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Nicholas J. Miller

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A DESCRIPTION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN  
MINNESOTA AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

by  
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A Dissertation  
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty  
of the  
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This dissertation submitted by Nicholas J. Miller in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education from the University of North Dakota is hereby approved by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done.

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Title A DESCRIPTION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN MINNESOTA  
AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

Department Educational Administration, Center for Teaching and Learning

Degree Doctor of Education

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Signature

Nicholas J. Miller

Date

June 24, 1985

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## VITA

Nicholas J. Miller was born in Alexandria, Minnesota. He attended elementary school in Millerville, Minnesota until he moved to Crookston, Minnesota in 1960. He completed his elementary and high school years at Crookston. He earned a Bachelor of Science Degree from Moorhead State University in 1972 with a major in English. He received a Master's Degree from Bemidji State University in 1979 with a major in Counseling. He completed a second major in Educational Administration in his Master's program at St. Cloud State University in 1980. He also earned a Sixth-Year Certificate from St. Cloud State University in 1981 with a major in Educational Administration.

Professionally, all of his positions have been in Minnesota. He taught high school English in Warren, Minnesota, from 1972-1975. In 1975 he moved to Bemidji, Minnesota, and taught junior high English until 1978. During the 1978-79 school year he was the facilitator for a state project which introduced mainstreaming to the Bemidji district. In 1979 he took over the Assistant Principal position at Bemidji Senior High School. He will become the Principal of Buffalo Senior High School on July 1, 1985. Buffalo Senior High School, a school with an enrollment of 1200 students, is located twenty-five miles west of Minneapolis, Minnesota.

He has taught classes at Bemidji State University and has worked closely with their teacher education program. He has been active in

professional organizations at the local and state level. His district has provided him the opportunity to work extensively in the areas of student discipline, instructional supervision, and curriculum development.

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe the secondary principals of Minnesota and to measure their job satisfaction and the relationship of this satisfaction to selected background variables.

Questionnaires were mailed to 402 principals of schools with grades 7-12, 8-12, or 10-12. Usable responses were received from 366 (91 percent) of the principals. The first part of the questionnaire was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which measured the respondents' perceptions of their job satisfaction and yielded an intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction score. The second part of the questionnaire collected responses to selected background variables.

Analysis of the data gathered permitted the following conclusions:

- 1) The secondary principalship in Minnesota is a male-dominated profession. Only 3.6 percent of the respondents were female. A high percentage (39 percent) of the respondents were included in the ages from 40-49 years. The respondents had an average of approximately 14 years of educational administrative experience and had been in their present position an average of eight years. Over 97 percent of the respondents had completed at least a Master's Degree. The average enrollment of the respondents' schools was 568, but approximately 55 percent of the schools had an enrollment of less than 400 students. The

mean yearly salary of the respondents was \$38,553; the salaries ranged from a low of \$22,000 to a high of \$77,600.

- 2) The MSQ overall satisfaction mean score of the respondents was 3.5 of a possible 5. The respondents' intrinsic mean score (3.7) was significantly higher than their extrinsic mean score (3.1). Although there was a significant difference between the intrinsic and extrinsic mean scores, there also was a significant correlation between these mean scores. As the intrinsic mean scores increased, the extrinsic mean scores also increased.
- 3) No significant relationships were found between the background variables of sex, age, total years of educational administrative experience, years in present position, or highest degree earned and any of the three MSQ satisfaction scores.
- 4) Significant relationships were found between the background variables of total number of educational positions held, present school enrollment, number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants, salary, and satisfaction of respondent considering the actual role in comparison to what he/she would like it to be and the three MSQ satisfaction scores.

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Recently, public attention has increasingly focused on the public secondary schools in the United States. Articles, books, and special studies addressing such issues as accountability, competency testing, minimum standards, effective teaching, and overall educational reform have been written and published in increasing numbers. There also has been a great deal of research done about the role of the teacher. Teacher evaluation, testing, and salaries have been major themes of recent studies. Associated with these studies has been the continuing discussion of the teachers' perceptions of their jobs. The term "teacher burnout" has become a familiar term in the field of education (Bacharach and Mitchell 1983). Although Knezevich (1984) identifies the principal as one of the most significant influences in the success or failure of a school, very few studies have attempted to measure the principals' perceptions of their job satisfaction. Since the principal can be so important and influential in the school, this study describes the secondary principals in Minnesota and measures their job satisfaction and the relationship of this satisfaction to selected background variables.

#### The Principalship

The principalship is the oldest administrative position in

secondary public education. The role has evolved from the colonial teaching-principalship to the complex position of today. There are presently over 100,000 licensed, practicing principals in the United States (Knezevich 1984). This study will attempt to identify and measure the perceptions of Minnesota's secondary public school principals' job satisfaction. The secondary principal faces many pressures and stresses that are unique to that position. "The secondary school principalship is more complex and includes many assistant (or vice) principals, whereas relatively few such positions are found in elementary schools" (Knezevich 1984, p. 324).

The constantly changing society and the rapid internal changes in the structure of schools make the secondary principalship an interesting and appropriate subject of a job satisfaction study. Although literature often refers to the pro-active principal as change agent, he/she is constantly influenced by the surrounding environment which heavily influences the principal's perceptions of job satisfaction. "The principal influences the school climate and productivity, but the school community also influences the person. Many forces are reshaping the roles and responsibilities of principals" (Knezevich 1984, p. 340).

The study of job satisfaction of the secondary principal is essential because he/she influences so much of what happens in the individual school. This study yields not only perceptions of the working life of principals but also provides some very useful information about the state of the secondary principalship in Minnesota.

#### Job Satisfaction

Historically, most job satisfaction research has been concentrated

on the "less-skilled" employees (Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice 1983). According to Hoppock (1935), Levenstien in his 1912 study of job satisfaction of German workers examined physical factors such as fatigue and pay and their relationship to production. Most early job satisfaction studies were conducted in industry and were undertaken with the premise that improved satisfaction would insure increased productivity. The studies were conducted to help managers adjust their techniques and thus improve production at their plants or factories. The Hoppock Job Satisfaction Studies of 1935 and the Hawthorne Studies of 1939 used a more sophisticated approach in the examination of the implications of human relationships and satisfaction. Earlier studies had concentrated on pay, fringe benefits, and other physical factors. Job satisfaction studies have evolved in method and sophistication, and recent studies have concentrated on specific areas such as needs, expectancy, the job itself, the supervisor, environmental factors, power, organization, longevity, commitment, life satisfaction, and the worker.

Job satisfaction can be studied using any one of several theoretical approaches. The following framework based on work done by Mumford (1972) may give the reader a more clear picture of the possible approaches that a job satisfaction study may take.

- (1) the "psychological needs school" is exemplified by Maslow, Herzberg, and Likert "who see the development of motivation as the central factor in job satisfaction and concentrate their attention on stimuli which are believed to lead to motivation--the needs of individuals for achievement, recognition, responsibility, status";
- (2) the "leadership school" is exemplified by Blake, Mouton, and Fiedler who direct observations at the effect of leadership style upon subordinates;
- (3) the "effort-reward bargain school" is exemplified by those Manchester Business School staff members who concentrate on the effect of wages and salaries on job satisfaction.



- (4) the "management ideology school" is exemplified by Crozier and Gouldner who concentrate upon the effect of different types of management behavior upon job satisfaction; and
- (5) the "work content and job design school" is exemplified by those Tavistock Institute staff members who feel that the work itself is a prime determinant of job satisfaction (pp. 4-5).

This study views job satisfaction from the theoretical approach that job satisfaction is determined by the ability of the work to meet the individual needs of the worker. According to Dawis and Lofquist (1981) satisfaction represents the workers' appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfills the needs of the individual. These needs can be met either with intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. Deci (1972) identified extrinsic rewards as those that are provided by the organization such as pay, fringe benefits, job titles, and other job-related benefits. Intrinsic rewards come from within the person and include such things as enjoyment of the work and pride in doing a good job. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) presented the Two-Factor Theory which clearly differentiated the terms intrinsic and extrinsic.

This study, which used the questionnaire developed by Dawis and Lofquist, measured the perceptions that were identified in the theoretical approaches used by Maslow, Herzberg, and Likert. This approach concentrates on the needs of the individual and emphasizes such needs as achievement, recognition, and responsibility. These needs are often identified as intrinsic and are met through work.

#### Use of Terms

The writer often refers to the principal in this study. Unless specifically stated otherwise, the writer will refer to the principal as a respondent in this study. The respondent in this study is a secondary public school building principal of a Minnesota high school who is

commonly referred to as the head principal. He/she is a practicing administrator included on the mailing list of the Minnesota Association of Secondary School Principals (MASSP).

The term job satisfaction has many meanings which are dependent on the theoretical approach that a researcher uses. In this study the writer will use the theoretical approach offered by Dawis and Lofquist (1981). "Satisfaction represents the workers' appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfills their requirements" (p. 6).

#### Purpose and Process

The purpose of this study was to describe the secondary principals of Minnesota and their job satisfaction and the relationship of this satisfaction to selected background variables. These data were collected in an attempt to answer three general research questions.

- 1) What was the description of the secondary principals of Minnesota?
- 2) Were principals satisfied with their jobs? The results yielded an intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction score for each respondent.
- 3) Were any of these satisfaction scores related significantly to any of the selected background variables? The background variables were: sex, age, length of administrative service in educational administration and in the present position, number of educational administration positions held, highest degree earned, salary, numbers of students and assistant principals and/or administrative assistants (at least half time) in the school of which the respondent was principal, and the overall perception of satisfaction with the job. This overall perception of satisfaction with the job was measured by asking each principal to rate the job (from 1-10) considering what the actual role

was in comparison to what it should be. This item was identified as the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) satisfaction score.

This study attempted to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What is the distribution of males and females among the secondary public school principals of Minnesota?
- 2) What is the distribution of ages among the secondary principals of Minnesota?
- 3) How many total years of educational administration experience do the respondents have?
- 4) How many years have the respondents spent in their present positions?
- 5) How many different educational administration positions have the respondents held in their careers?
- 6) What is the highest degree completed by the respondents?
- 7) What is the present student enrollment in the school of which the respondent is the principal?
- 8) How many assistant principals and/or administrative assistants (at least half-time) work with the principal in the school?
- 9) What is the present salary of the respondents?
- 10) Considering the principal's perception of the actual role and what he/she would like it to be, how satisfied is the respondent with the present job?
- 11) What are the respondents' intrinsic satisfaction scores on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)?
- 12) What are the respondents' extrinsic satisfaction scores on the MSQ?

- 13) What are the respondents' overall satisfaction scores on the MSQ?
- 14) Are the three scores yielded by the MSQ related in any way?
- 15) Are the respondents generally more satisfied intrinsically or extrinsically?
- 16) Are any of the MSQ satisfaction scores related to any of the selected background variables?

#### Significance of the Study

The results of this study should be helpful to a number of groups.

- 1) Principals--The results should help all principals (including elementary, secondary, and assistant principals) understand more about the principalship in Minnesota and the whole subject of job satisfaction.
- 2) Secondary Principals--The results will provide them with some very useful descriptive data. The Minnesota secondary principals should find the descriptive data and satisfaction scores especially beneficial because the data describe this specific group.
- 3) Central Office--Those responsible for the supervision and evaluation of principals should gain a better insight of the principals' perceptions of their job satisfaction. The results should provide the supervisors a direction in the modification and improvement of the work environment to increase principal job satisfaction.
- 4) Professional Principal Organizations--The results will provide these organizations descriptive data of their members and their

members' perceptions of their job satisfaction. It will give the professional organization direction for professional development programs, workshops, and other inservice activities that will benefit their members.

- 5) Graduate Departments of Education--The results should provide information which will help Educational Administration Departments plan and modify programs and courses that will meet the needs expressed by the respondents.
- 6) Educational Researchers--The results should add to the limited knowledge that is now available related to job satisfaction and the principal.

#### Delimitations

This study had several delimitations.

- 1) The review of literature was not intended to be exhaustive. The review was conducted to give the reader a reasonably complete view of the principalship and the topic of job satisfaction.
- 2) The population selected for this study included only the head secondary principals of Minnesota's public schools and therefore generalizations about all principals may be inappropriate.
- 3) The study focused on one theoretical approach to job satisfaction. The theory views job satisfaction as the ability of the job to meet the individual needs of the worker.
- 4) The questionnaire (MSQ) used in this research is not role specific and has been used with many types of workers. It is not tailored specifically to the role of principal.

- 5) The selected background variables are not all inclusive but were carefully selected by the writer.

#### Limitations

This study had several limitations.

- 1) The small percentage of female respondents made it difficult to describe significant findings of sex and its relationship to job satisfaction.
- 2) The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) did not provide the respondents an opportunity for open-ended responses.
- 3) The self-response method of collecting data did appear to be appropriate but the credibility of the data was limited to the assumption that the respondents answered all questions honestly and accurately.

The following chapter provides a review of literature related to this study. The review of literature provides a basic yet not inclusive view of the topic. It provides an overview of the historical development of the role of principal. It also looks closely at the historical evolution of the study of job satisfaction. Finally, it focuses on job satisfaction studies done in education and specifically the study of job satisfaction studies done with the principal. This review of the principalship and job satisfaction should provide the reader with a basic framework which will give him or her the background to more fully understand the study.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

"The term school principal, as it is used today, describes the product of an evolutionary period lasting well over a century" (Goldman 1966, p. 1). According to Goldman, the first public school principals were responsible primarily for clerical and bookkeeping duties. Since the birth of the principalship well over one hundred years ago, the duties have become more diverse and complicated. The growth of the population and the consequent growth in the number and size of schools as well as the increased number and complexity of programs have placed many new demands on the modern-day principal.

The study of job satisfaction has evolved significantly since its inception in the early part of the twentieth century. According to Bacharach and Mitchell (1983), the early job satisfaction studies were very simple and basic, and they were inspired by the research in industry. Early studies in industry were performed under the premise that job satisfaction and worker production were related. The study of job satisfaction in education is relatively recent. Early job satisfaction studies in education were concerned with teacher satisfaction. The job satisfaction studies of principals are few in number and have been conducted only in recent years.

The writer reviewed two specific areas of literature for this study. The first area was related to the principalship and included the

origin and development of the principalship, its evolution over the last one hundred thirty years, and the present expectations, duties, and responsibilities of the principal. The second area was related to the literature on job satisfaction and included a historical review of the development of the theories of job satisfaction, a summary of modern theories of job satisfaction, and a review of some significant studies done of teachers' and principals' job satisfaction.

#### Overview of the Development of the Secondary Principalship

The overview of the secondary principalship traced the principalship from its beginning in the 1830s to its present state in the 1980s.

#### The Early Years (1830s-1910s)

"The modern public school principalship had its beginning in the early schools about the middle of the 19th century" (Pierce 1935, p. 1). "The high school principalship is the oldest administrative position in American education. It antedates both the superintendency and the elementary school principalship" (Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon 1963, p. 491). The early secondary principal was not regarded with high esteem because the duties were mainly clerical and menial. The principal was responsible for many of the duties in the community. "In addition to teaching and administering his school, he often served as town clerk, church chorister, official visitor of the sick, bell ringer of the church, grave digger, and court messenger, and performed other occasional duties" (Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon 1963, p. 491). Goldman (1966) and Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon (1963) reported that



there has been very little written about the early development of the position.

