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TENNESSEE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Amie Broughton Rumph entitled "TENNESSEE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

Ernest W. Brewer, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Gregory C. Petty, Thomas Turner, Jason Huff

Accepted for the Council:
Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Amie B. Rumph entitled "Tennessee Public High School Principals' Leadership Behaviors and Teachers' Job Satisfaction". I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies.

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Ernest W. Brewer
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Thomas Turner, Professor

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Jason Huff, Associate Professor

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Vice Provost and
Dean of the Graduate School

TENNESSEE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

A Dissertation Proposal
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Amie Broughton Rumph
August 2012

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DEDICATION

In my life, I am surrounded by many who support and love me. Therefore, I cannot dedicate this accomplishment to just one person. This dissertation is dedicated to several individuals. First and foremost, I dedicate this work to my husband, Jay Rumph, who has supported me through this entire process. He has been childcare provider, chauffeur, encourager, listener, and much more through this entire process. Without his love and support, I know I would not have finished. While I will be the one with the title, this is as much his work as mine.

Second, I want to thank my boys, Jase and Jaron, for their patience and sacrifice of time. While there were a million other things we could have been doing that are "fun", they were often stuck with accepting snuggle time rather than fun time. So, I hope one day they will each look back and realize just exactly what they were helping their mommy accomplish. Hopefully, this will allow me to in some way make school a little better for other little boys just like them.

Third, I would not be where I am without my mom, Maudie Broughton. My mom has always been a source of inspiration to me. While she has encouraged me to do my best from the time I started school, she has always been my biggest fan. My mom taught me to appreciate education and all it has to offer. The lessons I have learned from her far exceed this dissertation. I can only pray I develop the character and reputation she has.

Fourth, this may not have been possible without the best babysitter in the world, Donna Woods. When I considered beginning the process, I asked her if she would mind her hours being extended so I could go to class. Without hesitation, she said, "Why no. You know better." I would be telling a lie if I did not admit sometimes I wish she had answered differently. The one thing never worried about in this process was who would be there when my husband or family couldn't. Donna is more than a babysitter, she is love to my boys.

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Most importantly in dedication and acknowledgement, this all belongs to God. While I grew to appreciate Philippians 4:13 more than I would have liked, all of the support in the world would have been null were it not for God's guidance and provision. While I have many hopes, desires, and plans, there is really one that matters the most. May my career and actions in the future glorify Him.

ABSTRACT

The attrition rate of teachers is alarming (Darling-Hammond, 2002; Keigher, 2010; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006). Factor of the attrition include teachers leaving the profession due to lack of job satisfaction or lack of administrative support (Angelle, 2002; Littrell, 1994; Schlichte, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005). Frameworked by Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), this web-based, quantitative, descriptive study explored the connections between job satisfaction and perceived leadership behaviors. Participants included 302 teachers from public secondary schools in Central and East Tennessee. Instruments used were the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS], Spector, 1994), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ], Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a researcher-created demographics questionnaire. The JSS measured overall job satisfaction and nine individual facets. The SSLSSQ measured five chosen leadership scales (organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure). The demographics variables were gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study was web-based. Participants completed all three parts online. Analyses included descriptive statistics, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, and regression analysis. Six null hypotheses were tested and all rejected. Statistically significant differences existed between the overall satisfaction and the demographic variables of gender, marital status, tenure, and years under the current principal. Statistically significant differences existed among multiple pairings of each of the facets of the JSS and individual demographic variables. Statistically significant differences existed among multiple pairings of each of the leadership scales and individual demographic variables. A statistically significant relationship existed between overall job

satisfaction and overall composite score of the leadership scales. Statistically significant relationships existed between the overall job satisfaction and several of the leadership scales. Statistically significant relationships existed among multiple pairings of facets of the JSS and leadership scales.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Teacher attrition is a significant problem in the United States. According to the United States Department of Education (USDE), every state in the country is struggling to fill vacant teacher positions in at least one, if not multiple, areas and/or grades (Miller, 2009). The report revealed the extensive impact of teacher turnover. To combat the issue of low supply but high demand of teachers, an evaluation of possible origins of the low supply is essential. Many teachers leave the field of education long before becoming eligible for retirement. The supply of competent teachers is decreasing due in part to lack of teacher retention (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Norton (1999) estimated as many as 50% of teachers leave the profession after five years. Darling-Hammond reports almost a third of new teachers leave the field within five years with higher rates in the most disadvantaged districts. A Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) found 9% of public school teachers under the age of 30 who taught the previous year left the profession (Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006). Henke and Zahn (2001) reported about 20% of teachers who received their bachelor's degree in 1993 and were working in April of 1994 were no longer working three years later. Keigher (2010) found 8% of K-12 public school teachers left the profession in 2008-2009 while almost 10% of K-12 public school teachers with one to three years of experience left the profession in 2008-2009. Data indicate the problem is worsening.

The loss of teachers presents the educational system with a costly problem. Like other states, Tennessee is not immune to this problem. The Alliance for Excellent Education (2005) used data from the USDE, the NCES, and the Department of Labor to estimate the cost to replace teachers across the states is between $8.5 million and $500 million per year. The

Alliance further estimated the cost to Tennessee, specifically, to be over $87 million total for all teachers (those who leave the profession and those who transfer to other schools) who leave. The turnover cost to Tennessee as a result of teachers who leave the profession completely is just over $32 million. Neither Tennessee nor any other state can afford to lose competent teachers.

To address the problem of teacher attrition, one must understand why teachers are leaving. White (2000, p. 61) stated, "Teaching in today's schools can be rewarding, but it can also be filled with stress, frustration, and little time to take care of oneself." This begs the question of what contributes to some teachers finding their jobs rewarding and satisfying while others find teaching stressful and a source of dissatisfaction. One contributing factor may be the leadership behaviors of principals. Numerous studies have been conducted in relation to leadership styles (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Burns, 1978; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Katz & Kahn, 1952; Kouzes & Posner, 1987). However, the research linking leadership styles to job satisfaction in education is limited. Studies connecting the two factors are restricted by specific constraints such as data limited to a foreign country (Bogler, 2001), limited to one academic realm such as special education (Embich, 2001; George & George, 1995; Lashley & Boscardin 2003), or limited to one state (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). Research specifically connecting leadership styles to job satisfaction of teachers at the secondary level is scant.

Statement of the Problem

Teachers are leaving the field of education at alarming rates. Multiple studies reported between ten and fifty percent of teachers leave classrooms every year (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Henke & Zahn, 2001; Keigher 2010; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006; Norton, 1999). When the teachers leave the classroom, administrators are left with the burden of finding

competent replacements. Teacher attrition due to normal circumstances such as retirement is expected and normal. However, administrators are receiving the unwarranted burden of finding teachers to fill the unexpected teacher vacancies in the classrooms. The reasons teachers leave the profession vary. However, one of the main causes of these unexpected voids is teachers leaving the profession due to lack of job satisfaction or lack of administrative support (Angelle, 2002; Littrell, 1994; Schlichte, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005). Teacher attrition is costing Tennessee millions of dollars every year (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005). This brings into question how the behaviors of the principal contribute to teacher attrition. When one understands the dynamics of a problem, s/he can work to remedy the problem. Literature connecting leadership behaviors and job satisfaction at the secondary level is limited. Research examining the behavior of high school principals in terms of teacher job satisfaction is needed for a greater understanding of the issue of teacher attrition. This study will lay a foundation for understanding how principal behaviors may be a component in teachers' decisions to leave the profession.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore the differences and relationships resulting from analysis of data received using the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a demographic questionnaire administered to Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age,

school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales of the SSLSSQ as perceived by the teachers and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers.

Research Questions

Research questions were developed to address job satisfaction and the perceptions of teachers regarding leadership styles. The Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a demographic questionnaire were used to gather the data. In order to fulfill the purpose of the study, the following research questions were answered:

1. Are there statistically significant differences between the overall satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal?

2. Are there statistically significant differences among the facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal?

3. Are there statistically significant differences among the chosen leadership scales of the SSLSSQ as perceived by the teachers and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal?

4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ?

5. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ?

6. Are there statistically significant relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers measured by the SSLSSQ?

Null Hypotheses

Null hypotheses were developed to parallel the research questions used to address job satisfaction and the perceptions of teachers regarding leadership styles. In order to fulfill the purpose of the study, the following null hypotheses were tested:

H_o1: There are no statistically significant differences between the overall satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal.

H_o2: There are no statistically significant differences among the facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal.

H_o3: There are no statistically significant differences among the chosen leadership scales of the SSLSSQ and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal.

H_o4: There is no statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ.

H_o5: There is no statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ.

H_o6: There are no statistically significant relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ.

Operational Definitions

There can be some ambiguity of definitions of common terms. Some common terms used in this study were:

1. *Job Satisfaction*: The definition provided by Spector (1985) was the definition underlying this study. Spector defined job satisfaction as, "an emotional affective response to a job or specific aspect of a job" (p. 695). Spector, in his JSS, studied nine facets of job satisfaction. These are: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), co-workers, nature of work, and communication.

