.

Borgatta, E. F., "The Work Components Study: A Set of Measures for Work Motivation," Journal of Psychological Studies, XVI (1967), 1-11.

Brief, A. P. and R. L. Oliver, "Male-Female Differences in Work Attitudes Among Retail Sales Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXI (1976), 526-528.

Epstein, G. F. and A. L. Bronzaft, "Female Modesty in Aspiration Level," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XXI (1974), 57-60.

Fansher, T. A. and T. H. Buxton, "A Job Satisfaction Profile of the Female Secondary School Principal in the United States," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, LXVI (January, 1984), 32-39.

Friesen, D., E. A. Holdaway, and A. W. Rice, "Satisfaction of School Principals with Their Work," Educational Administration Quarterly, XIX (Fall, 1983), 35-58.

Garawski, Robert A., "The Assistant Principal: His Job Satisfaction and Organizational Potency," Clearing House, LII (September, 1978), 8-10.

- Gibson, Frank and C. Teasley, "The Humanistic Model of Motivation: A Review of Research Support," Public Administration Review, XXXIII (1973), 89-96.
- Glenn, W. D., P. Taylor and C. N. Weaver, "Age and Job Satisfaction Among Males and Females: A Multivariate Study," Journal of Applied Psychology, LXII (1977), 189-193.
- Gould, S. and B. L. Hawkins, "Organizational Career Stage as a Moderator of the Satisfaction-Performance Relationship," Academy of Management Journal, XXI (1978), 434-450.
- Grant, P. C., "Exploring the Relationship Between Motivation, Satisfaction and Performance," Personnel Administrator, XXIX (July, 1979), 55-69.
- Hall, Douglas and Khalil Nougaim, "An Examination of Maslow's Need Hierarchy in an Organizational Setting," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, III (February, 1968), 12-35.
- Herman, J. B. and C. L. Hulin, "Studying Organizational Attitudes From Individual and Organizational Frames of Reference," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, VII (1972), 84-108.
- Holdaway, E. A., "Facet and Overall Satisfaction of Teachers," Educational Administration Quarterly, XIV (Winter, 1978), 30-47.
- Hulin, C. L., "Effects of Community Characteristics on Measuring Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, L (1966), 185-192.
- Hulin, C. L. and P. C. Smith, "Sex Differences in Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVII (1964), 88-92.
- Hulin, C. L. and P. C. Smith, "A Linear Model of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLIX (1965), 209-216.
- Hunt, J. W. and P. N. Saul, "The Relationship of Age, Tenure, and Job Satisfaction in Males and Females," Academy of Management Journal (1975), 690-702.
- Katz, D., "Job Longevity as a Situational Factor in Job Satisfaction," Administrative Science Quarterly, XXIII (1978), 204-223.

- Kempner, Ken and Jean Stockard, "Women's Representation in School Administration: Recent Trends," Educational Administration Quarterly, XVII (Spring, 1981), 81-91.
- Kohn, M. L. and Carmi Schooler, "Class, Occupation and Orientation," American Sociological Review, XXXIV (1969), 659-678.
- Lawler, E. E. and L. W. Porter, "Perceptions Regarding Management Compensation," Industrial Relations, III (1963), 41-49.
- Locke, E. A., "What is Job Satisfaction?," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, IV (1969), 309-336.
- McCarthy, Martha and Amy Zent, "Affirmative Action for School Administrators: Has it Worked, Can it Survive?," Phi Delta Kappan, LXIV (March, 1982), 461-463.
- Miskel, Cecil, "The Motivation of Educators to Work," Educational Administration Quarterly, IX (1973), 42-53.
- Miskel, Cecil, "Intrinsic, Extrinsic and Risk Propensity Factors in the Attitudes of Teachers, Educational Administrators and Business Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, LIX (1974), 339-343.
- Mortimer, J. T. and J. Lorence, "Work Experience and Occupational Value Socialization: A Longitudinal Study," American Journal of Sociology, 84 (1979), 1361-1385.
- Mowday, R. T., L. W. Porter and R. Dubin, "Unit Performance, Situational Factors, and Employee Attitudes in Spatially Separated Work Units," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XXI (1978), 231-248.
- Near, J. P., R. W. Rice, and R. G. Hunt, "Work and Extra-work Correlates of Life and Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, XXI (1978), 248-264.
- O'Leary, V. E., "Some Attitudinal Barriers to Occupational Aspirations in Women," Psychological Bulletin, 81 (1974), 809-829.
- Pennings, J. M., "Work-Value Systems of White-Collar Workers," Administrative Science Quarterly, XV (1970), 397-405.