Goldman (1966) and Moehlman (1940) wrote that as the towns and cities began to grow rapidly, the schools did also. "The growth of cities, which became marked about 1830, continued at such a rapid pace in the subsequent decades that school enrollments were multiplied many times" (Pierce 1935, p. 7). The concurrent growth of the schools required an organization or administration to run the schools. "With the development of grading practices and departmentalization it became increasingly evident that someone in the school building had to be responsible for its administration" (Goldman 1966, p. 3).

According to Moehlman (1940) the position of principal teacher was created to administer these growing schools. The movement to consolidate small schools began in the 1820's in the East and rapidly expanded westward. This movement of unifying the enrollments of one-room schools into larger schools was more accepted in the newer region than in the New England schools. Pierce (1935) identified Cincinnati as the first district to designate the position of principal teacher in 1839. The committee outlined the duties for the first principal teacher.

The principal teacher was (1) to function as the head of the school charged to his care, (2) to regulate the classes and course of instruction of all the pupils, whether they occupied his room or the rooms of other teachers, (3) to discover any defects in the school and apply remedies, (4) to make defects known to the visitor or trustee of ward, or district, if he were unable to remedy conditions, (5) to give necessary instruction to his assistants, (6) to classify pupils, (7) to safeguard school houses and furniture, (8) to keep the school clean, (9) to instruct assistants, (10) to refrain from impairing the standing of assistants, especially in the eyes of their pupils, and (11) to require the co-operation of his assistants.

The assistant teachers, on the other hand, were (1) to regard the principal teacher as the head of the school, (2) to

observe his directions, (3) to guard his reputation, and (4) to make themselves thoroughly acquainted with the rules and regulations adopted for the government of the schools (Pierce 1935, p. 12).

The unionized school was the forerunner of the graded schools of today. Teachers lost much of their autonomy and freedom, and they resisted this new organization. Parents fought the loss of neighborhood schools. "It took much effort and struggle to develop the union school idea" (Moehlman 1940, p. 237). The graded school quickly followed and inspired the growth of the principalship. "The graded system of instructional organization was the most significant educational innovation of the nineteenth century" (Knezevich 1984, p. 324).

According to Pierce (1935) because of the rapid growth of the graded school concept, the principal teacher did not have time to do the required duties. In 1857 Boston released its principal teachers part of the day to inspect and examine the classes. According to Pierce (1935) Chicago and New York soon relieved the principal teacher of all teaching duties. The release from teaching duties elevated the status of the principalship (Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon 1962 and Pierce 1935). Goldman (1966) indicated that "the position now enjoyed a professional status it never before held" (p. 5). "The freeing of the principal from teaching duties to visit other rooms proved the opening wedge for supervision by the principals" (Pierce 1935, p. 16). Principals began to show a confidence and autonomy that up to that time had not been present.

Few principals had the interest or expertise to supervise instruction. "Poor preparation and lack of interest in supervision militated against carrying out this function" (Goldman 1966, p. 5). Although the principalship had developed and gained prestige, many

principals were content to merely manage the operation of the school building.

The principals were slow individually and as a group, to take advantage of the opportunities for professional leadership which were granted them. This tendency was especially marked during the period 1895-1910. The principalship was well established from an administrative point of view, and at that point, principals appeared content to rest. Except for sporadic cases, they did little to study their work, experiment with administrative procedures, or publish articles on local administration and supervision. The large body of them were satisfied to attend to the clerical and petty routine, administering their schools on a policy of laissez faire. They were generally entrenched behind their tenure rights, and they usually hesitated to show vigorous leadership to their teachers who naturally were often as reactionary, professionally, as the principals themselves. They were content to use "rule of thumb" procedures in dealing with supervision of instruction (Pierce 1935, p. 21).

#### The Era of Efficiency (1910s-1930s)

The following decades found principals who were interested in job security and avoided most educational issues and mostly relayed messages from the superintendent. "It was not until the 1920s that a serious attempt was made to focus upon the principalship as an important position in education" (Goldman 1966, p. 5). According to Jacobson (1963) the principal only inspected but never supervised the classroom. "He visited classes, quizzed the pupils, paid careful attention to the physical conditions in the room, and attempted to exert a general influence wherever he went" (Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon 1963, p. 497).

The Department of Secondary Principals was organized in 1916 at a meeting of the National Education Association. "It has exerted an important influence on the professionalism of the high school principalship" (Jacobson, Logsdon, and Wiegman 1973, p. 34). The National

Organization of Elementary Principals was founded in 1920 under the guidance of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago (Goldman 1966). "The influence of this department on the making of the modern principal can hardly be over-estimated. It turned the attention of the principal to the scientific study of the problems of the position" (Pierce 1935, p. 22). The formation of these organizations stimulated the development of educational administration programs at many universities. The scientific approach emphasized the study of job functions, use of time, and the delegation of duties.

The business influence became evident, and the principles of efficiency and management became the basic framework for educational administration preparation programs. "It is clear that what administrators sought, after 1911, was not efficiency, but economy plus the appearance of efficiency" (Callahan 1962, p. 178). There were two very prominent figures at this time who had financial backgrounds and strongly influenced the direction of educational administration training. According to Callahan (1962) George O. Strayer of Teachers' College, Columbia University, and Elwood P. Cubberly of Stanford had the most influence on the development of educational administration training.

They were about the same age, had received their PhD's in education about the same time (1905) from the same institution (Teachers' College, Columbia), and both had written their doctoral dissertations on problems in educational finance (Callahan 1962, p. 181).

Their influence was felt across the country. "The school principal was emerging as a technician in education. The central focus of his training was upon such matters as budgeting, school construction, and pupil accounting. He was beginning to view himself as a business-

executive-in-education" (Goldman 1966, p. 7). At this time society valued efficiency and demanded that principals share that value (Callahan 1962).

This era produced the first systematic theoretical approach to administration. The managerial emphasis in administration was first introduced by Frederick Taylor (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968). "At the turn of the century, Taylor gave as his goal the rational analysis of administrative procedures for exploiting human and material resources in order to attain the objectives of an organization most expeditiously" (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968, p. 23). Business and industry leaders were very supportive of Taylorism, but the labor unions were very resentful of this philosophy. According to Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) Henri Fayol and Luther Gulick, who were disciples of Taylor, had a great influence on many educational administration training programs. Although Cubberly and Strayer were not true disciples of Taylor, they used his language and approach.

#### The Human Relations Era (1930s-1940s)

The 1930s marked a sudden shift of philosophy in educational administration. "Starting with the economic depression of the 1930s, the face of education began to take a new look, and a new philosophy of educational administration slowly took shape" (Goldman 1966, p. 7). According to Callahan (1962) the forceful leadership of educators such as Jesse Newlon and George S. Counts and the disenchantment with industry as a result of the depression helped reduce the emphasis of industrial management techniques that had become so popular in educational administration. At this time, however, the industrial sector was

beginning to accept the human relations concept of management. Once again industry took the lead in the research and implementation of this new management approach. "It came, rather, from the work of industrial psychologists, sociologists, and others interested in the study of organizations and the people who worked in them" (Goldman 1966, p. 7).

A distinct pattern of thought about administration that was commonly known as the person model began to emerge (Sergiovanni et al. 1980). The monumental Hawthorne Studies conducted by Frederick Roethlisberger and Elton Mayo supported the theory that improved social conditions through democratic supervision improved worker production (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968; Sergiovanni et al. 1980). These studies which were done at the Western Electric Company in Illinois supported the earlier writings of Mary Parker Follett. "Mary Parker Follett was the first great exponent of the human relations point of view in administration" (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968, p. 33).

Lewin, Lippitt, and White conducted a set of experiments at the University of Iowa in 1938 which greatly influenced the human relations movement (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968). This basic and simple study tested leadership styles with groups of children. This study of the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles captured the attention of educational administration theorists. "There was an outpouring of treatises and books with a human relations and often more specifically group dynamics point of view" (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968, p. 38). Sergiovanni et al. (1980) identified Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Warren Bennis, and Rensis Likert as the major human relations advocates of the time. "These humanists found a complex and fascinating human system operating

alongside the technical system and profoundly affecting its functioning" (Orlosky et al. 1984, p. 11). Employees were to be led to a good performance by a person with skills in communication, interaction, and conflict management. This encouragement of employee participation was well accepted in the public school organization in the 1930s and 1940s (Morris et al. 1984).

#### The Era of Organizational Theory Development (1950s-1960s)

"Soon after World War II, investigations into leadership roles in a variety of organizations suggested that effective management could not always be best defined as democratic" (Morris et al. 1984, p. 9). The studies conducted at Ohio State in the late 1940s suggested that successful administrators not only have the ability to successfully utilize a democratic leadership style, but also have the management skills to effectively direct the school as an organization. This study ignited the interest which was to produce the explosion of studies of administration and organizational behavior that took place in the 1950s and 1960s (Goldman 1966; Morris et al. 1984; Orlosky et al. 1984).

Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer (1966) described four events that affected the new interest of scholarship in educational administration. In 1947 the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration met in New York and provided a structure for the opportunity to exchange and debate theories of administration. In 1950, the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration was established with the major funding from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. This ten-year program was dedicated to the improvement of educational administration. The establishment of the Committee for the Advancement of School

Administration in 1955 and the organization of the University Council for Educational Administration in 1956 provided incentive and money for research, training, and fellowships which resulted in the publishing of many books and monographs. The 1950s was the decade that saw educational administration establish itself as a legitimate and well-structured field of study.

#### The Era of the Modern-Day Principal (1960s-1980s)

Although the 1950s and 1960s were years of rapid growth in educational administration, the principals of the late 1960s and 1970s faced new challenges.

While the movement directed attention to the characteristics of organizational structure as a starting point for effectively managing human behavior, the approach failed to reach the level of theoretical understanding on the goals of prediction and control that excited scholars in the 1950s and 1960s (Morris et al. 1984, p. 12).

Although principals had a much stronger theoretical base, they had no prescription of what to do. The organizational structure became more complex. According to Weick (1976) the school had become a loosely coupled organization. The locus of power was weakened and the combination of increased federal and state control, new demands of the schools, and the changing society brought new pressures and demands upon the principal.

Since what happens within schools is vitally linked with unknowns outside schools, and since bureaucratic structures are as disconnected as they are connected, the naive, optimistic assumption that the administrative world is easily explainable and controllable has given way to a more sophisticated appreciation of managerial complexity (Morris et al. 1984, p. 12).

The principalship has changed dramatically in the last one hundred



years. The role of the principal has become so complex that it is impossible to identify all the functions of the job. Morris et al. (1984) identified the principal as an instructional leader, decision maker, site manager, mediator, and creator of a learning environment. Knezevich (1984) identified the main functions of the administrator. They are included under the following headings:

- |                     |                                  |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1) Direction Setter | 10) Problems Manager             |
| 2) Leader-Catalyst  | 11) Systems Manager              |
| 3) Planner          | 12) Instructional Manager        |
| 4) Decision Maker   | 13) Personnel Manager            |
| 5) Organizer        | 14) Resource Manager             |
| 6) Charge Manager   | 15) Appraiser                    |
| 7) Coordinator      | 16) Public Relator               |
| 8) Communicator     | 17) Ceremonial Head (pp. 16-18). |
| 9) Conflict Manager |                                  |

Knezevich (1984) further identified additional specific roles that the principal must assume:

- 1) Linking-Pin Role. The principal may be perceived as the linking-pin (or communication link) between teachers and the system as a whole, the community and the school, the learner and the educational program, and so on. The principal is often referred to as the "person in the middle" of many interactions in public education.
- 2) Instructional Leadership Role. Frequent reference has been made to this important role, but it would not be prudent to omit it from any list. Everyone agrees with its importance; how to fulfill it is often vaguely or poorly defined and accompanied by considerable conflict.
- 3) The Catalyst Role. To motivate professional personnel, to stimulate better student performance, and in general to make good things happen through the efforts of the principal in the education equation is what is meant by the word catalys.
- 4) Resource Manager Role. The principal is held accountable for the protection, best use, and auditing of resource use in the instructional process. No principal can directly

influence the quality of learning for every pupil in the school. The principal, however, can exert tremendous influence on learning quality through the resource manager role.

- 5) Security, Control, or Discipline Roles. Each of these concerns is interrelated and may be perceived as several sides of the same role. Learning cannot take place in an environment of fear, disruption, or chaos. Recent events have pushed the security, control, and discipline roles of principals into matters of considerable and high priority.
- 6) Project Manager Role. This was described in earlier paragraphs.
- 7) Student Ombudsman-Counselor Roles. These more traditional roles may be seen as the balances to the control or disciplinarian functions. Fairness, objectivity, and maintaining perspective help to minimize the apparent conflicts with other roles (Knezevich 1984, p. 337).

Earlier studies identified how principals spent their time, but recently effective principals' use of time has been the subject of many studies. The complexity of the job has become evident. "Role ambiguity and role conflict are therefore inherent in the principalship" (Orlosky et al. 1984, p. 58). Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) ... their study of eight effective principals found that "the principal's interpersonal competencies, particularly those relating to establishing and maintaining identities, both for the principals and for others . . . is probably pivotal in differentiating the more effective from the less effective" (p. 198). The day of the principal is spent in many face to face encounters which demand many quick decisions and judgments (Wolcott 1973). Wolcott's (1973) ethnography of one elementary principal estimated that the principal spent 65 percent of his or her time in face to face interaction.

Orlosky et al. (1984) reported that roles that the principals play appeared to be a matter of personal choice more than the result of environmental, organizational, or external controls. The principal has freedom to develop an administrative style. "The scope of the job of

building principal is significantly open-ended; the job is largely what each principal makes of it" (Morris et al. 1984, p. 220). The principal must be a master of the balancing act. He/she must balance the demands and needs of the students, teachers, community, and central administration although these often conflict.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals' study of the senior high school principalship (McCleary and Thomson 1979) provided a comprehensive picture of the principalship. The three volume report consisted of a study of principals, a study of effective principals, and a look at the future of the principalship. A particular strength lies in the fact that its findings were compared to a similar study done in 1965.

Volume I contained results of the survey of 1600 randomly sampled principals in the United States. The typical principal was white (96 percent), middle aged (44 percent aged 40-49), male (93 percent), and had earned at least a master's degree (99 percent). Ironically the percentage of male principals rose 4 percent between 1965 and 1979. Sixty-nine percent said that they would probably choose to be principals if they had it to do over again. They identified time taken for administrative detail, lack of time, and variations of ability of teachers as their three major frustrations. The median salary was \$25,600 as compared to \$15,750 in 1965 (Byrne, Hines, and McCleary 1978).

Volume II reported the responses of sixty effective principals. The mean age was 43.9 years, fifty-four of the sixty were males, and fifty-three of the sixty were white. The effective principals were better educated than the random sample, read more professional journals, valued professional courses more, were less concerned with job security,

seemed more skilled at spending their time wisely, and seemed less patient with wasting time on paperwork (Gorton and McIntyre 1978).

