

A STUDY RELATING JOB SATISFACTION,
PERSONAL VALUES, AND PERSONAL
CHARACTERISTICS TO TEACHER
ABSENTEEISM

By

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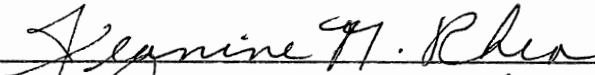
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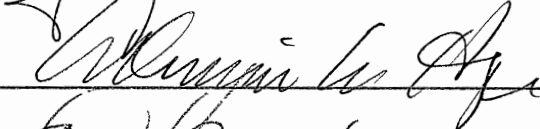
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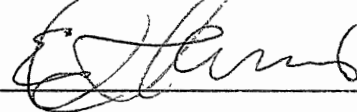
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Need for the Study	5
Statement of the Problem	6
Significance of the Study	7
Theoretical Framework	7
Definition of Terms	9
Questions to be Answered	10
Limitations	10
Assumptions	11
Summary	11
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	12
Introduction	12
Characteristics of Absentees	13
Cost of Teacher Absenteeism	16
Financial Costs	16
Instructional Costs	17
Management Costs	19
The Role of Job Satisfaction in	
Teacher Attendance	20
Employee Values and Job Expectations	23
Behavior Modification and Absenteeism	28
Rewards	28
Disadvantages of Rewards	30
Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation	31
Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Rewards	31
Personal Characteristics of Absentees	34
Age	34
Gender	34
Marital Status and Children	36
Tenure	36
Level of Teaching	37
Average Class Size	37
Summary	37
III. METHOD AND PROCEDURE	40
Introduction	40
Research Questions	40

Chapter	Page
Instrumentation	41
Instrument Number 1 -	
Job Satisfaction	41
Refinement of the Job	
Diagnostic Survey	42
Reliability	43
Validity	43
Instrument Number 2 -	
Personal Values	43
Personal Factors	44
Absence Measures	45
Sample Selection	48
Pilot Study	51
Data Collection	52
Data Analysis	54
Summary	54
 IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA	 55
Introduction	55
Presentation of Data	56
Job Diagnostic Survey	56
Personal Values	58
Personal Characteristics	58
Instrument Analysis	60
T-test	61
Discriminate Analysis	68
Multivariate Test Statistics	74
Wilks' Λ (Lambda)	74
Chi-Square Statistic	74
Canonical Correlations	75
Predictability Factors	76
Analysis of the Data	78
Summary	83
 V. SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION	 84
Introduction	84
Summary of the Study	85
Summary of the Findings.	86
Conclusions	88
Research Question 1	88
Research Question 2	89
Research Question 3	90
Discussion	90
Recommendations for Practice	93
Recommendations for Further Research	94
Summary	95
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	 98

	Page
APPENDIXES	104
APPENDIX A - CORRESPONDENCE	105
APPENDIX B - QUESTIONNAIRE	114

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Absentee Codes for Certified Personnel	47
II. Surveyed Population	50
III. Surveys Returned	54
IV. Personal Characteristics	59
V. T-tests	62
VI. Absence of Males and Females	66
VII. Absence of Teachers with Preschool and College or Adult Age Children	67
VIII. Level of Teaching	67
IX. Mean and Standard Deviation for all Variables .	69
X. Initial Univariate F Tests	70
XI. Final Univariate F Tests	73
XII. Wilks' Λ (Lambda)	74
XIII. Chi-Square Statistic	75
XIV. Canonical Correlations	76
XV. Predictability Table	76
XVI. Frequency Prediction	77

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Steers and Rhodes Model of Teacher Attendance . . .	8

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Teacher absenteeism is one of the most pressing concerns of school administrators. Not only does unnecessary absenteeism cost the district much-needed dollars, it is disruptive to students, to fellow teachers, and to the administration. Teacher-absenteeism affects student learning when substitutes are used who are generally less efficient than the regular classroom teacher (Meara, 1983).

Absences result when an individual decides to stay away from the workplace during scheduled work periods. Although certainly not all absences can be avoided, according to Allen and Higgins (1979) we live in an absenteeism culture. Taking a day off and calling in sick is supported and encouraged by our society. A prevailing attitude seems to be, "The time is coming to me." The Tulsa Daily World reported in its April 29, 1991, issue that most workers admit to goofing off for about seven hours a week, and almost half say they regularly call in sick when they are not. During an average week in 1989, 4.3 million full-time wage and salary workers had at least one absence from their jobs which reduced their work hours to fewer than 35. This

represents an absence rate of 5.1 percent, which varied during the year (Meisenheimer, 1990).

In a study of Chicago Public Schools, Meara (1983) found that teacher absence rates were 5.8 percent, for an average 10.4 days absence per teacher per year. A large Oklahoma school district experienced a 5.85 percent absence rate, for an average 11.18 days absent per teacher during the 1990-91 school year. These absences represent a higher percent than for industry, yet teachers have a work year of 180 to 190 days, compared to an average work year of 240 days (adjusted for vacation time and holidays) for business and industry workers.

Nearly everyone who has a job is absent from work occasionally. Reasons for these absences range from genuine illness, caring for sick family members, personal business that cannot be scheduled for nonwork times, to calling in sick to go on pleasure trips or simply to stay home and rest. Johns and Nicholson (1982) reported that most attendance is not the result of a daily "decision" of any conscious kind but is behavior executed in accordance with established norms, routines, customs, and habits. This is one reason it would seem prudent for school districts to develop well-defined policies and procedures with consistent follow up to curtail excessive unwarranted teacher absenteeism. A model developed by Steers & Rhodes (1978) notes that feedback from the results of actual attendance behavior can

often influence subsequent perceptions of the job situation, pressures to attend, and attendance motivation.

The same study by Steers & Rhodes (1978) found that certain factors do not covary directly with attendance. The most prominent variable that does not covary is one's health. While sick employees typically do not come to work, it does not necessarily follow that healthy employees will attend. Instead, other factors (e.g., attendance motivation) serve to influence a healthy person's attendance behavior.

Gaudet (1963) reported on a study done in 1944 by Joseph Jackson with 550 factory employees. This study found that employees with above-average rates of absence had the following traits in ascending order of importance:

- Poor work habits
- Personal maladjustment
- Dissatisfaction with work
- Irresponsibility
- Outside difficulties (outside business,
transportation, or housing difficulties)
- Sickness or fatigue

These personality characteristics operate when "their problems are aggravated on the job - by boredom, discouragement, a poor working environment, or a bad relationship with the boss" (p. 71).

School districts should develop a plan to improve personnel attendance. Harclerode (1979) gave four reasons for districts to develop such a plan. His reasons are as pertinent for the 1992 school as for the 1979 school:

First, substitutes seldom provide service equal to or superior to the regular teacher. Administrative efforts needed to provide teacher substitutes require a high expenditure of time to secure the substitute, orient the substitute to school routines, and guide them in their instructional duties. Absence from the class is a poor example to students. Credibility is lost where teachers advocate improved student attendance yet demonstrate otherwise themselves.

Secondly, absence replacement is expensive and excessive absence is excessively expensive.

Third is the positive psychological benefits that are outcomes of a successful plan. Staff morale is enhanced by the added attention attendance brings, and superintendents look good as a result of leading a successful attendance improvement plan.

Lastly, districts having a plan need not fear the intrusion of an absence control plan imposed by outside forces. The adverse outcomes of excessive and chronic illness absences are news worthy items which can become local issues in the media. Media inspired issues can cause public, rather than professional, solutions to internal personnel problems.

Teacher absenteeism is a subtle problem with which to deal. Both administrators and teachers acknowledge abuse of sick leave, but it is frequently difficult to prove. However, the disparity in teacher absence rates among

different school districts, and schools within districts, is quite convincing evidence that abuse does occur. It seems likely that as teachers' unions bargain for more control of working conditions and other benefits and as money to operate the school system becomes less available, boards and parents will, in turn, demand greater accountability from teachers, including stricter attendance policies.

Need for the Study

The Bureau of National Affairs, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, and other researchers indicate that "a reasonable level of absence should be about three percent of available work time, but the attainable minimum level may approach two percent or less" (American Association of School Personnel Administrators, 1987, p. 3). Yet teachers, who have a far shorter work year than other members of the workforce, experience a 5.8 absentee rate (Meara, 1983).

Educational Research Service (1980) states that the literature on employee absenteeism in business and industry is immense and reflects a serious concern for finding both causes and solutions for excessive time away from the job. However, "absenteeism among educational personnel, especially among teachers, who comprise more than half of all school staff and whose presence in the classroom is essential for normal school operations, has not engendered nearly the amount of scholarly and popular inquiry as that found in business and industry" (p. 1).

The growing public discontent with public education has its roots in the feeling that teachers and schools are not doing everything within their means to best educate students. There is a feeling that money is not being wisely spent and that because teacher contracts are for less than a full year, they should be in attendance during the times of that contract.

The cost of teacher absenteeism is staggering to school districts and will become more critical as costs for substitutes, materials and supplies continue to escalate. Any way these costs can be controlled is of utmost importance to school districts.

Information that leads to a better understanding of the underlying causes of teacher absenteeism will benefit school boards, administrators, and teachers themselves in developing a realistic approach to possible solutions to the problem. Further studies are clearly required to add to the literature on relationships between teacher absenteeism and other factors. Not until studies are done that examine relationships and highlight costs will awareness be great enough to begin corrective measures.

Statement of the Problem

There is a lack of knowledge regarding factors relating to absenteeism. The research literature reveals conflicting findings on what variables contribute to teacher absenteeism. Is there a relationship between certain aspects of the

job that contribute to teacher absenteeism, or is some internal locus of control and value system the determining factor in teacher attendance?

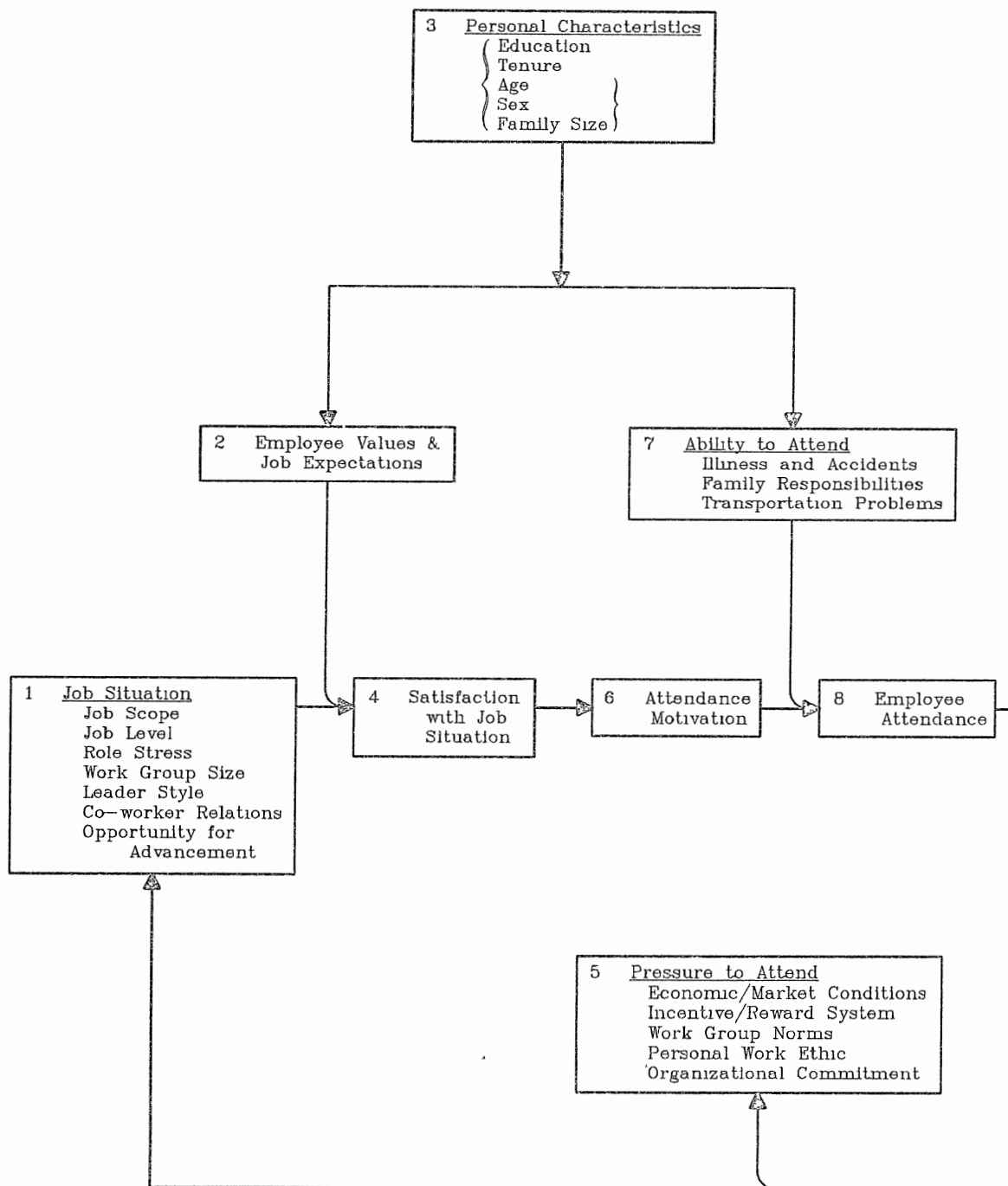
Significance of the Study

The possible causes of employee absenteeism are diverse and involve personal, attitudinal and organizational factors. How many absences are necessary and how many are voluntary are open to speculation. A review of the literature provides basis for a belief that at least some of these absences are voluntary.

Studies previously conducted have led to varied conclusions about the possible causes of teacher absenteeism. Additional studies are needed to better ascertain the possible causes of absenteeism among educational personnel. When the problem is better understood, solutions can be sought.

Theoretical Framework

Steers and Rhodes (1978) developed a model of the major influences on employee attendance (see Figure 1). This model is based on an extensive review of the research on employee absenteeism. This model shows that employee attendance is affected by an employee's motivation and ability to attend work. The six motivational influences include the job situation, satisfaction with the job situation, employee values and job expectations, personal



SOURCE Richard M. Steers and Susan R Rhodes "Major Influences on Employee Attendance: A Process Model." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 63 (August 1978) p 393 Copyright 1978 by the American Psychological Association

Figure 1. Steers and Rhodes Model of Teacher Attendance

employee characteristics, pressure to attend work, and attendance motivation. These six motivational influences, when combined with ability to attend, determine employee attendance.

