

THE USE OF THE INEQUITY THEORY IN
PREDICTING JOB SATISFACTION
AMONG HIGH SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS

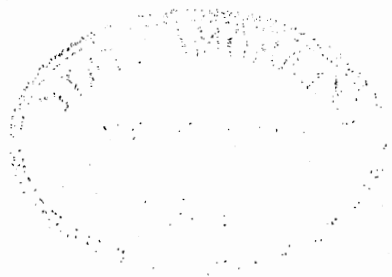
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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between inequity and the overall level of job satisfaction among high school principals and assistant principals. It is hoped that the results of this study have contributed to a better understanding of the factors contributing toward high school administrators' motivation to work.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
Introduction.	8
Historical Perspectives	9
Job Outcomes.	13
Job Satisfaction and Performance	14
Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards.	16
Possible Confounding Variables.	17
Primary Life Interests	17
School Size.	18
Hierarchical Position.	19
Level of Education	20
Minority Student Concentration	21
Conceptual Framework.	21
Expectancy Theory.	22
Discrepancy Theory	23
Inequity Theory.	24
Hierarchy of Needs	26
Two-Factor Theory.	29
Summary	35
III. RATIONALE AND HYPOTHESIS	44
IV. METHOD	52
Introduction.	52
Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables	52
Work Motivation, Incentives and Inequity	52
Job Satisfaction.	57
Control and Demographic Variables	58
Primary Life Interests	58
Degree	59
Position	59
Average Daily Attendance	59
Minority Student Concentration	59
Years in Education	59
Full or Part Time Position	60
Population Density	60

Chapter	Page
Sex	60
Age	60
Statistical Procedures	61
Sample Selection	61
Data Collection	62
V. PRESENTATION OF DATA	65
Introduction	65
Major Hypothesis	70
Control Hypothesis	71
VI. DATA ANALYSIS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	73
Analysis of Data	73
Implications	76
Recommendations	79
A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY	82
APPENDICES	90
APPENDIX A - FACTOR LOADING AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS IN EDUCATIONAL WORK COMPONENTS STUDY INSTRUMENT	91
APPENDIX B - FACTOR LOADING AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR INCENTIVE SCALE.	96
APPENDIX C - COVER LETTER MAILED TO SUBJECTS.	100
APPENDIX D - QUESTIONNAIRE.	103
APPENDIX E - SUMMARY TABLES	111

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory of Human Motivation.	27
II. Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Model Compared with Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Model.	33
III. Demographic Data Describing the Respondents	66
IV. Demographic Data Describing the School and the Community Environment	68
V. Response Rates by School Size	69
VI. Zero Order Correlation Coefficients for the Relationship Between Six Motivation-Incentive Discrepancies and Job Satisfaction.	70
VII. Tenth Order Partial Correlation for the Relationship Between Six Motivation-Incentive Discrepancies and Job Satisfaction Controlling for all Ten Control and Demographic Variables	72
VIII. Factor Loading and Alpha Coefficients in Educational Work Components Study Instrument.	92
IX. Factor Loading and Alpha Coefficients for Incentive Scale	97

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Argyris wrote that "Organizations are tools which help man survive. They are created by man. Man can change them to facilitate growth."¹ Organizational change is becoming more and more difficult to initiate and facilitate. This results in an increased tendency to maintain the status quo and to just survive. This trend becomes a vicious circle, because administrative attitudes of this type slowly agitate employee discontent and increase the administrator's frustrations and pressures on the job.² ✓

The effective planning for organizational change, which makes an administrative position more congenial, absorbing, and stimulating, requires a first hand knowledge of how administrators perceive their job environment and its effect on them. Few research studies in educational administration investigate how an administrator perceives his job environment and its effects on him. Knowledge which is gained from such research would be useful in testing theories concerning job satisfaction.³

Over the last several years the level of theoretical and empirical activity concerning motivation in work organizations has been growing at an ever increasing rate. Examination of scholarly journals for topic frequency reveals a wide concern for understanding the individual in work organizations.⁴ Steers and Porter⁵ explain that

recent interest in work motivation is due to (1) the realization that human resources have to be viewed as long-term assets, (2) the fact that government agencies are placing constraints on organizations which force these organizations to find new ways to increase effectiveness and efficiency, (3) the recent emphasis on behavioral requirements to encourage good workers to stay with the organization, and (4) the pervasive nature of the concept itself. Another explanation for interest in work motivation is concern on the part of organizations about the trends toward increased absenteeism, militancy, and a lack of commitment to work among employees.⁶

The concepts of job satisfaction and job performance are emerging with the study of work motivation. Lack of agreement as to definitions of these concepts has inhibited extensive testing of generally postulated relationships between motivation and performance in education settings. However, the study of job satisfaction has intensified recently because of the concern for the quality of working life.⁷

Get this Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley⁸ suggest that existing empirical studies and theoretical frameworks which relate motivation and incentives in educational organizations are conceptually weak and empirically contradictory. The theoretical positions which have been developed in the past relate primarily to industrial organizations and have been tested and adapted only on a limited basis in educational institutions. There has been a lack of theoretical formulation which describes, explains, or predicts the relationship between educator motivation and organizational incentives.

Using a modified form of the Borgatta, Ford, and Bohrnstedt Work Components Study Instrument,⁹ Miskel and Heller¹⁰ developed the

Educational Work Components Study. Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley¹¹ conducted a study to determine the relationship between individual motives and organizational incentives in predicting the level of satisfaction among teachers in Kansas. In this study the Educational Work Components Study was replaced by a shorter version, and, another instrument, the Incentive Scale, measuring organizational incentives, was introduced. Results of the study indicated that the revised Educational Work Components Study instrument and Incentive Scale "demonstrated considerable strength in providing measures of motivation and incentive factors and as a basis for determining discrepancies in the perceived ideal and real organizational incentives for teachers."

Miskel¹² again conducted a study using the Educational Work Components Study instrument in which he used a sample of undergraduate senior education students, teachers, and administrators. His purpose this time was to test the assertion that individuals who are upward mobile would be intrinsically motivated in unstable situations with less concern for security. Miskel found that (1) principals have the highest tolerance for work pressure, (2) central office administrators have the least desire for conservative security, and (3) those individuals aspiring to the doctorate scored significantly higher on competitiveness desirability, tolerance for work pressure, and willingness to seek reward in spite of its uncertainty.

The Educational Work Components Study Instrument and the Incentive Scale were selected for this study to examine their usefulness in determining if the inequity between individual work motivation factors and organizational incentives predicts the level of job satisfaction among high school administrators. The Educational Work

Components Study instrument measures six independent factors of work motivation operating in the school organization. These factors are: "potential for personal challenge and development," "competitiveness desirability and reward of success," "tolerance for work pressure," "conservative security," "willingness to seek reward in spite of uncertainty versus avoidance of uncertainty," and "surround concern." The Incentive Scale was developed by modifying the Educational Work Components Study instrument so that its questions would appear as incentives. The questions were rephrased from the past to the present tense, and the questionnaire's directions were changed to reflect a different frame of reference. By using the Educational Work Components Study instrument with modifications in directions and wording, the item content remained the same for both the Educational Work Components Study instrument and the Incentive Scale.¹³

In a practical sense, information on administrators' need satisfaction can aid school boards in making wise decisions in the hiring and promotion of administrators. The understanding of educators' needs can also help school districts in developing adequate record systems, increase the feasibility of long range planning in personnel policy, and reduce conflict and conserve valuable organizational energy.¹⁴

Previous research has indicated that there are confounding variables which can influence a person's level of satisfaction on the job.¹⁵ Ten possible confounding variables that may influence principals have been selected for review in this study. They are: primary life interest, degree, position, high school average daily attendance, minority student concentration, years in education, full or part time position,

county population density, years in present position, and age.

The effects of these intervening variables on job satisfaction can be influenced by the research instrument because different conceptual definitions may be used as a basis to measure this satisfaction.¹⁶

Because there are a number of different definitions of job satisfaction found in the literature, there are almost as many different operational measures. These operational measures appear to account for the differences of opinions as to the degree that intervening variables may or may not influence the level of job satisfaction.¹⁷

FOOTNOTES

¹C. Argyris, "Individual Actualization in Complex Organizations," Mental Hygiene, Vol. 40 (1960), p. 234.

²G. Schmidt, "Job Satisfaction Among Secondary School Administrators," Educational Administrative Quarterly, Vol. 12, No. 2 (1976), pp. 68-86.

³Ibid.

⁴C. Miskel, J. DeFrain, and K. Wilcox, "Expectancy Work Motivation, Central Life Interests, Voluntarism, Organizational Situation, Job Satisfaction, and Perceived Teaching Performance," Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, 1979), p. 1.

⁵R. Steers and L. Porter, Motivation and Work Behavior, 2nd edition (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979), pp. 3-5.

⁶Miskel, DeFrain, and Wilcox, p. 1.

⁷Ibid., pp. 1-2.

⁸C. Miskel, D. Glasnapp, and R. Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interests, Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Final Report 1-0413, 1972, p. 1. ✓

⁹G. Bohrnstedt, E. Borgatta, and R. Ford, "Use of Work Components Study with College Level Employees," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 53, No. 5 (1969), pp. 367-376.

¹⁰C. Miskel and L. Heller, "The Educational Work Components Study: An Adapted Set of Measures for Work Motivation," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 42 (1973), pp. 45-50.

¹¹Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, pp. 46-54.

¹²C. Miskel, Public School Principals' Leader Style, Organizational Situation, and Effectiveness, Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Final Report 3-0469, 1974, pp. 114-121.

¹³Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, pp. 9-11.

¹⁴L. Porter, "A Study of Perceived Need Satisfactions in Bottom and Middle Management Jobs," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 45, No. 1 (1961), pp. 1-10.

¹⁵J. Wanous and E. Lawler, "Measurement and Meaning of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 56, No. 2 (1972), pp. 173-176.

¹⁶Ibid.

¹⁷Ibid.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The first intensive study of job satisfaction was conducted by Hoppock in 1935.¹ Since that time more than 3300 studies on that subject have been published to date.² However, concern for employee satisfaction on the job, other than as a means of increasing production, is a relatively new concept.³ ✓ *Goopy*

Satisfaction is an emotional response whose meaning can only be understood by understanding an individual's values and needs. In an emotional sense, job satisfaction can be defined as ". . . a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Most industrial psychologists would accept this definition of job satisfaction.⁴ In this study five major theories of work and motivation will be reviewed. They are expectancy, discrepancy, inequity, hierarchy of needs, and two-factor models. Each model has its own conceptual definition of the phenomenon under consideration.⁵

A number of different conceptual definitions of job satisfaction can be found in the literature. Examples are those presented by Porter⁶ and Smith, Kendall, and Hulin.⁷ The existence of different operational definitions of satisfaction raises questions of possible construct validity of these measures. It is not clear that each of

these operational definitions measure the same thing, but it has been assumed that they do. Few studies have measured satisfaction in more than one way and compared the results.⁸

In over three centuries of American experience with education, the rewards for teaching have been viewed in terms of the work itself. As a result of this attitude, a popular ideology developed which put service motive ahead of material benefits. Today there is a growing militancy among educators, evidenced by strikes and sanctions, which is causing a change in this ideology. Educational organizations must provide incentives to promote cooperative behaviors from their members. The largest portion of the school budget is set aside for providing rewards which will attract and hold educators within the school system and which will motivate the educator to be a productive professional.⁹ Rewards or incentives may be classified as being intrinsic or extrinsic in nature.¹⁰ Their effects upon the individual and organization will be examined later.

Historical Perspectives

Large scale, complex organizations have existed for at least two centuries, but only recently have employers paid attention to the role motivation plays in such organizations.¹¹ Prior to the industrial revolution, fear of punishment was the major form of motivation. As the industrial revolution came into full swing, manufacturing processes became more and more complex, and large-scale factories emerged which changed many of the social and exchange relationships that existed under the system of small manufacturing.¹²

The relationships between the worker and employers were replaced

by a more sterile and tenuous relationship. This new relationship between the worker and employer brought about a need for a fairly well-defined philosophy of management adapted to workers who were beginning to pursue their own best economic self-interest. The result of this new philosophy of management was the traditional model or scientific management approach to motivation.¹³

The traditional model is best characterized by the writings of Taylor¹⁴ during the first decade of the 1900's. Taylor felt that inefficient production was the fault of management, not the worker. It was management's responsibility to hire the right person for the job and train him in the most efficient way to perform the job. After the worker has been trained, management's next task was to develop and install a wage incentive program whereby the worker could maximize income by doing required tasks as quickly as possible. The scientific management approach represented a joint venture of management and workers for mutual benefit of each other. The major assumption of the model is that workers, for a price, would tolerate the routine jobs of the factory.

The traditional model has several problems. As managers were seeking ways to acquire more profits, the jobs were becoming more routine, specialized, and efficient. Management began limiting worker income by putting constraints on the incentive program. Workers soon realized that they were not making better wages even though output was increasing. The factories became more efficient and lay-offs became commonplace. Workers responded to this situation by restricting output and unionism had its beginnings.¹⁵

In order to try to overcome these problems, industry began to

look at new methods to increase production and keep their workers. One way was by reexamining their motivational assumptions about workers, and this new thought developed into the human relations model.