The third volume addressed the results of the surveys and the perceived future of the principalship. There were no specific recommendations made concerning the most desirable characteristics that an effective principal should possess. "Those who attain success in the principalship are able, adaptable individuals who can function in an evolving role" (McCleary and Thomson 1979, p. 55). According to McCleary and Thomson (1979) the future principal will have to be well prepared professionally, mature, sensitive, and aware of the political and social climates. The evolution of the high school in the 1980s in both size and expenditure levels will require a principal who is skilled in planning with the use of student, parent, and faculty input.

The NASSP report authored by McCleary and Thomson (1979) emphasized the frustrations that principals expressed in controlling their time allocations. "A fundamental challenge for the next decade will be that of reconstructing the principalship so that job tasks are controlled in an effective and rewarding way" (McCleary and Thomson 1979, p. 59). They emphasized that principals will need to implement the administrative team concept and delegate duties more efficiently so that they can spend more time on the direct educational mission of the school.

McCleary and Thomson (1979) identified and discussed each of the following eleven essential attributes that the effective principal will need in the future:

- 1) characteristics and early preparation [personality traits and educational training],
- 2) experience leading to the principalship [successful teaching experience and sound administrative training],

- 3) knowledge and experience with educational programs [skill to design and conduct an educational program],
- 4) management skills [technical and analytical skills],
- 5) leadership skills [ability to get commitment for the educational program],
- 6) staffing [skills in selection, supervision, evaluation, and development],
- 7) reading community expectations and interpreting social movement [find ways to use community energies for the best interests of education],
- 8) educational perspective and future orientation [skills in long and short-range planning],
- 9) continued professional development [committed to unending, continued learning],
- 10) school autonomy [must be able to plan, operate, and account for the results], and
- 11) the principal as educator [must know and must care] (pp. 60-63).

Morris et al. (1984) identified the present pyramidal organization of the school district as a problem for principals. Principals are forced to individualize the generic district policies that are often developed without their input. Effective principals hold more power than the hierarchical structure might indicate. The modern day effective principal must be a master of creative insubordination and manipulation. Morris et al. (1984) compared the principal to a captain of a ship who must set a course and function in a mini-world as the final arbitrator. The role has become lonely and burdened.

#### Overview of Job Satisfaction Studies

The study of job satisfaction has developed over the past seventy years. Early studies were simple and basic, but more complicated theories have been proposed in recent years.

"Studies of job satisfaction date back to the beginning of the twentieth century" (Dawis and Lofquist 1981, p. 3). Münsterberg (1913) described the new science which united the laboratory psychologist with the economic sector. Psychology was finally put to a practical use.

"Only in the last ten years do we find systematic efforts to apply the experimental results of psychology to the needs of society"

(Münsterberg 1913, p. 5). The advent of managerial procedures in industry caused psychologists to look at workers' joy in work and satisfaction in life. Münsterberg (1913) labeled this study psychotechnics and proposed that workers should be screened and be placed in jobs that fit them with their likes and dislikes. His studies were done with the industrial world and showed that not all people were dissatisfied with monotonous work.

Fryer (1926) conducted a study of 513 individuals who were applying at the New York Employment Exchange in 1920-1923. He found that 52.6 percent were satisfied with their jobs and 47.4 percent were not. Age, occupation, education, religion and professional level had no significant influence on the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. "There appears from this study the probability that people are just about as likely to be uninterested in their occupations as to be satisfied" (Fryer 1926, p. 29). People were looking for work that would make them feel more of a person.

Dawis and Lofquist (1981) identified the studies of Robert Hoppock as the first thorough and comprehensive views of job satisfaction. Hoppock studied a wide range of workers and identified job satisfaction as a quality worthy of study. "Indeed, there may be no such thing as job satisfaction independent of the other satisfactions in one's life" (Hoppock 1935, p. 5).

In his summary of thirty-two job satisfaction studies, Hoppock (1935) made three points about job satisfaction. He indicated that less than one-third of the workers were dissatisfied and theorized that

people may be too easily satisfied. He noted that the effects of the Depression seemed to have made people happy just to have a job. "In other words, satisfaction may be a function of relative status: when the individual is better off than his neighbors, he is satisfied and when he is worse off he is dissatisfied" (Hoppock 1935, p. 10). He further noted that satisfaction is determined by a set of variables. In a study of teachers Hoppock found that high job satisfaction was related to better mental health, better human relations, more favorable family social status, age (older teachers were more satisfied), possession of religious beliefs, feelings of success, and working in a larger community. He also found that males were more satisfied than females and higher-skilled workers were more satisfied than lower-skilled workers.

Hoppock (1935) identified six predictors or influencers of job satisfaction. He identified an individual's ability to deal with unpleasant situations, an ability to adjust to people and the job, how one compares to others in the group, ability of work to relate to interests and abilities of the worker, the worker's quest for economic and social security, and the worker's regard of loyalty towards the job as influences on job satisfaction. Hoppock's monumental study was the most complicated and thorough study of job satisfaction done up to that time.

Immediately following Hoppock's study hundreds of studies were done on job satisfaction. Hoppock wrote seven major reviews of job satisfaction studies done by others for the Occupations periodical from 1938-1950. H. A. Robinson, who co-authored Hoppock's last review in 1950, continued to review the job satisfaction research for Personnel and

Guidance Journal from 1953-1965. This topic appeared to have created a lot of interest; the journal was published regularly for nearly thirty years.

The first job satisfaction studies that considered human relationships as significant variables came to be known as the Hawthorne studies. According to Dawis and Lofquist (1981) and Knezevich (1984) these studies have been credited with stimulating research into the causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and they sparked the interest in organizational behavior.

Originally in 1924, three studies of the relationship between illumination (degree of lighting at the factory) and the efficiency of the workers were conducted. The experiments--collectively known as the Hawthorne studies--were conducted at the Western Electric plant in Chicago. The results were inconclusive but sparked interest in the major research that began in 1927 (Roethlisberger and Dickson 1939). The new project began in an attempt to study the relationships between work place, length of work day, and rest periods and increased performance.

"They finally concluded that changes in physical job conditions did not result in increased production; rather soc. increases seem to result in changed social conditions of the workers" (Sergiovanni et al. 1980, p. 53). The Hawthorne Effect was a situation in which people were treated as special. "In practice, this means that because they are selected to share in a change, people felt special and supported the change wholeheartedly, but the administrator has to be sincere" (Orlosky et al. 1984, p. 330). Mayo, who conducted the experiments, contradicted the theory proposed by efficiency experts. "He suggested that persons



are primarily motivated by social needs and obtain their basic satisfaction from relationships with others" (Sergiovanni et al. 1980, p. 54). According to Dawis and Lofquist (1981) the study has come under recent criticism, but it did look at social needs in relation to job satisfaction.

Maslow (1954) described his needs theory of human motivation which was to become the foundation for future job satisfaction theories. According to Maslow (1954) people are motivated by five general needs which are arranged in hierarchical order: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization. The principle of this theory is that the unmet need is dominant until it is satisfied. When the deprived need is met, it diminishes and the next level need becomes dominant. In other words one will not strive for self-actualization if the other four needs are not satisfied. Very few people ever reach the fifth level of the hierarchy. Roe (1956) subscribed to Maslow's theory and its relation to the workworld. "According to Roe, employment satisfies human needs at all levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, from the most basic physiological safety needs to the higher order need for self-actualization" (Davis and Lofquist 1981, p. 4).

Wahba and Bridwell (1976) found little evidence to support Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory. Although they found that humans have needs in some lower to higher order, they were not able to identify five specific needs. They concluded that the theory was untestable, and that Maslow formulated the theory without doing any well-documented research. However, Maslow's theory has provided a better understanding of the nature of humans and their needs and is mentioned in many job satisfaction studies.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), who were greatly influenced by Maslow's model, proposed the two-factor theory often referred to as the motivation-hygiene theory. They used a critical-incidents interview procedure with engineers and accountants from industry. The subjects first were asked to identify the critical events that caused them satisfaction with the job, and second to identify critical events that caused them dissatisfaction on the job (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman 1959). In analyzing the data the researchers (1959) identified a set of factors that they labeled satisfiers (or motivators) which included achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. They identified dissatisfiers (or hygiene factors) which included supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, company policy, and administrative practices relating to elements such as benefits and job security. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) explained that the hygiene factors were more of a preventative than a curative. In other words, when the hygiene factors fall below a certain level, dissatisfaction occurs.

According to Herzberg satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on opposite ends of the same continuum. In other words if the causes of dissatisfaction were eliminated, satisfaction would not result unless the motivators were present. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) compared the hygiene factors to a garbage disposal which does not cure disease but prevents an increase of disease. The researchers emphasized that the motivators influence the job satisfaction so that performance will improve. Herzberg (1966) clarified his earlier theory by explaining that the two factor theory was a two-dimensional, psychological view

of job attitudes. The two needs system included a need for the avoidance of unpleasantness and a parallel need for personal growth. He concluded that the substance of the task is required to achieve the personal growth goals.

Herzberg (1966) suggested that man is a two-dimensional being. He labeled it the Adam/Abraham person. The Adam of a person wants to avoid the pain related to the environment. The Abraham of the person wants to discover, achieve, actualize, and progress. "Meeting the needs of one facet of man has little effect on the needs of the other facet" (Herzberg 1966, p. 169). In work employees seek certain things and wish to avoid others. Herzberg pointed out that the improvement of hygiene factors has the short term effect of heroin which takes more and more to produce less and less. He emphasized the need for employers to identify and address these two sets of needs separately.

According to Davis and Lofquist (1981) Herzberg's two-factor theory has been criticized in recent literature, but it has been regarded as a basis for further research on job satisfaction. Silver (1982) confirmed that studies with teachers indicate that there is a set of factors that causes job satisfaction and another set that causes job dissatisfaction.

Sergiovanni (1967) in a study of teachers and Schmidt (1976) in a study of administrators confirmed the two-factor theory. Iannone's (1973) study of elementary principals found that achievement and recognition were mentioned more often than any other factors as sources of satisfaction. Although there was some blurring or overlapping of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in these studies, there was general support shown for the theory.

King (1970) reported that one weakness of the two-factor theory

was that it is method-bound and is more accurate when using Herzberg's critical-incident methodology. Wolf (1970) pointed out that people tend to associate causes of satisfaction with themselves and causes of dissatisfaction with the environment.

Schmidt (1976) listed the following criticisms of the two-factor theory. They are as follows:

- 1) the theory is too simple,
- 2) the theory is too rigid,
- 3) the theory is stated too often in contradictory terms,
- 4) the results are method-bound and are supportive of the theory only when the full Herzberg interview technique and analysis are used, and
- 5) the interview-technique does not lend itself to considering the defensive mechanisms that come into play in the respondents' answers (p. 70).

Despite the criticisms of some, other authors have pointed out the contributions that the two-factor theory has made to the study of job satisfaction. Williams (1978) pointed out that the two-factor theory has encouraged the study of work and the concern for making it more rewarding. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) recognized its adaptability to the supervisory levels in education. Locke (1975) concluded that the two-factor theory still is researched although it appears that if the Herzberg basic methodology is not used, the results are not always consistent with the theory. Friedlander (1964) found that Herzberg's two-factor theory worked quite well in most cases. However, he did find a blurring of some of the results. In other words, some of the respondents identified intrinsic characteristics as dissatisfiers and extrinsic characteristics as satisfiers. The two-factor theory had proposed that intrinsic characteristics were satisfiers and extrinsic characteristics were dissatisfiers.

Perhaps the satisfaction of workers can best be predicted by the

administrator's attitude towards the workers. One of the most significant theories developed of which administrators should be aware is the Theory X and Theory Y developed by McGregor. McGregor (1960) described Theory X as the attitude of administrators that subordinates dislike work and must be coerced, controlled, and directed to work. This attitude assumes that workers have very little ambition and want security above all. Theory Y is an attitude that is positive. The administrator feels that workers are self-directed and seek responsibility; most people have the capacity to create, imagine, and solve problems. "His major contribution, however, was not theory, as he called it, but philosophy" (Lee 1980, p. 259). Chris Argyris, an organizational development practitioner, used the Theory X and Theory Y as the foundation for analyzing the behavior patterns of managers. He found the theory especially effective in managing change.

Vroom (1964) introduced the Valence-Instrumentality Expectancy (VIE) theory which was often referred to as the expectancy theory. "While Vroom's theory focuses on performance and work behavior, it has significance for understanding job satisfaction" (Dawis and Lofquist 1981, p. 4). This theory is much more complex than the two-factor theory. Vroom (1964) theorized that the degree of satisfaction is determined by the valence of what the individual values, such as money or recognition, and how effectively the job meets these values. Vroom also discussed the relationship of motivation and performance in the VIE theory. "In other words, the more motivated the worker to

perform effectively, the more effective the performance" (Vroom 1964, p. 204). Vroom (1970) studied the relationship of ability and motivation and their influence on production. He assumed that if two workers had the same ability, the level of motivation would proportionately influence their production. He found that motivation did not correlate with production if the workers already were skilled in the job. However, motivation did influence production when a new skill was being learned.

Porter and Lawler (1968) presented a modification of the expectancy theory proposed by Vroom. Their modified theory included the component identified as rewards. The rewards must be valued by the individual, and the rewards can be either intrinsic or extrinsic. The extrinsic rewards are those rewards that are given by others such as pay or recognition. The intrinsic rewards come from within such as a feeling of doing a good job. The individual's level of satisfaction is determined by the degree to which the rewards meet the expectations that the person has for doing the job. The second component of this theory refers to the effort-performance dimension. In other words, if all things are equal, the degree of effort will determine the degree of performance. If the performance is rewarded according to the individual's expectations, the individual will strive to perform at a higher degree (Porter and Lawler 1968). The individual will be more satisfied if the rewards are viewed as being equitable and appropriate by the individual.

Lawler (1973) listed the following points which are common characteristics of the expectancy theory:

- 1) People have preferences among the various outcomes--that are potentially available to them.
- 2) People have expectancies about the likelihood that an action (effort) on their part will lead to the intended behavior or performance.
- 3) People have expectancies (instrumentalities) about the likelihood that certain outcomes will follow their behavior.
- 4) In any situation, the actions a person chooses to take are determined by the expectancies and preferences that person has at the time (p. 49).

In other words, the expectancy model answers the question of whether  $E \rightarrow P$  (effort  $\rightarrow$  performance) expectancies and  $P \rightarrow O$  (performance  $\rightarrow$  outcomes) expectancies influence the outcomes a person will try to obtain and how these outcomes will be obtained (Hoy and Miskel 1982; Lawler 1973). The  $E \rightarrow P$  expectancies are determined by the person's self-esteem, his/her past experiences, the actual situation, and communications received from others. The  $P \rightarrow O$  expectancies are influenced by many of the same factors but also by reports by co-workers and the nature of outcomes (Lawler 1973). This theory cannot be used to predict behavior because man's perceptions are more complicated and often unpredictable.

Campbell and Pritchard (1976) pointed out the apparent oversimplification of the expectancy theory in trying to explain behavior in a complex organization. Hackman and Porter (1968) identified the expectancy theory as very useful in understanding behavior. The expectancy theory is very complex in its interpretation, yet its flexibility warrants its use in the understanding of behavior in the work field.

Alderfer (1972) proposed the ERG theory in which he identified three basic needs--existence, relatedness, and growth. His needs theory is not unlike Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Existence needs are

the material and physiological needs and desires. Relationship needs are satisfied through significant relationships with certain others. According to Alderfer, the growth needs are satisfied in the problem solving process. One grows not only by solving problems to the best of his/her abilities but also by developing new strategies to meet future problems.