Gibson (1966) focused on three interrelated factors that were involved in employee attendance. These were (1) the organizational space of the employer (organization), which is goal-oriented; (2) life space of the employee (individual), which is need-oriented, and (3) work space which is an integration of the organizational goals and individual needs.

While these models attempt to clarify the relationships that exist between employee absenteeism and its many causes, they also highlight the complexity of the problem (ERS, 1980). For the purpose of this study, the Steers and Rhodes model will be used as the theoretical model.

Definition of Terms

Absence	Failure to be present at the appropriate time and in the appropriate place to meet the terms of a contract
Attendance	Being present at scheduled workplace at scheduled work times
Expectations	The degree of probability of the occurrence of something
Motivation	A process governing choices made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activity
Satisfaction	Condition of being pleased and contented

Values Ideals, customs, institutions, etc. that arouse an emotional response, for or against them, in a given society or a given person

Questions To Be Answered

The questions to be answered by this study will be:

1. What is the relationship between job satisfaction and work attendance?
2. What is the relationship between personal values and work attendance?
3. What is the relationship between personal factors and work attendance?

Limitations

The following limitations apply to this study:

1. The study sampled teachers from only one public school system.
2. The validity of the responses depended upon the honesty of the respondents in answering items on the questionnaire.
3. The findings of the study were limited to the useful responses on questionnaires returned by the subjects.
4. The sample population consisted of only 21 males, 17 secondary and 4 elementary. This represents 16% of the sampled population and may not be adequate to measure absence differences of males and females.

5. The absence measure used was a frequency index which could skew the results toward a higher rate of absences for females. If a total days absence measure had been used, gender differences of absences may have been less.

Assumptions

When a study of this type is undertaken, there are certain assumptions that must be made. The most important assumption is that teachers will truthfully answer questions concerning their satisfaction and values.

Summary

Teacher absenteeism is a problem that will more than likely escalate as public awareness and discontent, as well as monetary restrictions, become greater. Personnel administrators' efforts to reduce the problems of teacher absenteeism are on a collision course with growing militancy of teacher unions and a culture that accepts absenteeism as permissible.

It is the purpose of this study to seek possible relationships of teacher absenteeism to job satisfaction, employee personal values, and personal factors. This knowledge could be of benefit in reducing teacher absenteeism, making the workplace more attractive, and improving the learning opportunities for students in the public schools.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

There are many variables which may be considered to be associated with absenteeism. Frequency and duration of absences may form certain patterns, as will personal factors (e.g., age, gender, marital status), organizational factors (e.g., organization size), time-place factors (e.g., day of the week, month of the year), job satisfaction and personnel policies.

The personal values and expectations that employees bring to the job will many times affect their attendance rate. In addition, expectations of rewards, either intrinsic or extrinsic, may keep employees on the job. The reverse expectation of negative consequences caused by absences may prevent an employee from being absent even if there is good reason for the absence.

In a sense, workers make daily decisions concerning whether or not they will appear for work. We would assume these decisions to be predictable from information about the anticipated consequences of the alternatives. If, on a given day, the consequences expected from not working are more attractive than those expected from working, the worker

would be predicted to be absent. On the other hand, if the reverse is true, the worker would be predicted to report for work (Vroom, 1964).

Certain factors may facilitate attendance for some employees but not for others. For instance, one employee may be intrinsically motivated to attend because of a challenging job; this individual may not feel any strong external pressures to attend because he or she likes the job itself. Another employee, however, may have a distasteful job (and not be intrinsically motivated) and yet may come to work because of other pressures (e.g., financial need). Both employees would attend, but for somewhat different reasons (Steers & Rhodes, 1978).

The rising costs, loss of teacher effectiveness, and destruction of learning opportunities associated with absenteeism necessitate that causes be isolated and ways developed to reduce teacher absenteeism.

This chapter will report on the literature that addresses these factors of absenteeism.

Characteristics of Absentees

Manlove (1979) reported some general findings about teacher absenteeism from studies done in Illinois, Indiana, Nevada, and California. They included these central points:

Absenteeism among all teachers increased after the enactment of collective bargaining legislation.

Absenteeism has continued to increase since the passage of collective bargaining legislation despite

better pay, smaller classes, and more appropriate assignments.

The highest rate of absenteeism occurs the day before and the day after the weekend.

High levels of absenteeism occur in school districts where there are low levels of faculty agreement toward the goals and policies of the community and school district. These high levels of absenteeism occur even in those school districts with high levels of material incentives and pleasant physical environments.

Low levels of absenteeism among teachers occur in those districts with high levels of community support and policy agreement, regardless of low levels of material inducement and unpleasant physical conditions faced by the teachers (p. 2).

Harclerode (1979) reported:

A large percentage of school personnel - 80% to 90% - have rates of illness absence well within the 2% - 4% range experienced in the private sector.

A small percentage of personnel - 10% to 20% - account for 50% of all illness absence.

Average teacher absence is comprised of 70% to 80% short term absence (5 days or less). This contrasts markedly with a 20 year private sector study where short term absence accounts for only 44% of all illness absences.

Best attendance day in many districts is pay day (pp. 8,9).

Bamber (1979) conducted a study of 56 districts in Philadelphia which showed white teachers had the highest absence rates (7.15%) followed by black (6.5%) and Hispanic teachers (5.5%).

Teachers with tenure had higher absence rates (7.2%) than nontenured (6.1%).

Educational Research Services (1980) reported that the Indianapolis, Indiana, public schools found that more

absences occurred on Monday than on any other day of the week, followed by Friday. A consistent pattern of high absence was found on days preceding and following weekends.

As with day of the week, the month of year also influenced the amount of absence an employee takes from the job. Particularly high rates of absence have been noted in the winter months of December, January, and February, and also in the spring months of March, April, and May.

Educational Research Service (1980) reported studies that found that employees who live outside the school district have greater absences than those who live within the school district. Other studies reported by ERS indicated that the distance employees travel to their jobs relates consistently to absence from work.

Winkler (1980) reported on research that showed absenteeism behavior depends in part on the gender, age, and marital status of the worker. Females are found to be absent more frequently, but for shorter periods, than males, with a net result, however, that males are absent more days. Older workers are typically absent less frequently but for longer periods than younger workers. This behavior may be explained by the fact that while job satisfaction increases with age, so do health problems.

Evans (1986) found that both perceived intrinsic and extrinsic stress appears to be a significant factor among teachers who experience excessive absenteeism from work.

Cost of Teacher Absenteeism

Teachers' absences from school are very costly both in educational effectiveness and finances. While many of the costs of teachers' absences, such as lost educational time, are impossible to quantify, certain direct costs are calculable.

Financial Costs

Bamber (1979) reported that corporations keep close tabs on employee attendance. Absent workers are a loss of money to them and any rise in absentee rates is countered quickly with measures to reduce it. In schools, where taxpayers foot the bill, the wheels turn much slower. It may be several years before citizens become aware of excessive absences. The National School Boards Association, the organization that represents the interests of school boards that employ teachers, does not research teacher absenteeism. Local school boards that have identified rising teacher absenteeism as a problem must do their own research, but they have very few sound figures and studies to guide them. This is in sharp contrast to student absenteeism, which has been well researched.

The State Department of Education in Oklahoma does not keep records on the cost to school districts for the use of substitute teachers. During a telephone interview a representative of the State Department of Education reported that

Oklahoma employed 42,070 teachers during the 1991-92 school year. Using the averages obtained from three eastern Oklahoma schools, the average absence per teacher is 10 days per year. Average rate of pay for noncertified substitutes is \$40.00 per day. This would equate to an approximate cost of \$16,828,000 for the use of substitute teachers for the State of Oklahoma during the 1991-92 school year. These costs are in addition to the cost for the teacher's salary and fringe benefits, which continue even though the teacher is absent.

Jacobson (1989) reports that in order to address this problem some school districts have begun offering monetary incentives to encourage teachers to improve their attendance, even though there exists a body of research that suggest teachers are motivated more by the intrinsic rewards of their profession than by the opportunity for extra compensation (Goodlad, 1983; Johnson, 1984; Lortie, 1975).

Instructional Costs

Teachers comprise more than half of all school staff and their presence in the classroom is essential for normal school operations. Excessive absenteeism can only harm efforts to manage schools efficiently and to provide the best education for students. Elliott and Manlove (1977) note that taxpayers today demand (1) more accountability for the spending of their tax dollars and (2) more progress by the youngsters they are sending to school. Skyrocketing

costs and falling test scores are not an acceptable combination.

Bamber (1979) noted that it is a bother for administrators to find someone to cover a classroom on short notice, and frequently that someone contributes little to the learning process and may actually detract from it. Most substitutes, called on short notice with no time for preparation, are little more than babysitters in the classroom. Even those who know their subject are at a disadvantage because they don't know the students and it may be harder for them to maintain discipline. Even occasional absences cause some learning disruption, and frequent absences of students or teachers can severely reduce academic progress.

Meara (1983) interviewed school principals in Chicago and in the view of 95% of those interviewed the most serious effect of teacher absences was experienced by the children. Almost half (45.5%) talked about how students' academic progress was curtailed when their regular teachers are absent. An elementary school principal expressed the same view: "When the teacher isn't there often times they have a bad experience if they don't have a good sub and there's a lot of misbehavior. It's a real deteriorating effect on a classroom" (p. 46).

A New York Metropolitan School Study Council review of 18,000 teachers reported that the teachers noted that substitute teachers were significantly less effective in classrooms than the regular teachers (Manlove, 1979).

Worse still, the study indicated that the substitutes were less effective than student teachers when they were put in charge of a classroom. At the elementary level the mean effectiveness score for regular teachers was 6.12 compared to 1.98 for substitutes. At the secondary level the contrast was even greater, with a mean effectiveness score for regular teachers 5.01 and for substitutes, 0.27.

Research on the effectiveness of schools has identified ten characteristics of successful schools - schools in which urban children learn (Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985). One determinant of success is the amount of time students spend on task. The higher rate of time on task, the higher the school success. Regular instruction by the regular classroom teacher is more likely to produce continuous time on task and should, therefore, be more effective.

Elliott (1982) has concluded that if the findings about the ineffectiveness of substitutes and the link between real instructional time and student achievement continues to be validated, teacher absenteeism will have to be examined as a critical variable in the decline of student progress.

Management Costs

One of the most pressured of school management personnel is the building principal. With the alarming increase in teacher absences at school goes a corresponding increase in the time and energy the principal spends with this problem. In many school districts the building principal is

responsible for obtaining a substitute for each absent teacher. In addition, he or she must monitor the activities of the substitutes once they are in the classroom. In large buildings an enormous amount of a principal's time would be required to meet this responsibility.

Educational Research Services (1980) report that teacher absenteeism may be a potential source of conflict between principals and parents. In a book on decentralization in New York City schools principals pointed out to their teaching staffs that absenteeism is highly visible to parents and is very difficult to defend. Although a principal can support a teacher's actions vis-a-vis classroom teaching techniques, he cannot defend persistent and unexplained absences.

The Role of Job Satisfaction in Teacher Attendance

By far the most influential theory relevant to satisfaction and motivation has been the Herzberg two-factor theory of satisfaction and motivation (Hackman and Oldham 1976). In essence, the theory proposes that the primary determinants of employee satisfaction are factors intrinsic to the work that is done (i.e., recognition, achievement, responsibility, advancement, personal growth). These factors are called "motivators" because they are believed to be effective in motivating employees to superior effort and performance. Dissatisfaction, on the other hand, is seen as

being caused by "hygiene factors" that are extrinsic to the work itself. Examples include company policies, supervisory practices, pay plans, working conditions, etc. The Herzberg theory specifies that a job will enhance work motivation and satisfaction only to the degree that "motivators" are designed into the work itself. Changes that deal solely with "hygiene" factors should not lead to increases in employee motivation.

Studies based on the theory assumed that the motivating factors potentially could increase the work motivation of all employees. Yet it appears that some individuals are much more likely to respond positively to an enriched, complex job than are others (Hulin 1971).

The results of research directed at the two-factor theory have been mixed. In essence, when Herzberg's method involving verbal response techniques has been used, the theory has generally been supported. Conversely, when other methods have been used, the theory has not typically been upheld (Armstrong 1971).

Vroom (1964) reported on ten studies evaluating the relationship between job satisfaction and absences. He concluded that there is a significant, though not always very strong relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. This is essentially the same conclusion of an earlier review by Brayfield and Crockett (1955), and also by Chadwick-Jones, Brown, & Nicholson (1973) on a study conducted in the United Kingdom based on over 100 references.

Steers and Rhodes (1978) presented a review of 104 empirical studies based on the relationship of work organizations and employee attendance. They concluded, based on the literature, that attendance was directly influenced by two primary factors: (a) attendance motivation and (b) ability to come to work. Attendance motivation, in turn, was largely influenced by (a) satisfaction with the job situation and (b) various internal and external pressures to attend.

The Steers & Rhodes model links personal characteristics such as education, tenure, gender, and family size to employee values and job expectations which in turn links to satisfaction with the job situation, attendance motivation, and finally to employee attendance. The model also allows for the potential impact of employee ability or inability to attend work, such as illness or accidents, family responsibilities, and transportation.

One study (Rousseau 1978, cited in Hinrichs 1980) found that work-related factors had the greatest impact on job satisfaction but that nonwork factors were most related to absenteeism. Ability to get to work, which is tied mainly to nonwork factors, is a critical element in absenteeism. An interesting study by Smith (1977) on a naturally occurring phenomenon - a blizzard in Chicago - demonstrates that constraints on coming to work can lead to reduced attendance but that absence is significantly less apt to occur in departments exhibiting high levels of employee satisfaction.

The implication is that favorable job attitudes can overcome some of the impediments to getting to work.¹

Bridges (1980) reported on a study to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism in an educational setting. The results of this study show that job satisfaction is not a major factor in absenteeism in educational settings.