Starting in the late 1920's efforts were being made to find out why the traditional model was inadequate for motivating workers. Mayo¹⁶ and Roethlisberger and Dickson¹⁷ carried on research which was later to point the way to the human relations approach to management. They felt that increased routinization of tasks would reduce the chance of the worker finding satisfaction in the task itself; therefore, they would look elsewhere for satisfaction such as among the group of fellow workers. Attention began to be paid to the understanding of interpersonal and group relations at work. The whole person on the job was taken into consideration.

During this period the first intensive study of job satisfaction was conducted by Hoppock.¹⁸ The study included as subjects most of the employed adults in one small town and 500 school teachers from several communities. Hoppock's study did not use any particular management philosophy as its basis. The results and interpretations emphasized a multiplicity of factors that could affect job satisfaction, such as fatigue, monotony, working conditions, supervision, and achievement.

The human relations approach promoted the philosophy that management had the responsibility to make workers feel useful and important on the job, to provide recognition, and to help in the meeting of social needs. Research into behavioral factors affecting motivation began to take place during this time as well as the use of

morale surveys to measure job satisfaction. The nature of the required tasks to do the job was not changed during this period.¹⁹

Recently, the assumptions of the human relations model have been criticized for being an oversimplified and incomplete statement of work behavior.²⁰ The human relations movement reached its peak of influence in the late fifties. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman²¹ published a monograph in 1951 signaling a new movement which had as its emphasis the characteristics of the work itself. The human resources theory or behavior theory holds that man wants to plan recognition and fulfillment as well as the opportunity to reach his potential through a meaningful job. Managers applying this theory should redesign jobs, decision process, and control systems in order for the worker to gain a feeling of accomplishment from his work.²²

The human resources model has four basic assumptions: first, the worker wants to contribute to the job; second, work does not have to be unpleasant; third, employees are capable of making significant and rational decisions affecting work; and fourth, that increasing amounts of self-control and self-direction allowed at work, along with the addition of meaningful tasks, will increase the level of job satisfaction.²³

This philosophy implies a greater participation of employees in the decision making process at work, along with increased autonomy over the accomplishment of the task. The human resources approach relies less on the manipulating of employees to accept managerial authority than the traditional and human relations approaches do.²⁴ The human resources approach is the most widely accepted theoretical base for management used today.²⁵

In conclusion, three schools of thought have been presented: traditional, human relations, and the human resources. All three of these models overlap each other in time and are prevalent in some degree today in shaping current organizational thought.²⁶

Job Outcomes

For most individuals, work fills the greater part of the waking day. For the fortunate, it is a source of satisfaction, while for others, it is a cause of grief.²⁷ The study of the job is complicated by its many interrelated and complicated facets. Locke states that "The job is not an entity, but a complex interrelationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives, and rewards." He continues ". . . a thorough understanding of job attitudes requires that the job be analyzed in terms of its constituent elements."²⁸

Researchers have used three different techniques to identify job attitudes. In one approach, the worker is asked to express his job satisfaction directly by answering questions which indicate his overall job attitudes. Scaled inventories of morale or job attitudes have also been utilized. Lastly, the worker on the job has been directly observed by a psychologist.²⁹

The use of factor analysis has been a popular way of identifying the job's constituent elements. In this method, the responses of workers to selected job attitudes are intercorrelated, and then grouped into factors. The basic job elements are inferred from the content of each factor.³⁰

Lawler³¹ lists financial rewards, promotion, supervision, working conditions, job content, and co-workers as the most common facets of

the job cited in current studies of job satisfaction. Locke³² adds four more facets to those of Lawler. They are benefits, recognition, company, and management.

Job Satisfaction and Performance

Over the last several decades research has produced conflicting findings regarding the relationship of job satisfaction and performance. There are three different views identified concerning the relationship of these two factors. They are: (1) satisfaction causes performance, (2) performance causes satisfaction, and (3) "rewards" influence both performance and satisfaction.³³

The first view, identified with the human relations movement, states that the degree of job satisfaction felt by an employee determines his performance. That is, satisfaction causes performance. This view receives some support in work motivation literature because it avoids the problems that are associated with creating dissatisfaction among low performing workers.³⁴ Shaw and Blum³⁵ reported that group performance is a function of the group's awareness of member satisfaction, while Sheridan and Slocum³⁶ found that need satisfaction affected the performance of operative level workers. However, this relationship remains inconclusive for some industrial managers.

A second theoretical view presented is that satisfaction, rather than being the cause, is an effect of performance; that is, performance will cause satisfaction. The type of performance determines the rewards which in turn vary the employees' expressions of job satisfaction. Rewards function as a moderating variable, and satisfaction is a function of performance related rewards.³⁷ Bowen and Siegel³⁸ reported

a relatively strong relationship between performance in one period and subsequent expressions of satisfaction (the performance-causes-satisfaction condition). Greene and Organ³⁹ presented a model in which role perceptions lead to compliance which then leads to performance. Performance was mediated by rewards which resulted in satisfaction variation. Organ's model presents some support to predictions that differential performance will determine rewards and that rewards produce variance in satisfaction.

The third theoretical proposition is that rewards cause satisfaction. Rewards that are based on current performance will cause subsequent performance. This proposition states that there is no inherent relationship between satisfaction and performance and that "rewarded" workers will express greater satisfaction than "unrewarded" workers. The proposition also predicts that when rewards are granted based on job performance, the workers' performances at work would be significantly higher than if the rewards given were unrelated to job performance.⁴⁰ Cherrington, Reitz, and Scott⁴¹ report that when rewards were based on current performance they caused improvements in job performance.

Although employee satisfaction and performance are the result of complex processes, there seems to be a great deal that the administrator can do to influence an increase in both employee satisfaction and performance. For example, rewards awarded on current job performance will positively affect work performance. The relationship between rewards and performance is not a simple one; however, other causes of performance such as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards present direct relationships.⁴²

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Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards

Rewards can be grouped into two categories: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are external to the job, but in the context of the job. Examples would be pay, praise for a job well done, job security, and improved working conditions. Intrinsic rewards are associated directly with doing the job, such as the work itself, advancement opportunities, added responsibility, and good job performance.⁴³ Intrinsic rewards flow immediately and directly from the individual's performance on the job and are a form of self-reward. Extrinsic rewards are administered by the organization which has to identify good performance and then provide the appropriate reward.⁴⁴

A major assumption of current motivation theory is that intrinsic motivation contributes more to job satisfaction than extrinsic motivation. The reason for this is that the worker perceives that under intrinsic conditions he is the major cause of both his performance and rewards. On the other hand, under extrinsic conditions, performance and rewards depend mostly on external factors.⁴⁵

Internal locus of control

For most people, in order for intrinsic rewards to be used effectively, there must be an adequate degree of satisfaction with extrinsic rewards. Administrators should try to match the possible rewards, both intrinsic and extrinsic, for which the employee indicates a need or desire. This must be done taking into full consideration the individual differences of the employee.⁴⁶

Similarly, individuals may have differences in the magnitude of the valued reward that is positively reinforcing. For example, a sizable reward in one situation may be considered small in another under different circumstances by the same person.⁴⁷ In order for

an organization to have high productivity and high satisfaction among its employees, there must be a fit among the individual job, behaviors required, and the reward system used.⁴⁸ In studies testing both intrinsic and extrinsic job rewards it was consistently found that intrinsic rewards predict satisfaction and performance better than extrinsic rewards.⁴⁹

Possible Confounding Variables

Research has indicated that there are confounding variables that can influence a person's level of satisfaction on the job. These variables' effects on job satisfaction will be influenced by the research tool used to measure this satisfaction. There are many definitions of job satisfaction presented in the literature and as a result there are a number of different methods of measuring job satisfaction which would appear to account for the differences of opinions as to the degree that these confounding variables may or may not influence the level of job satisfaction.⁵⁰

Primary Life Interests

This attitude set consists of an individual's preferences for doing favored activities in chosen settings. An individual is involved in a wide range of activities in daily life, but selects only a few that receive primary attention. In the areas of life which receive primary attention there develop strong attachments and involvements which yield satisfaction and produce performance.⁵¹

Lortie⁵² disputed the generalization that primary life interests and job satisfaction are positively related. Teachers reporting a

high involvement with their work did not necessarily indicate a higher degree of teaching satisfaction.

Studies by Miskel and Gerhardt,⁵³ Miskel, Glasnapp and Hatley,⁵⁴ and Dubin and Champoux,⁵⁵ however, support the importance of the primary life interest concept for increased job satisfaction. In other words, if the primary life interests of educators are focused in their work, then their job satisfaction will be high.

School Size

There seems to be much disagreement as to the effect the school size has on the perceived job satisfaction of educators. Smith⁵⁶ researched the relationship between job satisfaction of Connecticut Public Senior High School Principals and school size. Results indicate that there was no significant difference among mean general satisfaction scores when categorized by school size. Catherwood⁵⁷ found similar results when he investigated the differences in need satisfaction of five levels of certified school personnel: superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals, supervisors and teachers. No significant differences among school size categories of certified school personnel were found.

Mifflin's⁵⁸ findings did not support the conclusion of Smith and Catherwood. Secondary principals of schools with large enrollments rated themselves significantly higher in general job satisfaction and in intrinsic job satisfaction than did secondary principals of schools with medium and small enrollments. There was a significant difference in the extrinsic job satisfaction in all three school

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 sizes on the part of the principals. Secondary principals of schools with large enrollments rated their extrinsic job satisfaction significantly higher than that of the principals of schools with small enrollments relative to extrinsic job satisfaction.

Hierarchical Position

Studies investigating employee position as it relates to job satisfaction have agreed that hierarchical position has an effect on the level of job satisfaction. Herzberg et al.⁵⁹ summarized research through 1954 relevant to job related attitudes. He concluded that high level administrators experienced greater satisfaction from their jobs than administrators of a lower level in an organization. Porter⁶⁰ reviewed the literature in 1966 and came to similar conclusions.

Recent studies by Graham,⁶¹ Edel,⁶² El Salmi and Cummings,⁶³ and Ivancevich⁶⁴ reported that high level administrators generally experience greater satisfaction from their jobs than lower level administrators. These studies sampled administrators from diverse organizations such as governmental agencies, labor unions, military, and business.

Brown⁶⁵ studied the relationship of hierarchical position and job satisfaction of school administrators in California. Research indicated that principals and directors were significantly lower in total need satisfaction when compared with superintendents and assistant superintendents. Brown concluded that "a significant relationship exists between need satisfaction and job level."

Level of Education

Formal academic preparation was considered to be of interest because (1) academic preparation is used as a job qualification factor, and (2) educational institutions usually have salary increments partially based on additional academic training.⁶⁶ Brown⁶⁷ found that educational administrators with doctorates differed significantly in measured job satisfaction from those without doctorates. Directors and principals without doctorates received less satisfaction from their positions than those with doctorates.

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1971*

Iannone⁶⁸ conducted a semi-structured interview of twenty secondary and twenty elementary school principals. Results indicated that the job related factors such as achievement and recognition were significantly mentioned in principals' job satisfaction. Recognition of achievements generally came from the principal's receiving a personal advancement either in status or salary.

Gross and Napier's⁶⁹ results differed from those of Brown and Iannone, in that they found that there was not a significant difference in the relationship of formal academic training and individual job satisfaction among elementary and secondary level principals. Their research indicated the principals who received a bachelor's degree had the highest mean individual job satisfaction score. Those with a doctorate had the second highest job satisfaction, and those with a master's degree had the lowest mean score.

Minority Student Concentration

A review of literature on the question of the effect that the presence of minority students would have on the job satisfaction of principals resulted in inconsistent findings. This question seemed complicated by the fact that the results may be affected by the individual principal's race. Brown⁷⁰ examined this factor and found that ethnic identification was found to affect need satisfaction. Brown studied three levels of principalship: elementary, junior high and senior high. He found that elementary and junior high principals with a school minority population of 20% or more received less satisfaction from their jobs than those with fewer minority students. Conversely, minority student population of 20% or more did not make a difference with senior high principals.

Davenport⁷¹ concluded that assistant principals were not affected by race in the performance of their jobs and in the satisfaction derived from doing that job. The job satisfaction of assistant principals has no relationship to the racial makeup of the school. *Interesting*

Conceptual Framework

Current theories of job satisfaction may be classified as either process or content in orientation. The process theories attempt to determine specific types or classes of variables such as needs and values because they can be causally relevant or they can combine to predict overall job satisfaction. Theories in the process approach include the expectancy, discrepancy, and equity.

theories.⁷² Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theories are important examples of the content theories. These two theories attempt to identify the needs that must be satisfied or the values that must be attained in order for a person to be satisfied with the job.⁷³

Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory, a cognitive approach to motivation, is generally attributed to Vroom.⁷⁴ This theory is based upon the definition of motivation as being a process governing choices among forms of voluntary activity. Three essential concepts are to be found in the theory. They are expectancy, the belief that one's efforts will lead to a successful performance; valence, the degree of attractiveness or desirability a person relates to a reward; and instrumentality, the belief that a certain behavior is essential in attaining a given reward or satisfying a valence.