Another theory of job satisfaction was proposed by Raymond Katzell.

Katzell (1964) summarized his views of job satisfaction:

- 1) Job satisfaction is positively associated with the degree of congruence between job conditions and personal values.
- 2) The more important or intense the values involved, the greater is the effect on job satisfaction of their attainment or negation.
- 3) Satisfaction with a given job or occupation will vary with the values of the incumbents.
- 4) Differences in job satisfaction among people having similar values will be associated with differences in their jobs or occupations.
- 5) The presence of certain job characteristics serves usually to evoke satisfaction, whereas their absence results only in neutral feelings; other characteristics serve usually to evoke dissatisfaction, whereas their absence likewise results only in neutral feelings; still others tend to evoke satisfaction when present in moderate amounts, but dissatisfaction results when they exist in amounts that are either too large or too small (pp. 349-352).

"Like many discrepancy theorists, Katzell sees satisfaction as the difference between an actual amount and some desired amount; but, unlike most discrepancy theorists, he assumes that this difference should be divided by the desired amount of the outcome" (Lawler 1973, p. 67).

Katzell (1964) discussed job satisfaction in terms of its nature, conditions, job behavior, and values. He concluded that the job must fulfill the values the worker holds, and that satisfaction is proportional to the intensity with which these values are fulfilled. He suggested that there is a correlation between the satisfaction and the



degree that the worker participates in the job. However, researchers have not developed instruments which measure the relevant variables that determine the degree of satisfaction.

Adam's (1965) Equity Theory, on the other hand, points out the importance of the process of making social comparisons in determining job satisfaction. Adams reviewed earlier research and concluded that if a worker feels that his/her contribution to the job is equal to that of another worker but he/she receives less reward, the worker will feel an inequity and subsequent dissatisfaction. "Whenever two individuals exchange anything, there is the possibility that one or both of them will feel that the exchange was unequitable" (Adams 1965, p. 276).

Adams (1965) identified the worker's inputs as things such as age, sex, seniority, experience, and performance which the worker considers the contributions to the job. The outputs of the job are the pay, recognition, benefits, and status that the worker receives. These outputs can be either satisfiers or dissatisfiers. He noted that the way in which these inputs and outputs are perceived by the worker and the boss will determine the degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Adams concluded that the Hawthorne Studies showed that the feelings of injustice precipitated much of the dissatisfaction felt by the workers. "Equity theory rather clearly states how a person assesses his inputs and outcomes in order to develop his perception of the fairness of his input-outcome balance" (Lawler 1973, p. 69).

Schaffer (1953) saw work as another area of human behavior and concluded that what satisfied or dissatisfied people in their personal life would satisfy or dissatisfy them in their work. His theory was as follows:

Over-all satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied; the stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfillment (p. 3).

His five-part questionnaire attempted to measure the need strengths and need satisfactions in work. He found that the accuracy in measuring overall job satisfaction using this theoretical approach was very limited, but if the two or three strongest needs were met, the job satisfaction could be measured quite accurately.

Ford (1969) tested Herzberg's theory in studies conducted with employees of the Bell system. The study was originally done because Bell officials were worried about the increasing turnover rate of the employees. These employees were well paid by most standards. Ford concluded that Herzberg's theory was accurate and that workers needed to be convinced that the job was responsible and efforts would be recognized. He concluded that the pay must be competitive and the working conditions must be attractive.

The real motivators of improved performance and job satisfaction are centered in the work itself: the satisfaction in being responsible for the job, the sense of achievement in doing the job, and the recognition and opportunities for advancement inherent in good performance (Ford 1969, p. 255).

In conclusion Ford recommended that employers avoid fractionalizing the job for the sake of efficiency. The employee must be provided an assignment that creates a challenge which should motivate the worker to achieve greater productivity.

Ford's study of the Bell system inspired John Maher to edit a book in 1971 which included a closer analysis of the theories presented by Maslow and Herzberg. Maher (1971) collected the thoughts of many business leaders who were responsible for employee relations. His

discussion of the theories presented by Maslow, McGregor, and Herzberg arrived at no particular conclusions, but the theories were presented in great detail.

Locke (1976) considered job satisfaction to be the result of the perception that the job meets the job values of the worker if these values are in agreement with the individual needs of the worker.

Locke distinguishes between needs, or objective requirements for survival and well being, and values, or those things consciously or subconsciously desired, wanted, or sought. Locke points out that needs and values can be in conflict, despite the fact that the ultimate biological function of values is to direct actions and choices in order to satisfy needs (Dawis and Lofquist 1981, p. 5).

Locke found that pay can cause satisfaction if it is distributed fairly as perceived by the worker. The satisfaction with working conditions will be determined by the degree to which they meet the physical needs of the worker and if they aid the worker in attaining work goals. Locke defined satisfaction as "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering" (p. 316). Lawler (1973) stated that Locke's theory was similar to Katzell's except that Locke emphasized perceived discrepancy rather than actual discrepancy.

Lofquist and Dawis (1969) reported that workers who have high need levels that are reinforced by the job report a higher level of satisfaction than those who do not have these needs met. The reinforcer system of the work environment must meet the individual needs of the worker if satisfaction is to be rated high. Satisfaction is the worker's appraisal of the job's ability to meet these required needs (Dawis, Lofquist, and Weiss 1968).

### Job Satisfaction and Performance

Most research indicated that there is a very weak relationship between satisfaction and performance. Vroom (1964) found a very low positive relationship between satisfaction and performance. Lawler and Porter (1967) indicated that high performance may result in rewards which in turn may cause satisfaction. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) found no relationship between satisfaction and performance. Gould (1979) in his career stages study found that job complexity, satisfaction, and performance showed no strong positive relationship. Brayfield and Crockett (1970) found that satisfaction and productivity do not function in a cause-effect relationship. A threatened worker may be very dissatisfied yet produce well. Ironically, a worker who strives to move up in a company may do so because of a dissatisfaction with the present job position.

Lawler (1973) noted that there is nothing in the literature to verify this cause-effect relationship of satisfaction and productivity. "In fact, such a relationship is opposite to the concepts developed by both drive theory and expectancy theory" (Lawler 1973, p. 85). The satisfaction is determined by the rewards that the worker receives for performing the job. If the rewards are not fairly given in relationship to the performance, the worker will be dissatisfied.

### Job Satisfaction and Turnover

Research showed that although there is not a strong relationship between satisfaction and turnover, satisfaction scores can often predict turnover. Lawler and Pfeffer (1980) identified job commitment as the variable that significantly affected job turnover. They identified the

importance of the organization in meeting the appropriate needs of its employees at certain times in their careers. March and Simon (1970) discovered a strong relationship between satisfaction and turnover. However, they found that males leave jobs more often than females, younger workers leave more often than older workers, higher social status workers leave jobs more often than lower social status workers, and the highly specialized workers tend to stay with the job more than the non-specialized worker. Issues such as economic climate and other career opportunities may also affect the turnover rate.

Spencer and Sturs (1981) found that those who left their jobs tended to be less satisfied with their jobs. The major finding was that high performers who left were as satisfied as high performers who stayed, but low performers who left were much less satisfied than low performers who stayed. For low performers, turnovers decreased as satisfaction increased, but for high performers turnover remained unchanged as satisfaction increased.

#### Job Satisfaction and Rewards

It is generally assumed in job satisfaction literature that there are two general types of rewards that cause satisfaction. They are identified as extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Although it is difficult to identify clearly the differences between the two, it is commonly assumed that extrinsic rewards are provided to the worker by the organization. They include pay, fringe benefits, job titles, vacation, and other external benefits. Intrinsic rewards come from within the person and include things such as enjoyment of the work and pride in doing a good job.

Deci (1972) found that the intrinsic needs of people must be met if they are to be satisfied and that extrinsic rewards given incorrectly can decrease the intrinsic satisfaction. However, Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983) found that principals with twenty or more years of experience chose extrinsic or hygiene factors as contributing to job satisfaction, but Holdaway (1978) found that intrinsic facets were most closely related to satisfaction. His findings lent credibility to Herzberg's two-factor theory. Lawler and Pfeffer (1980) and March and Simon (1970) concluded that people who have a strong commitment to an organization are less affected by extrinsic rewards.

Schmidt's (1976) study of high school administrators found that the administrators were highly motivated by achievement, recognition, and advancement. Factors such as salary, policy, and supervision were observed to be highly dissatisfying. Schmidt's study indicated that the motivator factors were associated with positive sequences of events and the hygiene factors were associated with a negative sequence of events.

Vroom (1970) found that the participants were more satisfied with the inducements such as salary if they were allowed to participate in decision-making, problem solving, and setting of performance goals. The rewards such as pay, influence, and status were valued differently by different people. Deci (1975) theorized that intrinsic rewards motivated people to do the job well, but extrinsic rewards motivated people to achieve the reward. He further maintained that intrinsic rewards are the most effective in causing satisfaction.

#### Job Satisfaction in Education

Although most early job satisfaction studies were done with

production workers, there has been an increasing interest in the satisfaction of those employed in education. There have been many more studies done of teachers' job satisfaction than of principals' job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Studies of Teachers. Sergiovanni (1967) used Herzberg's critical incident two-factor theory in the study of 127 teachers in New York. He found general support for the theory although there were some inconsistencies in that the factors of recognition, work itself, interpersonal relations with subordinates, and interpersonal relations with superiors caused both satisfaction and dissatisfaction for the participants.

Holdaway (1978) asked 801 teachers in Alberta, Canada, to identify the three aspects of their jobs that contributed to their satisfaction and three aspects that contributed to their dissatisfaction. Working with students was the major source of satisfaction. The attitudes of the community and parents contributed to the greatest dissatisfaction. The author provided descriptive data which compared personal variables to overall satisfaction. The results showed that the satisfaction increased as age of the teachers increased, elementary teachers were more satisfied than secondary teachers, female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers, and physical education teachers were the least satisfied. Holdaway also found that intrinsic factors were more closely related to satisfaction with achievement, recognition, stimulation, and career orientation causing the greatest satisfaction. Administration, policies, and society's attitudes were the major causes of dissatisfaction. This study lends credibility to Herzberg's two-factor theory.

Hatley, Glasnapp, and Miskel (1975) examined job satisfaction as it relates to matching workers with appropriate job expectations. The employer must become more skilled at selecting personnel who fit with the demands and rewards of the job. The authors reported that the organizational effectiveness depended on selecting the right people for the job and then matching them with the job that meets their intrinsic needs. Therefore, if the incentive programs cannot be changed, then we must choose people who can work satisfactorily within the present system.

Lawler and Pfeffer (1980) investigated the responses of a random sample of 4,058 college and university faculty. The survey asked questions of behavioral commitment, availability of job alternatives, sufficiency of justification, and attitudes toward the organization. They reported that extrinsic rewards had less effect on committed employees. They also found that in the beginning of a career, low-level needs were very important, but as the person gained experience, higher level needs must be met. This study pointed out that studies in the field which are influenced by relationships are more complex than studies in the laboratory.

Metzer and Wangberg (1981) did a study of satisfaction of female teachers. The 257 respondents provided data related to their ages, years of teaching experience, job satisfaction, working conditions, and attitudes toward career options for women. Their dissatisfaction was related to low salary, low professional recognition, lack of adult contact, and inflexible hours. The study indicated that 40 percent of the elementary female teachers questioned would not choose this career if they had it to do over again. In a related study Sparks (1979) found



that 46 percent of the teachers surveyed were dissatisfied and would not teach if they had it to do over.

Williams (1978) argued that administrators must recognize that the individual differences of teachers must be taken into account when developing strategies of rewards. One particular series of rewards will not meet the special needs of all of the individuals. The administrator must be able to identify the specific teacher's needs and provide him/her the rewards that effectively satisfy those needs.

Lipham, Dustan, and Rankin (1981) measured the relationship of job satisfaction of the teachers with their perceptions of the principal's leadership style and their ability to participate in decisionmaking. They concluded that there was a positive relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the principals' leadership styles. There was also a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the staffs' involvement in decisionmaking. The results indicated that teachers rated their principals highest in support behavior and lowest in work facilitation. Knoop (1981) found that the dimension of leadership behavior identified as consideration was positively related to teacher job satisfaction. The implication of this research was that school administrators should acquire consideration skills. Gudridge (1980) observed that teachers were satisfied in their jobs by intrinsic rewards such as praise and recognition. Nevertheless, there seems to be an attempt to meet the lower-level needs of teachers. Trusty and Sergiovanni (1966) used Porter and Lawler's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire and found that teachers' highest need deficiency was self-actualization. This evidence further pointed out the fact that extrinsic rewards such as money and job benefits do not meet the higher

order needs that are identified by teachers. Most of the literature that the writer reviewed encouraged the use of intrinsic rewards in meeting the needs of teachers.

Miller, Taylor, and Walker (1982) used a questionnaire to solicit the opinions of 383 teachers and taped interviews with fifty-six of this sample in order to obtain their perceptions of their job satisfaction. Teachers under thirty years of age expressed greater dissatisfaction than teachers over forty. Satisfaction derived mainly from work with students, and dissatisfaction resulted from the attitudes of a few students. Most teachers were generally satisfied. Male teachers in their early thirties stressed the importance of work while women of the same age found fulfillment in their families, but by the early forties this trend was reversed. Teachers older than forty-five found fulfillment in both their families and jobs.

Studies have been done that relate teacher perceived satisfaction to the principal's leadership style. McCaskill (1979) surveyed 682 teachers in Texas and identified some interesting variables that relate to job satisfaction. He found that as class size increased the satisfaction decreased. Low salaries were related to low satisfaction and elementary teachers in the fields of special and vocational education were the most satisfied. Teachers expressed dissatisfaction that the principal did not offer enough individual assistance and was not available often enough.

Gorton (1983) concluded that in most cases the conditions that create job satisfaction for teachers are associated with the work itself; the conditions which contribute to teachers' dissatisfaction are associated with the environment of work. The seeming increase of

dissatisfaction among teachers has been demonstrated in employee stress and burnout. Quick and Quick (1979) have recommended ways to deal with stress. The modern principal must recognize and be able to help staff members deal with this increased dissatisfaction with the job. They identified four factors of stress that principals must recognize before they can help deal with stress. They identified role factors, job factors, physical factors, and interpersonal factors as the four groups of stress factors.

Gorton (1983) identified the following strategies for administrators who wish to develop and maintain high staff satisfaction.

- 1) Attempt on a regular basis to obtain systematic feedback from the staff as individuals and as a group, on their perceptions of the problems, concerns, and issues which they feel affect them personally or the school generally.
- 2) Exert a major effort toward improving the satisfaction which staff derive from their work.
- 3) Strive to improve the operation of the school and the overall quality of the educational program of the school.
- 4) Try to be sensitive to problems of an interpersonal nature between and among teachers, students, and parents, and try to mediate these problems when appropriate.
- 5) Provide meaningful participation for teachers in the decisionmaking processes of the school.
- 6) Practice good human relations in your own interactions with the faculty as a whole and with individual faculty members (pp. 217-219).