- Porter, L. W., "Job Attitudes in Management: Perceived Importance of Needs as a Function of Job Level," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVII (April, 1963), 386-397.
- Porter, L. W., "Job Attitudes in Management: Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Size of Company," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVII (1963), 386-397.
- Porter, L. W. and R. M. Steers, "Organization, Work and Personal Factors in Employee Turnover and Absenteeism," Psychological Bulletin, LXXX (1973), 151-176.
- Pritchard, R. D. and L. H. Peters, "Job Duties and Job Interests as Predictors of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XII (1974), 315-330.
- Romer, N., "Sex-Related Differences in the Development of the Motive to Avoid Success, Role Identity and Performance in Competitive and Noncompetitive Conditions," Psychology of Women Quarterly (1977), 260-272.
- Saleh, W. D. and J. L. Otis, "Age and Level of Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology, XVII (1964), 425-430.
- Schmidt, G. L., "Job Satisfaction Among Secondary School Administrators," Educational Administration Quarterly, XII (Spring, 1976), 68-86.
- Schmuck, P. A., "Deterrents to Women's Careers in School Management," Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, I (1975), 339-354.
- Schuler, R. S., "Sex, Organization Level and Outcome Importance: Where are the Differences," Personnel Psychology, XVII (1975), 365-375.
- Seashore, S. E. and T. D. Taber, "Job Satisfaction Indicators and Their Correlates," American Behavioral Scientist, XVII (1975), 333-368.
- Sergiovanni, T. J., "Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," Journal of Educational Administration, V (1967), 55-82.
- Seybolt, J. W., "Work Satisfaction as a Function of the Person-Environment Interaction," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XVII (1976), 66-75.

- Sheridan, J. E. and J. W. Slocum, "The Direction of the Causal Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Work Performance," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, XIV (1975), 159-172.
- Slocum, J. W., "Motivation in Managerial Levels: Relationship of Need Satisfaction to Job Performance," Journal of Applied Psychology, LV (1971), 312-316.
- Tallachi, S., "Organizational Size, Individual Attitudes and Behavior: An Empirical Study," Administrative Science Quarterly, V (1960), 398-420.
- Taylor, Suzanne, "Educational Leadership: A Male Domain?," Phi Delta Kappan, LV (October, 1973), 124-128.
- Waters, L. K. and Donald Roach, "Relationship Between Job Attitudes and Two Forms of Withdrawal From the Work Situation," Journal of Applied Psychology, LV (1971), 437-445.
- Weaver, C. N., "Relationships Among Pay, Race, Sex, Occupational Prestige, Supervision, Work Autonomy, and Job Satisfaction in a National Sample," Personnel Psychology, XXX (1977), 437-445.
- Weaver, C. N., "Sex Differences in the Determinants of Job Satisfaction," Academy of Management Journal, XXI (1978), 265-274.
- Wright, J. D. and R. F. Hamilton, "Work Satisfaction and Age: Some Evidence for the 'Job Change' Hypothesis," Social Forces, LVI (1978), 1140-1158.

#### Reports

- Byrne, D. R., S. A. Hines, and L. E. McCleary, The Senior High School Principalship, Virginia, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978.
- Pharis, W. L. and S. B. Zakariya, The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study, Virginia, National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1979.
- Quinn, Robert, S. Seashore, R. Kahn, T. Mangione, D. Campbell, B. Staines, and M. McCullough, The Survey of Working Conditions: Final Report on Univariate and Bivariate Tables, Document No. 2916-0001, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

Quinn, Robert and L. Shepard, The 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey, Ann Arbor, Michigan, The University of Michigan Survey Research Center, 1974.

Quinn, Robert, G. L. Staines, and M. R. McCullough, "Job Satisfaction: Is There a Trend?", Manpower Research Monograph No. 30, Washington, D. C., U. S. Department of Labor, 1974.

#### Unpublished Materials

Adams, James R., "Relationship Between Self-Reported Stress Levels and Job Satisfaction Among Elementary and Secondary School Principals," unpublished thesis, North Texas State University, Denton, Texas, 1983.