The theory states that motivation is a function of the expectancy of attaining a certain outcome in performing a certain act multiplied by the value of the outcome for the performer. Outcomes which have high expectations of being realized and which are highly valued will direct the individual to exert much effort in the performance of the task. Outcomes that have high expectations and neutral or negative values will reduce the degree of effort the individual is ready to exert. Outcomes with comparatively low levels of expectancies or neutral valuations will not influence an individual's level of motivation.

Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation has received support

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etc.

in a number of studies. Galbraith and Cummings⁷⁵ found that productivity was directly related to the degree that workers felt that high productivity was instrumental in satisfying goals that were important. Pritchard and Sanders⁷⁶ surveyed government workers and found that the expectancy model predicted the employee's self-reported effort very well, but not to the same extent as the superior's ratings of employee effort. Vroom⁷⁷ himself found that 76 percent of the students he studied chose to work for employers they ranked as being the most instrumental in meeting goals.

Not all research findings have been positive. Behling and Starke⁷⁸ suggest that individual decisions are not made in a step-by-step process as suggested by the expectancy theory. Another criticism is that it fails to take into account differences in people's feeling about what outcomes they should receive.⁷⁹ The expectancy theory has been widely used in industrial and organizational psychology. However, comparatively very little research has been conducted in the field of education.⁸⁰

Discrepancy Theory

The discrepancy theory is based on the assumption that job satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between the actual reward a person receives and some other reward level. This "other reward" level is usually put in terms of what reward level the person feels should be received or what the person expects to receive.⁸¹

The difference in choice of what reward level is used has resulted in the development of three theoretical approaches to the discrepancy theory.⁸² Katzell⁸³ represents one such theoretical approach in which he

presents satisfaction as the difference between some actual and desired amount of reward. A second approach is presented by Locke,⁸⁴ which differs from Katzell's in that he stresses that perceived discrepancy is more important than actual discrepancy. He argues that only unfulfilled desires can cause dissatisfaction and that satisfaction is the result of a comparison of fulfillment and desires or ideals. According to Locke, the best measure of job satisfaction is a simple difference in what one wants from his job and what one perceives that he is receiving. Porter⁸⁵ presents the third theoretical approach which compares the difference between how much of a reward there should be in a job and how much of a particular reward there actually is in order to determine the measure of job satisfaction. Most discrepancy theories have a weakness in that they do not make it clear how to distinguish dissatisfaction due to over-reward with dissatisfaction due to under-reward.⁸⁶

Inequity Theory

Adams⁸⁷ developed the social inequity theory based on the theory of cognitive dissonance. The inequity theory has as its tenet that individuals exchange their services in the form of education, experience, skill, and effort for incentives. The individual then makes a decision as to whether the exchange is equitable. If the individual's work motivation is satisfied exactly by the organizations incentives, then no inequity exists and job satisfaction is high. If the needs of the individual are greater than the rewards received for work, then inequity exists which lead to job dissatisfaction. However, if the rewards exceed the individuals needs, then the inequity leads

to positive job satisfaction.

The presence of inequity will motivate the individual to achieve equity or to decrease inequity. The strength of this motivation will vary directly with the amount of inequity. Satisfaction will increase while inequity decreases.⁸⁸

The basic postulate of the inequity theory is that job satisfaction levels are related to the perceived difference between what is expected or desired to be a fair and reasonable return (individual motivation) and what is actually experienced in the job situation (organizational incentives).⁸⁹ The revised Educational Work Components Study and the Incentive Scale, developed by Miskel et al.,⁹⁰ which used as the means of determining the level of equity in this study demonstrated considerable strength in measuring motivational and incentive factors. These instruments have been used in determining inequity in perceived ideal and real organizational incentives for teachers. Adams comments on the inequity theory by stating that:

The analysis of inequity in terms of discrepancies between a man's job inputs and job outcomes . . . should result in a better understanding of one aspect of social conflict and should increase the degree of control that may be exercised over it. In moving toward an understanding of inequity, we increase our knowledge of our most basic productive resource, the human organism.

Most of the research on the equity theory seems to support its basic concepts. For example, Adams and Rosenbaum⁹² found that when a person is paid by piecework, his output would be greater when he perceives his piecework rate as deserved. Andrews⁹³ found that subjects who felt that they were getting a higher piece rate than they deserved, based on previous experience, decrease their work output, while individuals receiving less than they felt they deserved increased their production.

The findings above suggest that the equity theory is useful in explaining motivation at work. Valenzi and Andrews⁹⁴ mention that the theory has a particular shortcoming in that it lacks specificity about the theory's underlying motivational processes and methods which people will use in reducing the tension by a perceived inequity.

The process models of job satisfaction have received some criticism for not establishing theoretical frameworks that define the number and nature of specific job related needs. These models also have been criticized because theorists could not reach a clear distinction between needs and values. The manner in which these two concepts should be combined in a formula to determine job satisfaction levels is also questioned.⁹⁵

Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is perhaps the most publicized theory of motivation and personality.⁹⁶ Of all the theories describing man's psychological needs, Maslow's content theory has been the most notable in the impact it has had on the thinking of organizational theorists such as McGregor,⁹⁷ Argyris⁹⁸ and on the empirical work of Porter⁹⁹ and Beer.¹⁰⁰ The major hypothesis in Maslow's theory is that needs form a hierarchy (Table I).

The hierarchy of needs concept is based on the premise that (1) the behavior of an individual is dominated and determined by the most basic needs which are not totally satisfied; (2) the individual will progressively seek need satisfaction starting with the most basic and moving up the hierarchy; and (3) that the more basic needs in the hierarchy are "prepotent" in that they will take precedence

TABLE I
 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY
 OF HUMAN MOTIVATION

	Needs	Physiological and Psychological Indicators		
Higher Level Needs	Level 5 Self-Actualization or Self-Fulfillment	Achievement of Potential Maximum Self-Development, Creativity, and Self-Expression		
	Level 4 Esteem	Self-Respect-Achievement, Competence, and Confidence Deserved Respect of Others-Status, Recognition, Dignity, and Appreciation		
	Level 3 Belonging, Love, and Social Activity	Satisfactory Associations with Others Belonging to Groups Giving and Receiving Friendship and Affection		
	Level 2 Safety and Security	Protection Against Danger and Threat Freedom from Fear, Anxiety, and Chaos Need for Structure, Order, Law, Limits, and Stability		
Lower Level Needs	Level 1 Physiological	Hunger Thirst Sex	Taste Smell Touch	Sleep

over all the higher needs. Maslow does not insist that the more prepotent needs have to be totally satisfied before the less prepotent ones. Maslow also realizes that there are to be exceptions to the theory. An example of this exception would be a person who has a strong enough ideal to give up everything.

The lower level needs will never be satisfied completely, and, if satisfaction of these needs is deprived for any period of time, they become important motivators. A completely satisfied need will not be an effective behavior motivator. Esteem and self-actualization are usually not satisfied and must be pursued indefinitely for more satisfaction once they become important needs of the individual.

Locke presents what he feels are five deficiencies with Maslow's theory:

1. Maslow provides no evidence of proof that indicate that the hierarchy of needs are real needs.
2. No intelligible definition of self-actualization is presented in Maslow's writings.
3. Maslow implies that there is a near-perfect correspondence between needs and values. Locke disagrees saying ". . . while needs by definition are innate and universal, one can observe that men differ enormously in what they value both within and between cultures."
4. Maslow presents an inconsistency in writing that needs will bring about action toward fulfillment and on the other hand presenting the concept that needs call up only the felt desires to act.¹⁰¹
5. Maslow shows a contradiction when he says that needs are fulfilled in hierarchical order and then makes the statement that behavior tends to be determined by several or all of the basic needs simultaneously rather than by only one.

Schneider and Alderfer¹⁰² and Lawler and Suttle¹⁰³ have criticized Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory mainly on its inability to support the hierarchy of prepotency concept. Maslow himself pointed out that

his theory was of primary use only as a framework for future research and not as a model that could be accepted without question. Although Maslow's theory is well known, it is very difficult to test.¹⁰⁴

Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman¹⁰⁵ developed a theory of job satisfaction which has changed much of the thought concerning the traditional theories based on the assumption that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are on opposite ends of single continuum. The new theory proposes that they were two separate and parallel continua.

In developing the two-factor or motivation-hygiene theory, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell¹⁰⁶ interviewed 203 accountants and engineers using critical incident research methodology. Each subject was asked to describe events he experienced at work which resulted in a marked improvement as well as experiences which resulted in a decrease in job satisfaction. The results indicated that positive job experiences were dominated by references to intrinsic aspects of the job while negative experiences were dominated by references to extrinsic aspects of the job situation.

Wolf¹⁰⁷ pointed out that the motivator factor has been called the intrinsic factor, the satisfiers, and the job content factor. The hygiene factor is called the maintenance factor, the extrinsic factor, the dissatisfiers, or the job-context factor. Job factors which were indicative of positive job experiences or lead to job satisfaction were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Factors which were associated with negative job experiences or contributed very little to job satisfaction were company policy and

administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions and salary.

Job satisfaction is determined by how the individual feels about the content of his job while dissatisfaction is determined by the feeling the individual has concerning job-context. The theory asserts that the absence of motivators does not cause dissatisfaction, only the absence of satisfaction. The presence of hygienes do not bring about satisfaction, only the absence of dissatisfaction.

Extrinsic rewards produce momentary satisfaction, but these lead to higher expectations and demands for more rewards. Eventually, extrinsic rewards can lead only to dissatisfaction in societies where physical well-being and security are reasonably well provided. Hygiene factors do not relate to the job directly. They are concerned with the contextual elements of work.¹⁰⁸

Grigaliumas and Herzberg¹⁰⁹ report that the motivator-hygiene theory has influenced the initiation of over fifty studies using this theory up to 1971. It has been one of the most widely used methodologies for determining job satisfaction up to that date. Additional studies using this theory, such as the research of Miskel¹¹⁰ and Schmidt¹¹¹ show that the theory is still a tool used in determining job satisfaction.

Herzberg's two-factor theory has been widely used, and as such, has been open to criticisms from researchers of motivation. House and Wigdor¹¹² summarize the weaknesses as follows: first, it is methodologically bound; second, it is founded on faulty research; and third, it is inconsistent with past research on satisfaction and motivation.

According to Vroom, the theory can be criticized methodologically because when the original study was conducted in 1959 by Herzberg and associates it was:

. . . possible that obtained differences between stated sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction stem from defensive processes within the individual respondent. Persons may be more likely to attribute the causes of satisfaction to their own achievements and accomplishments on the job. On the other hand, they may be more likely to attribute their dissatisfaction not to personal inadequacies or deficiencies, but to factors in the work environment, i.e. obstacles presented by company policies or supervision.¹¹³

In addition, procedural deficiencies have been noted in the theory. One of the major deficiencies is that the rater who in interpreting the subjects' responses could contaminate the dimensions of the study. A more objective approach would be to have the respondents do the rating and performing the necessary evaluations, as opposed to the rater performing it.

In one study, Dunnet and associates¹¹⁴ asked over 500 people in six occupations to describe a previously satisfying and dissatisfying job situation by choosing from among 36 preselected and scaled statements. The statements were analyzed, and it was found that some hygiene factors were associated with satisfying events, while some of the motivator factors were associated with dissatisfying events. This result is inconsistent with Herzberg's theory. The research indicated that highly satisfied people are not necessarily highly motivated and produce more. A major portion of the criticism of the theory stems from the lack of an explicit statement of the theory. At least five different versions of the two-factor theory have developed.¹¹⁵

Maslow's and Herzberg's theories have a number of similarities. Table II compares Maslow's need-hierarchy model and Herzberg's motivator-hygiene model. It can be noted that Herzberg's motivators are more or less analogous to Maslow's higher order needs and that Herzberg's hygiene factors are comparable to the lower order needs of Maslow. However, there are several important differences between the models. Maslow assumes that any unsatisfied need can be a motivator, while Herzberg feels that only higher-order needs can serve as motivators. Herzberg also feels that unsatisfied needs can be found in the motivator and hygiene areas simultaneously.¹¹⁶

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman¹¹⁷ further related the two-factor theory of job satisfaction to the need-hierarchy theory presented by Maslow. They asserted that factors which lead to positive attitudes about a job have done so because they have the potential for meeting a person's need for self-actualization. The job would present an important opportunity for a person to experience self-actualization. In addition while performing the tasks required of the job, rewards would be obtained which would reinforce self-actualization. Accordingly, the satisfiers and motivators of the job itself will motivate the individual to seek fulfillment of his needs for self-actualization.