Lortie (1975) studied teachers and found that intrinsic rewards are much more important to teachers than are extrinsic rewards. Consequently, work satisfaction (an intrinsic reward) is expected to be related to absenteeism, while satisfaction with pay (an extrinsic reward) is not. This view is upheld in a U. S. News and World Report article (English, 1986) which showed that 90 percent of teachers were satisfied with their jobs, even though 55 percent felt they were underpaid. This view is contradicted in an NEA Teacher Opinion Poll and reported in Today's Education (1980) in which a majority of poll respondents felt that salary had a negative effect on their job satisfaction.

Employee Values and Job Expectations

To a considerable extent, whether or not people experience satisfaction on the job depends upon the nature of their expectations - what they hope to get out of the work

¹ Information on The Role of Job Satisfaction in Teacher Attendance taken from J. R. Hinrichs, "Controlling Absenteeism and Turnover."

situation and whether or not those expectations are realized (Hinrichs 1980). To a large extent, these values and expectations are influenced by the personal characteristics and backgrounds of the employees. For example, employees with higher educational levels may value and expect greater (or at least different) rewards from an organization than those with less education. Moreover, older and more tenured employees often value and expect certain perquisites because of their seniority (Steers & Rhodes 1978).

The expectancy theory identifies two kinds of variables that function as the basic determinants of behavior: (a) attitudes toward the behavior and (b) normative beliefs. The first component, attitudes toward the behavior, reflects the instrumentality concept and depends upon the individual's beliefs about the consequences of performing the particular behavior in a given situation and his evaluation of these consequences. The second component, normative beliefs, depends upon the individual's beliefs regarding others' expectations of his behavior and his motivation to comply with these expectations (Newman, 1974).

In the conceptual framework underlying this theory, employee attitudes are treated as predictors of subsequent employee behavior. The expectancy theory emphasizes that employees' behavior at work is the result of choices about whether or not to appear at the workplace and of choices about how to behave at work. This framework assumes that

employees will be more likely to come to work than be absent if they obtain satisfaction from their jobs. They are likely to give more effort and choose more effective performance strategies if they expect to be rewarded either intrinsically or extrinsically for their efforts (Vroom, 1964, cited in Mirvis and Lawler, 1977).

By definition, absence reallocates the distribution of time from work to nonwork. Given that absence restructures the work week, it follows that this may be the primary reason for absences; i.e., to autonomously change the schedule of working hours. In expectancy theory terms, the valence of this outcome will derive from the valences of the uses of reallocated time (Johns & Nicholson, 1982).

Considerable evidence suggests that the relationship between job situation variables and subsequent satisfaction and attendance motivation is not a direct one. Instead, a major influence on the extent to which employees experience satisfaction with the job situation is the values and expectations they have concerning the job. People come to work with differing values and job expectations: that is, they value different features in a job and expect these features to be present to a certain degree in order to maintain membership. Whatever the values and expectations that individuals bring to the job situation, it is important that these factors be largely met for the individual to be satisfied (Steers and Rhodes, 1978).

Many organizations create systems that seem to reward nonattendance. The practice of providing sick leave that employees lose if they fail to use encourages people to be "sick" (Morgan & Herman, 1976). In this regard, Garrison & Muchinsky (1977) found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism for employees absent without pay but no such relationship for employees absent with pay. Hence there must be expectancy on the part of the employee that attendance (and not absenteeism) will lead to desirable rewards. Moreover, the employees must value the rewards available. If an employee would prefer a 3-day weekend to having additional pay, there is little reason to expect that employee would be motivated to attend. On the other hand, an employee with a strong financial need (perhaps because of a large family) would be expected to attend if attendance was financially rewarded. Using an expectancy theory framework, Morgan and Herman (1976) found that absence was strongly associated with the anticipated achievement of off-the-job social outcomes and leisure time.

Absence is viewed as an "organizational" behavior. In most regular employment, workers enter into a quasi-contractual exchange of a fixed quota of time to fulfill organizational goals for a schedule of rewards. Within this framework, unscheduled absence becomes deviant behavior in relation to organizational efficiency (Johns and Nicholson, 1982). For schools absences result in inefficiency of both instructional and management time.

People bring to their jobs certain expectations regarding the amount of their salary, the quality of the working conditions, the fairness of company policies and practices, and of the kind of person their supervisor should be. These are the extrinsic factors which are different than expectations associated with self-fulfillment. In this respect, a person may well be described as an economic man. He feels he has made a bargain with the company; his time, work, efforts, and energy in exchange for a certain amount of money or other external rewards (Wernimont, 1966).

Many have been interested in job satisfaction as a result of a personal value system which assumes that work which enables satisfaction of one's needs furthers the dignity of the human individual, whereas work without these characteristics limits the development of personal potential and is, therefore, to be negatively valued. Thus, it is important to examine these issues in order to improve the work experience of individuals as an end in itself. Social scientists have been interested in this concept because of evidence that has been linked to the degree of satisfaction with work to the quality of one's life outside the work role - especially one's physical and mental health. Still others were motivated to study job satisfaction out of a desire to improve productivity and organizational functioning by improving the quality of work experiences of employees. While these concerns have their bases in different perspectives, they share the recognition of the importance

of the job in the total life experience of the individual and the desirability of a positive work experience (Kalleberg, 1977).

Behavior Modification and Absenteeism

Rewards

Several studies in the 1970's dealt with the issue of absenteeism by the use of concepts addressed under the heading of organizational learning and reinforcement. Much of the literature is based on Skinner's (1953) concept of operant conditioning, which can be defined as, "shaping behavior through systematic application of rewards" (Carlson & Hill, 1982, p. 63).

A few studies have reported on the impact of operant conditioning and gaming on attendance to demonstrate the contribution of this concept. Stephens and Burroughs (1978), Robertson, Johnson, and Bethke (1980), Nord (1970), Wallin and Johnson (1976), and Pedalino and Gamboa (1974) all evaluated some type of gaming technique designed to impact attendance. Wallin and Johnson (1976) and Pedalino and Gamboa (1974) all used a lottery-based reward system to reduce employee absences. Both of these studies resulted in improved employee attendance in industrial settings. Robertson, Johnson and Bethke (1980) demonstrated improved attendance in a college classroom by offering a small financial reward for perfect attendance. Stephens and

Burroughs (1978) applied a reward for hospital employees which resulted in improved attendance.

In the Wallin & Johnson (1976) study of an employee lottery to reduce absenteeism, the names of all employees who qualified were listed on the plant bulletin board. Thus, besides monetary rewards, social reinforcement in the form of recognition was also utilized.

Nord (1970) believes that the superior in the superior-subordinate relationship specifies the required behaviors of the subordinates. The behaviors are a function of what the manager perceives as desirable responses. Nord offers the operant conditioning model as an alternative to the Herzberg et al. (1959) theory related to job design. Herzberg suggested "job enrichment" as a strategy for increasing employee motivation (an internal state). Jablonsky and DeVries (1972) suggest Nord would rather ignore the internal state and explain the results suggested by Herzberg in terms of operant conditioning theory. He would translate increased motivation into objectively measurable criteria - higher rates of desired behavior resulting from a program of positive reinforcement.

Organizational theorists have traditionally considered rewards to be primarily those formally administered by the organization, e.g., salary increase, rise in status, or greater span of control. The operational definition of rewards utilized by operant conditioners, i.e., any environmental event which increases probability of subsequent

occurrence of the response it follows, recognizes a wide variety of reinforcing contingencies. Social reinforcement from superiors and peers as well as special privileges have been shown to be positively reinforcing for some individuals. The literature suggests that a variety of environmental contingencies can act as rewards, if they occur on a fairly systematic schedule (Jablonsky & DeVries, 1972).

Lawler & Hackman (cited in Panyan & McGregor, 1976) reported that participation in decision-making by employees was more important in reducing absenteeism than incentive plans, per se. Thus, for some employees, the satisfaction derived from monetary incentives may be marginal. In such cases, systematic recognition, praise, feedback on employee performance, etc., could constitute an incentive program.

Disadvantage of Rewards

A survey of the literature shows that more disadvantages have been cited for rewards than for punishments. This does not necessarily mean that rewards are less effective, since the kind of information that we have is inadequate for comparison. The criticisms that have been voiced, however, should have some value for management people who are considering the use of rewards.

Another common criticism of rewards is that their effects are of short duration, and then the absence rate

starts rising again. As one author remarks, "The only real solution to the problem seems to be in keeping everlastingly at it" (Gaudet, 1963, p. 100). Whether this is true of all reward systems or only of those which might be classified as "gimmicks", it is impossible to say; there are too few cases in which long-range effects are reported.

Finally, there is some little evidence indicating that reward systems may be most effective when the absence rate has been lowered to a reasonable degree by other methods. Neither rewards nor penalties will offset poor personnel policies, nor will they solve the problems of either the chronic absentee or the overconscientious worker (Gaudet, 1963).

Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

If a person feels fully responsible for work outcomes on a meaningful task, but never finds out how well he is performing, it is doubtful that he will experience the internal rewards that can prompt self-generated motivation. Similarly, if he has full knowledge of the results of the work, but experiences the task as trivial (or feels no personal responsibility for the results of the work), internal motivation will not be high (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Rewards

Goodlad (1983) noted that teachers begin working with a

willingness to forego high salaries because they anticipate rewards intrinsic to the work. However, when confronted with the frustration of these expectations, the fact that they sometimes are paid less than the bus drivers who bring their students to school becomes a considerable source of dissatisfaction. But there are a number of successful U.S. corporations such as International Business Machines, Hewlett-Packard, and Intel that organize their personnel practices around a very different set of values. They nurture cooperation and support among employees and emphasize the superordinate (non-monetary) goals of the organization. Such companies sustain the efforts of even the most average employee with an array of non-monetary and monetary incentives for both "small wins" and "major triumphs." They promote commitment to one's unit rather than to oneself by stressing and rewarding group achievements. The emphasis on group goals over individual incentives is consistent with what we know about the need for cooperation in improving schools. Good schools are more than congregations of good teachers. They are organizations in which the participants share purposes, values, and the determination to succeed - together (Johnson, 1984).

In schools, the range of extrinsic rewards available to teachers is narrower than in most organizations. Included as extrinsic rewards are salary, prestige and power. Salary in public educational institutions usually increases with the number of college credits and tenure in the school

district, and salary is rarely directly related to the quality of performance in the classroom. There is little differentiation of roles in teaching and therefore little differentiation in prestige or formal status. Power, too, is distributed in a general manner creating little differential in formal power from teacher to teacher (Spuck, 1974). As Lortie (1975) concluded from a study of elementary school teachers, intrinsic rewards may be much more meaningful as motivators than extrinsic rewards, since they are related to the effort the teacher makes to obtain them.

Spuck (1974) reports on the reward system in schools as follows:

Most public educational institutions utilize a reward pattern which disallows the direct application of extrinsic rewards to teachers on the basis of performance. Extrinsic rewards are distributed to all employees in a similar fashion. With extrinsic rewards being applied in a general way, it is not surprising that they play little role in influencing employee behaviors once they join the educational system.

With the influence of extrinsic rewards mediated by the general manner of their application and the role of environmental rewards remaining relatively constant over time, intrinsic rewards apparently grow in importance as behavior motivators. The traditional view of individual rewards as being extrinsic may not hold in educational organizations. Those rewards in educational institutions which are most related to individual performance are intrinsic in nature.

Supervisors do not have the ability to directly control those rewards valued by their subordinates. The school administrator also has this problem. The most powerful incentives, intrinsic rewards, are controlled by the teacher's peers, the teacher's students and the teachers themselves.

The key to motivating employee behaviors is in understanding desired rewards and providing for these needs to be met in pursuit of organizational goals (pp. 32, 33).

Personal Characteristics of Absentees

Morgan and Herman (1976) suggested that employees decide whether or not to attend work based on the deterrent and motivating consequences of being absent. However, demographic factors also play a role in employee absence.

Age

Age has been shown to influence the rate of employee absence, although the results have been mixed. While some studies have indicated a steady increase of absence from younger to older workers (i.e., a positive relationship), others have found the existence of a curvilinear relationship, in which older or younger employees were absent more than middle-aged workers, a negative relationship, or no relationship at all. In general, it appears that for illness absence, the older the employee, the higher the absence; but for total absences, the younger the employee, the higher the absence (ERS, 1980).

Gender

In a study of 466 secondary school teachers, women were shown to have more frequent absences than men, but men tended to be absent for longer periods so that total absence

occurrences were not significantly different (Scott & McClellan, 1990). Garrison and Muchinsky (1977) found that female while-collar workers had significantly more paid absences than males, yet there was no correlation between gender and unpaid absence. In a study of employee absence in Dade County, Florida, public schools, female teachers took approximately 70 percent of their sick and personal leave, where male teachers took about 30 percent.

Bamber (1979) stated that female teachers had poorer records than male and noted that female students in most grades had poorer attendance records than boys, although the stereotype of the truant is male.

Educational Research Service (1980) reported on 20 studies of male vs. female absences in an educational setting. Although 15 of these studies reported more absences for female teachers than male teachers, five studies reported no differences, and none reported male teachers being absent more frequently than females, they felt a caveat was necessary. They said:

Although research findings appear to link sex and absenteeism, care should be taken in interpreting these findings. The U.S. Department of Labor, which has published major studies on employee absenteeism, warns that other factors may influence the sex-absenteeism relationship, such as age, marital status, and occupation. Occupation is especially critical to this relationship. Traditionally more females have been new hires in the lower skilled, lower pay positions, two factors regularly associated with relatively high rates of absence (p. 30).

Marital Status and Children

Research has not consistently found a relationship between absence and an employee's marital status.

Capitan et al. (1980) reported on a study conducted by the Ohio Association of School Personnel Administrators. It was found that married female teachers were more likely to be absent, not only for their own illness, but for the illness of their children. He observed that this may be due to sex role stereotypes or may simply be that it is easier for a working educator wife to qualify for sick leave for this purpose than for the working non-educator husband.

Meisenheimer (1990) reported that mothers of young children have a very high absence rate. Among married mothers, 11.5 percent of those whose youngest child was preschool age were absent from work during an average week in 1989. Married fathers, in contrast, had very low absence rate - 3.8 percent for those with preschoolers.

Tenure

Educational Research Service (1980) reported on 11 studies conducted on teacher absenteeism that included tenure as a variable. Four studies showed a positive correlation between tenure and absences, one showed a negative correlation, one a curvilinear, and five showed no correlation. This is approximately the same proportion reported in non-education settings. It appears that the findings are

too varied to support a relationship between tenure and absence.