2. *Leadership Behavior Scales:* The SSLSSQ was used for this study for its flexibility in use and ability to measure multiple scales. The SSLSSQ was used to measure scales of organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure. Each question asks the respondents to report their perceptions of their respective schools. Respondents are not reporting if they agree or disagree. They are simply answering the questions asked.

3. *Public High School:* Only schools serving grades 9 through 12 were included in this study. In addition, specialty schools such as magnet schools, charter schools, adult high schools, and academies were not included in this study.

4. *Administrator:* The term administrator was used in reference to the individual principal of the teachers' respective school. This did not include school leaders such as assistant principals, curriculum coordinators, athletic directors, department heads, or team leaders.

5. *Academic Discipline:* Respondents were instructed to choose one main discipline area among vocational, core academic (Mathematics, English, Science, and Social Studies), special education, or elective (Physical Education, Art, and Music).

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Assumptions of the Study

Assumptions are elements important to the study, presumed to be true but not actually verified (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). The following assumptions typified this study:

1. This study assumed the sample was representative of the population of public high school teachers in Central and East Tennessee.

2. This study assumed the instruments used were both valid and reliable.

3. This study assumed the participants answered the questionnaires accurately and reported honestly their feelings of job satisfaction and perceptions of leadership styles.

Delimitations of the Study

Delimitations are variables that are controlled by the researcher. Delimitations relevant to this study were:

1. This study was delimited to surveying only schools in Central and East Tennessee.

2. This study was delimited to choosing only public high school teachers as participants. Support personnel such as secretaries, cooks, custodians, and teachers' aides were not included.

3. The study was delimited to the questions on the questionnaire.

4. The study was delimited to the time frame in which the sample group had to respond to the request for their participation.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations are variables that the researcher cannot control but could affect the outcome of the results (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). Specific limitations need to be kept in mind when interpreting the results. These limitations were:

1. The study was limited to the population available to be sampled. Some members of the population may have been unavailable due to personal issues such as maternity leave, sickness, or military duty.

2. The study was limited to teachers' willingness to participate and teachers' willingness to respond to and return surveys by the given deadline.

3. The study was limited by the methodology used. The study relied on self-reported data. The results are only as accurate as the respondents' honesty in answering the questions on the instruments.

4. The study was limited to data retrieved by the instruments used. Different instruments could yield different results.

Significance of the Study

The results of the study can be used to establish a "line of attack" for combating continual problem of teacher attrition (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Henke and Zahn, 2001; Keigher, 2010; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006; Norton, 1999). The findings could help address the attrition rate among teachers at the public high school level by helping administrators understand the reasons behind the teachers' lack of job satisfaction. As a result, administrators could modify their leadership styles appropriately. In so doing, the administrators could increase the morale of the teachers in their schools, thus, indirectly raising the morale of their schools. An increase in the school morale could possibly contribute to lowering the attrition rate. The researcher feels both administrators and teachers will benefit from this study. Dissatisfied teachers could benefit by realizing they are not alone in their feelings of dissatisfaction. This study could provide insight to the reasons for their dissatisfaction and possibly help them find the means to address the issue personally. Changes in leadership behaviors can affect a school's culture. As leaders change their behavior, they impact on their subordinates. This could potentially cause a change in the teachers' behaviors. These changes in teacher behavior inevitably would impact the students. Therefore, this study has the potential to contribute to positive changes throughout schools. Research and analysis of the data gathered from this study could provide public high school administrators with new knowledge and insight into the thoughts of their teachers. Administrators who read this study could use the results to address the areas in their schools that impact the job satisfaction of their teachers. Addressing these areas could result in positive changes affecting all stakeholders in their respective schools. Thus, use of the data and analysis could result in stronger communities in regards to educating the students of the communities. Thus, all stakeholders would be beneficiaries.

Summary of Introduction Chapter

In this chapter, the researcher presented an introduction, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, assumptions, delimitations, limitations, and definitions of operational terms. Job satisfaction and administrative support lead to strong schools. Strong schools have many characteristics. Among those are feelings of importance and being valued. Strong schools exist when all stakeholders (teachers, administrators, students, parents, and community) feel their voices are heard and matter. The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore the job satisfaction of public high school teachers in Central and East Tennessee and the leadership behaviors of the principals who supervise them.

Chapter 2 will present the review of literature including a review of the literature concerning job satisfaction, a review of studies examining varying leadership styles, and an exploration of the theoretical perspectives regarding job satisfaction theories and leadership style theories. The chapter will end with conclusions resulting from the review of the literature and a summary of the chapter. Chapter 3 will present the methodology used in the study. This will contain an explanation of the research method chosen for this study, the rationale for the selection of the population, the sample, the sampling process, the instrumentation, the data collection procedure, and the data analysis explanation. This chapter will be summarized in the conclusion. Chapter 4 is the analysis chapter. This chapter will begin with an introduction followed by descriptive statistics of the data. The descriptive statistics will lead to an analysis of the survey data. The conclusion of this chapter will be a summary of these components. Finally, Chapter 5 will present the summary, discussions, and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter 1 presented the foundational elements of this study including the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, operational definitions, assumptions, delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study. The review of literature in chapter two was grounded in the purposes of the study. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales of the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005) as perceived by the teachers and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997) and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. The study will answer six research questions. Are there statistically significant differences between the overall satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status,

ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal? Are there statistically significant differences among the facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal? Are there statistically significant differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the SSLSSQ and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline? Is there a statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ? Is there a statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ? Are there statistically significant relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the SSLSSQ?

This chapter begins with an overview of the literature regarding job satisfaction. This will be followed by a discussion of research regarding leadership. The third section of the chapter will include the literature surrounding the theoretical frameworks underpinning job satisfaction and leadership behaviors. Following the review of the theoretical frameworks, a brief summary of the findings will be included. Finally, a conclusion of the chapter will be included.

Job Satisfaction Related Literature

An investigation of the 1993-1994 School and Staffing Survey led to four factors—advanced salary, administrative support, student discipline problems, and faculty influence—representing working conditions (Ingersoll, 2001). Specific to this study, Ingersoll found

inadequate support from administration to be a contributing factor to teacher turnover. Littrell (1994) reported administrator support was also a major factor in teacher's well-being. Cha (2008) found working conditions, including administrative support, was a factor in the aspects of job satisfaction and turnover of teachers. The facets of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), co-workers, nature of work, and communication used by Spector's (1994) JSS encompass both Ingersoll's and Cha's factors.

Commonly held beliefs are that teachers leave the field of education year after year due to job dissatisfaction and burnout. Often, teachers are forced into making the decision to leave the field due to physical and mental ailments. This review of literature will address some of the causes of these physical and mental ailments, the severity of the ailments, and the roles the teachers, administrators, and students play in causing them. This review of literature will also show the need for the study for use in combating empty classrooms every year due to disgruntled teachers leaving for other careers. Liu and Meyer (2005) reported the number one reason teachers left (either completely or transferred to another school) was low compensation. Compensation is just one variable that impacts teachers' job satisfaction.

A study from Brewer and Clippard (2002) examined Student Support Services Personnel and found, "in measuring burnout and job satisfaction among a national sample of SSSP, . . . that subjects had a lower rate of burnout and a higher rate of job satisfaction than other professionals in helping occupations" (p. 182). In this study, like others, high emotional exhaustion correlated with low job satisfaction. Also in this study, a positive correlation was found between personal accomplishment and total job satisfaction. These results showed that SSSP negative organizational factors did not account for experiencing high job burnout or low job satisfaction.

Results of this study provided interesting findings when compared to results for SSSP with other fields, especially in relation to depersonalization. For SSSP, the mean score for depersonalization was 3.05. The mean score for teaching (K-12) was 11.00 while it was 7.46 for social services.

The extra time required outside of school is also a contributing factor to teacher turnover. Results from a study by Bivona (2002) at a school in Bronx, New York, shed some light on why there is such a turnover of teachers. Bivona's research addressed attitudes expressed by teachers in relation to their teaching experience. In one part of the study, the teachers were asked "for the best estimate of the number of hours the participant spent on school-related activities *after* school hours for the most recent full week" (p. 8). The results were: (a) 30% of the sample spent between 1 and 4 hours, (b) 40% of the sample spent between 5 and 10 hours, and (c) 25% of the sample spent over 11 hours.

In addition, Bivona (2002) reported only 5% of teachers claimed not to spend at least one hour after contract hours on activities such as preparing lesson, grading papers, conferences, and meetings. The report went on to show that this was not the only extra time spent at school. Three-fourths of the respondents taught in the after-school program while almost half (45%) worked for the summer school program. These teachers did not get a respite.

Brewer and McMahan-Landers (2003) conducted a study of job stress and burnout among industrial and technical teacher educators. Using the Job Stress Survey and Maslach Burnout Inventory Human Services Survey, they surveyed 133 industrial and technical teacher educators from across the country. Brewer and McMahan-Landers found that technical and industrial teacher educators reported more satisfaction with nature of work than any other component of job satisfaction.