Dissatisfiers or hygienes are similar to safety and physiological needs. Hygienic factors must satisfy individual needs for working conditions, interpersonal relations, fair treatment and job security. When the job environment satisfies these needs, dissatisfaction with the job will be reduced. Since the hygienes pertain only to the job surroundings, hygienic factors usually do not have the potential to

TABLE II
 MASLOW'S NEED-HIERARCHY MODEL COMPARED
 WITH HERZBERG'S MOTIVATOR-
 HYGIENE MODEL

Maslow		Herzberg
Self-Actualization	Motivation Factors	Work Itself Achievement
		Responsibility
Self-Esteem		Recognition Advancement
		Status
Belonging and Affiliation	Hygiene Factors	Interpersonal Relations Supervision Peers Subordinates Supervision-Technical
Safety and Security		
Physiological Needs		Company Policy and Administration Job Security Working Conditions Salary Personal Life

become motivators.

Sergiovanni¹¹⁸ replicated the Herzberg study and concluded that satisfiers and dissatisfiers tended to be mutually exclusive among educators. He found that positive attitudes were related to the work itself, while negative attitudes related to work conditions.

Blum¹¹⁹ showed similar conclusions. He found that the desire for security is a personal element among workers. Persons who choose jobs where motivators or satisfiers were high were less concerned with security. The desire for security can be a factor in job selection. Williams¹²⁰ found support for Blum's conclusion that low-risk takers were more concerned with extrinsic work characteristics, and high-risk takers were more concerned in intrinsic characteristics.

Borgatta, Ford, and Bohrnstedt¹²¹ developed the Work Components Study Questionnaire to merge and operationalize Herzbergs' two-factor theory with Blum's findings concerning security desires among workers. Miskel and Heller¹²² developed the Educational Work Components Study from the Work Components Study. The Educational Work Components Study measured motivational factors within the educational setting. In order to measure real incentives or conditions the Incentive Scale was developed. It was developed by revising the Educational Work Components Study to appear as incentives actually operating in the system. In changing the orientation of the Educational Work Components Study from an instrument measuring work motivation to one measuring incentives actually operating within the job, it was possible to obtain information concerning what is important to the individual in his work and if these things are actually occurring.

Summary

This chapter presents a review of literature related to motivation and job satisfaction. A brief historical overview of the theories of job attitudes is presented, including the traditional, human relations, and human resources models. The concept of job satisfaction is then analyzed and distinguished from other related concepts such as performance and rewards. Possible confounding variables which may or may not influence the level of job satisfaction are scrutinized through a review of current literature. A review of the process and content theories of job satisfaction is presented and critically analyzed. The process theories of job satisfaction include the expectancy theory, discrepancy theory, and the theory upon which this study is based, the inequity theory. The content theories are represented by Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory. These two theories are the basis for the construction and content of the Educational Work Components Study and Incentive Scale. The measured difference between the scores of these two instruments determines the measured "inequity" on which this study is founded.

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CHAPTER III

RATIONALE AND HYPOTHESIS

Nearly all the research on work motivation in the past has limited itself to the study of industry and industrial employees. Descriptive, explanative, and predictive theoretical models, and also empirical investigations which specifically relate to work attitudes of educators are limited in number and scope.¹

One such theoretical model which has been applied to the educational setting is Inequity Theory upon which this study is based. Social Inequity Theory was first developed by March and Simon² and Adams,³ as a framework for studying job satisfaction among individual employees.

Briefly stated, the inequity theory claims that:

Inequity exists for the individual whenever his perceived job inputs and/or outcomes stand psychologically in obverse relation to what he perceives are the inputs and/or outcomes of similar individuals.

The theory implies that (1) the presence of inequity will motivate the individual to achieve equity or reduce inequity; (2) the strength of motivation to achieve equity will vary directly with the amount of inequity; and (3) that satisfaction increases as inequity decreases.⁴

The first application of the use of the inequity theory as it relates to educators was conducted by Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley⁵ in which they studied the relationship between individual work motivation

and organizational incentives in predicting levels of job satisfaction among both elementary and secondary administrators in Kansas. They found that of six discrepancies on job satisfaction produced a significant R^2 of .21 for principals. The effect of only one possible confounding variable was partialled out, that of primary life interest. This variable was found to influence job satisfaction.

Hackman and Lawler⁶ suggest that the more an individual believes that he can obtain a valued result by engaging in some particular behavior or class of behaviors, the more likely he is to engage in that behavior. However, this behavior depends on the extent to which they satisfy his needs for intrinsic, extrinsic, and risk propensity factors. Consequently a theoretical conclusion can be made that individual work motivation attitudes and the perceived organizational incentives are logically related to each other and to job satisfaction.

The present study seeks to apply the theory of inequity in predicting the level of job satisfaction among high school principals and assistant principals, thus the major hypothesis of this study:

The inequity between individual work motivation factors and organizational incentives will be inversely related to the level of job satisfaction.

Current literature suggests, and reason demands, that there are confounding variables that may influence a person's level of satisfaction on the job. A number of confounding variables have been identified for examination in this study because research and/or intuition suggests that these variables may have an effect on educators' levels of job satisfaction. These variables are: primary life interests, level of education, hierarchical position held, minority student concentration, school size, respondent's age, years

in present position, years in education, population density, and full or part time position. Each will be discussed in turn.

The variable of primary life interest has been shown to have an affect on job satisfaction. Miskel, DeFrain, and Wilcox⁷ suggest that a person experiences a wide range of activities in daily life and that an individual has preferences for doing activities in a chosen setting. These areas of preferences present the direction of an individual's concentration and strong involvements, which yield satisfaction. In the remaining areas of required behavior that possibly include the job, little need may exist for self-realization and achievement. Dubin and Champoux,⁸ Miskel and Gerhardt,⁹ and Miskel, Glasnapp and Hatley¹⁰ support the importance of job related primary life interest in their research, positively relating it to increased job satisfaction.

Another variable which has been shown to have an effect on job satisfaction is the level of education. Industrial psychologists researching job satisfaction among business executives consistently conclude that job satisfaction is highly correlated with status.¹¹ Iannone,¹² when interviewing secondary and elementary school principals, also found similar results concluding that achievement and recognition were significantly mentioned by principals as contributing to their job satisfaction. Recognition of achievements generally came from the principals receiving a personal advancement either in status or salary. Iannone found that an earned doctorate can be associated with recognition and status, and as such contributes positively to a principal's level of job satisfaction. Brown's¹³ study lends support to this suggestion. He found that principals

without doctorates received less satisfaction from their position than those with doctorates.

The level of job satisfaction has been known to be affected by the variable of hierarchical position. As a rule, organizational reward systems are structured so that when a person is promoted it is equivalent to having more of one's needs satisfied. The satisfaction of additional needs may lead to increased satisfaction with the job.¹⁴ A number of studies investigating employee position within an organization as it relates to job satisfaction have agreed that hierarchical position has an effect on the level of job satisfaction. Recent studies by Graham,¹⁵ Edel,¹⁶ El Salmi and Cummings,¹⁷ and Ivancevich¹⁸ reported that high level administrators generally experience greater satisfaction from their jobs than lower level administrators.

Maybe the increases have not been enough to keep up w/ times.

Get one in AP's

Another variable that is shown to influence the level of satisfaction with the job is minority student concentration. Quite frequently, educational journals and news media refer to the "minority" or ethnic problem. School administrators faced with this problem, whether real or imaginary, could consider themselves not as well off as those administrators without the problem. This problem may be a factor in influencing the amount of job satisfaction experienced by educational administrators. Brown¹⁹ concluded in his research that there was a statistically significant relationship between administrator's need satisfaction and the minority student composition.

School size may be a variable that has an influence on job satisfaction. As schools become larger, there is a tendency for administrative roles to become more defined. This may lead to

increased role identity by the principal. Personal autonomy of the principal may also be increased as schools become larger because higher level administrators play less a role in the daily operation of the school, leaving the principal the chief decision maker. Increased role identity and personal autonomy may lead to a higher level of job satisfaction among principals.²⁰ Mifflin's²¹ study lends support to this reasoning. He concluded that secondary principals of schools with large enrollments rated themselves significantly higher in general job satisfaction and in intrinsic job satisfaction than did secondary principals of schools with medium and small enrollments.

The variable age may have an effect in a person's level of satisfaction with the job. The relationship between one's age and his satisfaction on the job has been found generally to be "U-shaped;" that is, following a pattern of youthful enthusiasm, followed by decreasing zeal in the thirties and forties, and, later in life, increased satisfaction. In a review of literature, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell²² found general agreement on this phenomenon. Prichard, in a subsequent review of literature, suggests:

That there is some relationship between age and job satisfaction . . . Most, if not all, of the studies indicate that there is relatively high satisfaction in the early parts of the job career, a decline in the late twenties and thirties, a dip in the middle forties, after which job satisfaction rises.²³

Plant²⁴ found there was a significant relationship between the age of teachers and their job satisfaction, while Merrill²⁵ reported a "moderate" relationship.

The variable of years in present position may have an effect on job satisfaction. Brown,²⁶ in a study relating fourteen variables and educational administrator's job satisfaction, found that there

was a positive relationship between years in present position and job satisfaction. Brown suggested the following explanation, that for administrators who are upward mobile, that longevity in position would be negatively related to job satisfaction. Lawler²⁷ suggests that years in present position may have a curvilinear relationship to job satisfaction, that is, high satisfaction among young and old workers and low satisfaction among middle-age workers.

The variables of years in education, population density, and full or part time position were also selected by the research as variables which might have an effect on high school administrator's job satisfaction.

The preceding discussion indicates the importance of the following control hypothesis:

The inequity between individual work motivation factors and organizational incentives will be inversely related to job satisfaction, controlling for primary life interests, position, minority student concentration, average daily attendance, degree, years in education, years in present position, full or part time position, age and population density.

FOOTNOTES

¹C. Miskel, D. Glasnapp, and R. Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interests, Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Final Report 1-0413, 1972, p. 1

²J. March and H. Simon, Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958).

³J. Adams, "Toward an Understanding of Inequity," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 67, No. 5 (1963), pp. 422-436.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley.

⁶J. Hackman and E. Lawler, "Employee Reactions to Job Characteristics," Journal of Applied Psychology Monograph, Vol. 50 (1971), pp. 259-285.

⁷C. Miskel, J. DeFrain, and K. Wilcox, "Expectancy Work Motivation, Central Life Interests, Voluntarism, Organizational Situation, Job Satisfaction, and Perceived Teaching Performance," Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, 1979), p. 3-4.

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⁹C. Miskel and E. Gerhardt, "Perceived Bureaucracy, Teacher Conflict, Central Life Interests, Voluntarism, and Job Satisfaction," Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. 12, No. 1 (1974), pp. 84-97.

¹⁰C. Miskel, D. Glasnapp, and R. Hatley, "A Test of the Inequity Theory for Job Satisfaction Using Educators' Attitudes Toward Work Motivation and Work Incentives," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 11 (1975), pp. 38-54.

¹¹F. Brown, "Job Satisfaction of Educational Administrators: A Replication," Planning and Changing, Vol. 7, No. 1 (1976), pp. 46-48.

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- ¹⁸J. Ivancevich, "Perceived Need Satisfaction of Domestic versus Overseas Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 52 (1969), pp. 274-278.
- ¹⁹F. Brown, "Need Satisfaction of Educational Administrators," Paper presented at 57th Annual Meeting of American Educational Research Association (Chicago, 1972), pp. 1-38, ED 061 584.
- ²⁰Ibid., pp. 28-31.
- ²¹J. Mifflin, "A Study of the Work Adjustment and Job Satisfaction of Elementary and Secondary Principals" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1975).
- ²²F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, R. Peterson, and D. Capwell, Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion (Pittsburgh: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh), 1957.
- ²³R. Prichard, "The Job Satisfaction of the Public School Principal" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1961).
- ²⁴R. Plant, "An Investigation of Some Correlates of Teachers Satisfaction" (Doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1966), Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 26, p. 6481.
- ²⁵P. Merrill, "A Study Concerning the Job Satisfaction of Elementary Teachers and Principals" (Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, 1969), Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 30, p. 1547.
- ²⁶Brown, Planning and Changing, pp. 46-48.
- ²⁷E. Lawler, Motivation in Work Organizations (Monterey, California, 1973), p. 82.

*Ratio Work Motivation
of teacher vs Administrators*

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the inequity between individual work motivation factors and organizational incentives will predict job satisfaction among high school administrators (principals and assistant principals). This investigation will also examine factors likely to intervene in the hypothesized relationships, that is, personal, organizational, and situational factors.

This chapter includes the conceptual and operational definitions of the variables, selection of population and sample, a description of the instrumentation, and the procedures used in data collection and analysis.

Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables

The definitions provided below are presented to provide a clear understanding of the concepts and variables in the manner that they were used in the present study.

Work Motivation, Incentives and Inequity

Work Motivation. Motivation is defined as a complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organization. These are

the forces (drives, instincts, tension states, psychological mechanisms) inside the person which start and maintain his activity toward achieving personal goals.¹

Six unidimensional factors were identified by Borgatta and can be used to describe work motivation in the educational organization:

1. Potential for Personal Challenge and Development: Indicates desire for creativity and responsibility in the job.

2. Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success: Indicates whether an individual seeks job situations in which the salary is determined by merit, the competition is keen, and the emphasis is on accomplishment.