The leadership behavior of the administrator seems to be a major key to high faculty morale and satisfaction. The building principal must strive to improve the work itself in an attempt to meet the intrinsic and higher order needs of the teachers.

Job Satisfaction Studies of Principals. Few satisfaction studies have been done with principals. "Given the history of the study of job satisfaction, it is not surprising that attention has focused on teachers rather than administrators" (Bacharach and Mitchell 1983, p.

101). Most studies of job satisfaction have focused on the lower-level employee in an attempt to improve production. This section of the review of literature will identify some recent and important studies of the job satisfaction of principals.

Mannone (1973) used a critical incident method to study the job satisfaction of twenty elementary and twenty secondary principals. Achievement and recognition were mentioned as the two main components of their job satisfaction. However, they were identified by many as sources of dissatisfaction. Interpersonal relations with subordinates and interpersonal relations with superiors were identified as dissatisfiers, but other participants identified these as satisfiers. With the exception of school district policy and administration--which was identified as a dissatisfier--the other items in the study seemed to have a blurring of results which means that these items are seen as satisfiers by some and dissatisfiers by others.

Schmidt (1976) used a sample of 132 educational administrators from Chicago and found that administrators were satisfied by achievement, recognition, and advancement. Factors such as salary, policy, and supervision were observed to be highly dissatisfying. A modification of the Herzberg interview method was used along with a questionnaire of the characteristics of the job. The results gave strong support to the motivation-hygiene theory.

Gross and Napier (1967) surveyed 382 male principals in American cities with populations of 50,000 or over. Data were obtained to investigate the determinants of intrinsic job satisfaction and career satisfaction. They found that the two major psychological needs of the

principals were those of autonomy and self-actualization. The intrinsic job satisfaction needs were best met when these needs were fulfilled.

Herlihy and Herlihy (1980) identified the paradox that many effective principals face. Principals say that they regard their jobs as satisfying capstone career posts, yet most do not plan to stay in the principalship. The authors identified loneliness as the main source of dissatisfaction or stress which caused the majority to state that they do not plan to remain in the principalship. Most principals stated that they had no one with whom to share their professional problems. Herlihy and Herlihy recommended that principals acknowledge and accept loneliness, reaffirm their values, stay in touch with their sense of humor, and seek out and maintain a mutual support group.

Giammatteo and Giammatteo (1980) identified stress as the greatest dissatisfier of principals. They recommended a four-step process for dealing with stress: 1) awareness of stressors, 2) development of techniques to tolerate them, 3) means to reduce stress, and 4) a plan for the management of events that cause stress. These techniques are alternatives to the fight or flight alternatives usually thought available to most administrators.

Poppenhagen (1977) and Rogus, Poppenhagen, and Mincus (1980) found that the perceptions of job satisfaction showed no significant differences between elementary, junior high, and senior high principals. However, senior high principals showed a higher dissatisfaction with job interference in their family lives than did the other groups. Both studies indicated that the principals surveyed indicated a general satisfaction with their jobs.

Brown (1972) used a questionnaire based on need satisfaction in his

study of public school administrators. The questionnaire measured the five needs levels of security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. He found no relationship between satisfaction and age, sex, ethnic identification, school size, type of position, or community type. There was a relationship between the satisfaction and job level, minority student composition of a school, and level of education. In a related study, Baldi de Mandilovitch and Quinn (1975) also found that level of education and job satisfaction were positively related.

A study of principal and superintendent satisfaction was done by Bacharach and Mitchell (1983). They surveyed administrators in eighty-three New York school districts. They focused the study on the importance of organizational factors in the study of job satisfaction. The primary variables included were items related to bureaucratization, supervision, and participation in decisionmaking. A high degree of bureaucracy and high negative supervision were strong predictors of job dissatisfaction for both principals and superintendents. Other variables that contributed to dissatisfaction were the number of families in the district who were below the poverty level and the degree of negativism among members of the teachers' union. The study concluded that the conditions of the job greatly determine the degree to which administrators are dissatisfied with their jobs.

Brown (1973) also looked at organizational variables and their relationship to job satisfaction. A thirteen-item Likert-type instrument was given to 1000 public school administrators in California. Satisfaction was defined as the difference between how satisfied the person was and how satisfied he/she thought that he/she should be. The

results showed that principals of schools with 20 percent or more minority population were much less satisfied than those with fewer minority students.

Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983) found that the results of their study supported Herzberg's two-factor theory. The researchers analyzed the responses of 350 of the 410 principals in Alberta, Canada. The researchers used a free response questionnaire which asked the respondent to list the two factors which contributed most to his/her satisfaction and the two factors which contributed most to his/her dissatisfaction with the principalship. Principals with twenty or more years of experience chose hygiene factors more frequently as contributing to job satisfaction than those with less experience. Male principals more frequently chose hygiene factors as job dissatisfiers than did female principals. Principals of city schools chose hygiene factors less frequently as sources of dissatisfaction than did rural principals. Although there was a blurring of some of the variables, the main sources of satisfaction were identified as achievement, responsibility, autonomy, and interpersonal relationships. Amount of work, working conditions, attitudes of society, and relationships with parents were the greatest source of dissatisfaction. The greatest sources of satisfaction appeared to be intrinsic and the greatest dissatisfiers were extrinsic.

Studies of job satisfaction date back to the beginning of the twentieth century but relatively "little is known about the determinants and consequences of satisfaction" (Lawler 1973, p. 61). While psychologists have been very interested in the study of motivation, they find satisfaction less observable and difficult to measure. This review of

literature has identified some major studies done of satisfaction and how they fit in the brief history of the study of job satisfaction. The teacher and principal job satisfaction studies reviewed are the more well-known studies done in that area. The writer concluded that the whole area of job satisfaction theory is in its infancy. According to Lawler (1973) little is known about the determinants and consequences of satisfaction in comparison to what is known about motivation. Lawler went on to say "while psychology was under the influence of behaviorism, psychologists avoided doing research that depended on introspective self-reports" (p. 61). Consequently there are very few theories of satisfaction that have been developed. The area of job satisfaction research is beginning to experience a renewed interest. There are many areas of job satisfaction in the educational field that deserve more extensive research.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to describe the secondary principals of Minnesota and their job satisfaction and the relationship of this satisfaction to selected background variables.

#### Population

In this study, all secondary public school principals listed in the Minnesota Association of Secondary School Principal's (MASSP) mailing list were surveyed. Elementary, junior high, and all assistant principals were not surveyed. More specifically, the principals surveyed were head building principals of any secondary public school with grades 7-12, 9-12, or 10-12. The mailing list and labels were provided by the MASSP. Questionnaires were sent to 402 principals. Usable responses were received from 366 (91 percent) of the principals.

#### Instrumentation

The writer used a two-part questionnaire to gather the necessary data. The first part of the questionnaire measured the principals' perceptions of their job satisfaction, and the second part of the questionnaire collected responses to selected background variables. All respondents received identical questionnaires.

The questionnaire was divided into two parts but was sent as a single sheet of paper (see Appendix A). The first segment of the

questionnaire was the twenty item Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which was developed as a part of the Work Adjustment Project at the University of Minnesota in 1966. The MSQ provided an intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction score for each respondent. The MSQ had been used extensively and appeared to be very appropriate for this study. The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook (Buros 1972) described the test as follows:

Of the 567 coefficients, 83 percent were .30 or higher and only 2.5 percent were lower than .70. Stability of the MSQ was determined by retesting students and employed persons at one-week and one-year intervals, respectively (pp. 1679-80).

Clearly, the MSQ gives reasonably reliable, valid, well-normed indications of general satisfaction at work and 20 aspects of that satisfaction, collapsible into intrinsic and extrinsic components (p. 1680).

The norms for the MSQ were described by Weiss et al. (1966) in the Instrumentation for the Theory of Work Adjustment. Data were obtained for a total group of 1,460 workers which included janitors, assemblers, machinists, office clerks, salesmen, engineers, and other miscellaneous occupations. The overall satisfaction mean score for this group was 3.8. They had an intrinsic mean score of 4.0 and an extrinsic mean score of 3.4. For the total group, the highest mean was obtained on the Security item (4.4) and Advancement (3.1) had the lowest mean score. The median age of the group was about 45 years and engineers made up almost 25 percent of the workers who were studied.

One of the authors of the MSQ, Dr. René Dawis of the University of Minnesota, agreed to allow the writer to use a slightly adapted form of the questionnaire for this study. This permission was given initially in a meeting in November of 1984 in Minneapolis and later in written communication (see Appendix B).

Two small changes were made in the MSQ allowing the writer to make the questionnaire more specifically tailored to the principal.

- 1) Question 5 initially read "The way my boss handles his men." It was changed to "the way my boss handles his/her workers."
- 2) Question 12 initially read "The way company policies are put into practice." It was changed to "the way school district policies are put into practice."

The second segment of the questionnaire was designed to collect background information about the respondents. It asked respondents for information about sex, age, total years of educational administration experience, years in present position, total number of educational administration positions held, highest degree completed, present enrollment of school in which they are the principal, number of assistant principals or administrative assistants (at least half time) who work with them, present salary, and general satisfaction with the present position considering the actual role as compared to what they would like it to be.

After reviewing many studies of job satisfaction, the writer assembled an initial list of background variables. Through the consultation with his advisor, classmates in a course on administration and organizational behavior, Dr. René Dawis, and his graduate committee, the writer finalized the list of background variables. Some of the variables such as sex, age, and salary have been used in many studies of satisfaction. The remaining variables were more specific to the role of the principal and some of them were used in the national principal study by Byrne, Hines, and McCleary (1978).

### Data Collection

The data collection was handled by mail. A packet containing a questionnaire, cover letter, addressed postage-paid return envelope, endorsement letter from the MASSP, and response postcard was sent directly to each principal. This packet was addressed personally to each principal, was mailed first class, and was sent to the principal's school address. The mailing labels were provided by the MASSP. The mailings were sent directly from the MASSP office on January 7, 1985 and all 402 were sent on the same day. Respondents were asked to return their questionnaires and response postcards by January 18, 1985. Each packet contained a personal letter from the writer which described the purpose and procedure of the study (see Appendix C). The next letter was a short endorsement from the MASSP (see Appendix D). Included next was the two-part questionnaire which was to be completed by the respondent. Also included was an addressed, postage paid return envelope for the respondent's use in returning the completed questionnaire. The response postcard was included so that the respondent could send it separately and indicate that he/she had sent the complete questionnaire (see Appendix E). It allowed the writer to record who had completed the questionnaire in case a follow-up study was required while at the same time protecting the anonymity of the respondents.

### Data Analysis

The questionnaires were processed individually by keypunch operators at the University of North Dakota. The keypunch cards were computer processed. The first part of the questionnaire (MSQ) yielded three scores for each respondent: an intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall

satisfaction score. The second part of the questionnaire provided selected background data for each of the participants.

The analysis of the background data provided information in the form of percentages and averages to describe the secondary public school principal in Minnesota. The potential relationships of these background variables and the three satisfaction scores (intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction) of the MSQ were analyzed. Item number ten of the background variables also yielded a satisfaction score that was identified as the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE). The relationship of this score with the three MSQ scores was also analyzed. All of these relationships were studied through the use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the t-test of matched pairs.

The following chapter presents the data collected from the questionnaire.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION OF DATA

This chapter presents the data from the two-part questionnaire that was used in this study. This chapter contains descriptive data that may provide a more clear description of the secondary public school principalship in Minnesota. The statistical analysis of the data indicated the nature of relationships found between the three types of satisfaction scores--intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction--and selected background variables. The statistical relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic scores was also presented. The relationships of the background variables with each other were also analyzed.

The results are presented in eight parts: 1) description of the population; 2) summary of each of the intrinsic items in the MSQ; 3) summary of each of the extrinsic items in the MSQ; 4) summary of the relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic mean scores; 5) summary of the relationships between the background variables and the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores; 6) summary of the relationship between the first nine background variables and the satisfaction score of item ten based on the principal's perception of the actual role and what he/she would like it to be; 7) summary of the relationship between the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores and the satisfaction score of item ten based on the principal's perception of the actual role and what he/she would like it to be; and 8) summary.

### Description of the Respondents

In this study, all secondary public school principals listed in the Minnesota Association of Secondary Principal's (MASSP) mailing list were surveyed. Elementary, junior high, and all assistant principals were not surveyed. More specifically, the principals surveyed were head building principals of any secondary public school with grades 7-12, 9-12, or 10-12. The mailing list and labels were provided by the MASSP. Questionnaires were sent to 402 principals. Usable responses were received from 366 (91 percent) of the principals.

The background information was reported to provide a more clear description of the secondary public school principalship in Minnesota. The respondents were asked to complete ten selected items of background information. Item ten of the background information was discussed more thoroughly because it required a different type of response than the other background variables. Each of the background variables was discussed separately and in some detail.

#### Sex

In Table 1 are found the numbers and percentages regarding the sex of the respondents. Of the 366 respondents only 13 (3.6 percent) were females; 353 (96.4 percent) were males.

#### Age

As shown in Table 2, the ages of the respondents ranged from 29 to 66 years of age. The most frequently identified age was 37 (6.8 percent). The mean age of the respondents was 45.6 years. One hundred forty-four (39 percent) of the respondents were included in the age range from 40 to 49 years. Ninety-six percent of the respondents were

TABLE 1  
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 1: SEX  
(N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
Sex	N	%
Male	353	96.4
Female	13	3.6



TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 2: AGE  
(N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
	Age	N
29	2	.5
30	3	.8
31	5	1.4
32	4	1.1
33	7	1.9
34	9	2.5
35	7	1.9
36	9	2.5
37	25	6.8
38	19	5.2
39	8	2.2
40	14	3.8
41	19	5.2
42	16	4.4
43	13	3.6
44	11	3.0
45	11	3.0
46	19	5.2
47	12	3.3
48	13	3.6
49	16	4.4
50	11	3.0
51	11	3.0
52	18	4.9
53	12	3.3
54	12	3.3
55	12	3.3
56	8	2.2
57	10	2.7
58	9	2.5
59	9	2.5
60	1	0.3
61	5	1.4
62	3	0.8
63	1	0.3
64	1	0.3
66	1	0.3

Mean: 45.6

included in the age range from 30-59 years. Only 12 (3.3 percent) of the respondents were 60 years of age or older and 2 (.5 percent) were less than 30 years of age.

#### Total Years of Educational Administrative Experience

As shown in Table 3, the total years of educational administrative experience of the respondents ranged from 1 to 38 years. Two hundred eighty-four (77.5 percent) of the respondents had 19 or fewer years of educational administrative experience. Sixty-three (17.2 percent) of the respondents had five or fewer years of educational administrative experience. Seventeen (4.7 percent) of the respondents had 30 or more years of educational administrative experience. The mean score for years of experience was 14.

#### Years in Present Position

As shown in Table 4, the respondents' years in the present position ranged from 1-30 years. Eighty-five (23.2 percent) of the respondents were in their first or second year in their current position. Two hundred forty-six (67.2 percent) of the respondents had been in their present position for 10 years or less. Sixteen (4.4 percent) of the respondents had been in their current position for 20 years or more. The mean score for years in their present position was 8.1 years.