Level of Teaching

In almost every case, research has found that elementary teachers have higher rates of absence than secondary teachers. Educational Research Service (1980) reported on studies conducted in California, Ohio, Minnesota, Kansas, Texas, Pennsylvania, Florida, and Illinois for periods between 1959 and 1977 in which elementary teachers were found to be absent more than secondary teachers.

Average Class Size

Additional workload was one of five variables that formed a "predictive profile" of an absent-prone teacher in a study completed in 1976 by Steven Douglas (as cited in ERS, 1980, p. 75). Stress, which could be partially attributed to greater numbers of students, appears to be a significant factor among teachers who experience excessive absenteeism from work (Evans, V. and Others, 1986).

Summary

Gibson (1966) and Steers and Rhodes (1978) have developed models which attempt to provide additional insight into the causes of employee absenteeism.

Gibson's early representation focuses on three concepts that are involved in the employee's basic "work or not to

work" question: (1) the life space of an individual, which is needs-oriented; (2) the organizational space of the employer, which is goal-oriented; and (3) the work space, which links the individual employee to the organization by means of a formal or informal contract.

Based on an extensive review of the research on employee absenteeism, the Steers and Rhodes model suggests that employee attendance is affected by both an employee's motivation and ability to attend work. The six motivational influences include the job situation, satisfaction with the job situation, employee values and job expectations, personal employee characteristics, pressures to attend work, and attendance motivation. These six influences, combined with the ability to attend, act on the final attendance/absence decision.

Certain factors may stimulate attendance for some employees but not others. Some of the variables seem to be directly related to attendance (e.g., a very satisfied employee probably would want to attend work strongly): other variables, such as personal health, appear to act as a "gatekeeper function" and are not directly related to attendance (e.g., a very healthy employee may not necessarily attend work because other factors may have a greater effect on the attendance decision) Steers and Rhodes (1978).

In view of such diverse, and often conflicting, reports on the causes of employee absenteeism, it would appear that in the final analysis some type of personal value system may

be the deciding factor on whether or not an employee will attend work or be absent on a certain day. This would explain why some employees will choose to remain away from the workplace when they are capable of attending and others will attend work when they have personal illness or other legitimate obligations which could prevent them from attending work.

A part of this study will examine personal values of individuals to ascertain if these personal values affect employee attendance.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between selected teachers' value system, job satisfaction, and personal factors with their attendance behavior. This chapter will be devoted to the methods and procedures which were used to assess these relationships. The chapter will be divided into the following sections: (1) research questions, (2) instrumentation, (3) sample, (4) data collection, (5) analysis of data, and (6) summary.

Research Questions

The questions to be answered by this study were:

1. What is the relationship between job satisfaction and work attendance?
2. What is the relationship between personal values and work attendance?
3. What is the relationship between personal factors and work attendance?

Instrumentation

The three areas of focus for this study were teachers' job satisfaction, personal value system, and personal factors. Two instruments, plus selected personal factors, were combined to measure these variables.

Instrument Number 1 - Job Satisfaction

A form of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), developed by J. Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham, was used to ascertain job satisfaction. This form of the JDS provides the following specific measures of the respondent's reactions to his or her work (Hackman and Oldham, 1974):

A. Job dimensions

1. Task significance - The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people.
2. Autonomy - The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion of the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.
3. Feedback from the job itself - The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.
4. Feedback from agents - The degree to which the employee receives clear information about his or her performance from supervisors or from co-workers.
5. Dealing with others - The degree to which the job requires the employee to work closely with other people.

- B. Affective reactions to the job
1. General satisfaction - an overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job.
 2. Internal work motivation - The degree to which the employee is self-motivated to perform effectively on the job.
 3. Specific satisfactions - A number of short scales which provide separate measures of satisfaction with:
 - a. job security
 - b. pay and other compensation
 - c. peers and co-workers (social satisfaction)
 - d. supervision
 - e. opportunities for personal growth and development on the job

Refinement of the Job Diagnostic Survey. The JDS has undergone three major revisions. In its various development forms, it has been taken by over 1500 individuals working on more than 100 different jobs in about 15 different organizations.

Revisions were based on both psychometric and substantive considerations. Items were added, deleted, and revised in format to maximize scale reliabilities and at the same time refinement analyses were used to assess the conceptual validity of the theory on which the instrument was based. The data collected were used to refine the theory simultaneously with the improvement of the instrument itself (Hackman and Oldham, 1974, p. 8).

Reliability. The internal consistency reliabilities range from a high of .88 (growth need strength) to a low of .56 (social satisfaction). Median off-diagonal correlations are also reported. The median off-diagonal correlation is the median correlation of the items scored on a given scale with all the items scored on different scales of the same type. The median off-diagonal correlations range from .12 (task identity) to .28 (growth satisfaction).

In general, the results suggest that both the internal consistency reliability of the scales and the discriminate validity of the items are satisfactory (Hackman and Oldham, 1974).

Validity. Summary scores derived from the instrument have been shown to have substantive validity. In general, the variables measured by the JDS relate to one another and to external criterion variables as predicted by the theory on which the instrument is based. Intercorrelations among JDS scale scores across 658 respondents range from .15 to .66 with correlations $>.10$ being significant at the .01 level (Hackman & Oldham, 1974).

Instrument Number 2 - Personal Values

To measure personal commitment to attend work (values), questions developed and tested by Daniel R. Ilgen and John H. Hollenback (1977) from Purdue University were used. The values scales consists of 7 items. When these scales were

used by Ilgen and Hollenback, test-retest reliabilities were obtained for two 6-month intervals. The average correlations across the 6-month time interval were $r = .69$ for value system pressure and $r = .53$ for co-worker pressure (Ilgen & Hollenback, 1977). Ilgen and Hollenback did not report validity statistics for the instrument.

Personal Factors

Personal factors were measured using biographical information. These included: (1) number of children and four separate age categories, (2) marital status, and (3) family income before taxes. These biographical questions were considered indicative of family pressure and economic pressure to attend work. Additional biographical data on the survey included age and gender.

Situational data included number of years in the teaching field, number of consecutive years in current district, level of teaching (elementary, grades K-5, and secondary, grades 6-12). In addition, the number of students in the elementary teaching assignment or the average class size for secondary teaching assignments were included.

All of this information was used to determine absence patterns of younger vs. older teachers, male vs. female teachers, teachers who are new to teaching vs. those who have taught several years, elementary vs. secondary

teachers, and teachers teaching large classes vs. teachers teaching smaller classes.

Absence Measures

Although more than forty different measures of absenteeism have been identified, Muchinsky (1977) concluded that the "single most vexing problem associated with absenteeism as a meaningful concept involves the metric or measure of absenteeism" (p. 317). Of the possible measures that have been identified, the most commonly used are measure of magnitude (total days absent over some time period), measures of simple frequency (the number of absence events over some time period), and measures of duration (the length of absence events).

Huse and Taylor (1962) conducted a two-year study of 393 truck drivers to determine the reliability of four absence measures. These measure were (1) absence frequency - total number of times absent; (2) absence severity - total number of days absent; (3) attitudinal absences - frequency of 1-day absences; and (4) medical absences - frequency of absences of 3 days or longer.

Data obtained in the study were analyzed by an intercorrelation matrix for the four different absence measures computed over a two-year period using product-moment correlation coefficients. The results of this study showed that total absence frequency had the highest reliability at .61. Attitudinal absences had a reliability

of .52, while severity and medical absences had reliabilities of .23 and .19 respectively. Huse and Taylor concluded that the reliability of medical absences and absence severity makes them suspect for use as criterion variables, whereas the reliability of both attitudinal absences and absence frequency was sufficiently high that either could be used as a criterion. Chadwick-Jones, Brown, Nicholson and Sheppard (1971) made similar conclusions in their study of 318 employees from all departments of a large manufacturing factory. They found the reliability coefficient of the frequency index to be significant at the .01 level and the attitudinal index at the .05 level.

Hammer and Landau (1981) studied the methodological issues in the use of absence data and concluded that frequency indices were more stable than time-lost measures, which tended to fluctuate considerably over time. Similar conclusions have been reached by Covner and Smith (1951), Muchinsky (1977), and Johns (1978). Vroom (1964) also suggested that the number of incidents of absence be used rather than the number of days.

Both indices suffer from some measurement problems. Measuring absences in terms of their frequency, without regard to length, equates a one-day absence with a one-week absence. Measuring absences in terms of time lost is insensitive to voluntary absences, as both voluntary and involuntary absences are treated as time lost. However, because of the many studies showing the greater reliability

of absence frequency, that is the measure that was used in this study.

For the purposes of this study a computer-generated list of all certified teaching staff in a single public school system was used. This list contained the name of every certified teacher, each absence for that teacher, the coded reason for the absence, and the individual school site of the teacher. Absences were listed for each absence from the first reporting day of the 1991-92 school year through the third 9-week period, or a total of 132 teaching days. The reason for each absence was coded using the school district's codes for absentee reporting (Table I).

TABLE I
ABSENTEE CODES FOR CERTIFIED PERSONNEL

01 Sick Leave, Personal 02 Sick Leave, Family 04* Funeral Leave, Spouse, Child, Mother, Father and Corresponding In-Laws (with pay) 05* Funeral Leave, Brother, Sister, Grandparents and Corresponding In-Laws (with pay) 06 Vacation Time (with pay) 07 Administrative Leave *Specify Relationship	08 Extended leave of Absence (without pay) 09 School Activity, School Business (with pay) 10 Other Leave (without pay) 11 Personal Leave (Approved, with pay) 12 Personal Leave (Approved, sub-deduct) 13 Jury Duty Court 14 Workers Compensation 15 Association Leave (with sub-deduct) 17 Professional Leave (with sub-deduct) 18 Administrative Professional (with pay) 19 Military Leave
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Any absence coded 01, Sick Leave, Personal; 02, Sick Leave, Family; 04, Funeral Leave, Spouse, Child, Mother, Father and corresponding In-Laws (with pay); 05, Funeral

Leave, Brother, Sister, Grandparents and corresponding In-Laws (with pay); 07, Administrative Leave; 08, Extended Leave of Absence (without pay); 10, Other Leave (without pay); 11, Personal Leave (approved, with pay); 12, Personal Leave (approved, sub-deduct); 14, Workers Compensation; and 15, Association Leave (with sub-deduct) was counted as an absence. Any uninterrupted absence, regardless of length of time, charged to any of these codes was considered an absence. This measures absence frequency rather than absence severity.

Absences coded 06, Vacation Time (with pay); 09, School Activity, School Business (with pay); 13, Jury Duty, Court; 17, Professional Leave (with sub-deduct); 18, Administrative Professional (with pay); and 19, Military Leave were not counted as absences for the purpose of this study. These absences reflect school-related activities or absences over which the employee had no control.

Sample Selection

An integral part of this study was the ability of the researcher to study the personnel files of the subjects. For this reason the study was confined to one large suburban district of 875 certified teachers. The district is composed of 13 elementary schools (grades K-5), four middle schools (grades 6-8), two intermediate high schools (grades 9-10, and one high school (grades 11-12). The sample population consisted of 146 male teachers and 729 female

teachers; 335 elementary teachers and 540 secondary teachers. Bachelors degrees are held by 565 teachers, 307 hold a masters degree and 3 teachers hold a doctors degree.

The district used for this study has a highly stable history and has had only 4 superintendents during its existence. The current superintendent has held this position for 18 years. The teaching staff is also stable, with the average years of experience for teachers in this district 10.24 years.

Teachers in this district have been represented by a professional teachers organization since 1973 and collective bargaining is the method used to negotiate teachers' salaries, fringe benefits, and working conditions. Negotiations have been predominately congenial; however, negotiations have gone to impasse several times since 1973 and did go to impasse the year of this study.

Leave policies are included as negotiated items. The negotiated agreement allows for paid leave for teachers to attend and/or present at conferences and workshops and this type of leave is granted on an individual basis.

This sample was deemed appropriate for this study.

Van Dalen (1966) stated "...no specific rules on how to obtain an adequate sample have been formulated, for each situation presents its own problems." Gay (1987) states:

In general, the minimum number of subjects believed to be acceptable for a study depends upon the type of research involved. For descriptive research, a sample of 10% of the population is considered minimum. For smaller populations, 20%

may be required. For correlational studies at least 30 subjects are needed to establish the existence or nonexistence of a relationship. If it is at all possible to use more subjects, you should do so (pp. 114-115).

Because the intent of this study was to examine the relationship between personal values, job satisfaction and personal characteristics with teacher absenteeism, the appropriate sample consisted of two groups of teachers. One group consisted of teachers with a high rate of absences and the second group consisted of teachers with a low rate of absences (Table II).

TABLE II
SURVEYED POPULATION

	Group 1.000 High Absence	Group 0.000 Low Absence	Total
Men	7	33	40
Elementary	1	3	4
Secondary	6	30	36
Women	88	65	153
Elementary	64	33	97
Secondary	<u>24</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>56</u>
Total	95 (95)	98 (98)	193 (193)

Absences for each certified teacher from the selected school district were calculated using the appropriate codes from the computer list of certified teachers. These absences occurred during the first 132 days of the 1991-92 school year. An analysis of the absences revealed 95 teachers with ten or more absences and 98 teachers with no more than one absence. Teachers with ten or more absences for the study period were used as the group of high-absence teachers and teachers with no more than one absence for the study period were used as the group of low-absence teachers.

Every individual building in the selected district was represented by both the high absence and low absence groups, with the exception of one elementary building which had no representatives in the low absence group. In addition, special traveling teachers (i.e., Chapter I reading and math specialists) were not represented in the high absence group.

Pilot Study

On April 13, 1992, questionnaires were distributed to 15 administrators from the selected school district. Fourteen questionnaires were returned. Each administrator reported to the researcher the amount of time required to complete the survey. The time required ranged from a low of six minutes to a high of 15 minutes with 10 minutes being the average time needed to complete the survey.

Four corrections or clarifications were noted on the returned surveys from the pilot study. These corrections

and clarifications were made before the distribution of the questionnaires to the sample population.

Data Collection

Two types of data were needed to conduct this study. The first type of data was the absence frequency for each teacher in the selected school district during the first 132 days of the 1991-92 school year. The second type of data consisted of responses to instruments dealing with the job satisfaction, personal value system, and personal characteristics of the selected sample for the study.