3. Tolerance for Work Pressure: Indicates attitudes toward situations where the work load might be excessive.

4. Conservative Security: Indicates individual desire for security with well-defined promotion guidelines and job routines.

5. Willingness to Seek Reward in Spite of Uncertainty versus Avoidance of Uncertainty: Indicates the individual's willingness to do interesting work even though it might be a temporary job.

6. Surround Concerns: Indicates the person's concern with the hygienic aspect of the job.²

The original 66 item Work Components Study Questionnaire developed by Borgatta³ was devised to merge and operationalize Herzberg's⁴ two-factor theory with Blum's⁵ findings concerning security orientation of industrial workers. Borgatta devised ten categories that he believed had correspondence to Herzberg's first and second level factors. An inclusive list of content ideas and items under

each category was drawn up. The list was then screened by experts for intelligibility, length, redundancy and problems of format design. The resulting items were administered to 323 subjects. The results were factor analyzed, and six factors were extracted that had reasonably clear definitions and promised some degree of independence.⁶ These six factors were listed and defined above. Kerlinger⁷ supports the use of factor analysis as a technique for determining an instrument's construct validity.

Miskel and Heller⁸ and Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley⁹ modified the Borgatta instrument to fit the educational setting by replacing words relating to industrial work situations with words pertaining to work in an educational setting. Three factor analytic techniques were used to test the instrument's reliability when adapted to the educational setting. The revised instrument was named the Educational Work Components Study and consisted of 49 items, a reduction in items accomplished through factor analysis. Miskel¹⁰ further reduced the Educational Work Components Study from 49 to 36 items through factor analysis. The factor loadings for the 36 item Educational Work Components Study are to be found in Appendix A.

The instrument upon which the measurement of work motivation in this study is based is the 36 item Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire developed by Miskel.¹¹ Miskel's instrument has evolved from several other forms; each has been revised through factor analysis until it took the form of the present 36 item questionnaire, whose items are responded to on a five point Likert scale. For the purpose of this study one item was eliminated from Miskel's 36 item questionnaire because it did not load on any factor above

.30, leading to the use of a 35 item Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire.

The reliability estimates of the Borgatta¹² original six factor, 66 item Work Components Study ranged from .65 to .85, while the estimation for the six factor, 49 item Educational Work Component Study¹³ ranged from .70 to .83. The reliability of Miskel's¹⁴ 36 item Educational Work Components Study instrument with a range of .72 to .84, compares very favorably with the above two instrument forms as does the 35 item Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire used in this study. The 35 item Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire had Cronbach Reliability Coefficients ranging from .65 to .81. Specific alpha coefficients for each of the six factors in the 36 and 35 item Educational Work Components Study are to be found in Appendix A.

Work Incentives. Incentives are defined as the organizational counterpart to individual motivation; that is, incentives are what a working person receives from the employing organization in return for being a productive member. Incentives, then, are the rewards or punishments given by an organization for an individual's contribution.¹⁵

To measure incentives operating in educational organizations, items of the six factors of the 49 item Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire were rewritten by Miskel, Glasnapp and Hatley¹⁶ to appear as incentives. This was accomplished by, first, changing the tense of the items from the past to the present and, second, by changing the Incentive Scale's directives to refer to a different frame of reference. For example, with the Educational

Work Components Study Questionnaire, the respondents read "Ideally, I prefer a job", while with the Incentive Scale Questionnaire, the respondents read, "In my present".

Incentives to work in this study are measured by a 35 item Incentive Scale Questionnaire. This questionnaire was developed by selecting items from the 49 item Incentive Scale Questionnaire that matched questions from the 35 item Educational Work Components Study Questionnaire. The result was a 35 item Incentive Scale Questionnaire used in this study. Factor loadings for the 49 item Incentive Scale Questionnaire, along with reliability estimates for 35 item Incentive Scale Questionnaire, are provided in Appendix A. Any interpretation of data involving the 35 item Incentive Scale Questionnaire should be made keeping in mind the low estimates or reliability reported.

Inequity. The variable of inequity is conceptually defined as the difference between what is expected or desired as a fair and reasonable return (individual motivation) and what is actually experienced in the job situation (organizational incentives).¹⁷ Abbott¹⁸ hypothesizes that an educator will perform in a school system according to the way his position is defined for him. He goes on to write that the educator anticipates a relationship between the expected performance and the school district's rewards. If the educator performs and the anticipated rewards are not forthcoming, or if he perceives the rewards as negative, a condition of inequity exists.

In order to measure this concept of inequity each of the total scores of the six factors on the Educational Work Components Study

Questionnaire was subtracted from its corresponding factor in the Incentive Scale Questionnaire, yielding six individual inequity scores.

Job Satisfaction

Perhaps the best definition of job satisfaction as used in this study is the one offered by Smith, et al.¹⁹ They define job satisfaction as "feelings or affective responses to facets in the situation." They go on to state that "feelings of satisfaction are associated with a perceived difference between what is expected as a fair or reasonable return and what is experienced."

The Brayfield and Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction was used as an index of "overall" job satisfaction in this study. The index assumes that job satisfaction can be inferred from the individual's attitude toward his work; the attitude variable of job satisfaction is inferred from mental reactions to a job experience along a favorable-unfavorable continuum. The scale consists of eighteen items arranged in a five point Likert scale format.²⁰

The Brayfield and Rothe Index was originally administered to 231 female office employees. The odd-even product moment reliability coefficient computed for this sample was .77, which was corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula to a reliability coefficient of .87.

Evidence for the high validity of the index rests with its differentiating power when applied to two groups that could reasonably be assumed to differ in job satisfaction. The index was administered to 91 subjects. An assumption was made that those persons employed in occupations appropriate to their expressed interest should, on the average, be more satisfied with their jobs than those subjects employed

in occupations inappropriate to their expressed interest in personnel work. The mean of the personnel groups was 76.9 with a standard deviation of 8.6 as compared to a mean of 65.4 with a standard deviation of 14.02 for the non-personnel group. This difference of 11.5 points is significant at the 1 percent level. The difference between the variances is also significant at the 1 percent level. The Brayfield and Rothe Index correlated .92 with scores on the Hoppock job satisfaction scale.

Control and Demographic Variables

Primary Life Interests

The control variable of Primary Life Interests was measured because it was suspected that it may effect the relationship between inequity and job satisfaction in this study. This variable is an affective indicator of the extent to which the job is of primary focus in the life of the respondent.²¹ Dubin²² supports Strause²³ when he stated that "given the wide range of areas of daily life, each person selects only a few as primary life interest."

The operational measure of this variable is an instrument developed by Miskel et al.²⁴ (See Appendix D). The instrument provides information on the level of a respondent's job related primary life interest and not whether the primary life interest lies in some facet of life outside of work. The instrument's items basically ask the respondents to indicate which is more important, "their job," or "other interest." The instrument is composed of 7 items arranged in a five point Likert format that have a high face validity and internal consistency reliability estimate of .73.

Degree

This demographic variable refers to the highest college degree held by the respondent. The respondent was asked to indicate this information on the questionnaire provided (See Appendix D).

Position

Another demographic variable refers to the professional position held by the respondents, either principal or assistant principal. This data was obtained through a telephone call made to each school district's central administrative office.

Average Daily Attendance

The above demographic variable refers to the average number of students attending the respondent's high school daily. The respondent was asked to provide this information on the questionnaire (See Appendix D).

Minority Student Concentration

This demographic variable refers to the total percentage of American Indians, Black, and Hispanic students attending respondent's high school. The questionnaire requested the respondent to indicate the number or percent of minority students attending his/her high school (See Appendix D).

Years in Education

Another demographic variable refers to the number of years a respondent has been an educator. This information was obtained by

the questionnaire (See Appendix D).

Full or Part Time Position

This demographic variable refers to whether respondent holds full or part time position as either a principal or assistant principal. A telephone call was made to each school district's central administrative office to obtain this data.

Population Density

Another demographic variable refers to the average number of persons per square mile residing within the county of which the respondent's high school is located. This information was obtained from the 1979 Directory of Oklahoma.

Sex

This variable refers to the gender of the respondent. The information was obtained by the questionnaire (See Appendix D).

Age

This variable refers to the age in years of the respondent. The respondent was asked to provide this information on the questionnaire (See Appendix D).

On November 26, 1979, questionnaires were mailed to a stratified random sample of 141 high school principals and assistant principals within the state of Oklahoma. Along with each questionnaire was an explanatory letter and a stamped, self-addressed envelope (See Appendix C). All questionnaires were coded so that follow-up letters

could be sent to non-respondents. The names of all respondents and non-respondents were kept confidential. By the end of two weeks, 70 percent of the questionnaires had been completed and returned. Another questionnaire was mailed to non-respondents on December 10, 1979. By December 21, 1979, 103 usable questionnaires, or 73 percent, had been completed and returned. Data were tabulated from the 103 usable questionnaires at hand.

*Those NOT
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not respond?*

Statistical Procedures

The data obtained from this study were keypunched and computer processed using programs available from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. In addition, an SPSS program was used to tabulate frequency counts for each variable.

The following statistical techniques were used to analyze the data. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to determine the relationship between each of the six discrepancies of work motivation and overall job satisfaction. In addition, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were also used to determine the relationship between each control variable and overall job satisfaction. First and tenth order partial correlation techniques were used to determine the effect of selected control and demographic variables in the above relationship (See Appendix E). A 95 percent confidence level was selected for this study.

Sample Selection

A stratified random sample of 20 percent of the public high school principals and their assistant principals was selected for inclusion

in this study. Oklahoma's public high schools were divided into five size categories that served as the strata based on a 1979-80 listing provided by the Oklahoma Secondary School Activities Association. This listing divided Oklahoma's High Schools by student average daily membership. A 20 percent sample was drawn from each of the five strata using a table of random numbers.

Data Collection

Data were collected on the following variables by means of a questionnaire mailed to the sample: work motivation factors, organizational incentive factors, overall job satisfaction, and primary life interest. Respondents were also asked to respond to certain demographic questions concerning themselves and school. They are: (1) highest degree, (2) average student attendance, (3) minority student concentration, (4) number of years in education, (5) number of years in present position, (6) sex, and (7) age.

A telephone call was made to each school district's central administrative office seeking information as to the names and titles of the high school administrators, the high school mailing address and whether the administrators held full or part time positions. It was determined that all assistant administrators sampled in this study held the title of Assistant Principal. Information as to the population density of counties where high schools are located was obtained from the 1979 Directory of Oklahoma published by the Oklahoma State Election Board.

FOOTNOTES

¹C. Miskel, D. Glasnapp, and R. Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interest, Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Final Report 1-0413, 1972, p. 2.

²E. Borgatta, "The Work Components Study: A Set of Measures for Work Motivation," Journal of Psychological Studies, Vol. 15, No. 1 (1967), pp. 1-11.

³Ibid.

⁴F. Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, 2nd edition (Cleveland, 1967), pp. 4-16.

⁵S. Blum, "The Desire for Security," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 52, No. 6 (1961), pp. 317-321.

⁶Borgatta, pp. 1-11.

⁷F. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York, 1973), p. 458.

⁸C. Miskel and L. Heller, "The Educational Work Components Study: An Adapted Set of Measures for Work Motivation," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 42 (1973), pp. 45-50.

⁹C. Miskel, D. Glasnapp, and R. Hatley, "A Test of the Inequity Theory for Job Satisfaction Using Educators' Attitudes Toward Work Motivation and Work Incentives," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 11, No. 1 (1975), pp. 38-54.

¹⁰C. Miskel, Public School Principals' Leader Style, Organizational Situation, and Effectiveness, Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Final Report 3-0469, 1974, p. 21.

¹¹Ibid., pp. 19-25.

¹²Borgatta, pp. 3-4.

¹³Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interest, pp. 46-47.

¹⁴Miskel, p. 25.

¹⁵Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interests, p. 5.

¹⁶Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, Educational Administrative Quarterly, pp. 38-54.

¹⁷W. Hoy and C. Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice (New York, 1978), pp. 122-123.

¹⁸M. Abbott, "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 2 (1965), pp. 1-13.

¹⁹P. Smith, L. Kendall, and C. Hulin, The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969), pp. 1-2.

²⁰D. Miller, Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, 3rd edition (New York, 1977), pp. 368-370.

²¹Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interests, pp. 8-9.

²²R. Dubin, Human Relations in Administration, 3rd edition (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1968), pp. 18-20.

²³G. Strauss, "Some Notes on Power Equalization," in H. Leavitt (ed.), The Social Science of Organizations (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1963), pp. 23-28.

²⁴Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interests, pp. 46-47.

CHAPTER V

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate whether the discrepancy between individual work motivation factors and to organizational incentives predicts the level of job satisfaction among high school administrators. The six independent factors measured by the Educational Work Components Study and the corresponding six factors of the Incentive Scale were selected to measure this discrepancy. The Educational Work Components Study and Incentive Scale are each composed of 35 questions measuring the following six independent factors of work motivation: (1) "Potential for Personal Challenge," (2) "Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success," (3) "Tolerance for Work Pressure," (4) "Conservative Security," (5) "Willingness to Seek Reward," and (6) "Surround Concern."