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Lumsden (1998) explored teacher morale, its causes, and its connections to job satisfaction. Lumden's study also explored the link between administrators and morale. Lumsden reports teachers can take individual steps to protect satisfaction and morale, but also offers suggestions for administrators to help protect or raise morale and satisfaction. Among these are involving teachers in decisions, supporting them, and acknowledging teacher expertise.

A study by Um and Harrison (1998) found that social workers are affected by job stress and burnout. This study found that the amount of burnout was intensified by role conflict. The study also implied that, in terms of role conflict, direct outcomes of role stressors are both burnout and job dissatisfaction. This study also had implications that social support affects job dissatisfaction. This study suggested that having coworker support is preferable to teaching stress coping skills (such as exercise) as a way of preventing job dissatisfaction. Evidence of social support, or coworker support, was a significant moderator of the emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction relationship.

With a focus on social work, Martin and Schinke (1998) conducted an ex-post facto study of workers in the New York metropolitan area. This study found that for two groups (family/children workers and psychiatric workers), "job satisfaction is strongly positively correlated with salary satisfaction, praise delivered by supervisors, and promotional

opportunities. Multiple regression analysis revealed that the latter two variables are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction" (p. 59).

A study by Lawrence, Glidden, and Jobe (2006) explored counselors' intent to return the following year. This study was conducted on 48 counselors at a camp for children with disabilities. The study was conducted to test the likelihood of the counselors returning the following year to the camp. The study tested many variables including but not limited to job satisfaction. During the study, the top three reasons counselors offered for wanting to return to the camp were: they liked working with kids, they liked the staff, and they had a good learning experience. The top two reasons offered for not wanting to return included: stress or exhaustion and poor management. Both the reasons for wanting to return and the reasons for not wanting to return parallel the reasons in teacher retention studies. These researchers had hypothesized that attitudes, experience, and job satisfaction would all would predict the return of camp counselors. Out of the three, only job satisfaction proved significant in camp counselors' intent to return.

Research also suggests levels of job satisfaction may vary based on demographic variables. Gender may be one variable to impact job satisfaction. Hagedorn (1996) reported that female faculty claim support and fair treatment are essential aspects of job satisfaction. Studies from Bellas (1994) and Winkler (2000) support the notion that gender is a variable impacting job satisfaction. Multiple studies (Bogler, 2002; Ellis & Bernhardt, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Ma & MacMillan, 1999) reported females as having higher levels of job satisfaction than males. Mertler (2002), however, reported males had a higher level of job satisfaction than females. Klassen's and Anderson's (2009) findings refuted the claim that job satisfaction differs based on gender. The 2009 study by Klassen and Anderson was a replica of a 1962 study of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of secondary school teachers. They reported that while changes

did exist in the levels of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, the changes were not attributed to either gender or number of years teaching experience. The study by Hill (2009) also found gender to not be an impacting variable of job satisfaction.

Results of a study by Mertler (2002) reported not only differences in levels of job satisfaction based on gender but other demographic factors as well. According to Mertler, teachers early in their careers and those nearing retirement reported higher levels of job satisfaction than those teachers in the middle of their career spectrum. Similarly, Ma and MacMillan (1999) found younger and less experienced teachers expressed significantly more satisfaction than older and more experienced teachers. Not only did Mertler study levels of job satisfaction, he also studied teachers' responses as to whether they would make the choice to enter the teaching profession again if given the opportunity. He found those teachers under 30 years old and those in their early 50s reported they would make the choice to enter the teaching profession if given the opportunity again.

A study by Hudson (1998) revealed the level of job satisfaction may differ across curriculums. Hudson studied agriculture teachers in West Virginia. Hudson reported his study to indicate very little cause for concern regarding burnout among agriculture teachers in West Virginia. In fact, only two factors had a significant impact on burnout, gender and lack of vacation time. Other studies (Ellis & Bernhardt, 1992; Perie & Baker, 1997) reported elementary teachers had higher levels of job satisfaction than secondary teachers. This would indicate that not only does subject matter impact satisfaction levels but the grade level may as well. Goodlad (1984) and Lortie (1975) included marital status in their research. They reported married women as being more satisfied than unmarried women and men.

The studies regarding job satisfaction revealed a variety of factors may impact the level of job satisfaction. These included workload, environment, academic discipline, as well as demographic variables such as age and gender. While school leaders have no control over demographic factors such as gender and age, their leadership behaviors do affect the working environment. The researcher used the findings from the literature review as a guide in developing the research questions and hypotheses in order to determine if similar findings resulted from the target population of Central and East Tennessee public secondary school teachers.

Historical Leadership Views

Different views of leadership have evolved in the past centuries. One of the earliest concepts of leadership is the Great Man Theory (Bass, 1990; Bennis, 2003, Burns, 1978). This theory was based on the premise that successful leaders have certain personality characteristics or traits that would allow them to be successful leaders in any situation. The people subscribing to this theory believe successful leaders are born with personality characteristics or traits that set them apart from others thus enabling them to be successful leaders. Leaders such as Hitler, Abraham Lincoln, or Jesus Christ are often cited as examples of this type of leaders. Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) were among the first to challenge the Great Man Theories after analyzing previous leadership studies. After analysis of studies after 1948, Stogdill (1974) compiled a list of traits and skills leaders exhibit. He believed being adaptable to situations, alert to social environment, ambitious and achievement-oriented, assertive, cooperative, decisive, dependable, dominant, energetic, persistent, self-confident, tolerant of stress, and willing to assume responsibility were traits of successful leaders. Skills of successful leaders included being clever, conceptually skilled, creative, diplomatic and tactful, fluent in speaking,

knowledgeable about group task, organized, persuasive, and socially skilled. Stogdill (1948, p. 64), however, concluded "a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits". Others supported Stogdill's statement. Wright (1996, p. 34) stated, "others found no difference between leaders and followers with respect to these characteristics, or even found people who possessed them were less likely to become leaders."

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) were among the first to begin to consider leadership as a style rather than a trait. Lewin, Lippitt, and White observed Iowa schoolchildren while conducting their study. For the study, groups of children were broken into three groups to complete an arts and crafts project. Each group was assigned a leader. Each group had autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire leaders. The researchers observed the behavior of the children as they responded to the exhibited leadership style. The autocratic leaders told the boys what they would do and how they would do it. The leaders made comments of criticism or praise without explaining the reason behind the comments. The democratic, or participative, leaders discussed possible projects with the boys and explained their comments but ultimately let the boys make their own decisions. The laissez-faire, or delegative, leaders offered the boys no advice or guidance. The researchers found democratic leadership to be the most effective. The study found the children of this group to be less productive than members of the authoritarian group but their work was of higher quality. The children in the laissez-faire leadership group were the least productive of the group. These children also made more demands of the leader, lacked the ability to work independently, and showed little cooperation.

Since the Lewis, Lippitt, and White (1939) study, other studies (Halpin, 1966; Hemphill & Coons, 1950) have explored the style approach to leadership. The style approach is a behavior-centered leadership approach. Hemphill and Coons (1957) defined leadership as "the

behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (p. 7). The effectiveness of the style approach is based on the answers to the questions of how leaders behave and what they do. There are two types of behavior to consider when studying the style approach. These are task behaviors and relationship behaviors. Task behaviors support goal achievement while relationship behaviors help group members feel comfortable with the situation and people around them. In the mid-1900s, three major studies defined the style approach. These included: the Ohio State Studies (Bass, 1990b), the University of Michigan Studies (Likert, 1961), and the Blake and Mouton (1964) studies. Those involved with the Ohio State Studies examined behaviors of leaders in educational, military, and industrial settings. The results from this revealed leaders both provide structure and nurture those under their leadership. These findings resulted in the development of the LBDQ by Hemphill and Coons (1957) that was further refined by Halpin and Winer (1957) and Fleishman (1957). However, it is important to note these two behaviors are independent of one another. Just because a leader is good at providing structural support does not mean s/he is automatically good at nurturing.

Similarly, the University of Michigan Studies (Likert, 1961) found two types of leadership behaviors. These are employee orientation and production orientation. Employee orientation behaviors involve relationships. Leaders who exhibit these behaviors take an interest in their subordinates. Production orientation behaviors are more rigid. The leaders are concerned with subordinates only because they are avenues to getting objectives accomplished. Subordinates are viewed as tools rather than people. Those involved with the University of Michigan Studies initially viewed the orientations as opposite ends of one continuum. After seeing the results of their initial studies, these researchers changed their view. Like the Ohio State researchers, they began to view the two orientations as independent of one another.

Blake and Mouton (1964) also looked at how managers use the orientations of task and relationship behaviors. They used the Leadership Grid to explore the factors of concern for production and concern for people. The Grid consists of a horizontal axis addressing concern for results and a vertical axis addressing concern for people. Leaders can range from one to nine on each axis. There are five leadership styles ranging from impoverished management (1,1) to team management (9,9) including middle-of-the-road management (5,5), country club management (1,9) and authority-compliance (9,1).