#### Total Number of Educational Positions

As shown in Table 5, 349 (95.4 percent) of the respondents had held five or less educational positions in their careers. Two hundred eighty-one (76.8 percent) of the respondents had held three or less educational positions. The mean score for this item was 2.8. The data

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 3: TOTAL  
YEARS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE  
(N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Total Years of Educational Administrative Experience		
1	9	2.5
2	17	4.6
3	11	3.0
4	9	2.5
5	17	4.6
6	15	4.1
7	18	4.9
8	14	3.8
9	11	3.0
10	15	4.1
11	15	4.1
12	14	3.8
13	17	4.6
14	13	3.6
15	18	4.9
16	20	5.5
17	11	3.0
18	23	6.3
19	17	4.6
20	10	2.7
21	7	1.9
22	5	1.4
23	8	2.2
24	10	2.7
25	6	1.6
26	3	0.8
27	6	1.6
28	5	1.4
29	5	1.4
30	1	0.3
31	6	1.6
32	4	1.1
33	1	0.3
34	1	0.3
35	1	0.3
36	2	0.5
38	1	0.3
Mean:	14.3	

TABLE 4  
 SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 4: HOW  
 MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN IN YOUR PRESENT POSITION?  
 (N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Years in Present Position		
1	45	12.3
2	40	10.9
3	31	8.5
4	17	4.6
5	23	6.3
6	30	8.2
7	21	5.7
8	12	3.3
9	10	2.7
10	17	4.6
11	19	5.2
12	16	4.4
13	8	2.2
14	9	2.5
15	16	4.4
16	6	1.6
17	9	2.5
18	10	2.7
19	11	3.0
20	2	0.5
21	4	1.1
22	2	0.5
23	3	0.8
24	3	0.8
26	1	0.3
30	1	0.3
Mean:	8.1	

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 5: WHAT IS THE TOTAL NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL POSITIONS THAT YOU HAVE HELD IN YOUR CAREER?  
(N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Total Number of Educational Positions Held in Career		
1	69	18.9
2	135	36.9
3	77	21.0
4	43	11.7
5	25	6.8
6	8	2.2
7	1	.3
8	4	1.1
11	1	.3
16	1	.3
23	1	.3
26	1	.3
Mean:	2.8	

presented in Table 5 can only be viewed with limited confidence. When analyzing the results, the writer noticed that item number five should have read "What is the total number of educational administration positions you have held in your professional career." Although the question included "(e.g. superintendencies, assistant superintendencies, principalships, assistant principalships, directorships)" the writer determined that 47 (12.8 percent) of the respondents probably did not interpret the question as intended. This information should be considered when analyzing the data presented in Table 5.

#### Highest Degree Completed

As shown in Table 6, most of the respondents had completed a Specialist or Sixth-Year Certificate as their highest degree earned. Only nine (2.5 percent) of the respondents had completed a Bachelor's Degree as their highest degree earned. Eighty-nine (24.3 percent) had completed a Master's Degree as the highest degree earned. Two hundred forty-one (55.8 percent) of the respondents had completed a Specialist Degree or Sixth-Year Certificate and 27 (7.4 percent) had earned a Doctorate Degree as their highest degree earned. Three hundred fifty-seven (97.5 percent) of the respondents had completed at least a Master's Degree.

The average age of the respondents who held a Bachelor's Degree as the highest degree earned was 51 years of age. Their average salary was \$30,083 and they worked in schools with an average enrollment of 213. The average age of the respondents who held a Doctorate Degree as the highest degree earned was 46 years of age. Their average salary was

TABLE 6  
 SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 6:  
 HIGHEST DEGREE THAT YOU HAVE COMPLETED  
 (N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Highest Degree Completed		
Bachelor's	9	2.5
Master's	89	24.3
Specialist or 6th Year	241	65.8
Doctorate	27	7.4

\$46,100 and they worked in schools with an average enrollment of 994 students.

#### Present Enrollment of Respondent's School

As shown in Table 7, the enrollments of the schools of which the respondents were the principal ranged widely. The smallest enrollment was 76 students and the largest enrollment was 2700 students. Two hundred (54.7 percent) of the respondents were principals in schools with enrollments of 400 students or less. Although the mean enrollment was 569, the median enrollment was 363. Only 61 (16.7 percent) of the schools had a student enrollment of 1000 or greater. One hundred fifty (41 percent) of the schools had student enrollments that ranged from 200-399 students.

#### Number of Assistant Principals and/or Administrative Assistants

As shown in Table 8, 211 (56.6 percent) of the respondents did not work with any assistant principals and/or administrative assistants. One hundred twenty-eight (35.6 percent) of the respondents worked with either one or two assistant principals and/or administrative assistants. Only 61 (17 percent) of the respondents had more than one assistant principal and/or administrative assistant working with them. The number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants ranged from zero to six.

#### Present Yearly Salary

As shown in Table 9, the yearly salaries of the respondents ranged from a low of \$22,000 to a high of \$57,600. One hundred ninety-one



TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 7: WHAT IS THE PRESENT ENROLLMENT IN THE SCHOOL OF WHICH YOU ARE THE PRINCIPAL?

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Present School Enrollment		
0-199	50	13.7
200-399	150	41.0
400-599	55	15.0
600-799	36	9.8
800-999	14	3.8
1000-1199	11	3.0
1200-1399	16	4.3
1400-1599	9	2.5
1600-1799	6	1.6
1800-1999	7	1.9
2000-2199	6	1.6
2200-2399	2	.5
2400-2599	1	.3
2600-2799	3	.5
Mean:	569	

TABLE 8

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 8: HOW  
MANY ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS AND/OR ADMINISTRATIVE  
ASSISTANTS WORK WITH YOU IN YOUR HIGH SCHOOL?  
(N = 360)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Number of Assistant Principals and/or Administrative Assistants		
0	211	58.6
1	88	24.4
2	40	11.1
3	11	3.1
4	7	2.0
5	2	.5
6	1	.3

TABLE 9  
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 9:  
WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT YEARLY SALARY?  
(N = 364)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Present Yearly Salary		
Under 24,999	3	.8
25,000-29,999	23	6.3
30,000-34,999	104	28.6
35,000-39,999	87	23.9
40,000-44,999	77	21.2
45,000-49,999	36	9.9
50,000-54,999	27	7.4
55,000-59,999	7	1.9
Mean: 38,553		

(52.5 percent) of the respondents earned a yearly salary of between \$30,000 and \$39,999. Twenty-six (7.1 percent) of the respondents earned a yearly salary of less than \$30,000 and 34 (9.3 percent) of the respondents earned a yearly salary of \$50,000 or higher. The mean salary of the respondents was \$38,553.

Satisfaction of Respondent Considering  
Actual Role to What He/She Would  
Like It to Be, Actual-versus  
Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE)

As shown in Table 10, the respondents' satisfaction mean score was 6.9. The respondents were asked to circle a number from one to ten (NOT SATISFIED 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 EXTREMELY SATISFIED) that identified their perception of satisfaction when considering their actual role as principal in comparison to what they would like it to be. Although this item was included as a background variable, it appeared to be different from the other nine background variables because it required an opinion response and not a factual response. The author identified this item as Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE).

The Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) mean score was 6.9 of the possible "extremely satisfied" score of 10. The mean score of the overall satisfaction score on the MSQ (reported later in Table 18) was 3.5 of the possible "extremely satisfied" score of 5. The comparison of these two statistics indicated that the mean scores of these two items were quite similar. It also provided some additional evidence of the validity of the MSQ.

One hundred seventy (46.4 percent) of the respondents identified their satisfaction with a score of 7 or 8. Three hundred nineteen (87.2 percent) of the respondents identified their satisfaction with a score

TABLE 10

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO BACKGROUND ITEM NUMBER 10: WHEN YOU  
 THINK OF YOUR ACTUAL ROLE AS PRINCIPAL IN COMPARISON TO  
 WHAT YOU WOULD LIKE IT TO BE, HOW SATISFIED ARE YOU?  
 (N = 366)

Variable	Respondents	
	N	%
Actual vs. Ideal Satisfaction Score		
1	2	.5
2	6	1.6
3	20	5.5
4	19	5.2
5	36	9.8
6	43	11.7
7	73	19.9
8	97	26.5
9	57	15.6
10	13	3.6
Mean:	6.9	

of 5 or higher. Forty-seven (12.8 percent) of the respondents identified their satisfaction with a score of 4 or lower. There appeared to be no particular characteristics that this group shared that gave added information as to the reasons for their low satisfaction scores. This group had an average enrollment of 390 students, 10 (21.3 percent) worked with an assistant principal and/or administrative assistant, 9 (19 percent) were in their first or second year of the position, and 46 (97.9 percent) were males.

Analysis of Selected Background Variables and Their Relationship to Each Other

As shown in Table 11, many of the background variables were significantly related to each other. Sex was not included in the analyses because the disproportionate percentage of males made any statistical analysis difficult. Actual-versus-Ideal Role (ACIDROLE) was not included because it measured perceptions of the respondents rather than being a true background variable. Many of the items were significantly related at the .001 level. The information presented in Table 11 provided a more complete picture of the background variables and their relationships to each other. Age, salary, and total years of educational administrative experience shared a significant relationship with every other background variable. Years in the present position was significantly related to fewer of the other variables than any of the other items.

Summary of Each of the Intrinsic Items in the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The intrinsic items of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

TABLE 11

## ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELECTED BACKGROUND VARIABLES WITH EACH OTHER

	AGE		TOTYRS		PRESPOS		TOTNUPOS		DEGREE		ENROLL		ASSIST		SALARY	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
1) AGE			.765	<.001	.571	<.001	.151	.002	-.306	<.001	.240	<.001	.205	<.001	.341	<.001
2) TOTYRS Total Years of Educational Administrative Experience	.765	<.001			.691	<.001	.253	<.001	-.315	<.001	.292	<.001	.249	<.001	.424	<.001
3) PRESPOS Years in Present Position	.571	<.001	.691	<.001			-.032	.273	-.340	<.001	.027	.301	.029	.290	.161	.001
4) TOTNUPOS Total Number of Educational Positions	.151	.002	.253	<.001	-.032	.273			.024	.323	.216	<.001	.203	<.001	.201	<.001
5) DEGREE Highest Degree Completed	-.306	<.001	-.315	<.001	-.340	<.001	.024	.323			.096	.034	.082	<.061	.141	.003
6) ENROLLMENT Enrollment of Principal's School	.240	<.001	.292	<.001	.027	.301	.216	<.001	.096	.034			.863	<.001	.773	<.001
7) ASSISTANTS Number of Assistant Principals and/or Administrative Assistants	.205	<.001	.249	<.001	.029	.290	.203	<.001	.082	.061	.863	<.001			.654	<.001
8) SALARY	.341	<.001	.424	<.001	.162	.001	.201	<.001	.141	.003	.773	<.001	.654	<.001		

(MSQ) are listed in Table 12. The mean scores for each of the twelve intrinsic items and the cumulative intrinsic mean score are presented. The twelve intrinsic items are ranked from the highest mean score to the lowest mean score. Table 12 also includes the standard deviation for each of the intrinsic items. The intrinsic items were identified by the authors of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

The items identified as SOCIAL SERVICE and VARIETY were the only two intrinsic items that had mean scores that were greater than 4.0. The respondents appeared to feel very satisfied with the chance to do things for others and the chance to do different things from time to time. AUTHORITY or the chance to tell people what to do was identified by the respondents as the least satisfying of the twelve intrinsic items. AUTHORITY received a mean score of 3.060 or more than one point less than the highest intrinsic mean score which was 4.134. The range of the intrinsic mean scores was 1.074. The only other intrinsic mean score that was below 3.6 was the mean score of INDEPLNDENCE which was the chance to work alone on the job. This aspect of the job received a mean score of 3.314.

The eight remaining intrinsic items received mean scores that had a range of only .286. The highest mean score of these eight items was that given to SECURITY which was 3.898. The lowest mean score of this group was that given to ACHIEVEMENT which was 3.612.

AUTHORITY which had the lowest intrinsic mean score and SOCIAL SERVICE which had the highest intrinsic mean score had the lowest standard deviations. It appeared that the respondents shared the greatest agreement concerning these two items. Only ACTIVITY had a



TABLE 12  
 MEAN SCORES OF EACH OF THE TWELVE INTRINSIC ITEMS  
 IN THE MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Rank	Item	$\bar{X}$	SD
1)	SOCIAL SERVICE--The chance to do things for other people (9)	4.134	0.791
2)	VARIETY--The chance to do different things from time to time (3)	4.068	0.921
3)	SECURITY--The way my job provides for steady employment (8)	3.898	0.932
4)	ABILITY-UTILIZATION--The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities (11)	3.874	0.937
5)	ACTIVITY--Being able to keep busy all the time (1)	3.811	1.042
6)	CREATIVITY--The chance to try my own methods on the job (16)	3.790	0.883
7)	RESPONSIBILITY--The freedom to use my own judgment (15)	3.765	0.942
8)	MORAL VALUES--Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience (7)	3.698	0.919
9)	SOCIAL STATUS--The chance to be "somebody" in the community (4)	3.636	0.872
10)	ACHIEVEMENT--The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job (20)	3.612	0.946
11)	INDEPENDENCE--The chance to work alone on the job (2)	3.314	0.896
12)	AUTHORITY--The chance to tell people what to do (10)	3.060	0.709
Mean Intrinsic Score:		3.702	

standard deviation of greater than one. The cumulative intrinsic mean score was 3.702.

Summary of Each of the Extrinsic Items in the  
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The extrinsic items of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire are listed in Table 13. The mean scores for each of the six extrinsic items and the cumulative extrinsic mean score are presented. The six extrinsic items are ranked from the highest mean score to the lowest mean score. Table 13 also includes the standard deviation for each of the extrinsic items. The extrinsic items were identified by the authors of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

The six extrinsic items in the MSQ ranged from a high mean score of 3.440 to a low mean score of 2.918. The range of these six items was .522. Two of the items had a mean score of less than three.

RECOGNITION had the lowest mean score of any of the extrinsic items. ADVANCEMENT was the only other extrinsic mean score that was below three.

SUPERVISION-TECHNICAL or the competence of my supervisor in making decisions had the highest mean score of any of the extrinsic items. The mean score for SUPERVISION-TECHNICAL was higher than two of the intrinsic item mean scores. SUPERVISION-HUMAN RELATIONS or the way my boss handles his/her workers had the second highest mean score of the extrinsic items. It appeared that the two items that were directly related to the respondents' feelings about their supervisors had the highest mean scores.

COMPENSATION or the pay and the amount of work I do had a mean score of 3.005. DISTRICT POLICIES AND PRACTICES or the way school

TABLE 13  
 MEAN SCORES OF EACH OF THE SIX EXTRINSIC ITEMS  
 IN THE MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Rank	Item	$\bar{X}$	SD
1)	SUPERVISION-TECHNICAL--The competence of my supervisor in making decisions (6)	3.440	1.128
2)	SUPERVISION-HUMAN RELATIONS--The way my boss handles his/her workers (5)	3.246	1.225
3)	DISTRICT POLICIES AND PRACTICES--The way school district policies are put into practice (12)	3.115	0.993
4)	COMPENSATION--My pay and the amount of work I do (13)	3.005	1.068
5)	ADVANCEMENT--The chances for advancement on this job (14)	2.964	0.940
6)	RECOGNITION--The praise I get for doing a good job (19)	2.918	1.080
Mean Extrinsic Score:		3.098	

district policies are put into practice had a mean score of 3.115. These two items were more closely related to the school board and central office than to their immediate supervisors.