A review of the demographic data obtained from the 103 respondents who completed usable questionnaires for this study is provided here as a description of the pertinent characteristics of the sample and population.

Table III reveals the following demographic data describing respondents. Of the 103 respondents, 99 (96.1 percent) were male. The age range for all respondents was from 25 to 62 with 18.6 percent

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TABLE III
 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA DESCRIBING
 THE RESPONDENTS

Variable	Frequency	Frequency (Percent)*	Cumulative Frequency (Percent)
<u>Sex</u>			
Male	99	96.1	96.1
Female	4	3.9	100.0
<u>Degree</u>			
Bachelors	9	8.7	8.7
Masters	92	89.3	98.1
Doctorate	2	1.9	100.0
<u>Position Held</u>			
Principal	73	70.9	70.9
Assistant Principal	30	29.1	100.0
<u>Years in Present Position</u>			
0-3	45	43.7	43.7
4-8	30	29.2	72.8
Over 8	28	27.1	100.0
<u>Position Type</u>			
Full time	74	71.8	71.8
Part time	29	28.2	100.0
<u>Years as Educator</u>			
2-10	17	16.5	16.5
11-15	31	30.3	46.6
16-20	21	20.4	67.0
Over 20	34	32.8	100.0
<u>Respondent's Age</u>			
25-34	19	18.6	18.4
35-44	42	40.8	59.2
45-54	29	28.3	87.4
Over 55	13	12.7	100.0

*Percentages not cumulative due to rounding error.

being 34 or younger, 40.8 percent between 35 and 44, 28.3 percent between 45 and 54, and 12.7 percent 55 and older. Respondents who reported the master's degree as their highest degree earned represented 89.3 percent while the bachelor's, 8.7 percent, and doctorate, 1.9 percent. Respondents with three or less years experience in their present administrative position represented ~~43.7~~^{Not reported} percent, while 4 to 8 years, 29.2 percent, and over 8 years, 27.1 percent. Most of the respondents indicated that they were principals (70.9 percent) while assistant principals represented 29.1 percent. Administrators who held administrative positions of a full time nature comprised 71.8 percent of the respondents. The range for respondents indicating their number of years of experience as an educator was from 2 to 39 years with 16.5 percent reporting experience 10 years or less, 30.3 percent 11 to 15 years, 20.4 percent 16 to 20 years, and 32.8 percent with over 20 years experience.

Table IV indicates the demographic data acquired concerning respondents' community and school environment. The largest percentage of respondents (43.4 percent) indicated they were employed in high schools with under 250 students, 17.5 percent from 250 to 499, 5.8 percent from 500 to 749, 9.7 percent from 750 to 999, and 14.6 percent in high schools with over 1000 students, the range of this category was 42 to 1779 in average daily attendance. See Table V for a breakdown of average daily attendance according to position. When the respondents were asked to indicate the number or percent of minority students comprising their total student body population, the results indicated that over half (53.5 percent) of the high schools has 10 percent or less minority student student concentration,

23.3 percent from 11 to 20 percent minority student concentration, and 23.3 percent with over 20 percent minority concentration. The range for this category was from 0 to 90 percent. Of the high schools represented in this study, 42.8 percent were located in counties whose population density per square mile was 40 or less, 37.1 percent from 41 to 80, and 20.3 percent with over 80 persons per square mile. The range for this category is from 4 persons per square mile to 772.

TABLE IV

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA DESCRIBING THE SCHOOL
THE COMMUNITY ENVIRONMENT

Variable	Frequency	Frequency (Percent)*	Cumulative Frequency (Percent)
<u>Average Daily Attendance</u>			
42-249	54	53.4	53.4
250-499	18	17.5	70.9
500-749	6	5.8	76.7
750-999	10	9.7	86.4
Over 999	16	14.6	100.0
<u>Minority Student Concentration</u>			
0-10%	55	53.5	53.4
11-20%	24	23.3	76.7
Over 20%	24	23.3	100.0
<u>Population Density (per square mile)</u>			
4-40	44	42.8	42.7
41-80	38	37.1	79.6
Over 81	21	20.3	100.0

*Percentages not cumulative due to rounding error.

TABLE V
RESPONSE RATES BY SCHOOL SIZE

	AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE					TOTAL
	42-249	250-499	500-749	750-999	Over 999	
Number of Schools in Population	360	66	18	18	31	493
20% Sample of Schools	72	14	4	4	7	101

Total Principals - Assistant Principals in Sample	72	23	10	12	24	141
Total Principals - Assistant Principals Responding	54	18	6	10	15	103
Percent Principals - Assistant Principals Responding	75.0	78.2	60.0	83.3	62.9	73.0

Total Principals in Sample	72	14	4	4	7	101
Total Principals Responding	54	9	2	3	5	73
Percent Principals Responding	75.0	64.2	50.0	75.0	74.1	72.2

Total Assistant Principals in Sample	0	9	6	8	17	40
Total Assistant Principals Responding	0	9	4	7	10	30
Percent Assistant Principals Responding	00.0	100.0	66.6	87.5	58.8	75.0

Major Hypothesis

The inequity between individual work motivation factors and organizational incentives will be inversely related to the level of job satisfaction.

Zero order correlation coefficients were determined for each of the six motivation-incentive discrepancies as they relate to the measured level of job satisfaction among high school principals and assistant principals. Of the six discrepancies, three show a significant negative correlation with measured job satisfaction, they are: (1) Potential for Personal Challenge ($r = (-.24)$), (2) Tolerance for Work Pressure ($r = (-.35)$) and (3) Surround Concern ($r = (-.20)$). The three that did not show any significant relationship to job satisfaction were (1) Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success ($r = (-.10)$), (2) Conservative Security ($r = (-.04)$) and (3) Willingness to Seek Reward ($r = (-.05)$). Partial support of the major hypothesis of this study is evident by the zero order correlation coefficients found in Table VI.

TABLE VI

ZERO ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIX MOTIVATION-
INCENTIVE DISCREPANCIES AND
JOB SATISFACTION

Factors of Work Motivation	r	p
Potential for Personal Challenge	-.24	p .05
Competitiveness Desirability/Reward of Success	-.10	p = .16
Tolerance for Work Pressure	-.35	p .05
Conservative Security	-.04	p = .36
Willingness to Seek Reward	-.05	p = .32
Surround Concern	-.20	p .05

Control Hypothesis

The inequity between individual work motivation factors and organizational incentives will be inversely related to job satisfaction, controlling for primary life interests, position, minority student concentration, average daily attendance, degree, years in education, years in present position, full or part time position, age, and population density.

Tenth order partial correlation coefficients were determined for each of the six motivation-incentive discrepancies as they relate to the measured level of job satisfaction among high school principals and assistant principals. Three of the six discrepancies show a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction when the ten variables of the control hypothesis are controlled for statistically. They are: (1) "Potential for Personal Challenge," (2) "Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success," and (3) "Tolerance for Work Pressure." The remaining three discrepancies of (1) "Conservative Security," (2) "Willingness to Seek Reward," and (3) "Surround Concern" did not indicate any significant relationship to job satisfaction when the above ten factors were controlled. Table VII presents data partially supporting the control hypothesis presented in this study.

TABLE VII

TENTH ORDER PARTIAL CORRELATION FOR THE RELATIONSHIP
 BETWEEN SIX MOTIVATION-INCENTIVE DISCREPANCIES AND
 JOB SATISFACTION CONTROLLING FOR ALL TEN
 CONTROL AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Factors of Work Motivation	r	p
Potential for Personal Challenge	-.29	p .05
Competitiveness Desirability/Reward of Success	-.30	p .05
Tolerance for Work Pressure	-.32	p .05
Conservative Security	-.02	p = .42
Willingness to Seek Reward	-.08	p = .23
Surround Concern	-.12	p = .12

CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSIS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Analysis of Data

A review of this study's results indicates that both the major and control hypothesis were supported in part. When zero order correlation coefficients were computed between six dimensions of inequity and level of job satisfaction, there were three significant negative correlations: 1) "potential for personal challenge," 2) tolerance for work pressure," and 3) "surround concern." However, when the ten control factors were introduced, only two of these discrepancies ("potential for personal challenge and development" and "tolerance for work pressure") continued to show a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction. The third factor, "surround concern," lost its correlation with job satisfaction when the ten intervening variables were introduced as controls. Possibly, the relationship between "surround concern" and job satisfaction is a spurious one.

Another discrepancy, that of competitiveness desirability and reward of success became significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction, when the effects of the control variables were statistically removed. Thus, several of the control variables intervene in the relationship between inequity and the level of job

satisfaction. In summary, when the effects of the control variables were held constant, the discrepancies of "potential for personal challenge," "competitiveness desirability and reward of success," and "tolerance for work pressure" show a significant correlation with level of job satisfaction in the predicted direction.

Although not specifically predicted, it is important to note that the three discrepancies significantly correlating with job satisfaction (after partialling ten control variables) were the three discrepancies dealing with intrinsic motivation factors. None of the three discrepancies measuring extrinsic work motivation was significant after removing the effects of the ten control variables.

The research of Herzberg,¹ King,² and Sergiovanni³ offers an explanation for the factors of intrinsic work motivation being negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Herzberg found that workers identified positive work events as dominated by references to intrinsic aspects of the actual job, such as achievement. Negative events were dominated by references to extrinsic aspects of the work situation such as those related to company policy and administration, technical supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and job security. King, reviewing research completed in the industrial setting since Herzberg's 1959 study, makes the following assertions: 1) all motivators combined contribute more to job satisfaction than to job dissatisfaction, and 2) all hygiene factors combined contribute more to job dissatisfaction than to job satisfaction. Sergiovanni, in replicating the Herzberg study in an educational setting, concluded that factors which accounted for positive attitudes of teachers were related to the work itself (intrinsic factors) while negative attitudes were

related to conditions of work (extrinsic factors).

In the only previous research relating inequity with the level of job satisfaction, Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley⁴ found that for principals, only one discrepancy was significantly related to job satisfaction, the intrinsic factor called "potential for personal challenge and development." The results of the present study differ with Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley's results in that all three intrinsic discrepancies were significantly related to job satisfaction. ★ ★

Several explanations for the above difference in results are suggested. First, the reliability scores for the Incentive Scale Questionnaire used in the present study were weak (See Appendix B). Miskel⁵ had indicated that the alpha scores were not readily available for the Incentive Scale used in his study but that the Cronbach coefficient of reliability were at least at the .70 level for all subscales. Given the fact that the alpha scores for the present study were weak there may be problems with the Incentive Scale's reliability over different samples. The interpretation of data involving the Incentive Scale Questionnaire used in this study should be made keeping in mind the low estimates of reliability (See Appendix B). Let's find out if there's a better way to determine incentives?

A second possible reason for the difference in the two studies' results is that the Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley⁶ study may have been insufficiently controlled. They controlled only one variable, primary life interest, whereas the present study controlled for ten variables of which four were found to be significant interveners between the six discrepancies and job satisfaction. These significant interveners are: primary life interest, average daily attendance, degree level, and full or part time position (See Appendix E).

In reviewing this study's data several additional questions were raised. Was there a relationship between the Incentive Scale Questionnaire subscale's reliability and this study's findings? No such pattern was found, discounting the possibility that the results were a function of a variance in subscale reliability. Was there a difference in response among principals and assistant principals which would prevent the study's results from being generalized to the total sample? A review of subscale means showed a nearly identical pattern among both principals and assistant principals alike, discounting the latter question.

In conclusion, this study found that, among the intrinsic work motivation factors measured, as inequity between "ideal" incentives or motivational factors and "real" incentives or conditions approached equity, job satisfaction levels increased among high school principals and assistant principals. The results of the study indicate the importance of controlling for intervening variables and exposing spurious correlation within this relationship.

Implications

During the last several years, research in the area of work motivation has been growing at an ever increasing rate. The significant incidence of the topic in scholarly journals indicates a concern in this area.⁷ Steers and Porter⁸ explain four factors that impel their interest: the realization that human resources have to be viewed as long-term assets; the fact that government agencies are placing constraints on organizations which force them to find new ways to increase effectiveness and efficiency; the recent emphasis on behavioral

requirements to encourage good workers to stay with the organization; and, the pervasive nature of the concept itself. Miskel, DeFrain, and Wilcox⁹ explain their interest in motivation as piqued by trends toward absenteeism, militancy, and lack of commitment to work among employees.

This study seeks to contribute an understanding of the above problems by examining how inequity theory relates to high school principal and assistant principal job satisfaction. All of the intrinsic discrepancies and none of the extrinsic discrepancies were found to be significantly related to job satisfaction. The importance of intrinsic work motivation factors to the high school administrator has implications for the educational policy maker because it is related to such important issues as personnel retention, the match between and incumbent, and the decrease of employee militancy and increase in job commitment.¹⁰ Each of the three intrinsic work motivation factors of 1) "potential for personal challenge and development," 2) "competitiveness desirability and reward of success," and 3) "tolerance for work pressure" will be discussed in turn with specific implications examined.