Around the same time Lewis, Lippitt, and White (1939) considered leadership as a style or behavior, but others studied it as situational. Those subscribing to situational leadership theories believe leaders choose a plan of action based on the present situational variables and that different situations and/or different people require different leadership styles. Fiedler (1967) introduced the Contingency Model of Leadership. Fiedler's theory involved two major factors, leadership style and situational favorableness. The theory focused on two types of leaders, relationship-oriented and task-oriented. Fiedler subscribed to the thought that there is no ideal leader. Both types of leadership can be effective when orientation is chosen according to the situation. Fiedler believed three elements determined the effectiveness of leadership. These were: how clearly defined and structured the job scope was, how much positional power the leader had, and the relationship between the leader and the follower. House (1971) introduced the path-goal theory. Path-goal theory was not simply leader-centered, behavior-centered, or based on the relationship between the two. Path-goal theory was not focused on specific situations. Path-goal theory investigated the relationship between the leader's style and the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. In essence, the ideal behind the theory was leader behavior became acceptable to the subordinates only to the degree the subordinated believed the behavior

as source of immediate or future satisfaction (House, 1971). According to House and Mitchell (1974), the idea behind Path-Goal theory was simple. A leader defined goals, clarified the path, removed the obstacles, and provided support for their subordinates. The major components of path-goal theory were leader behaviors, subordinate characteristics, task characteristics, and motivation. This meant leaders assessed the situation, their subordinates, and the intended goal in order to provide the correct type of direction and support in each situation that would lead to success.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) also approached leadership from a situational viewpoint focusing on the dimensions of task and relationship behavior. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) offered four leadership styles resulting from the combinations of the leader and follower development. Blanchard (1991) renamed the four combinations of leadership styles and follower development. The telling/directing combination was needed when the leader had high task and low relationship focus and the follower had low competence and commitment. The selling/coaching combination was needed when the leader was focused on both high task and high relationship and the follower exhibited some competence and commitment. The participating/supporting combination was needed when the leader had low task focus but high relationship focus and the follower was highly competent but insecure. Finally, the delegating/observing combination was best suited when the leader was both low task and relationship focused but the follower was both highly competent and motivated. According to the model, the leadership style must match the level of follower development for effectiveness.

Transformational Leadership has become one of the most popular types of leadership styles to be studied. While Downton (1973) was the first to create the term “transformational leadership,” Burns (1978) is truly responsible for bringing transformational leadership to the

forefront of research with his 1978 work, *Leadership*. Burns found there were two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Both can be popular and occur in many different settings and situations, but they are distinctly different.

Transactional leadership is more short-term. It is offering rewards and punishments to accomplish goals. Transformational leadership is more long-term and involves molding and shaping a culture into success. Transformational leaders are those whose legacy will remain long after they are gone. The success they build will remain in those that follow them. The same cannot be said of transactional leaders. Burns was developing his transformational leadership theory about the same time House was developing his theory. House's theory focuses on the charisma of a leader, but his ideals about leadership were much in line with the ideas of Burns.

Bass (1990) and his colleagues extended the work of Burns in regards to the study of transformational leadership and eventually developed a questionnaire to assess transformational leadership. Bass's version of transformational leadership encompassed to some extent the ideas of both Burns and House. According to Bass, leadership involves seven factors that can be divided into three styles of leadership: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. Transformational leadership involves the following factors: (a) idealized influence/charisma, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration. Transactional leadership involves contingent rewards/constructive transactions and management-by-exception/active and passive corrective transactions. Laissez-faire leadership is nontransactional.

Organizational Climate Research

Angelle's (2002) previously mentioned qualitative study on effects of the principal in the induction of new teachers in Louisiana middle schools first addressed monitoring by the

principal. Principals in less effective schools, according to Angelle's study, did the bare minimum when it came to observations. They did the minimum number of required observations and that was all. These observations also were used only to fulfill requirements rather than facilitate instructional effectiveness. Feedback was not used to help new teachers grow. Angelle stated that out of five principals, three of the principals gave only positive feedback while one principal did not give feedback at all. The principals in less effective schools were characterized as either "*frenzied, fractured,* or *floaters"* (p. 9). The attitude of a principal categorized as a *floater* would not be one suggestive of stress. However, the lax attitude of this type of principal led to stress for new teachers. The *floater* was the type to forget to assign a new teacher a mentor, to forget to visit to the classroom except for those required observations, and often would not provide feedback at all. "For those beginning teachers who desire an instructional leader, the *floater* is a source of frustration" (p. 10). The frenzied principal offered stress in a different form. The *frenzied* principal was in "a constant state of upheaval, . . . always behind, always in crisis, always on edge" (p. 11). The new teachers "who work in this atmosphere become acculturated to living in a pressure suit and, likewise, are thrown in to frenzies by paperwork and events out of the norm" (p. 11). With a principal like this, a novice teacher could not help but feel stressed. The *fractured* principal offered similar stress factors. Communication was one of the main issues. Because of the inconsistencies of the *fractured* principals new teachers were often uninformed of deadlines or events that affected their classrooms.

Additionally, lack of organizational support showed up in another study. Brewer and McMahan (2003) conducted a study among technical and industrial teachers. In this study, respondents rated lack of organizational support as the most severe stressor but also indicated that this stressor occurred less frequently. Brewer and McMahan reported that in the context of

the Person-Environment Fit theory, “findings relative to severity of lack of organizational support stressors could indicate a mismatch between an individual and the environment” (p. 135).

Cookson (2005) stated that 50% of teachers leave after one year while 70% leave by the end of three years. Causes of the turnover found in this study include the difficulty in teaching students in isolated communities, poor communities, and communities where the education of the parents is minimal. Cookson tried to fight the problems through peer support. Cookson notes that, “The real value of teaching is the collective effort of teachers who work together to create schools where learning is a joy and where continuous improvement is the unspoken motto” (p. 14).

When teachers do not have the support they need, burnout ensues. Stern and Cox (1993) stated that teachers experiencing burnout feel exhausted and desperate. Teachers feel as if there are not enough hours in the day to get all the things accomplished for which they are responsible. An action research study by Taylor, Zimmer, and Womack (2004) in a rural Arkansas school district confirmed this. According to this study, 68% of the respondents reported not being excited by their jobs anymore. A large percentage (40.4%) believed too much was expected of them while 59% actually dreaded going to work. A low level of job satisfaction was identified as a stressor in this particular study. However, lack of job satisfaction was not the only stressor in this study. Over half (57.4%) of the participants felt physically threatened by students at times while 44.6% believed in the possibility that students would cause them harm. Liu and Meyer (2005) found the second most often cited reason teachers left their position was the stress that student discipline problems caused.

Efficacy Research

Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, and Steca (2003) conducted a study that showed teachers' self-efficacy to be an influential factor on their satisfaction. Multiple studies have shown self-efficacy to be positively correlated to satisfaction (Denzie & Anderson, 1999; Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000). Staggs (2002) found significant correlations between self-efficacy and leadership behaviors at the high school level specifically. Hipp and Bredeson (1995) studied the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and the principal's leadership style. Nir and Kranot (2006) studied this further to find that "school principal's leadership style is not an exclusive element" (p. 212) of self-efficacy. Nir and Kranot argued that while principal leadership style may be a contributing factor, there are more variables and experiences that influence teachers' self-efficacy than principal leadership style alone.

Trust and Support Research

Administrator roles have an effect on a teacher's job satisfaction. Schlichte, Yssel, and Merbler (2005), included one case study involving a teacher, Sinda, who believed that "if she only had a good relationship with other staff members and administrators, the job would be, in her words, 'do-able'" (p. 37). According to Sinda she tried to express her concerns—one being the fact that the year before she had a caseload of 40 students and was assigned an aide but this current year the caseload had grown to 55 students and she did not have an aide—however, her expressions of dissatisfaction had only resulted to her receiving the silent treatment from the administrator and superintendent. This treatment only increased her feeling of dissatisfaction.

Angelle (2002) conducted a study of the induction of beginning middle-school teachers in Louisiana schools. The study consisted of both observations and interviews with principals, mentors, and new teachers. The study included effects the principals in these schools had on the

induction of new teachers, including the mentoring program. Angelle found the first year experience of a teacher may be the most critical in determining whether a teacher will sustain the stress and remain in the field or leave for other job opportunities. Schlichte, Yssel, and Merbler (2005) addressed the domains of teacher isolation and alienation. This was a case study of five special educators in their first year of teaching. Three of the teachers felt negative toward their mentoring experience since mentors rarely spoke to them or only did so when it was required. One participant reported feelings of disgruntlement causing her to have physical ailments such as insomnia. This participant stated that her co-workers said they were there if she needed help, but she was so overwhelmed that she did not even know with what she needed help. Out of the five participating, there was one with a success story. This participant praised the administration and explained how they were there for him offering support and accessibility.