Four of the six extrinsic items had standard deviations of over 1, and the remaining two items had standard deviations of higher than .9. It appeared that there was less agreement among the respondents' perceptions of the extrinsic items than there was among the intrinsic items. The cumulative extrinsic mean score was 3.098 or .604 lower than the cumulative intrinsic mean score.

#### A Comparison of the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Mean Scores

Table 14 contains a summary of the difference between the intrinsic and extrinsic mean scores. This relationship was analyzed with the use of a t-test of matched pairs. The intrinsic mean score of 3.7017 and the extrinsic mean score of 3.0984 had a significant difference at the .001 level. Table 14 also includes the number of respondents, mean scores, standard deviations, the t-score, the degrees of freedom, and the two-tail probability of the difference. Also included is the Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the probability for that relationship. (The item-by-item summary of responses to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is included in Table 18 in Appendix F.)

#### Summary of the Relationships between the Background Variables and the Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Overall Satisfaction Scores

Table 15 contains a summary of the relationships between the background variables and the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. Table 15 also includes the number of respondents, the

TABLE 14

A COMPARISON OF THE INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MEAN SCORES  
OF THE MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	p	r	$\underline{p}$
Intrinsic Mean Score	366	3.7017	0.624	-18.82	<.001	.621	<.001
Extrinsic Mean Score	366	3.0984	0.757				

TABLE 15

SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE BACKGROUND VARIABLES AND THE  
INTRINSIC, EXTRINSIC, AND OVERALL SATISFACTION SCORES

Background Variables	N	Intrinsic		Extrinsic		Overall Satisfaction	
		r	p	r	p	r	p
1) Sex	366	-0.003	.478	-0.015	.386	-0.011	.418
2) Age	366	-0.008	.436	-0.015	.386	-0.002	.485
3) Total years of educational administrative experience	366	0.039	.228	-0.002	.482	0.039	.228
4) Years in present position	366	-0.049	.177	-0.013	.400	-0.025	.320
5) Total number of educational positions	366	0.114	.015*	0.082	.058	0.116	.013*
6) Highest degree completed	366	0.041	.218	0.028	.297	0.038	.233
7) Present enrollment of principal's school	366	0.208	<.001***	0.159	.001**	0.211	<.001***
8) Number of assistant principals or administrative assistants	360	0.223	<.001***	0.175	<.001***	0.227	<.001***
9) Salary	364	0.226	<.001***	0.207	<.001***	0.252	<.001***
10) Satisfaction based on your actual role and what you would like it to be	366	0.557	<.001***	0.564	<.001***	0.644	<.001***

\*Indicates a significant relationship at .05 level.

\*\*Indicates a significant relationship at .01 level.

\*\*\*Indicates a significant relationship at .001 level.

correlation coefficient, and the degree of significance of those relationships. These data were analyzed through the use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. It is important to note that although the correlation coefficients are an index of the relationship of the variables, they are not sufficient to establish a causal relationship.

#### Non-Significant Relationships

As shown in Table 15, the background variables of sex, age, total years of educational administrative experience, years in present position, and highest degree completed were not significantly related to either the intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall satisfaction score.

#### Significant Relationships

As shown in Table 15, the total number of educational positions held and the intrinsic and overall satisfaction scores were significantly related at the .05 level. However, the writer already has explained the possible problems associated with the responses to this item. Therefore this significant relationship must be interpreted with caution.

The relationships of the present enrollment of the school at which the respondent is principal to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores were significant. The relationship between the enrollment and the extrinsic scores was significant at the .01 level and the relationship between the enrollment and the intrinsic and overall satisfaction scores was significant at the .001 level. The data in Table 15 indicate that the relationships were positive. The relationships of the number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores

were significant at the .001 level. The relationships of salary to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores were significant at the .001 level. All of the significant relationships noted in Table 15 were positive. It appeared that as the enrollment, number of assistants, and salary increased the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores increased also.

As noted in Table 15, the responses to item number ten of the background information were significantly related to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. The relationship was positive and significant at the .001 level. As the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) scores increased, the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores increased. Item number ten was the respondents' perceptions of their satisfaction when thinking of their actual role and what they would like it to be. The author has identified this variable as the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE). Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) differed from the other nine background variables because it required perceptions rather than factual information from the respondents.

Summary of Relationships between the First Nine Background Variables and the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE)

The data presented in Table 16 indicated that the relationships of the first nine background variables with the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) was very similar to the nine background variables' relationships with the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. The Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) was the item that identified the respondents' perceptions of their satisfaction when thinking of their actual role as principal and what they would like it to be.

The data presented in Table 16 indicated that the Actual-versus-



TABLE 16

SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE FIRST NINE BACKGROUND VARIABLES  
AND THE ACTUAL-VERSUS-IDEAL-ROLE (ACIDROLE)

Background Variables	N	ACIDROLE	
		r	p
1) Sex	366	.004	.467
2) Age	366	.042	.213
3) Total years of educational administrative experience	366	.111	.017*
4) Years in present position	366	-.003	.498
5) Total number of educational positions	366	.116	.013*
6) Highest degree completed	366	-.013	.400
7) Present enrollment of principal's school	365	.216	<.001***
8) Number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants	360	.179	<.001***
9) Salary	364	.249	<.001***

\*Indicates a significant relationship at .05 level.

\*\*Indicates a significant relationship at .01 level.

\*\*\*Indicates a significant relationship at .001 level.

Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) was significantly related to total number of educational positions, present enrollment of the school at which the respondent is the principal, number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants, and salary but was not significantly related to any of the other background variables. The Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) was significantly related to the same background variables that the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores were.

Table 17 indicated that the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) was significantly related to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. All the relationships are significant at the .001 level.

#### Summary

Data from the 366 secondary public school principals in Minnesota were analyzed to provide a more clear picture of the principalship, to determine to what degree principals are satisfied in their jobs, and to study the relationships between the background variables and the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores.

The data indicated that the "average" secondary public school principal in Minnesota was a forty-six year old male who had fourteen years of educational administrative experience. He had been in the present position for about eight years and had held about three educational positions in his career. He had earned a Specialist Degree, was working in a school that had an enrollment of between 300-500, and had a salary of about \$38,500 a year. He was as unlikely as likely to have an assistant principal and/or administrative assistant working with him.

The respondents indicated that they were generally satisfied with

TABLE 17

ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ACTUAL-VERSUS-  
 IDEAL-ROLE (ACIDROLE) AND THE INTRINSIC, EXTRINSIC,  
 AND OVERALL SATISFACTION SCORES  
 (N = 366)

Variable	Intrinsic		Extrinsic		Overall Satisfaction	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Actual-versus-Ideal- Role (ACIDROLE)	0.577	<.001***	.564	<.001***	.644	<.001***

\*\*\*Indicates a significant relationship at the .001 level.

their jobs. They reported that they were more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of the job than they were with the extrinsic. Their overall satisfaction score of 3.5 was at the midpoint between being satisfied and very satisfied.

There appeared to be no significant relationships between the background variables of sex, age, total years of educational administrative experience, years in the present position, and highest degree earned and any of the satisfaction scores. These variables were analyzed in regard to their potential relationships to intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction. They were also analyzed with regard to the satisfaction score identified as the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) or the respondents' satisfaction when considering their actual role of principal and what they would like it to be.

The data indicated that the background variables of number of educational positions held, enrollment of the school, number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants, salary, and Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) were significantly related to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. Further analyses indicated that all of these background variables were also significantly related to item number ten of the background information which was identified as the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE). It was also found that the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) was significantly related to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores.

The following chapter includes a summary of the findings, two sets of observations/conclusions, and recommendations for policy and further research.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, OBSERVATIONS/CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to describe the secondary principals of Minnesota and their job satisfaction and the relationship of this satisfaction to selected background variables. These data were collected in an attempt to answer three general research questions.

- 1) What was the description of the secondary principals of Minnesota?
- 2) Were principals satisfied with their jobs? The results yielded intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores.
- 3) Were any of these satisfaction scores related significantly to any of the selected background variables? The background variables were: sex, age, total years of educational administrative experience, years in present position, total number of educational positions, highest degree completed, present enrollment of respondent's school, number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants, present yearly salary, and satisfaction of respondent considering the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE).

This study attempted to answer these more specific research questions:

- 1) What is the distribution of males and females among the secondary public school principals of Minnesota?
- 2) What is the distribution of age among the secondary school principals of Minnesota?

- 3) How many total years of educational administrative experience do the respondents have?
- 4) How many years have the respondents spent in their present positions?
- 5) How many educational positions have the respondents held?
- 6) What is the highest degree completed by the respondents?
- 7) What is the present enrollment in the schools of which the respondents are principal?
- 8) How many assistant principals and/or administrative assistants (at least half-time) work with the principal in the school?
- 9) What is the present salary of the respondents?
- 10) Considering the principal's perception of the actual role and what he/she would like it to be, how satisfied is the respondent with the present job?
- 11) What are the respondents' intrinsic satisfaction scores on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)?
- 12) What are the respondents' extrinsic satisfaction scores on the MSQ?
- 13) What are the respondents' overall satisfaction scores on the MSQ?
- 14) Are the three scores yielded by the MSQ related in any way?
- 15) Are the respondents generally more satisfied intrinsically or extrinsically?
- 16) Are any of the MSQ satisfaction scores related to any of the selected background variables?

The population consisted of 366 secondary public school principals who were listed in the Minnesota Association of Secondary School

Principal's (MASSP) mailing list. Elementary, junior high, middle school, and assistant principals were not a part of the population. The principals surveyed were head building principals of any secondary public school with grades 7-12, 9-12, or 10-12. The mailing list and labels were provided by the MASSP. Questionnaires were sent to 402 potential respondents and usable responses were received from 366 (91 percent).

The writer used a two-part questionnaire to gather the data. The first part of the questionnaire measured the principals' perceptions of their job satisfaction, and the second part asked for background information.

Part one of the questionnaire was the twenty item MSQ which yielded an intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction score. Two changes were made in the MSQ to allow the writer to make the questionnaire more applicable to the role of principal.

- 1) Question 5 initially read "The way my boss handles his men." It was changed to "the way my boss handles his/her workers."
- 2) Question 12 initially read "The way company policies are put into practice." It was changed to "the way school district policies are put into practice."

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of the ten selected items identified earlier. The writer not only studied the relationship of all the background variables to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores but also analyzed the relationship of the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores.

Frequency distributions and percentages, t-tests of matched pairs,

and Pearson Product Moment Correlations were used to analyze the data. A summary of the analyses follows.

#### Summary

The frequency distributions were presented to provide a more complete picture of the secondary public school principalship in Minnesota. Based on the frequencies, the typical secondary public school principal in Minnesota is a forty-six year old male who has fourteen years of educational administrative experience and has been in his present position for about eight years. He has held approximately three educational positions and has earned a Specialist Degree or a Sixth-Year Certificate. His school's enrollment is between 300-500 students, and he might have an assistant principal and/or administrative assistant working with him. He earns about \$38,500 a year and is quite highly satisfied with the job.

The correlations indicated that no significant relationships existed between the background variables of sex, age, total years of educational administrative experience, years in present position, and highest degree completed and the intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall satisfaction scores. However, the correlations did indicate that significant relationships existed between the background variables of number of educational positions, present enrollment of the school in which the respondent was principal, number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants, salary, and the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) score and the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. All of these relationships were positive. Of particular interest was the relationship of the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE)



score to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores; this relationship was significant at the .001 level. This finding lends additional credibility to the validity of the MSQ.

The t-test of matched pairs indicated that the intrinsic mean score (3.7) and the extrinsic mean score (3.1) differed at a .001 level of significance. However, they were significantly related in that as one of the mean scores rose, the other also rose. It appeared that, although the respondents were more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of the job, those who had higher intrinsic scores usually had higher extrinsic and overall satisfaction scores.

The background variables of age, total years of educational experience, and salary were significantly related to all the other background variables. The background variable of years in present position related to the least number of background variables. Analyses of these relationships was done through the use of correlations.

The Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) score was significantly related to the identical background variables as were the MSQ satisfaction scores. The Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) score was also significantly related to the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores. As the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) scores increased, the intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction scores also increased.

#### Observations/Conclusions

These observations/conclusions are based upon the collected data of this study. They are presented in two parts. The first part is based

on the descriptive data and the second part is based on the analysis of the satisfaction scores produced by this study.

Observations/Conclusions Based  
on the Descriptive Data

The following observations/conclusions are based on the descriptive data gathered in the study:

- 1) The secondary principalship in Minnesota is a male dominated profession. There may be a higher percentage of females working as elementary, junior high, middle school, or assistant principals, but the percentage of female head building principals in this study was 3.6 percent. (The 1977 study of the Senior High Principalship conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals identified 7 percent of the principals as female).
- 2) A high percentage of the principals were between the ages of forty and forty-nine. When compared to the NASSP study, this study indicated that the age distribution of the principal had not changed much in the past eight years.
- 3) The principals of Minnesota were a relatively experienced group. They averaged over fourteen years of educational administrative experience. Over 80 percent of the principals had more than five years of educational administrative experience. However, it was noted that over 50 percent had been in their present positions only six years or less. It appeared that principals were quite mobile in their administrative careers.

- 4) The data indicated that most principals had received advanced degrees. A large percentage had completed a Specialist Degree or Sixth-Year Certificate. Almost none had less than a Masters Degree. The recent increasing of administrative certification requirements in Minnesota may have contributed to the high number of Specialist Degrees/Sixth-Year Certificates earned.
- 5) The number of secondary public schools with small enrollments was higher than the writer had anticipated. Almost 55 percent of the schools had enrollments of less than 400. The mean enrollment of 568 was very misleading because the very large schools influenced the mean. Corresponding to the enrollment data was the fact that well over half of the principals did not work with an assistant principal and/or administrative assistant.
- 6) The data indicated that over half of the principals earned between \$30,000-39,999. However it should be noted that the range in salaries was over \$35,000. It appeared that this was a very large salary range for positions that require identical certification and are funded from similar sources.

Observations/Conclusions Based on the  
Analysis of the Satisfaction Scores

The following observations/conclusions are based on the analysis of the satisfaction scores produced by this study:

- 1) Secondary public school principals appeared to be quite highly satisfied with their jobs in general although their overall satisfaction mean score was less than the norms presented by

Weiss et al. (1966). Although the principals appeared quite highly satisfied with many aspects of their jobs, they were less satisfied with extrinsic items such as recognition, advancement, and compensation. These results agree with Holdaway (1978) who found that intrinsic facets were most closely related to satisfaction and that extrinsic facets were most closely related to dissatisfaction.

- 2) The principals were more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of the job than they were with the extrinsic aspects. The results of these scores were consistent with the research done by Deci (1972), Schmidt (1976), and Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1983). The data indicated that there was a significant difference between the means of these two scores.
- 3) The Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) score had a significant relationship to the other satisfaction scores. It was interesting that this one actual/ideal response related significantly to the scores that result from completing the MSQ. Brown (1973) used this actual-versus-ideal method of studying satisfaction of secondary school principals. In this study, the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) score appeared to be a very powerful variable.
- 4) No significant relationships were found between the background variables of sex, age, total years of educational administrative experience, years in present position, and highest degree earned and any of the satisfaction scores. In this study, these background variables apparently did not significantly

influence the principals' perceptions of their satisfaction. Brown (1972) also found no relationship between satisfaction and age, sex, and type of position.