Handwritten notes:
 - "we should see that a profile shows intrinsic / job type O's as good Admin's studies"

The first intrinsic work motivation factor was "potential for personal challenge and development." It measured the desire for job situations in which there is an opportunity for creativity, an opportunity for as much responsibility as one wants, and an emphasis on individual ability. Opportunity should be extended to the high school principal for meeting his/her expectations and potential for creativity and responsibility. On the basis of this reasoning, an opportunity for continuous professional growth should be built into the principalship.

So if we find teachers motivated by these issues - we encourage to enter the field they should bite - If not, what deters them.

78

The "competitiveness desirability and reward of success" discrepancy was the second motivation factor correlating significantly with job satisfaction. This factor determines whether an individual seeks job situations where the salary is determined by merit, the competition is keen, and the emphasis is on accomplishment. Recognition seems to be an important factor in a high school principal's level of job satisfaction. Recognition, along with a sense of competitiveness, seems to be an important factor in a high school principal's level of job satisfaction. Opportunities to experience these factors should be provided.

Problem this tells us that principals want not how to find teachers who want this too.

The third intrinsic discrepancy found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction was "tolerance for work pressure." This factor measured attitudes toward situations in which the work load might be excessive or where a person might have to take work home. There should be an awareness among central office staff of a high school principal's individual tolerance for work pressure. Care must be taken not to overload the tolerance level which could lead to decreased job satisfaction.

In review, the opportunities should be provided for the high school principal to experience continuing professional growth, competitiveness for rewards, recognition, and work pressure within an acceptable degree. The importance of matching both individual employee job expectations and opportunities for meeting these expectations can not be emphasized enough in positively influencing the level of job satisfaction experienced by the high school administrator.

The three discrepancies which measured extrinsic work motivation factors were not found to be significantly correlated to the high school principal's and assistant principal's level of job satisfaction.

The fact that these inequities were not significantly related to the level of job satisfaction does not imply that the extrinsic factors do not contribute to job satisfaction.

The first extrinsic work motivation factor is "conservative security." This factor measures the individual's desire for security with well-defined guidelines and job routines. The second factor is "willingness to seek reward in spite of uncertainty versus avoidance of uncertainty." This factor measures the individual's willingness to do interesting work even though it might be in a temporary position. A third factor, "surround concern," measures the individual's concern for the hygienic aspects of the job. While the above three extrinsic work motivation factors do not show a significant correlation between their discrepancy and level of job satisfaction, this does not suggest that they are not factors in job satisfaction. It is more realistic to suggest that extrinsic work motivation factors contribute more to job dissatisfaction than job satisfaction, whereas, intrinsic work motivation factors contribute more to job satisfaction than to job dissatisfaction.¹¹

Recommendations

In reviewing the research findings and their implications, the following recommendations for further study are offered:

1. In the past, the study of work motivation has been largely confined to industrial settings. Additional research attention is needed with regard to individual work motivation in educational settings.
2. Current emphasis on extrinsic work incentives by administrators

Yes Yes Yes

should be supplemented by additional emphasis on providing increased intrinsic work incentives.

3. Additional research is needed to determine which factors cause a particular motivational pattern to develop within a school district. Specifically, we need to know to what extent teachers and administrators are selected on the basis of their motivational characteristics. *Excellent*

4. A study should be conducted which compares school districts that emphasize primarily extrinsic work motivation incentives as opposed to districts that primarily emphasize intrinsic work incentives to see if there is a correlation between administrator job satisfaction and work motivation.

5. A comprehensive instrument needs to be developed to measure the influence of intrinsic work motivation factors as they relate to workers level of job satisfaction.

6. An instrument needs to be developed to assist in the interview and selection process emphasizing the intrinsic work motivation factors. This would involve matching the intrinsic characteristics of the position with the individual intrinsic work motivation characteristics of the person being interviewed for the position.

FOOTNOTES

¹F. Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, 2nd edition (Cleveland, 1967), pp. 65-77.

²N. King, "Clarification and Evaluation of the Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 74, No. 1 (1970), pp. 18-31.

³T. Sergiovanni, "Factors which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. 5, No. 1 (1967), pp. 66-82.

⁴C. Miskel, D. Glasnapp, and R. Hatley, "A Test of the Inequity Theory for Job Satisfaction Using Educators' Attitudes Toward Work Motivation and Work Incentives," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 11, No. 1 (1975), p. 38-54.

⁵C. Miskel, Telephone Conversation. Kansas State University, Professor of Educational Administration, April 30, 1980.

⁶Miskel, Glasnapp, and Hatley, pp. 38-54.

⁷R. Steers and L. Porter, Motivation and Work Behavior, 2nd edition (New York, 1979), p. 1.

⁸Ibid., pp. 3-27.

⁹C. Miskel, J. DeFrain, and K. Wilcox, "Expectancy Work Motivation, Central Life Interests, Voluntarism, Organizational Situation, Job Satisfaction, and Perceived Teaching Performance," Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, 1979), p. 2-6.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 1.

¹¹Herzberg, pp. 65-77.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FACTOR LOADING AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS
IN EDUCATIONAL WORK COMPONENTS
STUDY INSTRUMENT

TABLE VIII
 FACTOR LOADING AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS
 IN EDUCATIONAL WORK COMPONENTS
 STUDY INSTRUMENT

EWCS Item	Factor Loading for 234N(36 items)	Factor Loading for 2,369N (49 items)	Alpha Coeff. for 36 item scale	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
<u>Factor 1 - Potential in Personal Challenge and Development</u>			.73	.75
9. There would be opportunity for creative work	.58	.61		
21. There would be emphasis on individual ability	.54	.62		
22. The school district would encourage further specialized work	.59	.60		
25. I would have a chance to further my formal education	.75	.60		
28. I would always have a chance to learn something new	.60	.66		
36. There would be emphasis in originality	.61	.67		
<u>Factor 2 - Competitiveness Desirability</u>			.78	.81
2. Salary increases would be strictly a matter of how much I accomplished for the school district	.70	.74		
7. The school district would be involved in heavy professional competition	.55	.44		

TABLE VIII (continued)

EWCS Item	Factor Loading for 234N (36 items)	Factor Loading for 2,369N (49 items)	Alpha Coeff. for 36 item scale	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
11. Salary increases would be determined by the amount of effort exerted	.84	.80		
24. Competition would be open and encouraged	.43	.45		
32. There would be emphasis on the actual production record	.54	.60		
34. Salary increases would be a matter of how much effort you put in	.79	.77		
<hr/>				
<u>Factor 3 - Tolerance for Work Pressure</u>			.77	.80
4. School related problems might come up that I would have to take care of myself outside of regular hours	.63	.65		
8. The work might be excessive sometimes	.72	.70		
15. I might sometimes have to take work home with me	.73	.66		
19. The work might build up "pressures" on me	.55	.58		
31. The work might come in big pushes sometimes	.64	.69		
33. I might be on call when there is pressure to get jobs done	.64	.69		
<hr/>				
<u>Factor 4 - Conservative Security</u>			.79	.65
6. I would be involved in managing a small group of people doing routine jobs	.63	.49		

TABLE VIII (continued)

EWSC Item	Factor Loading for 234N (30 items)	Factor Loading for 2,369N (49 items)	Alpha Coeff. for 36 item scale	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
10. The work would be routine, but not hard to do	.72	.74		
18. The work would be routine, but the initial salary would be high	.72	.74		
23. Promotions would come automatically	.65	.61		
27. The work would be routine, but highly respected in the community	.76	.75		
30. The salary increases would be regularly scheduled	.60*	.50		

<u>Factor 5 - Willingness to Seek Reward</u>			.84	.74
1. I could get fired easily, but the work would be very interesting.	.79	.68		
4. The work might run out, but it would be extremely interesting while it lasted	.50	.61		
17. I could get fired easily	.82	.73		
26. I could get fired easily, but the rewards would be high	.77	.79		
29. The job would be insecure	.78	.66		
35. Rewards would be high, but if one loses his job it would be very difficult to get another one	.68	.65		

TABLE VIII (continued)

EWCS Item	Factor Loading for 234N (36 items)	Factor Loading for 2,369N (49 items)	Alpha Coeff. for 36 item scale	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
<u>Factor 6 - Surround Concern</u>			.72	.76
3. The lighting would be good	.71	.62		
5. The community would have good recreational facilities	.48	.59		
12. The climate would be pleasant	.67	.66		
13. The community would be a wonderful place to raise a family	.45	.57		
16. The physical working conditions would be attractive	.63	.67		
20. The ventilation would be modern	.69	.69		

 *Item was eliminated from questionnaire used in this study.

APPENDIX B

FACTOR LOADING AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS
FOR INCENTIVE SCALE

TABLE IX
 FACTOR LOADING AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS
 FOR INCENTIVE SCALE

INC Item	Factor Loading for 2,369N (49 items)*	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
<u>Factor 1 - Potential in Personal Challenge and Development</u>		.70
1. There is emphasis on originality	.69	
5. There is an emphasis on individual ability	.69	
4. There is opportunity for creative work	.74	
12. The school district encourages further specialized work	.42	
19. I have a chance to further my formal education	.36	
11. I always have a chance to learn something new	.61	
<u>Factor 2 - Competitiveness Desirability</u>		.20
30. Salary increases are strictly a matter of how much I accomplish in the school district	.75	
34. The school district is involved in heavy professional competition	.35	
25. Salary increases are determined by the amount of effort exerted	.75	
23. Competition is open and encouraged	.42	
6. There is emphasis on the actual production record	.30	
31. Salary increases are a matter of how much effort you put in	.80	

TABLE IX (continued)

INC Item	Factor Loading for 2,396N (49 items)*	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
<u>Factor 3 - Tolerance for Work Pressure</u>		.60
10. The work is excessive sometimes	.68	
7. The work comes in big pushes sometimes	.64	
29. I sometimes have to take work home with me	.43	
28. School related problems might come up that I have to take care of my- self, even outside regular hours	.51	
13. I am on call when there is pressure to get jobs done	.52	
26. The work builds up "pressures" on me	.61	

<u>Factor 4 - Conservative Security</u>		.40
17. The work is routine, but highly respected in the community	.66	
22. The work is routine, but the initial salary was high	.52	
16. The work is routine, but not hard to do	.66	
3. Promotions come automatically	.29	
33. The salary increases are regularly scheduled	---**	
14. I am involved in managing a small group of people doing routine jobs	.49	

<u>Factor 5 - Willingness to Seek Rewards in Spite of Uncertainty vs. Avoidance</u>		.43
15. I could get fired easily, but the rewards are high	.71	
2. I could get fired easily	.76	
21. I could get fired easily, but the work is very interesting	.78	

TABLE IX (continued)

INC Item	Factor Loading for 2,369N (49 items)*	Alpha Coeff. for 35 item scale
35. The job is insecure	.68	
27. Rewards are high, but if I lost this job, it would be very difficult to get another one	.30	
32. The work might run out, but it is extremely interesting while it lasts	.37	

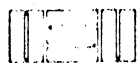
<u>Factor 6 - Surround Concerns</u>		.35
24. The ventilation is modern	.67	
18. The physical working conditions are attractive	.71	
36. The climate is pleasant	.42	
9. The lighting is good	.67	
20. The community is a wonderful place to raise a family	.48	
8. The community has good recreation facilities	.55	

*Only factor loading in the 36 items comprising the Incentive Scale used in this study are presented. For a complete report of the factor loadings of all 49 items see: Miskel *et al*, Public School Teachers' Work Motivation, Organizational Incentives, Job Satisfaction, and Primary Life Interests, pp. 15-19.

**Item was eliminated from questionnaire used in this study because it did not load on any factors above .30.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER MAILED TO SUBJECTS



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
ROOM 109 GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

November 1, 1979

Dear Colleague,

High school principals and vice-principals throughout the state of Oklahoma are being asked to complete this questionnaire and we hope that you can find twenty minutes from your busy day to participate. While each questionnaire is coded for follow-up purposes, no individual, school, or school district will be identified in records or reports resulting from this study. The code numbers will be removed from the questionnaire as soon as the questionnaire is received.

Please remember to answer every question on the questionnaire. If you desire a summary of the report, please let us know.

We thank you for your cooperation.

Respectfully,

Warren G. Ortloff
Graduate Research Associate
College of Education
Oklahoma State University

Patrick Forsyth
Assistant Professor
Department of Educational
Administration and Higher
Education



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

December 3, 1979

Dear Colleague,

Although we greatly appreciate the response to our questionnaire sent to high school principals and vice-principals throughout the state of Oklahoma, we are still short of our needed response percentage. We ask your assistance in making this study a success. In case your questionnaire has been misplaced, we have enclosed another questionnaire for your convenience with a self-addressed stamped envelope. If you are concerned about the nature of the information requested of you on the questionnaire, you can be assured that your responses will remain anonymous.

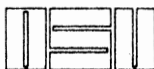
Thank you for taking a few minutes from your busy schedule for this worthwhile study.