Littrell (1994) found that administrator support is a major factor in teacher's well-being. This study found that teachers are more satisfied with their work when their principals are emotionally supportive. This same study found that the teachers who reported fewer health problems were those who reported more emotional support. A nationwide study by Perie and Baker (1997) corroborates the importance of administrator support. The study found working conditions including administrative support and leadership to be a contributing factor in levels of job satisfaction.

An additional area of concern for teachers that leads to burnout and stress is autonomy (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). According to these authors, teachers must have the same freedom to decide what is best for their students as other professionals have, such as doctors prescribing treatment to patients. Pearson and Moomaw found that "as curriculum autonomy increased on-the-job stress decreased" (p. 45). The strongest relationship found in this study was between

perceived empowerment and professionalism. Pearson and Moomaw concluded teachers who felt most empowered also viewed themselves more as true professionals.

Professional Learning Community Research

Maeroff (1993) reported the best teachers feel their ability to succeed is a result of having a supportive and understanding principal. These teachers feel safe to take risk that might improve success of their students because they trust that their principal will not condemn them if the risk does not work. Maeroff's study confirmed Lieberman's and Miller's (1984) view of the importance of principal support. Lieberman and Miller reported teachers will not take risks if they view their principals as critical or fear punishment when risks do not prove successful. Thornton (2004) studied the impact involvement in Professional Development Schools (PDS) on teachers' levels of job satisfaction at the middle school level. The teachers who were involved in the PDS reported the involvement as be vital for support. With the PDS respondents, there was a focus on collegiality and professional peer relationships.

Academic Pressure Research

Thornton (2004) reported teachers' feelings of frustration over the pressures of standardized testing. Many of the teachers' debated their choice of careers because they felt the focus had gone from student learning to student performance on the standardized tests. Gonzalez, Brown, and Slate (2008) conducted a qualitative study to understand why teachers had left the profession. One respondent was frustrated with administration's expectations of the students. This respondent reported being told to ignore students' zeros and average the grade without accounting for zeros. This respondent felt this directive made teaching and learning irrelevant. Two recurring themes in this study were respondents describing students as being lazy and citing discipline problems as a contributing factor to their decision to leave the classroom.

Theoretical Perspectives

Many accepted theoretical frameworks were plausible for this particular study. These include but are not limited to: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Person-Environment (PE) Fit Theory, Maslach's Burnout Theory, and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Several theories were observed in this review of literature. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1954) was present in many of the studies. Maslow believed that needs of humans are ranked in order and that the lower needs must be met before higher needs can be addressed. In order from low to high, these needs are physiological needs, safety and security, belonging and affection, self-respect, and self-actualization. While this theory would have been appropriate with many aspects of the study, the researcher had reservations. Concerns existed about use of the theory in present-day research. More importantly, this theory did not connect the two aspects of job satisfaction and leadership behaviors well enough to serve as the foundation for this study.

Person-environment fit theory. The Person-Environment Fit (PEF) theory is an accepted framework for conducting research on job stress (Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). Brewer and McMahan (2003) explain the PEF theory as meaning the interaction between individuals and their work environment was a determinant of whether or not a situation is stressful for that individual. While the interaction could possibly have an effect on teachers' job satisfaction, it relates more to job stress than satisfaction—the focus of this study. Therefore, it was not chosen as the theoretical framework for this study.

Maslach's burnout theory. Maslach's Burnout Theory also occurred in the research (Chenevey, Ewing, & Whittington, 2008; Farber, 1982). Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996, p. 4) defined burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced

personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity." Based on this definition, one can easily understand why many of the studies involving teachers involve Maslach's Burnout Theory. As with PEF theory, this could affect job satisfaction of teachers. However, due to Maslach's Burnout Theory's focus on burnout, the researcher ultimately decided upon the following theory as the theoretical background for this study regarding job satisfaction.

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) was used to frame this study. The Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), also known as the Dual Factor Theory and Two-Factor Theory, arose in the late 1950s making it one of the longest-standing theories used in the job satisfaction studies. Herzberg and his associates conducted an extensive literature review during the development of the theory (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957). Herzberg and his associates found "there was inadequate information about the individuals concerned, their perceptions, their needs, their pattern of learning" (p. 11).

For the development of Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, Herzberg (1959) and his associates interviewed approximately 200 randomly selected engineers and accountants from nine companies. The study utilized the critical incidents methods to interview the participants in hopes the data would focus on the individual rather than the group. The participants were asked to describe a situation at their work that was a source of satisfaction and a situation that was a source of dissatisfaction. After studying the responses, Herzberg and his associates deduced that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction did not exist at opposite ends of a single continuum. Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction represented two independent, unique dimensions. According to Herzberg, the finding meant the decrease in sources of job satisfaction would not cause job

dissatisfaction and vice versa. Herzberg grouped the characteristics that led to job satisfaction into the category of motivation and the characteristics that led to job dissatisfaction into the category of hygiene. Motivation factors include: (a) achievement, (b) recognition of achievement, (c) responsibility for task, (d) interest in the job, (e) advancement to higher-level tasks, and (f) growth. Hygiene factors include: (a) working conditions, (b) quality of supervision, (c) salary, (d) status, (e) security, (f) company, (g) job, (h) company policies and administration, and (i) interpersonal relations. The motivation factors are sometimes referred to as intrinsic while the hygiene factors are referred to as extrinsic (Freeman, 1978). Herzberg (1968) later used the two-factor theory to study motivation of employees from 12 different career paths, one of which was teaching. The dichotomy proved true in all 12 investigations.

Controversy has surrounded Herzberg's Theory (Sergiovanni, 1976). The theory has been criticized at many different angles. Ewen, Smith, Hulin, and Locke (1966) conducted a study of female clinical employees in an attempt to refute the theory. Other criticism of the theory stems from its development in an industrial setting. Critics questioned its validity outside of that area (Pardee, 1990). Bellott and Tutor (1990) questioned the relevancy of Herzberg's work due to the elapsed time since the development of the theory. Bellott and Tutor believed it occurred too long ago to be relevant. Sergiovanni believed the controversy lay in the methodology employed by researchers. Sergiovanni reported studies in which researchers used similar methods yield results supporting Herzberg's theory. Studies in which researchers employ differing methods yielded results that did not support Herzberg's theory.

While the Two-Factor Theory has been the subject of scrutiny and debate, it is still considered relevant today (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Dinham & Scott, 1998; Iiacqua, Schumacher, & Li, 2001). The Two-Factor Theory is one of the most replicated studies in the

field of job attitudes with Herzberg himself replicating the study (Herzberg, 2003). Studies by Sergiovanni (2006) and Dinham and Scott supported the use of the Two-Factor Theory to reflect job satisfaction of teachers. Dinham and Scott listed "student achievement, teacher achievement, changing pupil attitudes and behaviors in a positive way, recognition from others, mastery and self-growth, and positive relationships" (p. 364) as some of the intrinsic factors related to teachers.

Summary of Research Findings

After reviewing extant literature for this chapter, one can make the valid assumption that there is a connection between job satisfaction and leadership style. This is of concern in the world of education. The researcher found many of the reasons given for lack of job satisfaction are within system control and can often be addressed without any extra costs to the systems. The researcher also found the connection between job satisfaction and leadership style is not limited to the world of education. Many of the concerns raised in the educational world are issues in other professional fields as well. The review of literature supports the need for this study by giving administrators and leaders in school system an insight to causes of low levels of job satisfaction and how it correlates to leadership behaviors. If administrators and leaders know there is a problem and what is causing it, they can address it. The results may be beneficial as well. Administrators will benefit by knowing what is working and what is not. The results from this study may lead to better working conditions for all involved, increased teacher morale, increased student achievement, and increased public opinion of educators.

As shown in this review of literature, connections exist between teachers' job satisfaction levels and leadership behaviors. However, the depth of these connections is shallow. Reviewing the literature led to the researcher's interest in finding how leadership behaviors, as perceived by

the teachers, impact teachers' levels of job satisfaction thereby affecting the attrition levels of the teachers. After reviewing the literature, the researcher chose five of the leadership scales to explore. While literature exists relating to the scales specifically, very little literature exists tying them to job satisfaction levels. As with the literature regarding job satisfaction, the researcher used the leadership literature in formulating the research questions and hypotheses.

Summary of the Literature Review Chapter

This chapter began with an overview of the literature regarding job satisfaction. This was followed by a discussion of research regarding leadership. The third section of the chapter included the literature surrounding the theoretical frameworks underpinning job satisfaction and leadership behaviors. Following the review of the theoretical frameworks, a brief summary of the findings was included. Finally, a conclusion of the chapter was included.

Chapter 3 will present the methodology used in the study. This will begin with an explanation of the research method chosen for this study. This will be followed by the rationale for the selection of the population. The next two sections will address the sample and sampling process. Next the instrumentation used and data collection process will be explained in detail. The last section will be the explanation of the data analysis. All of this will be summarized in the conclusion.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive study addressed several purposes. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales of the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005) as perceived by the teachers and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. The previous chapter served as the review of literature for this study. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used to complete the study. This descriptive study was quantitative in nature employing survey research. Chapter 3 will present the methodology used in the study. This will begin with an explanation of the research method chosen for this study. This will be followed by the rationale for the selection of the population. The next two sections will address the sample and sampling process. Next the instrumentation used and data collection process will

be explained in detail. The last section will be the explanation of the data analysis. All of this will be summarized in the conclusion.