- 5) Significant relationships were found between the background variables of total number of educational positions held, present school enrollment, number of assistant principals and/or administrative assistants, salary, and the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) score and the satisfaction scores yielded by the MSQ. It appeared that principals who worked in larger schools were more satisfied than principals of smaller schools. It also appeared that principals who indicated a higher satisfaction response to the Actual-versus-Ideal-Role (ACIDROLE) item were more satisfied than those who responded with a lower satisfaction response.

#### Recommendations

The recommendations that follow are based on the results of this study and information contained in the review of the literature. The recommendations are presented in two parts. Part one of the recommendations includes recommendations for future practice and part two includes recommendations for further study.

#### Recommendations for Future Practice

The following are recommended for future practice:

- 1) An effort should be made to include more females in the secondary principalship. University educational administration departments, professional principal associations, and local

school districts must work together to recruit, train, and employ females as secondary principals.

- 2) The unique problems of the small school principals should be recognized and addressed. Principals who work without any assistant principals and/or administrative assistants may need special support. They may need the opportunity to discuss their problems with other administrators. Herlihy and Herlihy (1980) identified loneliness as the major dissatisfier of principals. This situation can be dealt with in a variety of ways. The superintendent may provide opportunities for the principal to discuss administrative problems with him or her. If financially possible, the addition of an assistant principal could meet these needs. Professional administrative organizations might help organize and facilitate district or regional groups of principals which could provide opportunities for sharing. Regular monthly meetings of these groups of principals could further provide the chance for professional discussion. The social aspect of these meetings could serve to reduce the feelings of loneliness that principals often experience. Principals themselves need to understand the stresses that can result from the job. Giammatteo and Giammatteo (1980) identified stress as the greatest dissatisfier of principals. Through the help of their professional organization, they can be educated to better deal with their situations.
- 3) School boards and central office personnel need to be aware of the aspects of the job that most satisfy principals. The job

itself should be structured so that it allows principals to meet their intrinsic needs. Bacharach and Mitchell (1983) determined that the conditions of the job greatly determine the degree to which administrators are satisfied. Principals need the freedom to do a variety of things and do things for other people. They further need to be involved in the way district policies are put into practice. Overall principals appear to be quite intrinsically satisfied.

- 4) Opportunities should be afforded the principals to alleviate the low satisfaction that they express with the limited opportunities for advancement. The respondents ranked advancement nineteenth of the twenty items on the MSQ and the respondents reported by Weiss et al. (1966) ranked it twentieth of the twenty items on the MSQ. Short term appointments in the district office may be one way to help the principal meet these needs. A development of the career ladder concept that would allow principals the chance to be promoted without having to leave the position could be explored. The principalship must be looked at as more than the forerunner to the superintendency.
- 5) The districts should make better provisions for the extrinsic needs of the principals. The relatively low extrinsic satisfaction scores indicated that principals want to be recognized more directly for their efforts. They should be compensated fairly for the work they do. The district boards and central office personnel may well have a better opportunity to meet the principals' extrinsic needs than their intrinsic needs.

Recommendations for Further Study

The following are recommended for further study:

- 1) A more in-depth study could be done of the relationship between the size of the school and the principal's satisfaction. Research does not agree that this relationship is always significant. Although this study found that there was a positive relationship between size of school and satisfaction, Brown (1972) found no relationship between school size and principal satisfaction.
- 2) A comparative study of secondary public school principals and principals at other levels (elementary and middle school/junior high) would be very beneficial. It might identify the specific concerns that are inherent within the secondary principalship. However, Poppenhagen (1977) found that there was no significant difference in the perceptions of job satisfaction of principals from different level schools.
- 3) A satisfaction study that used a critical incident method as presented by Herzberg and also used by Iannone (1973) might identify more specific role related aspects of the job. This methodology has been used frequently in other studies of job satisfaction.
- 4) The MSQ could be given and compared to an extended number of background variables. It would be interesting to see if relationships differed with the addition of selected background variables.
- 5) It could be useful to ask either superintendents or teachers who work with the respondents to give their perceptions of the



principals' satisfaction. This information would provide a more clear picture of principals' satisfaction.

- 6) A study that measured the relationships of the MSQ to job commitment might yield some interesting results. Some literature reports that job commitment and job satisfaction are closely related. Lawler and Pfeffer (1980) reported that extrinsic rewards had less effect on committed employees.
- 7) A study that explored the relationship between the satisfaction of the teachers and the satisfaction of their principal could be very revealing. In other words, are the satisfaction scores of the teachers and the satisfactions scores of the principal of a particular school related?

There are many facets of satisfaction that deserve more study.

This study concentrated on the job itself and how it meets the individual needs of the respondent. Many studies of satisfaction deal with specific aspects such as power, turnover, absenteeism, organizational components, motivation, and pay. There are yet many things left to learn about satisfaction.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPALS

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Ask yourself: How SATISFIED am I with this aspect of my job?

- 1 means I am NOT SATISFIED (this aspect of my job is much poorer than I would like it to be).
- 2 means I am ONLY SLIGHTLY SATISFIED (this aspect of my job is not quite what I would like it to be).
- 3 means I am SATISFIED (this aspect of my job is what I would like it to be).
- 4 means I am VERY SATISFIED (this aspect of my job is even better than I expected it to be).
- 5 means I am EXTREMELY SATISFIED (this aspect of my job is much better than I hoped it could be).

On my present job, this is how I feel about . . .	For each statement circle a number				
1. Being able to keep busy all the time . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to work alone on the job . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chance to do different things from time to time . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
8. The way my job provides for steady employment . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
9. The chance to do things for other people . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chance to tell people what to do . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
12. The way school district policies are put into practice . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
13. My pay and the amount of work I do . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
14. The chances for advancement on this job . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
15. The freedom to use my own judgment . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
17. The working conditions . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
18. The way my coworkers get along with each other . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
19. The praise I get for doing a good job . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job . . . . .	1	2	3	4	5

(SEE OTHER SIDE)

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female
2. \_\_\_\_\_ What is your age?
3. \_\_\_\_\_ How many total years of educational administrative experience (e.g., superintendencies, assistant superintendencies, principalships, assistant principalships, directorships) do you have (including this year)?
4. \_\_\_\_\_ How many years have you been in your present position (including this year)?
5. \_\_\_\_\_ What is the total number of educational positions (e.g., superintendencies, assistant superintendencies, principalships, assistant principalships, directorships) you have held in your professional career (including your present position)?
6. Check the highest degree that you have completed:  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Bachelors    \_\_\_\_\_ Masters    \_\_\_\_\_ Specialist (6th year)    \_\_\_\_\_ Doctorate
7. \_\_\_\_\_ What is the present enrollment in the school of which you are the principal?
8. \_\_\_\_\_ How many assistant principals and/or administrative assistants (half-time or more) work with you in your high school?
9. \_\_\_\_\_ What is your present yearly salary?
10. When you think of your actual role as principal in comparison to what you would like it to be, how satisfied are you? (Circle one number only.)  
 Not Satisfied    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    9    10    Extremely Satisfied

Please return to MASSP in enclosed envelope. Also return the response postcard (separately).

APPENDIX B

LETTER OF PERMISSION



UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA  
TWIN CITIES

106

Department of Psychology  
Elliott Hall  
75 East River Road  
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

February 1, 1985

Nicholas Miller  
302 State Street  
Grand Forks, ND 58201

Dear Mr. Miller:

You have our permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) for your dissertation research, as proposed in your letter of January 25 (and in our earlier discussions), with the understanding that it will be used only for your dissertation research, under the supervision of Dr. Donald Piper, your adviser. You are free to reproduce the MSQ for your dissertation research purposes.

We ask that you report back to us on the use of the MSQ either in a letter or by sending us a copy of your summary thesis chapter.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "René V. Dawis".

René V. Dawis  
Professor of Psychology

RVD:bea

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS



Dear Fellow Principals:

I am presently on a one-year's leave of absence from the position of Assistant Principal at Bemidji Senior High School and am studying at the University of North Dakota in pursuit of my Ed.D. degree in Educational Administration. The research component of my dissertation is based on the questionnaire in this mailing. With the constant talk of teacher satisfaction and teacher "burnout," I find it interesting that few studies have been done of principals' perceptions of their job satisfaction. I hope that this study answers many of these unanswered questions. It is very important to me that you complete the brief questionnaire and return it in the enclosed stamped, addressed envelope. I also hope to provide these results in some usable format to the MASSP members.

Please read the following procedural information carefully. (The pilot project indicates that it will not take more than ten minutes to complete the questionnaire.)

1. Read the directions with the questionnaire, respond to the 20 satisfaction questions, and complete the background data questions.
2. Put the questionnaire in the postage-paid return envelope and mail.
3. Send the addressed response postcard separately. This will allow me to know that you have responded, but I will not be able to identify your questionnaire.

The purpose of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is to give you a chance to indicate how you feel about your present job, with what things you are satisfied, and with what things you are not satisfied. On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of the things people like and dislike about their jobs.

Please return the completed questionnaire and postcard as soon as possible but not later than Friday, January 18, 1985. I appreciate your time and look forward to completing this study.

Sincerely,



Nicholas J. Miller

Enclosures: 4

APPENDIX D

MASSP ENDORSEMENT

## Minnesota Association of Secondary School Principals

1910 West County Road B, Suite 109  
Roseville, Minnesota 55113  
Telephone (612) 636-8366

December 27, 1984

Phillip L. Tenney, *Executive Director*  
Roger J. Aronson, *Attorney*

Judith M. Eaton Lamp, *President*  
Donald N. Carlson, *President-Elect*  
Howard M. Wergeland, *Secretary*  
Donald G. Hovland, *Coordinator*  
Alan H. Frost, *Past President*

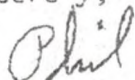
Dear Colleague:

Nick Miller is on a sabbatical from the assistant principalship at Bemidji Senior High School. While on sabbatical, Nick is working on his doctorate at the University of North Dakota.

He is asking members of MASSP to help him out with his dissertation by completing the enclosed questionnaire.

His request was brought to the MASSP Executive Committee and received their full endorsement. I'm certain every member of MASSP will be interested in the results of this study.

Sincerely,



Phillip L. Tenney  
Executive Director

PLT/aak

Enc.

APPENDIX E

RESPONSE POSTCARD

**I HAVE SENT MY  
QUESTIONNAIRE IN.**

NAME AND ADDRESS OF  
THE RESPONDENT

MN ASSN OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
1910 WEST COUNTY ROAD B - SUITE 109  
ST. PAUL, MN 55113

APPENDIX F

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE MINNESOTA  
SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (MSQ)

## APPENDIX F

TABLE 18

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (MSQ)  
(N = 366)

Item	Response	Respondents	
		N	%
1) Being able to keep busy all the time (ACTIVITY)	1	11	3.0
	2	33	6.3
	3	104	28.4
	4	114	31.1
	5	114	31.1
	Mean:	3.811	
2) The chance to work alone on the job (INDEPENDENCE)	1	8	2.2
	2	50	13.7
	3	160	43.7
	4	115	31.4
	5	33	9.0
	Mean:	3.314	
3) The chance to do different things from time to time (VARIETY)	1	3	.8
	2	23	6.3
	3	56	15.3
	4	148	40.4
	5	136	37.2
	Mean:	4.068	
4) The chance to be "somebody" in the community (SOCIAL STATUS)	1	4	1.1
	2	20	5.5
	3	145	39.6
	4	132	36.1
	5	64	17.5
	Mean:	3.636	

TABLE 18--(Continued)

Item	Response	Respondents	
		N	%
5) The way my boss handles his/her workers (SUPERVISION--HUMAN RELATIONS)	1	32	10.4
	2	64	17.5
	3	96	26.2
	4	106	29.0
	5	62	16.9
	Mean:	3.246	
6) The competence of my supervisor in making decisions (SUPERVISION-TECHNICAL)	1	22	6.0
	2	53	14.5
	3	101	27.6
	4	122	33.3
	5	68	18.6
	Mean:	3.440	
7) Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience (MORAL VALUES)	1	4	1.1
	2	32	8.7
	3	105	28.7
	4	152	41.5
	5	71	19.4
	Mean:	3.698	
8) The way my job provides for steady employment (SECURITY)	1	6	1.6
	2	13	3.6
	3	103	28.1
	4	132	36.1
	5	110	30.1
	Mean:	3.898	



TABLE 18--(Continued)

Item	Response	Respondents	
		N	%
9) The chance to do things for other people (SOCIAL SERVICE)	1	1	.3
	2	7	1.9
	3	66	18.0
	4	160	43.7
	5	132	36.1
		Mean:	4.134
10) The chance to tell people what to do (AUTHORITY)	1	7	1.9
	2	49	13.4
	3	234	63.9
	4	63	17.2
	5	11	3.0
		Mean:	3.060
11) The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities (ABILITIES-UTILIZATION)	1	5	1.4
	2	25	6.8
	3	81	22.1
	4	155	42.3
	5	100	27.3
		Mean:	3.874
12) The way the school district policies are put into practice (DISTRICT POLICIES AND PRACTICES)	1	21	5.7
	2	73	19.9
	3	139	38.0
	4	107	29.2
	5	25	6.8
		Mean:	3.115

TABLE 18--(Continued)

Item	Response	Respondents	
		N	%
13) My pay and the amount of work I do (COMPENSATION)	1	35	9.6
	2	80	21.9
	3	121	33.1
	4	108	29.5
	5	22	6.0
	Mean:	3.005	
14) The chance for advancement on this job (ADVANCEMENT)	1	21	5.7
	2	85	23.2
	3	163	44.5
	4	76	20.8
	5	19	5.2
	Mean:	2.964	
15) The freedom to use my own judgment (RESPONSIBILITY)	1	4	1.1
	2	33	9.0
	3	92	25.1
	4	153	41.8
	5	84	23.0
	Mean:	3.765	
16) The chance to try my own methods of doing the job (CREATIVITY)	1	3	.8
	2	25	6.8
	3	96	26.2
	4	164	44.8
	5	78	21.3
	Mean:	3.790	

TABLE 18--(Continued)

Item	Response	Respondents	
		N	%
17) The working conditions (WORKING CONDITIONS)	1	7	1.9
	2	37	10.1
	3	107	29.2
	4	139	38.0
	5	76	20.8
	Mean:	3.656	
18) The way my coworkers get along with each other (CO-WORKERS)	1	7	1.9
	2	51	13.9
	3	125	34.2
	4	128	35.0
	5	55	15.0
	Mean:	3.473	
19) The praise I get for doing a good job (RECOGNITION)	1	38	10.4
	2	90	24.6
	3	127	34.7
	4	86	23.5
	5	25	6.8
	Mean:	2.918	
20) The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job (ACHIEVEMENT)	1	7	1.9
	2	35	9.6
	3	115	31.4
	4	145	39.6
	5	64	17.5
	Mean:	3.612	
Overall Satisfaction Mean:		3.5	

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