Absence frequencies were obtained by using a computer list containing the name of each certified teacher for the selected school district. Absences on the computer list were coded to indicate the reason for the absence. These codes were analyzed and absences for any reason other than vacation, school activity, jury duty, professional leave, administrative professional, or military leave were calculated to determine the absence frequency for each teacher. Teachers with 10 or more absences during the first 132 days of the 1991-92 school year became the high-absence group and teachers with no more than one absence during the 1991-92 school year became the low absence group.

Each principal in the selected district was hand delivered two groups of questionnaires (Appendix B) on May 5, 1992. Each questionnaire was coded to indicate if the respondent was from the high or low absence group. The

questionnaires were separated for each principal and he or she was given the name of the individual teacher to receive a questionnaire from the appropriate group. In addition, each principal was given a letter of instruction with a copy for the school secretary (Appendix A).

The questionnaires were completed by the respondents and returned to the school secretary who then forwarded them to the researcher. The completed questionnaires were returned through interoffice mail by the school secretary. The distribution and return of the questionnaires via the principal and secretary guaranteed anonymity of the respondents.

One hundred twenty-two questionnaires were returned by May 17, 1992. On May 18, 1992 a follow-up memorandum was sent directly to each selected teacher (Appendix A). An additional fourteen questionnaires were received after the follow-up memorandum. The usable return rate from Group 1.000 (High absence) was 68% and from Group 0.000 (Low absence) was 69% (Table III).

TABLE III
SURVEYS RETURNED

	Group 1.000 High Absence	Group 0.000 Low Absence
Surveys Sent	95	98
Useable Surveys Returned	65	68
Percentage Useable Surveys Returned	68%	69%

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using a Descriptive Analysis procedure. A Systat Version 5.01 computer program was used for the analysis. To check credibility of the findings, the descriptive analysis included Wilks' Λ (Lambda), Chi-Square Statistic, Canonical Correlations, and a Predictability Frequency. Independent Sample t-tests were also run to compare group differences.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the research questions to be answered, discussed the instruments which were used in the study, including validity and reliability of the instruments, explained how the sample population was selected, and described how data were collected and analyzed for the study.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher absenteeism and its relationship to areas of job satisfaction, personal values and various personal characteristics. The purpose of this chapter was to describe and analyze the data collected from the questionnaires sent to 193 teachers during the 1991-1992 school year.

The sample population consisted of teachers in one Oklahoma public school district. Absence data for all teachers in the district were examined to determine total number of absences for each teacher. Absences due to school business, jury duty, professional leave, administrative professional, or military duty were not included in the total absences. All other codes were counted as absences. Teachers were then placed in one of two groups depending on total absence frequency. One sample group consisted of teachers with no or one absence. The second sample group consisted of teachers with 10 or more absences. Absences were calculated for the first 132 days of the 1991-1992 school year.

Data obtained from the teacher questionnaire containing Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey, Ilgen and Hollenback's Personal Values Scales, and personal demographic information will be reported first in this chapter. A short summary will conclude the chapter.

Presentation of Data

Job Diagnostic Survey

Sections 1 and 2 of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Appendix B) measured the job dimensions of task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job itself, feedback from agents, and dealing with others.

Section 1 consists of seven questions and Section 2 consists of 11 questions to which the subjects were to respond on a scale of 1 (low significance) to 7 (high significance). Scores were obtained in the following manner:

- A. Task Significance - averaging the scores from Section 1 question 5 and Section 2, questions 5 and 11 (reverse scored).
- B. Autonomy - averaging the scores from Section 1 question 2 and Section 2 questions 10 and 6 (reverse scored).
- C. Feedback from the job itself - averaging the scores from Section 1 question 7 and Section 2 questions 1 and 9 (reverse scored).
- D. Feedback from agents - averaging the scores from Section 1 question 6 and Section 2 questions 7 and 4 (reverse scored).

- E. Dealing with others - averaging the scores from Section 1 question 1 and Section 2 question 3 (reverse scored).

Section 3 of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Appendix B) measured general satisfaction and internal work motivation. Possible range of scores was 1 (low significance) to 7 (high significance). Scores were obtained in the following manner:

- A. General satisfaction - averaging the scores from questions 2, 6, and 4 (reverse scored).
- B. Internal work motivation - averaging the scores from questions 1, 3, 5, and 7 (reverse scored).

Section 4 of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Appendix B) measured several specific satisfactions. Possible range of scores was 1 (low significance) to 7 (high significance). Satisfactions measured were:

- A. Pay satisfaction - score obtained by averaging items 2 and 9.
- B. Security satisfaction - score obtained by averaging items 1 and 11.
- C. Social satisfaction - score obtained by averaging items 4, 7, and 12.
- D. Supervisory satisfaction - score obtained by averaging items 5, 8, and 14.
- E. Growth satisfaction - score obtained by averaging items 3, 6, 10, and 13.

In addition, total items for each of Sections 1, 2, 3, and 4 were analyzed for significance.

- A. Section 1 - Each item of section 1 was averaged for the significance of working closely with other people. This is reported on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) as "Onetot."

- B. Section 2 - Each item of section 2 was averaged for the significance of how the respondent described his or her job. This is reported on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) as "Descrjob."
- C. Section 3 - Each item of section 3 was averaged for the significance of how the respondent personally feels about his or her job. This is reported on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) as "Personal."
- D. Section 4 - Each item on section 4 was averaged for the significance of how satisfied the respondent was with all aspects of his or her job listed on the questionnaire. This is reported on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) as "Howsatis."

Personal Values

Included in Section 5 of the questionnaire (Appendix B) were seven items from the Personal Values Scales by Ilgen and Hollenback (1977). These items measured the respondent's personal commitment to attend work. They were scored individually and averaged for a personal value/absenteeism relationship. Items 2, 6, and 7 were reverse scored. Again, possible range of scores was 1 (low significance) to 7 (high significance).

Personal Characteristics

Section 6 of the questionnaire (Appendix B) contains items pertaining to personal characteristics of the respondents. These items were scored individually. The number of respondents and percent in each category are reported in Table IV.

TABLE IV
PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Variable	Low Absence	High Absence	Total	Percent
<u>Age:</u>				
Less than 25	5	1	6	.04
26-24	12	18	30	.23
35-44	28	34	62	.47
45-54	20	11	31	.23
55-65	3	1	4	.03
<u>Gender:</u>				
Male	20	1	21	.16
Female	48	64	112	.84
<u>Years Taught:</u>				
1-5	15	6	21	.16
6-10	13	20	33	.25
11-20	30	34	64	.48
21-30	9	5	14	.11
31-40	1	0	1	.00
over 40	0	0	0	.00
<u>Years Taught in District:</u>				
1-5	32	17	49	.37
6-10	16	26	42	.32
11-20	19	21	40	.30
21-30	1	1	2	.01
31-40	0	0	0	.00
over 40	0	0	0	.00
<u>Marital Status:</u>				
Single	5	8	13	.10
Married	59	46	105	.79
Divorced or Separated	4	11	15	.11
<u>Number of Children:</u>				
None	15	7	22	.17
One	10	15	25	.19
Two	29	31	60	.45
Three	13	9	22	.17
Four	1	2	3	.02
More than Four	0	1	1	.00

TABLE IV (Continued)

Variable	Low Absence	High Absence	Total	Percent
<u>*Ages of Children:</u>				
Preschool	7	23	30	*
Grades K-5	15	20	35	*
Grades 6-10	22	21	43	*
College or Adult	31	16	47	*
*Will total more than N because of multiple children				
<u>Level:</u>				
Elementary	32	47	79	.59
Secondary	36	18	54	.41
<u>Average Class Size:</u>				
Less than 20	20	14	34	.25
20-25	29	37	66	.50
26-30	15	10	25	.19
More than 30	4	4	8	.06
<u>Family Income:</u>				
\$15,000-20,000	4	4	8	.06
21,000-30,000	11	12	23	.17
31,000-40,000	15	7	22	.17
41,000-50,000	12	13	25	.19
Over 50,000	26	29	55	.41

Instrument Analysis

The Job Diagnostic Survey, Personal Values, and Personal Characteristics were analyzed using discriminate analysis, a form of multiple regression where the dependent variable is categorical. Discriminate analysis permits the treatment of variables jointly and analytically which

produces a linear composition that maximally discriminates between the groups (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Weights are applied to the scores on the variables to produce a discriminate score for each subject, and these scores are such as to maximize the F ratio of between-/within-group mean squares in a simple anova. The basic idea of discriminate analysis is to find a set of weights, V , by which to weight the scores of each individual so that the ratio of B (between-group) to W (within-groups) is maximized, thereby leading to maximum discrimination among the groups (Pedhazzer, 1982). Discriminate analysis is a backward selection process where all variables were included in the initial screening.

Further statistics used to analyze the data included t-tests, analysis of variance, Wilks' Λ (Lambda), Chi-square significance, and group membership predictability.

T-test

Each variable was analyzed using a t-test to compare the differences between the means of the two groups (Table V.)

TABLE V

T-TESTS

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		ABSFEEL	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	4.884	0.871		
0.000	68	5.292	0.585		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-3.162	DF = 111.3	PROB =	0.002
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-3.189	DF = 131	PROB =	0.002
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		AGENTFEE	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	4.564	1.393		
0.000	68	5.039	1.247		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-2.069	DF = 127.9	PROB =	0.041
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-2.075	DF = 131	PROB =	0.040
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		COLL-AD	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	0.262	0.443		
0.000	68	0.441	0.500		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-2.195	DF = 130.2	PROB =	0.030
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-2.189	DF = 131	PROB =	0.030
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		LEVEL	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	1.323	0.615		
0.000	68	1.735	0.803		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-3.331	DF = 125.1	PROB =	0.001
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-3.312	DF = 131	PROB =	0.001
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		PAY	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	2.008	0.966		
0.000	68	2.632	1.530		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-2.828	DF = 113.8	PROB =	0.006
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-2.801	DF = 131	PROB =	0.006
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		PRESCH	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	0.292	0.458		
0.000	68	0.103	0.306		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		2.789	DF = 110.9	PROB =	0.006
POOLED VARIANCES T =		2.813	DF = 131	PROB =	0.006

TABLE V (Continued)

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		SECURITY	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.908	0.785		
0.000	68	5.522	1.348		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		2.027 DF = 108.7 PROB =			0.045
POOLED VARIANCES T =		2.004 DF = 131 PROB =			0.047
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		GENDER	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	1.985	0.124		
0.000	68	1.706	0.459		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		4.826 DF = 77.2 PROB =			0.000
POOLED VARIANCES T =		4.732 DF = 131 PROB =			0.000
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		AUTONOMY	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.626	0.908		
0.000	68	5.877	0.641		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-1.840 DF = 114.6 PROB =			0.068
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-1.854 DF = 131 PROB =			0.066
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		DEALOTHR	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.969	1.000		
0.000	68	6.235	0.979		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-1.550 DF = 130.4 PROB =			0.124
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-1.551 DF = 131 PROB =			0.123
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		DESCRJOB	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.596	0.598		
0.000	68	5.722	0.597		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-1.217 DF = 130.7 PROB =			0.226
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-1.217 DF = 131 PROB =			0.226
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		GENSATIS	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	6.338	0.663		
0.000	68	6.368	0.677		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.251 DF = 130.9 PROB =			0.802
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.251 DF = 131 PROB =			0.802

TABLE V (Continued)

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		GROWTH	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.881	0.774		
0.000	68	5.897	0.824		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.117 DF = 113.0 PROB =			0.907
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.117 DF = 131 PROB =			0.907
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		HOWSATIS	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.312	0.633		
0.000	68	5.388	0.755		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.626 DF = 128.8 PROB =			0.532
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.623 DF = 131 PROB =			0.534
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		INTERMOT	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	3.642	0.498		
0.000	68	3.555	0.348		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		1.165 DF = 113.9 PROB =			0.246
POOLED VARIANCES T =		1.174 DF = 131 PROB =			0.242
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		JOBFEED	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.651	1.001		
0.000	68	5.652	0.803		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.004 DF = 122.6 PROB =			0.997
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.004 DF = 131 PROB =			0.997
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		ONETOT	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	5.741	0.554		
0.000	68	5.744	0.474		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.034 DF = 125.9 PROB =			0.973
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.034 DF = 131 PROB =			0.973
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		PERSONAL	GROUPED BY		GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD		
1.000	65	4.798	0.397		
0.000	68	4.761	0.386		
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		0.549 DF = 130.3 PROB =			0.584
POOLED VARIANCES T =		0.550 DF = 131 PROB =			0.584

TABLE V (Continued)

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		SOCIAL	GROUPED BY	GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD	
1.000	65	5.959	0.859	
0.000	68	6.034	0.805	
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.522	DF = 129.4	PROB = 0.603
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.522	DF = 131	PROB = 0.602
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		SUPERVIS	GROUPED BY	GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD	
1.000	65	5.713	1.237	
0.000	68	5.809	1.159	
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		-0.461	DF = 129.6	PROB = 0.645
POOLED VARIANCES T =		-0.462	DF = 131	PROB = 0.645
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON		TASKSIG	GROUPED BY	GROUP
GROUP	N	MEAN	SD	
1.000	65	6.554	0.633	
0.000	68	6.436	0.747	
SEPARATE VARIANCES T =		0.981	DF = 129.1	PROB = 0.328
POOLED VARIANCES T =		0.977	DF = 131	PROB = 0.330

An F-max statistical procedure was run to determine homogeneity of variances (F-Max = 2.949). Because there was no homogeneity of variance, the pooled variance t-test probability figures were used.

The t was statistically significant ($p < .05$) for the following personal factor variables:

Gender ($t = 4.732$, $df = 131$, $p = 0.000$)

Preschool children ($t = 2.813$, $df = 131$, $p = 0.006$)

College or adult children ($t = -2.189$, $df = 131$, $p = 0.030$)

Level ($t = -3.312$, $df = 131$, $p = 0.001$)

The personal factors that were found to be statistically significant were analyzed further to determine group differences.

It was determined that females are absent more frequently than males (Table VI).

TABLE VI
ABSENCE OF MALES AND FEMALES

Total Number Returned 133

Males	21	16%
Females	<u>112</u>	<u>84%</u>
Returned	133	100%

Total Females 112

Female High absence	64	57%
Female Low absence	<u>48</u>	<u>43%</u>
	112	100%

Total Males 21

Males High absence	1	5%
Males Low absence	<u>20</u>	<u>95%</u>
	21	100%

Teachers with preschool students are absent more frequently than teachers with college or adult children (Table VII).