Research Method

A quantitative, descriptive research method was used for this study. According to Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) descriptive research is used to examine relationships between one or more conditions or variables but is not used to find causation. The Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997) and components of the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005) used are quantitative thereby making this study a quantitative study. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the SSLSSQ and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers.

Selection of the Population

The population under investigation was Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers. There were 95 counties with public high schools and 19,344 secondary school teachers in Tennessee in 2008-2009. Not knowing what to expect regarding the response rate, the researcher realized follow-up might require traveling to schools to get participants. In an effort to make this feasible if needed, the researcher used Interstate 65 on road maps as a clear dividing line for possible systems in this study. Thus, Central and East Tennessee consisted of 62 of the 95 counties. In these 62 counties, there were approximately 12,650 public high school teachers. The target for this study was the entire population of teachers in the 62 counties. For this study, the data described was retrieved from the Tennessee State Department of Education website (http://www.tennessee.gov/education/asr/08_09/doc/Table1.xls) on September 11, 2010.

Sampling Frame

While 62 counties were considered for the study, purposive sampling was used to choose only the districts in those counties with public secondary schools serving grades 9-12. Also, charter, magnet, and special schools were not included. The sample for this study consisted of the teachers in the schools wherein the directors granted the researcher permission to conduct the study.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Purposive sampling was used for this study. The researcher sent an e-mail to the directors of schools in each district East of Interstate 65 that had secondary schools serving students in grades 9-12. The e-mail asked permission to meet with or talk via phone or e-mail with the directors about the study. The purpose of the study as well as the methodology was given to those directors who showed interest. Those who agreed were sent an e-mail with the letter for

them to sign granting permission to do the study, providing an address to return the signed "Permission to Conduct Research." Public high school teachers in the counties where permission was granted served as the sample group for this study.

Instrumentation

Two different instruments and a demographic questionnaire were used in this study. The instruments include the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997) and the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005).

Demographic Questionnaire

The researcher developed the Demographic Questionnaire, located in Appendix A. This questionnaire served two purposes. It was used first and foremost for the simple descriptive statistics it could provide for the sample group. Second, it was used for analysis of data into subgroups.

Job Satisfaction Instruments

The researcher considered two job satisfaction instruments for this study. The instruments were analyzed for reliability, validity, length, question format, and the information they would provide. The instruments considered were the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Job Satisfaction Survey.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) measures 20 facets of job satisfaction. The 20 facets are more specific than other job satisfaction scales (Spector, 1997). The (MSQ) offered some flexibility other instruments do not because it is available in two forms. There is a long form consisting of 100 questions, five questions for each facet. There is a short form consisting of only 20 questions, one for each facet. Since this

researcher's study required respondents to complete three instruments, the long form was not appropriate due to efficiency of time. Using the short form presented problems since there is only one question per facet. A concern existed that data would be skewed if a question were read wrong.

Job Satisfaction Survey. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector (1994) to measure job satisfaction. The researcher used the JSS to assess satisfaction levels. This instrument was chosen over the MSQ due to its high reliability and validity as well as its efficiency. According to Spector (1985), the JSS, located in Appendix B, has an internal consistency reliability of above 0.5 for each subscale with an overall internal consistency reliability of 0.91. In the same article, Spector reports the correlations between the JSS and the Job Description Index (JDI) to show the validity of the instrument. The reliability and validity were both confirmed years later in a study by Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, and Frings-Dresen (2003). The JSS is efficient because it takes respondents a short amount of time to fill out. The JSS consists of 36 questions spread across nine facets to assess employee attitudes about their job and aspects of their job. Each facet is assessed with four items. About half of the items are written positively while those remaining are written negatively. Since items are written in both directions, about half must be reverse scored. Respondents rate their agreement with each statement on a 6-point scale from 1 representing *Disagree Very Much* to 6 representing *Agree Very Much*. The overall score can range from 36 to 216 while the score on each facet can range from four to 24. The nine facets of job satisfaction measured by the JSS are: (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards (performance based rewards), (f) operating procedures (required rules and procedures), (g) co-workers, (h) nature of work, and (i) communication. The final reason this instrument was chosen was because it was

conducive to the methodology of this study. This study was conducted entirely on-line. In an e-mail (included in Appendix D), Spector granted the researcher permission to use the instrument on-line.

Leadership Behavior Instruments

Like the satisfaction instruments, multiple leadership behavior instruments were considered for this study. The leadership style instruments considered include the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer, Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, and the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire. These instruments were analyzed for reliability, validity, length, questions, and the information they would provide.

Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer. The first instrument considered to measure perceptions of leadership behaviors was the Kouzes' and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (LPI-Observer). The LPI-Observer is a 30-item questionnaire. Respondents rate their agreement with each statement on a 10-point scale from 1 representing *Almost Never* to 10 representing *Almost Always*. Five different leadership practices are measured. The five practices of leadership measured by the LPI-Observer were: (a) modeling, (b) inspiring, (c) challenging, (d) enabling, and (e) encouraging. The instrument has six randomly ordered questions for measuring each of the five practices. The score range for each of the five practices is from 6 to 60. Again, it is efficient so it would not have taken respondents long to complete. Like the JSS, the LPI has high reliability. The reliability in each practice is 0.86 or higher (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). The major drawback of this instrument was the leadership practices in this instrument did not parallel the facets of the JSS as well as the LBDQ ultimately chosen to measure leadership behaviors.

Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire. The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was also considered as the to measure perceptions of leadership behaviors. The LBDQ is an instrument used to describe how leaders behave. The LBDQ uses 30 short, descriptive statements to describe the behavior of a leader. When filling out the questionnaire, respondents indicate from *always* to *never* how often their leader engages in a described behavior. The LBDQ measures the two leadership behavior factors of consideration and initiating structure. The 30 questions are split evenly between the two factors. It has high reliability scores in both factors. The reliability score is 0.83 for initiating structure and 0.92 for consideration (Halpin, 1959). The LBDQ has been used in other studies concerning leadership styles of principals. Bare-Oldham (1999) used the LBDQ in her study of perceived leadership styles of Kentucky principals. On their website, Ohio State University grants permission for this instrument to be used for research purposes. There were two drawbacks to this instrument in use for this study. With a copyright date of 1957, the LBDQ is very dated. The researcher wanted to use an instrument that would be more current. Also, while this instrument measures the factors of consideration and initiating structure, it did not allow the researcher to specific scales.

Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire. The Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionniare ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005) met all the criteria for this specific study. The SSLSSQ design allowed the researcher to measure specific leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure. There was an adequate, but not an overwhelming, number of questions regarding each scale; and the questions were quantitative in nature. Respondents rate their agreement with each statement on a 4-point scale from 1 representing *Serious Problem (or Strongly Disagree)* to 4 representing *Not a Problem (or*

Strongly Agree). This helped to ensure the study would not be too burdensome for participants. Also important was the reliability. With this instrument, each scale had a high reliability. The Cronbach's alpha reliability for the leadership scales of organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure were 0.8979, 0.7331, 0.9057, 0.9178, and 0.8749, respectively. Thus, this instrument met the efficiency criteria due to its length and, like the JSS, was conducive to the on-line design of this study.

Data Collection Procedures

Survey research is quantitative in nature. The first step in conducting this study was to obtain letters of permission from the directors of schools in the 62 counties. The researcher e-mailed all directors as well as their assistant directors to ask permission to meet or talk with them via phone or e-mail about the study. Upon meeting or talking with the directors, an overview of the study was given and the directors were asked for permission to conduct the study. For those who granted permission, a sample letter to put on district letterhead and sign was e-mailed. Once all letters of permission were received, they were attached to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) request submitted at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville (UTK).

The next step revolved around the surveys used in the study. The surveys were created under one account in an attempt to keep steps simple, easy, and quick for those willing to participate. The first page of the online survey served as the consent form because the participants were not available to sign the consent in person since the study was conducted via the internet. Choosing "yes" served as participant's consent and allowed respondents to access the survey. Choosing "no" meant the respondent did not consent and therefore shut down the survey for that respondent. A copy of the consent form was also attached to the IRB submitted to UTK. Once the study received IRB approval, the directors were contacted asking them to e-mail

the principals of the schools chosen in their district alerting the principals district permission had been granted for the research. The researcher e-mailed the principals giving them a brief overview of the study. The researcher waited two weeks for possible concerns from the principals regarding the study. The researcher assigned each school in those districts an access code for follow-up purposes later in the study. The principals were then e-mailed the survey link, an access code for their individual school, and a request to forward the e-mail to the teachers in the school. After waiting two weeks, a reminder was sent to the principals asking those who had not sent the link and access code to do so and informing those who had how many teachers had participated while asking them to encourage teachers to participate. Finally, at the end of the survey period, all data were downloaded. The data were stored on the researcher's computer hard-drive for easy access as well as a flash drive and CD in case of loss or damage to the hard-drive. The data were analyzed using PASW. The researcher analyzed the data for simple demographic statistics and inferential statistics. The findings and results were used to write the conclusions, recommendations, and implications. The design is represented in Figure 1.