Respectfully,

Warren G. Ortloff
Graduate Research Associate
College of Education
Oklahoma State University

Patrick Forsyth
Assistant Professor
Department of Educational
Administration and Higher
Education

APPENDIX D
QUESTIONNAIRE



Oklahoma State University

A QUESTIONNAIRE OF JOB

RELATED ISSUES

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

All information in this questionnaire is confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

1. What is the highest degree you hold?
 - A. Bachelors _____
 - B. Masters _____
 - C. Doctor _____
2. What is the average daily attendance of the high school where you work? _____
3. What is the minority student concentration at your high school? (Include only American Indians, Blacks, and Hispanic students)
Please provide percentage or number:
 - A. Percentage _____
 - B. Number _____
4. How many years have you been an educator? _____
5. How many years experience have you had at your present position? _____
6. What is your age? _____
7. What is your sex? _____

PRESENT JOB

The incentives or rewards people receive for their work differs greatly. This form is designed to gather information about the incentives or rewards you are presently receiving from the school.

Directions: Put the letter corresponding to your response category in the space to the left of each item. Please respond to every item.

Response Categories:

- | |
|--|
| A. Strongly Disagree
B. Disagree
C. Neutral
D. Agree
E. Strongly Agree |
|--|

IN MY PRESENT JOB . . .

- _____ 1. there is emphasis on originality.
- _____ 2. I could get fired easily.
- _____ 3. promotions come automatically.
- _____ 4. there is opportunity for creative work.

Response Categories:

- | |
|--|
| A. Strongly Disagree
B. Disagree
C. Neutral
D. Agree
E. Strongly Agree |
|--|

IN MY PRESENT JOB . . .

- ____ 5. there is an emphasis on individual ability.
____ 6. there is emphasis on the actual production record.
____ 7. the work comes in big pushes sometimes.
____ 8. the community has good recreational facilities.
____ 9. the lighting is good.
____ 10. the work is excessive sometimes.
____ 11. I always have a chance to learn something new.
____ 12. the school district encourages further specialized work.
____ 13. I am on call when there is pressure to get jobs done.
____ 14. I am involved in managing a small group of people doing routine jobs.
____ 15. I could get fired easily, but the rewards are high.
____ 16. the work is routine, but not hard to do.
____ 17. the work is routine, but highly respected in the community.
____ 18. the physical working conditions are attractive.
____ 19. I have a chance to further my formal education.
____ 20. the community is a wonderful place to raise a family.
____ 21. I could get fired easily, but the work is very interesting.
____ 22. the work is routine, but the initial salary was high.
____ 23. competition is open and encouraged.
____ 24. the ventilation is modern.
____ 25. salary increases are determined by the amount of effort exerted.
____ 26. the work builds up "pressures" on me.
____ 27. rewards are high, but if I lost this job, it would be very difficult to get another one.
____ 28. school related problems might come up that I have to take care of myself, even outside regular hours.
____ 29. I sometimes have to take work home with me.
____ 30. salary increases are strictly a matter of how much I accomplish for the school district.

Response Categories:

- | |
|--|
| A. Strongly Disagree
B. Disagree
C. Neutral
D. Agree
E. Strongly Agree |
|--|

IN MY PRESENT JOB . . .

- ___ 31. salary increases are a matter of how much effort you put in.
- ___ 32. the work might run out, but it is extremely interesting while it lasts.
- ___ 33. the school district is involved in heavy professional competition.
- ___ 34. the job is insecure.
- ___ 35. the climate is pleasant.

PRIMARY LIFE INTERESTS

We are interested in what place your work takes in your life. This form is designed to gather information about how educators feel about their jobs in the public schools.

Directions: Put the letter corresponding to your response category in the space provided to the left of each question. Please respond to every item. Work quickly.

Response Category

- | |
|--|
| A. Strongly Disagree
B. Disagree
C. Neutral
D. Agree
E. Strongly Agree |
|--|

- ___ 1. My primary life interests lie outside of my job at school.
- ___ 2. My main interests in life are closely related to my job in the school.
- ___ 3. When I am worried, it is usually about things related to my job.
- ___ 4. I believe that other things are more important than my job at school.
- ___ 5. Most of my energy is directed toward my job.
- ___ 6. In talking to friends, I most like to talk about events related to my job.
- ___ 7. My central concerns are job-related.

JOB SATISFACTION

Some jobs are more interesting and satisfying than others. We want to know how people feel about different jobs. There are no right or wrong answers. We should like your honest opinion on each one of the statements.

Directions: Put the letter corresponding to your response category in the space provided to the left of each question. Please respond to every item. Work quickly.

Response Categories:

- | |
|----------------------|
| A. Strongly Agree |
| B. Agree |
| C. Neutral |
| D. Disagree |
| E. Strongly Disagree |

- _____ 1. My job is like a hobby to me.
- _____ 2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.
- _____ 3. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.
- _____ 4. I consider my job rather unpleasant.
- _____ 5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.
- _____ 6. I am often bored with my job.
- _____ 7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.
- _____ 8. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.
- _____ 9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
- _____ 10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.
- _____ 11. I definitely dislike my work.
- _____ 12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.
- _____ 13. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
- _____ 14. Each day of work seems like it will never end.
- _____ 15. I like my job better than the average worker does.
- _____ 16. My job is pretty interesting.
- _____ 17. I find real enjoyment in my work.
- _____ 18. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.

THE IDEAL JOB

People also differ greatly in the things they want in a job, and jobs differ greatly, even within the same school. This form is designed to gather information about things you consider important and desirable in an ideal job in the public schools.

Directions: Put the letter corresponding to your response category in the space provided to the left of each question. Respond to every item on the questionnaire even if you have to guess. Work quickly.

Response Categories:

- A. Extremely undesirable. Would never take job.
- B. Undesirable. Would avoid job.
- C. Neither desirable or undesirable.
- D. Desirable. Would favor the job.
- E. Extremely desirable. Would favor job greatly.

IDEALLY, I PREFER A JOB IN WHICH . . .

- ___ 1. I could get fired easily, but the work would be very interesting.
- ___ 2. salary increases would be strictly a matter of how much I accomplished for the school district.
- ___ 3. the lighting would be good.
- ___ 4. school related problems might come up that I would have to take care of myself outside regular hours.
- ___ 5. the community would have good recreational facilities.
- ___ 6. I would be involved in managing a small group of people doing routine jobs.
- ___ 7. the school district would be involved in heavy professional competition.
- ___ 8. the work might be excessive sometimes.
- ___ 9. there would be opportunity for creative work.
- ___ 10. the work would be routine, but not hard to do.
- ___ 11. salary increases would be determined by the amount of effort exerted.
- ___ 12. the climate would be pleasant.
- ___ 13. the community would be a wonderful place to raise a family.
- ___ 14. the work might run out, but it would be extremely interesting while it lasted.
- ___ 15. I might sometimes have to take work home with me.
- ___ 16. the physical working conditions would be attractive.
- ___ 17. I could get fired easily.
- ___ 18. the work would be routine, but the initial salary would be high.

Response Categories:

- | |
|---|
| A. Extremely undesirable. Would never take the job.
B. Undesirable. Would avoid job.
C. Neither desirable or undesirable.
D. Desirable. Would favor the job.
E. Extremely desirable. Would favor job greatly. |
|---|

IDEALLY, I PREFER A JOB IN WHICH . . .

- 19. the work might build up "pressures" on me.
- 20. the ventilation would be modern.
- 21. there would be emphasis on individual ability.
- 22. the school district would encourage further specialized work.
- 23. promotions would come automatically.
- 24. competition would be open and encouraged.
- 25. I would have a chance to further my formal education.
- 26. I could get fired easily, but the rewards would be high.
- 27. the work would be routine, but highly respected in the community.
- 28. I would always have a chance to learn something new.
- 29. the job would be insecure.
- 30. the work might come in big pushes sometimes.
- 31. there would be emphasis on the actual production records.
- 32. I might be on call when there is pressure to get jobs done.
- 33. salary increases would be a matter of how much effort you put in.
- 34. rewards would be high, but if one loses his job it would be very difficult to get another one.
- 35. there would be emphasis on originality.

APPENDIX E

SUMMARY TABLES

APPENDIX E

SUMMARY TABLES

1. Zero order correlation between each of the six discrepancies and job satisfaction.

Potential for Personal Challenge and Development	$r = -.24$	$p = <.01$
Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success	$r = -.10$	$p = .16$
Tolerance for Work Pressure	$r = -.35$	$p = <.01$
Conservative Security	$r = -.04$	$p = .36$
Willingness to Seek Reward in Spite of Uncertainty versus Avoidance of Uncertainty	$r = -.05$	$p = .02$
Surround Concern	$r = -.20$	$p = .02$

2. Tenth order partial correlations between each of the six discrepancies and job satisfaction controlling for all ten of the control and demographic variables.

Potential for Personal Challenge and Development	$r = -.29$	$p = <.01$
Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success	$r = -.30$	$p = <.01$
Tolerance for Work Pressure	$r = -.32$	$p = <.01$
Conservative Security	$r = +.02$	$p = .42$
Willingness to Seek Reward in Spite of Uncertainty versus Avoidance of Uncertainty	$r = -.08$	$p = .23$
Surround Concern	$r = -.12$	$p = .12$

3. Zero order correlation between each of the ten control and demographic variables and job satisfaction.

Primary Life Interest	$r = .20$	$p = .02$
Average Daily Attendance	$r = .34$	$p = <.01$
Degree	$r = .20$	$p = .02$
Position Held	$r = .16$	$p = .06$

Minority Student Concentration	r = .15	p = .06
Years in Education	r = .04	p = .35
Years in Present Position	r = -.11	p = .13
Age	r = .05	p = .29
Full or Part Time	r = -.28	p = <.01
Population Density	r = .14	p = .08

4. First order correlation between each of the six discrepancies and job satisfaction controlling for the ten control and demographic variables individually.

Potential for Personal Challenge and Development

Primary Life Interests	r = -.25	p = <.01
Average Daily Attendance	r = -.27	p = <.01
Degree	r = -.26	p = <.01
Position Held	r = -.25	p = <.01
Minority Student Concentration	r = -.24	p = <.01
Years in Education	r = -.24	p = <.01
Years in Present Position	r = -.23	p = .01
Age	r = -.24	p = <.01
Full or Part Time	r = -.28	p = <.01
Population Density	r = -.26	p = <.01

Competitiveness Desirability and Reward of Success

Primary Life Interest	r = -.11	p = .13
Average Daily Attendance	r = -.20	p = .03
Degree	r = -.16	p = .06
Position Held	r = -.10	p = .17
Minority Student Concentration	r = -.10	p = .16
Years in Education	r = -.10	p = .16
Years in Present Position	r = -.10	p = .16
Age	r = -.11	p = .14
Full or Part Time	r = -.16	p = .05
Population Density	r = -.13	p = .09

Tolerance for Work Pressure

Primary Life Interest	$r = -.34$	$p = <.01$
Average Daily Attendance	$r = -.34$	$p = <.01$
Degree	$r = -.34$	$p = <.01$
Position Held	$r = -.36$	$p = <.01$
Minority Student Concentration	$r = -.34$	$p = <.01$
Years in Education	$r = -.35$	$p = <.01$
Years in Present Position	$r = -.36$	$p = <.01$
Age	$r = -.34$	$p = <.01$
Full or Part Time	$r = -.35$	$p = <.01$
Population Density	$r = -.35$	$p = <.01$

Conservative Security

Primary Life Interest	$r = -.00$	$p = .50$
Average Daily Attendance	$r = -.03$	$p = .39$
Degree	$r = -.15$	$p = .31$
Position Held	$r = -.03$	$p = .37$
Minority Student Concentration	$r = -.03$	$p = .39$
Years in Education	$r = -.04$	$p = .36$
Years in Present Position	$r = -.04$	$p = .33$
Age	$r = -.04$	$p = .35$
Full or Part Time	$r = -.00$	$p = .49$
Population Density	$r = -.15$	$p = .32$

Willingness to Seek Reward in Spite of Uncertainty versus
Avoidance of Uncertainty

Primary Life Interest	$r = -.16$	$p = .05$
Average Daily Attendance	$r = -.11$	$p = .14$
Degree	$r = -.18$	$p = .03$
Position Held	$r = -.17$	$p = .05$
Minority Student Concentration	$r = -.20$	$p = .02$
Years in Education	$r = -.19$	$p = .03$
Years in Present Position	$r = -.22$	$p = .01$
Age	$r = -.19$	$p = .03$
Full or Part Time	$r = -.19$	$p = .03$
Population Density	$r = -.18$	$p = .03$

Surround Concern

Primary Life Interest	r = -.16	p = .05
Average Daily Attendance	r = -.11	p = .14
Degree	r = -.18	p = .03
Position Held	r = -.17	p = .05
Minority Student Concentration	r = -.20	p = .02
Years in Education	r = -.19	p = .03
Years in Present Position	r = -.22	p = .01
Age	r = -.19	p = .03
Full or Part Time	r = -.19	p = .03
Population Density	r = -.18	p = .03

VITA

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Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE USE OF THE INEQUITY THEORY IN PREDICTING JOB SATISFACTION AMONG HIGH SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

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