TABLE VII
 ABSENCE OF TEACHERS WITH PRESCHOOL
 AND COLLEGE OR ADULT AGE CHILDREN

	High Absence	Low Absence
Preschool Children 30	23 (77%)	7 (23%)
College or Adult Children 47	16 (34%)	31 (66%)

Elementary teachers are absent more frequently than secondary teachers (Table VIII).

TABLE VIII
 LEVEL OF TEACHING

Total returns 133					
Level					
	Elementary	79		59%	
	Secondary	<u>54</u>		<u>41%</u>	
		133		100%	
Elementary			Secondary		
Low Absence Group	32	41%	Low Absence Group	36	67%
High Absence Group	<u>47</u>	<u>59%</u>	High Absence Group	<u>18</u>	<u>33%</u>
	79	100%		54	100%

In addition to the personal factor variables, the following satisfaction variables were found to be significant:

Security ($t = 2.004$, $df 131$, $p 0.047$)

Agent (supervisor) feedback ($t = -2.075$, $df 131$, $p 0.040$)

One hygiene factor was found to be significant:

Pay ($t = -2.801$, $df 131$, $p 0.006$)

The personal values (Absfeel) variable was also significant:

Personal values ($t = -3.189$, $df 131$, $p 0.002$)

There were some notable differences between the mean scores of the groups for some of the variables.

Specifically, the following differences are noted:

	Low Absence Means	High Absence Means	Differences
Absfeel (personal values)	5.292	4.884	.408
Agent (supervisor) feedback	5.039	4.564	.475
Pay	2.632	2.008	.624
Security	5.522	5.908	.386

Discriminate Analysis

The Mean and Standard Deviation was obtained in the initial discriminate analysis containing all variables (Table IX).

TABLE IX
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION
FOR ALL VARIABLES

	Possible Range		Actual Range		Mean	Standard Deviation
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum		
Number of Cases Processed: 133						
Tasksig (Task Significance)	1.00	7.00	4.00	7.00	6.49	0.69
Autonomy	1.00	7.00	2.66	7.00	5.75	0.79
Jobfeed (Feedback from the Job)	1.00	7.00	2.33	7.00	5.65	0.90
Agentfee (Feedback from Supervisors)	1.00	7.00	1.00	7.00	4.80	1.34
Dealoths (Dealing with Others)	1.00	7.00	3.50	7.00	6.11	0.99
Gensatis (General Satisfaction)	1.00	7.00	3.67	7.00	6.35	0.67
Intermot (Internal Motivation)	1.00	7.00	1.25	5.50	3.60	0.43
Pay	1.00	7.00	1.00	7.00	2.33	1.32
Security	1.00	7.00	1.00	7.00	5.71	1.12
Social	1.00	7.00	2.00	7.00	6.00	0.83
Supervis (Supervisor Satisfaction)	1.00	7.00	1.00	7.00	5.76	1.20
Growth	1.00	7.00	3.00	7.00	5.89	0.80
Personal (Total for Personal Feelings)	1.00	7.00	3.43	6.14	4.78	0.39
Howsatis (On Average)	1.00	7.00	2.50	6.86	5.35	0.70
Absfeel (Personal Values)	1.00	7.00	2.14	6.71	5.09	0.76
Descrjob (How Job is Described)	1.00	7.00	4.18	6.91	5.66	0.60
Onetot (How Closely Works with Others)	1.00	7.00	4.00	6.86	5.74	0.51

These means were used in the computation of Estimates of Effects, Standardized Estimate of Effects, Total Sum of Product Matrix, Residual Sum of Product Matrix, Residual Covariance Matrix, Residual Correlation Matrix, Squared Multiple Correlations, Least Square Means, Group 0.000 (low absence), Least Square Means, Group. 1.000 (high absence), Null Hypothesis Contrast AB, Hypothesis Sum of Product Matrix, and Error Sum of Product Matrix. Each of these tests was a further discrimination of data used to narrow probability.

TABLE X
INITIAL UNIVARIATE F TESTS

VARIABLE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
AGE	0.921	1	0.921	1.207	0.274
ERROR	100.011	131	0.763		
GENDER	2.582	1	2.582	22.396	0.000*
ERROR	15.102	131	0.115		
YEARS	0.053	1	0.053	0.065	0.800
ERROR	106.880	131	0.816		
YEARS DIS	1.249	1	1.249	1.644	0.202*
ERROR	99.563	131	0.760		
MARSTAT	0.193	1	0.193	0.946	0.332
ERROR	26.739	131	0.204		
NOCHILD	0.770	1	0.770	0.669	0.415
ERROR	150.793	131	1.151		
PRESCH	1.192	1	1.192	7.914	0.006*
ERROR	19.726	131	0.151		
K-5	0.113	1	0.113	0.540	0.464
ERROR	27.451	131	0.210		
G6-12	0.029	1	0.029	0.132	0.717
ERROR	29.069	131	0.222		
COLL-AD	1.072	1	1.072	4.792	0.030*
ERROR	29.319	131	0.224		

TABLE X (Continued)

VARIABLE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
LEVEL	5.647	1	5.647	10.968	0.001*
ERROR	67.451	131	0.515		
SIZE	0.134	1	0.134	0.202	0.654
ERROR	87.114	131	0.665		
INCOME	0.384	1	0.384	0.220	0.640
ERROR	228.759	131	1.746		
TASKSIG	0.459	1	0.459	0.955	0.330
ERROR	63.008	131	0.481		
AUTONOMY	2.107	1	2.107	3.437	0.066*
ERROR	80.314	131	0.613		
JOBFEED	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	0.997
ERROR	107.303	131	0.819		
AGENTFEE	7.502	1	7.502	4.304	0.040*
ERROR	228.323	131	1.743		
DEALOTHR	2.353	1	2.353	2.404	0.123*
ERROR	128.174	131	0.978		
GENSATIS	0.028	1	0.028	0.063	0.802
ERROR	58.807	131	0.449		
INTERMOT	0.252	1	0.252	1.379	0.242*
ERROR	23.977	131	0.183		
PAY	12.968	1	12.968	7.844	0.006*
ERROR	216.555	131	1.653		
SECURITY	4.942	1	4.942	4.017	0.047*
ERROR	161.163	131	1.230		
SOCIAL	0.189	1	0.189	0.273	0.602
ERROR	90.588	131	0.692		
SUPERVIS	0.306	1	0.306	0.213	0.645
ERROR	188.043	131	1.435		
GROWTH	0.009	1	0.009	0.014	0.907
ERROR	83.918	131	0.641		
PERSONAL	0.046	1	0.046	0.302	0.584
ERROR	20.054	131	0.153		
HOWSATIS	0.190	1	0.190	0.389	0.534
ERROR	63.876	131	0.488		
ABSFEEL	5.546	1	5.546	10.169	0.002*
ERROR	71.442	131	0.545		
DESCRJOB	0.529	1	0.529	1.481	0.226*
ERROR	46.759	131	0.357		
ONETOT	0.000	1	0.000	0.001	0.973
ERROR	34.712	131	0.265		

* p < .25

The variables of age, total years taught, marital status, number of children, children in grades K-5, children in grades 6-12, class size, family income, task significance, job feedback, general satisfaction, social satisfaction, supervisory satisfaction, growth satisfaction, total of how satisfied with job, how the respondent personally felt about the job, how satisfied the respondent was with specific aspects of the job, and how closely the respondent worked with other people had probability factors of $>.25$ and were eliminated from further consideration. The variables of gender, years in the district, preschool children, college-age children, level, autonomy, agent feedback, dealing with others, internal motivation, pay, security, personal values and how the respondent described his or her job had probabilities of $<.25$ and were subjected to further analysis, using the discriminating procedures of dependent variable means, estimates of effects, standardized estimates of effects, total sum of product matrix, residual covariance matrix, residual correlation matrix, squared multiple correlations, least square means, null hypothesis contrast, hypothesis sum of product matrix, and error sum of product matrix. These statistical procedures eliminated years in the district, autonomy, dealing with others, internal motivations, and how the respondent describes his or her job as variables for further consideration. The eliminated variables all had $p >.05$.

The Final Univariate F tests (Table XI) supported the probability of $<.05$ for the variables of gender ($p = 0.000$), preschool children ($p = 0.006$), college age children ($p = 0.030$), level ($p = 0.001$), agent feedback ($p = 0.040$), pay satisfaction ($p = 0.006$), security satisfaction ($p = 0.047$), and personal values ($p = 0.002$).

TABLE XI
FINAL UNIVARIATE F TESTS

VARIABLE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
GENDER	2.582	1	2.582	22.396	0.000
ERROR	15.102	131	0.115		
PRESCH	1.192	1	1.192	7.914	0.006
ERROR	19.726	131	0.151		
COLL-AD	1.072	1	1.072	4.792	0.030
ERROR	29.319	131	0.224		
LEVEL	5.647	1	5.647	10.968	0.001
ERROR	67.451	131	0.515		
AGENTFEE	7.502	1	7.502	4.304	0.040
ERROR	228.323	131	1.743		
PAY	12.968	1	12.968	7.844	0.006
ERROR	216.555	131	1.653		
SECURITY	4.942	1	4.942	4.017	0.047
ERROR	161.163	131	1.230		
ABSFEEL	5.546	1	5.546	10.169	0.002
ERROR	71.442	131	0.545		

Multivariate Test Statistics

Wilks' Λ (Lambda)

The most widely used test of significance in canonical analysis is Bartlett's test of Wilks' Λ (Lambda) (Pedhazer, 1982). A Wilks' Λ (Lambda) statistical procedure (Table XII) was conducted to test for significance. The results indicate that the findings or probability reported in the univariate F tests are statistically significant.

TABLE XII

WILKS' Λ (LAMBDA)

Wilks' Lambda = 0.604

F Statistic = 10.144 DF = 8,124 p = 0.000

Chi-Square Statistic

A Chi-square statistic is used to compare actual values with expected values. It is the main statistic computed from cross tabulation tables. The differences detected are based on counts falling into different categories rather than on measurement and means (Morrison, 1986).

A Chi-square statistical procedure was performed to compare the frequency distribution of responses from the two groups (Table XIII).

TABLE XIII
CHI-SQUARE STATISTIC

Chi-Square Statistic 63.941 DF = 8 Prob. 0.00
(Significance at .05 level = 15.507)

Canonical Correlations

The correlation between two linear combinations is the canonical correlation, also referred to as the canonical variates. The square of the canonical correlation (r^2) is an estimate of the variance shared by the two canonical variates (Pedhazet, 1932). The canonical correlations for this study (Table XIV) show that almost 40% of the variability in group membership is accounted for by the combination of variables.

TABLE XIV
CANONICAL CORRELATIONS

Canonical Correlations

0.629

$r^2 = .3956$

Predictability Factors

In order to predict group membership (high absence group vs. low absence group) for each subject, the figures contained in the Predictability Table (Table XV) were used.

TABLE XV
PREDICTABILITY TABLE

	1	2
	High absence	Low absence
GENDER	17.943	20.853
PRESCH	-0.881	0.490
COLL-AD	1.946	1.466
LEVEL	5.213	4.294
AGENTFEE	1.725	1.503
PAY	-0.244	-0.740
SECURITY	4.561	5.276
ABSFEEL	7.789	6.924
	1	2
	-58.132	-59.668

The numbers found in the table multiplied by the value of the variable results in a factor score. The two factor scores are compared and the largest numerical value is the group to which the individual case most likely belongs.

An examination of the individual cases results in the Frequency Prediction (Table XVI).

TABLE XVI
FREQUENCY PREDICTION

FREQUENCIES	0.000	1.000	Total
Group 0.000	52	16	68
Group 1.000	15	50	65
TOTAL	67	66	133

102 of 133 correctly classified
76.7%

Fifty-two subjects predicted to be in Group 0.000 were in that group and 16 predicted to be in Group 0.000 were in Group 1.000. Fifty subjects predicted to be in Group 1.000 were in that group and 15 were in Group 0.000. One hundred and two subjects from a total of 133 were predicted to be in the group they were in, for a percentage of 76.7% correctly predicted.

Analysis of the Data

An analysis of the data reveals the following:

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

Based upon the Initial Univariate F Test (Table X, p. 70), task significance is not a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.955$ $p = 0.330$).

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

Based upon the Initial Univariate F test (Table X), autonomy was considered for further analysis ($F = 3.437$ $p = 0.066$). However, autonomy was later eliminated as a factor in absenteeism at the intermediate level of statistical analysis.

- C. Feedback from the job itself - The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

Based upon the Initial Univariate F Test (Table X) this factor was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.000$ $p = 0.997$).

- D. Feedback from agents - The degree to which the employee receives information about his or her performance effectiveness from supervisors or from co-workers.

Based upon the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) this factor shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism with $p < .05$ ($F = 4.304$ $p = 0.040$).

- E. Dealing with others - The degree to which the job requires the employee to work closely with other people.

Based upon the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) this factor was considered for further analysis ($F = 2.404$ $p = 0.123$). Dealing with others was later eliminated as a factor in absenteeism at the intermediate level of statistical analysis.

- F. General satisfaction - An overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy in his or her work.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) general satisfaction was eliminated as a factor in absenteeism ($F = 0.063$ $p = 0.802$).

- G. Internal Work Motivation - The degree to which the employee is self motivated to perform effectively on the job.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) internal work motivation was considered for further analysis ($F = 1.379$ $p = 0.242$). Internal work motivation was later eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism at the intermediate level of statistical analysis.

- H. Specific satisfaction

- 1. Pay satisfaction - how satisfied the employee is with his or her rate of pay.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) this factor shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism with

$p < .05$ ($F = 7.844$ $p = 0.006$).

2. Security satisfaction - how the employee feels for his or her position and pay; how the job provides freedom from danger.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) this factor shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism with $p < .05$ ($F = 4.017$ $p = 0.047$).

3. Social satisfaction - the degree to which the job provides the employee an opportunity to form cooperative and interdependent relationships with an individual or groups.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) social satisfaction was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.273$ $p = 0.602$).

4. Supervisory satisfaction - how satisfied the employee is with the style of his or her supervisor.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) supervisory satisfaction was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.213$ $p = 0.645$).