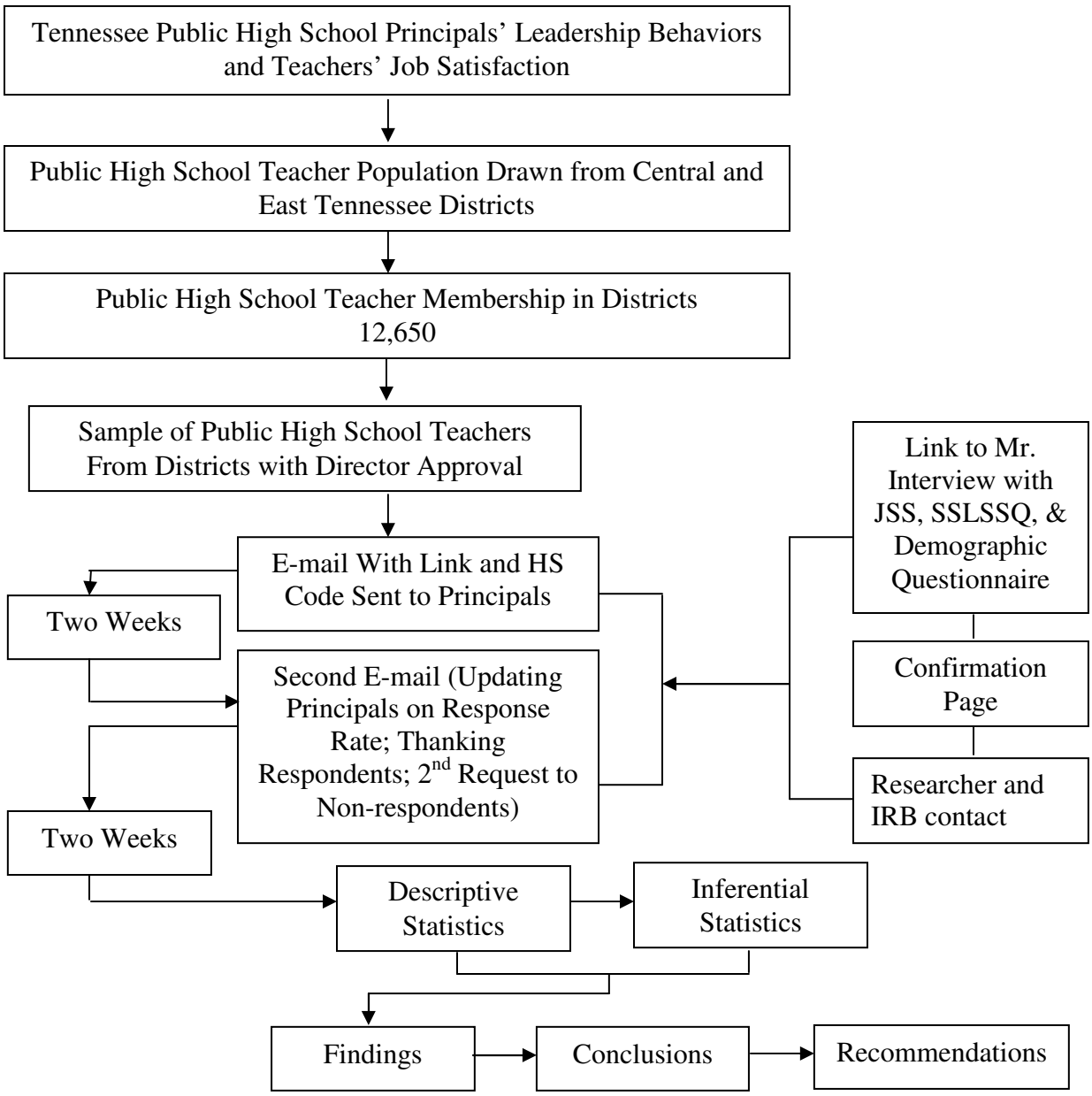

Figure 1. Flowchart for Design of the Study.

Data Analysis

For the data analysis, the researcher relied heavily upon PASW, the statistical software package used by UTK. The researcher chose this software program because it is user friendly and had the features needed for the analysis of this research project. The researcher used descriptive and inferential statistics for this research study.

The descriptive data were analyzed first using the descriptive statistics features. This gave insight to the teachers' demographic characteristics of the sample. For example, this allowed the researcher and anyone reading the final report to know specific information among the subgroups. The teachers' demographic characteristics were taken into account when analyzing the data. If there was unusually high number in one particular subgroup, the researcher realized data may be skewed and not have given an accurate representation of what was really happening in the schools.

The inferential statistics performed to analyze the data from the schools were ANOVAs, MANOVAs, and regression analysis. The relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and teachers' perceptions of administrative behaviors was examined. Secondly, this study explored the relationship between individual facets of the JSS and the factors of the LBDQ. The correlation coefficient only recognized relationships between variables, not the causation of the relationships.

Summary of the Methodology Chapter

In this chapter, the researcher presented an introduction, research method, selection of population, sampling frame, sample and sampling procedure, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and data analysis. The findings will be analyzed and reported in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore the differences and relationships resulting from analysis of data received using the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a demographic questionnaire administered to Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the SSLSSQ and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers.

The researcher has offered the analysis of the data for the six research questions and their hypotheses regarding perceived principal behaviors and job satisfaction in public secondary schools in Central and East Tennessee in this chapter. Statistical analyses displayed perceptions

of teachers' behaviors and principal behaviors at the participants' respective schools through utilization of the JSS and the SSLSSQ.

This chapter includes the response rate achieved by the study, a profile of the sample, and analytical findings to the research questions. Tables were displayed when necessary to clarify summary in the text or when more efficient in presenting findings. Results will be reported first by simple descriptive analyses according to instrument and then by correlational analyses among factors measured.

Participation Response Rate

Descriptive statistics were used to provide an overview of the participants and schools. Since the purposive sampling technique was used for this study, the researcher delimited the districts to only those counties with public secondary schools serving grades 9-12. Also, charter, magnet, and special schools were not included. Upon receipt of director approval, the researcher immediately contacted the principals of the qualifying schools under that director's jurisdiction. The principal's role was to forward an email from the researcher to the teachers of his/her respective school asking them to participate in the study and provided the weblink to access the survey. Due to the nature of the methodology of this study, the true response rate for this study is unknown because there were variables the researcher could not control. For example, there was no way to know if the principals actually sent the email and to whom s/he sent it. The principals were asked to send it to the entire certified staff. The researcher was able to retrieve data from MR Interview that showed 465 people had accessed the survey. Of the 465, 302 had completed the survey yielding a response rate of 65%. Issues of this nature are not uncommon. Mertler (2002) used a web-based survey of teacher motivation and job satisfaction for data collection. This survey was limited because Mertler did not actually know the population that was being

reached since the sample came from those who accessed the listservs that contained the survey. Thus, for the current study, the researcher analyzed the data received from the 302 that had completed the survey.

Findings by Instrument

The Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a demographic questionnaire were used to collect data for this study. Demographics results and findings for each of the instruments are presented below.

Demographic Data

The demographic findings were in line with the researcher's expectations based on the regional characteristics. A summary of the participant responses is presented in Table 1. With 63.9% female, there was an approximate two to one ratio of female participants to male. Regarding marital status, 73.5% of the participants were married. An examination in regards to ethnicity revealed most participants were white (97.4%). The age category of 31-40 was represented by the most participants (31.5%) followed by the 41-50 range (27.2%).

As noted in Table 1, the discipline area, school size, and tenure status of the participants were also gauged. As expected, most of the participants were from the core academic subject areas (63.2%) comprising almost two-thirds of this category. Schools within the medium category (1001-1500) of student enrollment had the most respondents (39.4%). Finally, 252 of the participants (83.4%) were tenured teachers.

The researcher also included in Table 1 the results of the two questions added to the demographic questionnaire upon the advice of one of the committee members. When asked if

they had considered leaving the teaching profession, 63.9% responded “yes”. When asked if they would leave the profession if it were possible, 39.1% responded “yes”.

As defined, data from participants helped portray the norm of participants. Respondents predominantly taught core academic classes in medium sized schools. They generally fell into the categories of married, female, white, age 31-40, tenured, and working under current principal between 1-5 years.