5. Growth satisfaction - how satisfied the employee is with his or her opportunities for professional or personal progressive development on the job.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X), growth was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.014$ $p = 0.907$).

- I. Personal feelings - how the employee personally feels about his or her job.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X), employees' personal feelings were eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.302$ $p = 0.584$).

J. How satisfied - how satisfied the employee is, on average, with several specific aspects of his or her job.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) how satisfied the employee is, on average, with several specific aspects of his or her job was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.389$ $p = 0.534$).

K. Absfeel (Personal Values) - to what degree the employee feels a personal commitment to attend work.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) personal values shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism ($F = 10.169$, $p = 0.002$).

L. Descrjob - Job Description - The way an employee describes his or her job.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X), the way an employee describes his or her job was considered for further analysis ($F = 1.481$ $p = 0.226$). Job description was later eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism at the intermediate level of statistical analysis.

M. Onetot - How closely the job requires the respondent to work with other people in his or her job.

Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) how closely the job requires the respondent to work with other people in his or her job was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.001$ $p = 0.973$).

N. Personal Characteristics

1. Age - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X) age was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 1.207$ $p = 0.274$).
2. Gender - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X) gender shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism ($F = 22.396$ $p = 0.000$), with females absent more than males.
3. Number of years taught - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X) number of years taught was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.065$ $p = 0.800$).
4. Number of years taught in this district - Based on the Initial Univariate F test (Table X) number of years taught in this district was considered for further analysis ($F = 1.644$ $p = 0.202$). This variable was later eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism at the intermediate level of statistical analysis.
5. Marital Status - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X) marital status was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.946$ $p = 0.332$).
6. Number of Children - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X), number of children was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.669$ $p = 0.415$).
7. Ages of Children - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X), having preschool age children ($F = 7.914$ $p = 0.006$) or college age children ($F = 4.792$ $p = 0.030$) shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism, with higher absences for those with preschool children and lower absences for those with college-age children. Having children in grades K-5 ($F = 0.540$ $p = 0.464$) or children in grades 6-12 ($F = 0.132$ $p = 0.717$) were eliminated as factors in teacher absenteeism.

8. Level of Teaching - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X) level of teaching shows a relationship to teacher absenteeism ($F = 10.968$ $p = 0.001$), with elementary teachers absent more frequently than secondary teachers.
9. Average Class Size - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X), average class size was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.202$ $p = 0.654$).
10. Family Income Before Taxes - Based on the Initial Univariate F tests (Table X), family income before taxes was eliminated as a factor in teacher absenteeism ($F = 0.220$ $p = 0.640$).

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present and analyze the data collected from the questionnaires returned by 133 teachers in a selected Oklahoma public school district. Data obtained from subscales on the Job Diagnostic Survey, Personal Values Scale, and Personal Characteristics instruments were presented and reviewed.

Chapter V will report a summary of the findings, conclusions, discussion and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION

Introduction

Every day in schools across the country teachers are calling central office message centers or building principals to report that they will not be present to teach their students that day. In turn, principals and message center secretaries are calling one substitute after another to make sure that students have a qualified adult to supervise, and hopefully to teach, every classroom with a missing teacher.

In educational settings the problem of absenteeism is one that is costly to students and to school districts in many ways. This absenteeism results in monetary costs when schools must pay two people for one job. In addition, central office and building personnel spend time searching for substitutes, resulting in further financial costs as well as management costs for time expended. Finally, instructional costs are borne by the students when substitutes are not as qualified or prepared as the regular classroom teacher.

Absenteeism is a problem that deserves further study. An investigation of possible relationships between teacher

absenteeism and certain variables was the focus of this research. Preparation for the study included a review of the literature, review and selection of survey instruments, selection of demographic information, and a preliminary pilot study.

This chapter will summarize the results of the data collected from the questionnaires, provide a discussion and conclusions of data results, and recommend further research.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of job satisfaction and work attendance, the relationship of personal values and work attendance, and the relationship between personal factors and work attendance. The study utilized teachers' responses to questions and statements about their work, their relationships, their personal values, and personal characteristics. These responses were studied in relationship to teachers' high or low number of absences for a specified period of time.

This study collected data from a survey containing Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey and Ilgen and Hollenback's Personal Values Scales. In addition, pertinent personal characteristics were included. Data collected from these surveys were analyzed using a discriminate analysis procedure.

The sample population consisted of teachers from one public school system in Oklahoma. Absentee records for

every teacher in the district were examined. Absences coded for vacation, school activity/school business, jury duty or military duty were eliminated from total number of absences. Any absence for any other coded reason was counted as an absence. Absences were counted according to absence frequencies as total days absent.

Examination of the absence records revealed 95 teachers with 10 or more absences and 98 teachers with no or one absence. The 95 teachers with 10 or more absences became group 1.000 (High absence) and the 98 teachers with 0 or 1 absence became group 0.000 (Low absence). Questionnaires were sent to each of these teachers. Questionnaires were coded so that the researcher would know in which group to place the returned questionnaires. Of the 95 questionnaires sent to the High-absence group, 68 questionnaires were returned. Of these 68 questionnaires, 3 were blank, leaving 65 usable questionnaires (68%). Of the 98 questionnaires sent to the low-absence group, 68 were returned (69%) (Table III, Chapter 3). All of these questionnaires were usable. Every school in the district was represented in each group with the exception of one elementary school not represented in the low absence group. Special traveling teachers were not represented in the high absence group.

Summary of the Findings

The findings are summarized as follows:

RESEARCH QUESTION 1 - What is the relationship between

job satisfaction and work attendance?

This question was studied using Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey. Individual job satisfaction scores were obtained for 17 variables. These satisfaction variables were task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agents (supervisors), dealing with others, general satisfaction, internal motivation, pay, security, social, supervision, growth opportunities, total personal satisfaction, total satisfaction with the job, how respondents described their jobs, and how closely respondents work with other people.

Discriminate analysis statistical procedures supported a relationship between agent feedback ($p = 0.040$), pay satisfaction ($p = 0.006$), and security satisfaction ($p = 0.047$) as job satisfaction variables related to work attendance.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2 - What is the relationship between personal values and work attendance?

This question was studied using Ilgen and Hollenback's Personal Values Scales. Scores for personal commitment to attend work (values) variables were obtained.

Discriminate analysis statistical procedures supported a relationship between personal values ($p = 0.002$) and work attendance.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3 - What is the relationship between personal factors and work attendance?

This question was answered using demographic information developed by the researcher. Individual scores were obtained for 10 personal factors. These factors were age, gender, total number of years taught, total years of teaching in the surveyed district, marital status, number of children, ages of children, level of teaching, average class size, and family income before taxes.

Discriminate analysis statistical procedures supported a relationship between gender ($p = 0.000$), having preschool children ($p = 0.006$), having college-age children ($p = 0.030$), and level of teaching ($p = 0.001$) as variables related to work attendance.

Conclusions

Research Question 1

Job Satisfaction - The data supports only three variables relating to satisfaction variables and work attendance. It is concluded that if teachers receive feedback from their supervisors, feel secure in their jobs and are satisfied with their pay that their attendance rate will be higher than those teachers who do not receive feedback from their supervisors, do not feel secure in their jobs, and are not satisfied with their rate of pay.

Other variables sometimes thought to show an improved rate of attendance were not supported by the data. These variables were task significance, autonomy, feedback from

the job, dealing with others, general satisfaction, internal motivation, social satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, growth opportunities, total personal satisfaction, total satisfaction with the job, how respondents described their jobs, and how closely respondents work with other people. A possible explanation for the variables of task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, and growth opportunities not affecting attendance in this study is that these variables are fairly universal in the teaching profession. Teachers have an opportunity each day to observe the significance of the job they are accomplishing and thus receive feedback from the job itself. Likewise the teaching profession offers growth opportunities to those who are willing to put forth personal effort to receive advanced degrees and accept extra-duty assignments. All teachers have approximately the same amount of autonomy once they go into their own rooms and close the door.

Several satisfaction and internal motivation variables are less open to speculation. The literature on these variables would lead us to believe that they should be significant in attendance behavior. These variables in particular warrant further study.

Research Question 2

Personal values - The data support a relationship between personal values that believe attending work is the "right" thing to do and work attendance. Teachers with a

strong belief in the work ethic will have a higher rate of attendance than those who do not possess this personal belief.

Research Question 3

Personal Characteristics - The data support gender, having preschool children or college-age children and level of teaching as variables which show a relationship to work attendance. The personal factors that were found to be statistically significant were analyzed further to determine group differences. It was determined that females are absent more frequently than males. Teachers with preschool students are absent more frequently than teachers with college or adult children. Elementary teachers are absent more frequently than secondary teachers.

Other characteristics not supported by the data as having a relationship to work attendance were age, total number of years taught, total years of teaching in the surveyed district, marital status, number of children, children in grades K-5 or 6-12, average class size and family income before taxes.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher absenteeism and its relationship to job satisfaction, personal values and personal characteristics. From this study, possible ways of restructuring jobs or providing

incentives for improved attendance might be attempted.

The answers to research questions may enlighten educators on processes they can use to improve attendance and profiles of applicants who may be prone to chronic absenteeism. As was stated in Chapter II, "the rising costs, loss of teacher effectiveness, and destruction of learning opportunities associated with absenteeism necessitate that causes be isolated and ways developed to reduce teacher absenteeism."

The theoretical framework for this study was the Steers and Rhodes Model of Teacher Attendance (Figure I). In essence, this model suggests that the nature of the job situation interacts with employee values and expectations to determine satisfaction with the job situation. This satisfaction combines with various pressures to attend to determine an employee's attendance motivation. The relationship between attendance motivation and actual attendance is influenced by ability to attend. Personal characteristics influence both ability to attend and employee values and job expectations.

This study examined several of the specific variables found in the Steers and Rhodes Model. Variables supported by the data to have a relationship to absenteeism were gender, ages of children, level of teaching, agent feedback, pay satisfaction, security satisfaction, and personal values.

In this study, general job satisfaction, internal

motivation, social satisfaction, and growth satisfaction did not show a relationship to work attendance. Although these findings are valid as they relate to teacher attendance in this district, there are broader aspects of these findings which raise additional questions.

Ilgen and Hollenback (1977) found conclusively that job enrichment led to job satisfaction. Steers and Rhodes (1978) found that motivation, consisting of both pressures to attend and job satisfaction, along with ability to attend, led to improved attendance. It would logically follow that job satisfaction would lead to improved attendance, yet this study did not reach those findings. The evidence is there that both Ilgen and Hollenback's and Steers and Rhodes findings are valid. The evidence is there that the findings of this study are valid. The questions then become those of why previous valid findings would not be supported by this study.

There is a possibility that an additional study should look more closely at job design and enrichment in the teaching profession. Schools with various designs of the workday and work structure should be located. These schools could then be compared with schools of a traditional structure to help enlighten the inconsistency found in this and previous studies.

Autonomy is another variable which was not statistically related to teacher attendance. Bridges (1980) found as a part of his study that interdependence, rather

than autonomy, related positively to teacher attendance. A job design which stressed working closely in an interdependent relationship could be structured at the elementary level of teaching, which might result in improved attendance for elementary teachers.

Pay satisfaction, which has been labeled a hygiene variable in Herzberg's theory of satisfaction and motivation, did reflect a relationship to work attendance in this study. The NEA Teacher Opinion Poll conducted in 1980 did link salary and job satisfaction; however, Lortie (1975) and U.S. News and World Report (1986) did not link pay with job satisfaction. None of these studies, however, attempted to show a direct relationship between pay and work attendance.

It would appear from this study that agent (supervision) feedback has a relationship to work attendance. Knowledge of results of how employees are performing on the job serves as a motivator which may, in turn, increase work attendance.

This study supported the relationship between personal values and work attendance. If an employee believes that absence from work is wrong and/or that co-workers will suffer if the employee is absent, he or she is more likely to attend work. These findings are consistent with Ilgen and Hollenback's (1977) study.

Female vs. male frequency of absences in this study was consistent with most other studies cited in the literature. There was a higher percentage of females in the high absence

group and a higher percentage of males in the low absence group (Table VI, Chapter IV).

It should be noted, however, that total male teachers in the district represent only 20% of total teachers and the sample population consisted of only 21 males representing 16% of the sample. In addition, the method used to measure absence was a frequency measure which measures total times absent rather than total days absent. In previous studies this measure has tended to skew results toward higher absences for males.

Teachers who have preschool children were absent more than teachers who had elementary-or secondary-age children. Teachers with college-age or adult children were absent less than teachers with elementary or secondary-age children. The higher absence rate for teachers with preschool children is consistent with that reported by Meisenheimer (1990).

This study supported the findings of those reported by Educational Research Service (1980) on studies conducted in California, Ohio, Minnesota, Kansas, Texas, Pennsylvania, Florida, and Illinois which showed a relationship between level of teaching and absence rates. This study, as did those reported by ERS, showed elementary teachers to be absent more frequently than secondary teachers.

Because the literature is so consistent in finding level of teaching as a predictive variable, with elementary teachers absent more frequently than secondary teachers, it would seem that some basic difference in the structure of

elementary and secondary schools could be leading to these findings. Studies identifying these differences in the structure of the elementary and secondary school workday and environment should be done to better understand these differences for possible implications even beyond differences in absences of the two groups.

Although average class size was one of five variables that formed a "predictive profile" of an absent-prone teacher (ERS, 1980, p. 75), average class size was not a predictive variable in this study. A possible explanation is that all class sizes represented in this study were relatively small. The findings from this variable might have been different if some of the respondents had extremely large class size.

Recommendations for Practice

School supervisory personnel have little control over several of the variables shown to have a relationship with work attendance. Gender of the teacher, ages of their children, level of teaching and personal values cannot be controlled or manipulated by supervisors. To some extent, satisfaction with pay and security are also out of the control of supervisors, although supervisors can provide a secure atmosphere.

The only variable under the complete control of school supervisory personnel is agent feedback. Present and prospective school leaders need to be aware that teachers do

want feedback on how well they are performing their jobs. This is one form of intrinsic motivation with implications that go beyond work attendance. Work performance could also be increased with supervisory feedback.

Although satisfaction with pay and security are not as easily provided by supervisors, they can do everything possible to make teachers feel that the environment they are working in is as safe and secure as possible. Consistent supervisory behavior is needed to insure a feeling of security. With site-based management becoming more prevalent, the opportunities for providing pay incentives become more available to the building supervisor.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following are recommendations for further research:

1. A study to determine the effect of leave policies on job attendance would be beneficial. This study could involve the number of paid leave days available to teachers and how these affect teacher attendance.
2. The effect of rewards on teacher attendance would be beneficial. The study should include both monetary and nonmonetary rewards and their effect on teacher attendance.
3. A replication of this study would be beneficial to determine if these findings are supported by additional research.
4. Additional qualitative studies should be undertaken. These studies should pursue the following areas as they relate to teacher attendance:
 - a. the culture/climate of the school
 - b. leadership style of the principal

- c. design of the workday at both the elementary and secondary level
- d. interdependent work designs, such as team teaching
- e. schools which consistently display a high rate of absence and schools which consistently display a low rate of absence for possible consistencies of high vs. low absence schools
- f. schools where site-based management and shared decisionmaking are practiced

Summary

This study was undertaken to study selected job satisfaction, personal values, and personal characteristics to determine if there was a relationship between these variables and teachers' work attendance. The rising cost of personnel and substitutes makes it imperative that any method or procedure which can be used to reduce teacher absenteeism be studied.

This study did reveal certain variables that can be controlled by supervisory personnel in order to possibly reduce absenteeism. However, many variables over which the supervisor has no control also appear to have a relationship to teacher absenteeism. It is the responsibility of all school supervisory personnel to promote teacher attendance in whatever way they can. It is further the responsibility of school personnel to determine, through research, any additional variables which may have a relationship to work attendance and to use this research to improve attendance however and wherever possible.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
CORRESPONDENCE

November 5, 1991

COPY

Dr. Daniel R. Ilgen
135 Synder - Psychology
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824

Dear Dr. Ilgen:

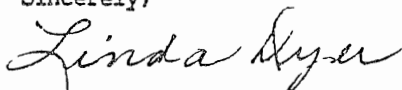
I am a candidate for an Ed.D. degree in Educational Administration and my dissertation will attempt to correlate teachers' job satisfaction and value system to attendance. I have permission to use the Job Diagnostic Survey developed by Hackman and Oldham as a part of my survey dealing with job satisfaction.

To ascertain value system pressures I would like permission to use the items you and Dr. Hollenback developed to measure value system pressure and co-worker pressure in your study of clerical workers at Purdue University.

Please indicate on the enclosed form whether or not you will grant permission for the use of these items, and return your reply in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

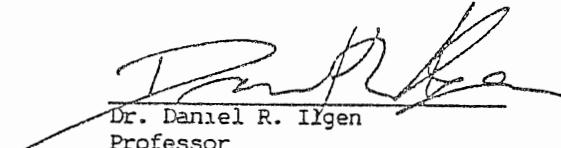


Linda Dyer

LD/cv

Enclosure

Permission is granted to Linda S. Dyer to use the perceived pressure variables items developed by Ilgen and Hollenback as a part of her doctoral dissertation.


Dr. Daniel R. Ilgen
Professor
Michigan State University

11/15/91
Date

This is permission to use not indicate that I have found & delivered the questionnaire to S. Dyer. These data were collected 14 to 15 years ago. I'm not sure I can even find the questionnaire

October 14, 1991

COPY

Dr. Greg Oldham
Department of Business Administration
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois 61801

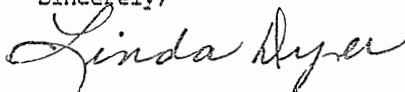
Dear Dr. Oldham:

I am requesting your permission to use the Job Diagnostic Survey for my doctoral dissertation. I am a candidate for an Ed.D. degree in Educational Administration and my dissertation will attempt to correlate teachers' job satisfaction and personal value system to attendance. Your instrument is well-suited to this study.

Please indicate on the enclosed form whether or not you will grant permission for the use of the instrument and reply in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,



Linda Dyer

LD/cv

COPY

Professor J. Richard Hackman
William James Hall
Harvard University
33 Kirkland Street
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138

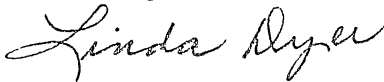
Dear Professor Hackman:

I am requesting your permission to use the Job Diagnostic Survey for my doctoral dissertation. I am a candidate for an Ed.D. degree in Educational Administration and my dissertation will attempt to correlate teachers' job satisfaction and personal value system to attendance. Your instrument is well-suited to this study.

Please indicate on the enclosed form whether or not you will grant permission for the use of the instrument and reply in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Thank you very much.

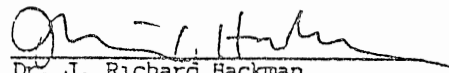
Sincerely,



Linda Dyer

LD/cv

Permission is granted to Linda S. Dyer to use the Job Diagnostic Survey as a part of her doctoral dissertation.



Dr. J. Richard Hackman
Professor
Harvard University

20 Oct 91
Date

Actually, it's not
copyrighted, so
you may even use
it without permission.

Good luck in
your research!

JRH,

April 27, 1992

TO: All Principals and Secretaries
FROM: Linda Dyer
Administrative Assistant for Personnel Services
RE: Doctoral Dissertation Survey

I am ready to run the survey for my doctoral dissertation and _____ has given me permission to distribute these through the individual buildings in this district.

Attached are two sets of surveys. The teachers designated to receive the surveys are listed on a sheet at the front of the two sets. It is important that teachers get copies of the survey from the set attached to their name. These can be hand delivered to the teacher or put in their box at school.

In my letter to them I have asked that they give the completed surveys to the school secretary to return to me. These can be returned through school mail or I will come pick them up. I don't want to know who returns the surveys and they don't need to come back to me in separate sets. It is all right to mix them after they are completed.

Please call me if you have questions and also tell the teacher to call if he or she has have questions about the survey.

Thank you so much for your help on this.

LD/cv

Attachments

May 1992

TO: Participants of Yale University Questionnaire For Study of Jobs
FROM: Linda Dyer
Administrative Assistant for Personnel Services
RE: Questionnaire

Two weeks ago you received a questionnaire designed for the study of jobs and how people react to them. As part of my doctoral studies I am trying to determine what people need for better job design and your participation is needed to help me make this determination.

If you have already returned the questionnaire, THANKS! If not, will you please take a few minutes to complete it and return it to me? I really do need and appreciate your help. Remember, you will remain anonymous at all times.

Thank you very much.

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

May, 1992

Dear Fellow Educator:

This questionnaire was developed as part of a Yale University study of jobs and how people react to them. The questionnaire helps to determine how jobs can be better designed by obtaining information about how people react to different kinds of jobs.

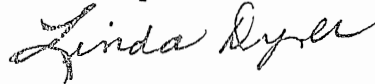
On the following pages you will find several different kinds of questions about your job. Specific instructions are given at the start of each section. Please read them carefully. It should take no more than 10 minutes to complete the entire questionnaire.

The questions are designed to obtain your perceptions to your job and your reactions to it. Please answer each item as honestly and frankly as possible. Your individual answers will be kept completely confidential.

After you have completed the survey, please return the entire packet to the school secretary. She will then collect all the questionnaires from your school and forward them to me. Respondents will remain anonymous at all times. Please complete and return the survey within one week of receiving it.

Thank you very much for your cooperation in helping me complete this survey.

Sincerely,



Linda Dyer
Administrative Assistant for
Personnel Services
Doctoral Candidate

May, 1992

Dear Fellow Educator:

This questionnaire was developed as part of a Yale University study of jobs and how people react to them. The questionnaire helps to determine how jobs can be better designed by obtaining information about how people react to different kinds of jobs.

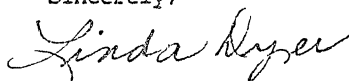
On the following pages you will find several different kinds of questions about your job. Specific instructions are given at the start of each section. Please read them carefully. It should take no more than 10 minutes to complete the entire questionnaire.

The questions are designed to obtain your perceptions to your job and your reactions to it. Please answer each item as honestly and frankly as possible. Your individual answers will be kept completely confidential.

When you have completed the survey, please return the entire packet to the school secretary. She will then collect all the questionnaires from your school and forward them to me. Respondents will remain anonymous at all times. Please complete and return the survey within one week of receiving it.

Thank you very much for your cooperation in helping me complete this survey.

Sincerely,



Linda Dyer
Administrative Assistant for
Personnel Services
Doctoral Candidate

SECTION ONE

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

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

A SAMPLE QUESTION IS GIVEN BELOW

A. To what extent does your job require you to work with mechanical equipment?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
 Very little; the job requires almost no contact with mechanical equipment of any kind. Moderately Very much; the job requires almost constant work with mechanical equipment.

You are to circle the number which is the most accurate description of your job.

If, for example, your job requires you to work with mechanical equipment a good deal of the time--but also requires some paperwork--you might circle the number six, as was done in the example above.

SECTION TWO

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

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

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

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Mostly	Slightly	Uncertain	Slightly	Mostly	Very
Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Inaccurate		Accurate	Accurate	Accurate

- _____ 1. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing
- _____ 2. The job is quite simple and repetitive.
- _____ 3. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone--without talking or checking with other people.
- _____ 4. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.
- _____ 5. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
- _____ 6. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work
- _____ 7. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
- _____ 8. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
- _____ 9. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
- _____ 10. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work
- _____ 11. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

SECTION THREE

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job.

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

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based of on this scale:

How much do you agree with the statement?

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
|----------------------|----------|---|---------|-------------------|-------|-------------------|--|
| Disagree
Strongly | Disagree | Disagree
Slightly | Neutral | Agree
Slightly | Agree | Agree
Strongly | |
| _____ | 1. | It's hard, on this job, for me to care very much about whether or not the work gets done right. | | | | | |
| _____ | 2. | My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well. | | | | | |
| _____ | 3. | Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job. | | | | | |
| _____ | 4. | Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial. | | | | | |
| _____ | 5. | I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job. | | | | | |
| _____ | 6. | I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well. | | | | | |
| _____ | 7. | The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me. | | | | | |

6

SECTION FOUR

This part of the questionnaire asks you to indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Please place your answer on the space provided at the left of each question.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job?

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

- _____ 1. The amount of job security I have.
- _____ 2. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.
- _____ 3. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.
- _____ 4. The people I talk to and work with on my job
- _____ 5. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.
- _____ 6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.
- _____ 7. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.
- _____ 8. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.
- _____ 9. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.
- _____ 10. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.
- _____ 11. How secure things look for me in the future in this organization.
- _____ 12. The chance to help other people while at work.
- _____ 13. The amount of challenge in my job.
- _____ 14. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

7

SECTION FIVE

This part of the questionnaire asks you to indicate how you feel about being absent from your job. Please use the space at left to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statements.

How much do you agree with this statement?

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
|----------------------|----------|--|---------|-------------------|-------|-------------------|--|
| Disagree
Strongly | Disagree | Disagree
Slightly | Neutral | Agree
Slightly | Agree | Agree
Strongly | |
| _____ | 1. | I believe that once you accept a job, you are obligated to go to work unless you absolutely cannot make it. | | | | | |
| _____ | 2. | As long as I have sick days available, I see nothing wrong with using them as I wish. | | | | | |
| _____ | 3. | When someone is absent without a good reason, I dislike doing their work for them. | | | | | |
| _____ | 4. | Even on days when I would rather stay home, I come to work because I feel a strong loyalty to the people I work for. | | | | | |
| _____ | 5. | On days I would rather stay home, I come to work because I know if I'm not here, the other teachers with whom I work will have to work harder. | | | | | |
| _____ | 6. | Many people with whom I work use sick leave days for their own convenience rather than for illness. | | | | | |
| _____ | 7. | Most people I work with do not mind filling in for someone who is absent for any reason. | | | | | |

SECTION SIX

The following background information is needed. Select the number that best answers the question and write it in the space provided to the left.

- _____ 1. What is your present age?
 1. 25 years or younger
 2. 26-34
 3. 35-44
 4. 45-54
 5. 55-65
- _____ 2. What is your sex?
 1. Male
 2. Female
- _____ 3. How many years have you taught?
 1. 1-5
 2. 6-10
 3. 11-20
 4. 21-30
 5. 31-40
 6. over 40
- _____ 4. How many years have you taught in this district?
 1. 1-5
 2. 6-10
 3. 11-20
 4. 21-30
 5. 31-40
 6. over 40
- _____ 5. What is your marital status?
 1. single
 2. married
 3. divorced or separated
- _____ 6. Number of children
 1. none
 2. one
 3. two
 4. three
 5. four
 6. more than four
- _____ 7. Ages of children (please list all that apply)
 1. preschool
 2. grades K-5
 3. grades 6-12
 4. college or adult
- _____ 8. What level do you teach?
 1. elementary
 2. middle school
 3. high school
- _____ 9. Average class size
 1. less than 20
 2. 20-25
 3. 26-30
 4. more than 30
- _____ 10. Family income before taxes
 1. \$15-20,000
 2. \$21-30,000
 3. \$31-40,000
 4. \$41-50,000
 5. over \$50,000

2
VITA

Linda Suellyn Dyer
Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: A STUDY RELATING JOB SATISFACTION, PERSONAL VALUES,
AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS TO TEACHER ABSENTEEISM

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Wagoner County, Oklahoma,
June 12, 1939, the daughter of Harold and Juanita
Kelley.

Education: Graduated from Broken Arrow High School,
Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, in May, 1957; received
Bachelor of Science degree in Education from
Northeastern State University, Tahlequah,
Oklahoma, in May, 1972; received Master of
Liberal Studies degree from University of
Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma, in July, 1989;
completed requirements for Doctor of Education
degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater,
Oklahoma, in December, 1992.

Professional Experience: Elementary Teacher, Walt
Disney Elementary School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1972-
73; Middle School Teacher, Sequoyah Middle School,
Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, 1976-79; Instructional
Coordinator, Broken Arrow Public Schools
Administrative Center, Broken Arrow, Oklahoma,
1979-90; Administrative Assistant for Personnel
Services, Broken Arrow Public Schools Adminis-
trative Center, Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, 1990 to
present.

Professional Organizations: Oklahoma Association of
School Administrators (OASA); Cooperative Council
for Oklahoma School Administrators (CCOSA);
Oklahoma Association for Supervision and
Curriculum Development (OASCD); American
Association of School Personnel Administrators
(AASPA); Phi Delta Kappa (PDK).