Table 1: *Demographic Summary of Participants*

Variable	Classification	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Male	109	36.1	36.1
	Female	193	63.9	100.0
Marital Status	Single	80	26.5	26.5
	Married	222	73.5	100.0
Ethnicity	White	294	97.4	97.4
	Hispanic	1	0.3	97.7
	Black	1	0.3	98.0
	Other	6	2.0	100.0
Discipline Area	Vocational	48	15.9	15.9
	Core Academic (Mathematics, English, Science, Social Studies)	191	63.2	79.1
	Special Education	20	6.6	85.8
	Elective	43	14.2	100.0
Age	21-30	54	17.9	17.9
	31-40	95	31.5	49.3
	41-50	82	27.2	76.5
	51-60	57	18.9	95.4
	61 and over	14	4.6	100.0
School Size	0-500	27	8.9	8.9
	501-1000	87	28.8	37.7
	1001-1500	119	39.4	77.2
	1501-2000	45	14.9	92.1
	2001 and over	24	7.9	100.0
Tenure Status	Tenured	252	83.4	83.4
	Non-Tenured	50	16.6	100.0
Number of Years Under Current Principal	Less than 1	62	20.5	20.5
	1-5	142	47.0	67.5
	6-10	63	20.9	88.4
	10 or more	35	11.6	100.0
Considered Leaving Teaching Profession	No	109	36.1	36.1
	Yes	193	63.9	100.0
Would Leave If It Were A Possibility	No	184	60.9	60.9
	Yes	118	39.1	100.0

Job Satisfaction Survey

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) measured the respondents' job satisfaction in nine separate facets as well as overall job satisfaction. The mean scores and standard deviation for the nine facets and the overall job satisfaction are displayed in Table 2. Using a one to six scale, the three facets of nature of work, co-workers, and supervision had the greatest mean scores of 4.9255, 4.7086, and 4.3104, respectively. Pay, operating procedures, and promotion had the lowest mean scores of 2.8460, 2.9288, and 2.9561, respectively.

Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire

The researcher used the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire (SSLSSQ) to measure five scales that include organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure. The mean scores and standard deviations for each of these scales are displayed in Table 3. The respondents answered on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). The mean in the five scales ranged from 2.7255 to 2.9222. Of the five scales, academic pressure had the highest mean score (2.9222) while organizational climate had the lowest mean score (2.7255).

Table 2: *Job Satisfaction Mean Scores*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	$\bar{x}$	Std. Deviation
Pay	302	1.50	4.75	2.8460	.63525
Promotion	302	1.00	5.75	2.9561	.95667
Supervision	302	1.75	6.00	4.3104	.67455
Fringe Benefits	302	1.00	6.00	3.4752	1.05605
Contingent Rewards	302	1.00	6.00	3.3551	1.21603
Operating Procedures	302	1.00	6.00	2.9288	.93758
Co-workers	302	1.00	6.00	4.7086	.89639
Nature of Work	302	1.00	6.00	4.9255	.84062
Communication	302	1.00	6.00	3.7326	1.11706
Overall Satisfaction	302	2.08	5.28	3.6932	.57431

Table 3: *Leadership Scales Mean Scores*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	$\bar{x}$	Std. Deviation
Organizational Climate	302	1.30	3.90	2.7255	.53562
Efficacy	302	1.71	4.00	2.7337	.32202
Trust and Support	302	1.00	4.00	2.8767	.78430
Professional Learning Community	302	1.00	4.00	2.7886	.50768
Academic Pressure	302	1.00	4.00	2.9222	.59111

Findings by Research Questions and Hypotheses

Utilizing the results of the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997) and the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), analyses for the research questions were performed. Several different statistical analyses were conducted on the data collected. The researcher conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine differences between independent variables and dependent variables. The ANOVA was conducted using the teachers' demographic variables (gender, marital status, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal) as the independent variables and overall job satisfaction as the dependent variable. Since only 8 of the 302 respondents classified themselves as a demographic other than white, ethnicity was disregarded in the findings as suggested by the statistic's consultant. While they are not demographic variables, the researcher also conducted ANOVAs with the two questions concerning intent to stay. A Bonferroni adjustment was used for post hoc testing with the ANOVA and significance was determined at the 0.05 level.

The researcher then conducted two multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs). The first was between the teachers' demographic variables including the intent to stay questions with each facet of the JSS. The second was between the teachers' demographic variables including the

intent to stay questions with each of the leadership categories. As before, a Bonferroni adjustment was used and significance was determined at the 0.05 level.

Finally, the researcher performed three series of regressions to determine significant relationships. The first regression analysis examined the relationship between the overall composite of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and overall job satisfaction. The second series of regression analysis examined the relationship between each leadership scale and overall job satisfaction. The third series of regression analysis examined the relationship between each leadership scale and each facet of the JSS. Significance was determined at the 0.05 level for all regression analyses.

Research Question 1: Are there statistically significant differences between the overall satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal?

When examining the ANOVA results between the independent demographic variables and the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction, statistically significant differences were found with the demographic variables of gender ($F = 7.920$, $p = 0.005$), marital status ($F = 4.003$, $p = 0.046$), tenure ($F = 6.226$, $p = 0.013$), and number of years under the current principal ($F = 2.943$, $p = 0.033$) shown in Table 4. Furthermore, statistically significant differences were found with overall job satisfaction and the question of considering leaving the profession ($F = 13.147$, $p = 0.000$) as well as overall job satisfaction and the question of leaving as a possibility ($F = 20.746$, $p = 0.000$).

In the cases where statistically significant differences occurred, the researcher examined the results more closely. As shown in Table 5, examination revealed men ($\bar{x} = 4.036$) were more

satisfied with their jobs than women ($\bar{x}$ = 3.857), married ($\bar{x}$ = 4.016) respondents were more satisfied with their jobs than single ($\bar{x}$ = 3.876) respondents (shown in Table 6), non-tenured teacher ($\bar{x}$ = 4.063) respondents were more satisfied with their jobs than tenured teacher ($\bar{x}$ = 3.829) respondents (shown in Table 7). A statistically significant difference was also found between overall satisfaction and number of years the respondent had worked under the current principal. As shown in Table 8, respondents with 1-5 years ($\bar{x}$ = 4.059) were most satisfied followed by those with 6-10 years ($\bar{x}$ = 4.032) and those with less than 1 year ($\bar{x}$ = 3.798). The least satisfied were respondents with 10 or more years ($\bar{x}$ = 3.798) worked under the current principal.

Table 4: *ANOVA Results of Demographic Variables and Overall Job Satisfaction*

Independent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Corrected Model	28.128[a]	22	1.279	5.014	.000
Intercept	99.412	1	99.412	389.819	.000
Gender	2.020	1	2.020	7.920	.005**
Marital Status	1.021	1	1.021	4.003	.046*
Ethnicity	1.345	3	.448	1.758	.155
Discipline Area	.870	3	.290	1.137	.334
Age	1.271	4	.318	1.246	.292
School Size	.491	4	.123	.481	.750
Tenure Status	1.588	1	1.588	6.226	.013*
Number of Years Under Current Principal	2.252	3	.751	2.943	.033*
Considered Leaving Teaching Profession	3.353	1	3.353	13.147	.000**
Would Leave If It Were A Possibility	5.291	1	5.291	20.746	.000**
Error	71.151	279	.255		
Total	4218.380	302			
Corrected Total	99.279	301			

a. *R* Squared = .283 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .227)
*Significant at the 0.05 level
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Table 5: *Comparison of Mean Scores Based on Gender*

What is your gender?	$\bar{x}$	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	4.036	.206	3.631	4.440
Female	3.857	.199	3.465	4.249

Table 6: *Comparison of Mean Scores Based on Marital Status*

What is your marital status?	$\bar{x}$	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Single	3.876	.207	3.469	4.284
Married	4.016	.199	3.625	4.408

Table 7: *Comparison of Mean Scores Based on Tenure Status*

What is your tenure status?	$\bar{x}$	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tenured	3.829	.202	3.432	4.227
Non-tenured	4.063	.208	3.653	4.473

Table 8: *Comparison of Mean Scores Based on Number of Years Under Current Principal*

How many years have you worked under the current principal?	$\bar{x}$	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 1	3.896	.202	3.499	4.294
1-5	4.059	.205	3.655	4.462
6-10	4.032	.212	3.615	4.449
10 or more	3.798	.219	3.368	4.228

Interesting, however, were results when attempting further examine findings based on number of years teaching. While the initial ANOVA results revealed a statistically significant difference between overall job satisfaction and number of years under current principal, the mean score comparison between groups revealed no significance as shown in Table 9. Neither the researcher nor the statistic's consultant could explain this discrepancy. These findings could not be explained since there seemed to be no discrepancies between the mean scores of each group and the sample size was adequate. This finding definitely warrants further research in this area. Statistically significant differences were also found between the question of considered leaving the profession and overall job satisfaction as well as the question of leaving as a possibility and overall job satisfaction. Closer examination results were not surprising in either pairing. The teachers who had not considered leaving the teaching profession ($\bar{x}$ = 4.073) were more satisfied than those who had considered leaving the teaching profession ($\bar{x}$ = 3.819) as shown in Table 10. When asked if they would leave the profession if it were a possibility, those who responded "no" ($\bar{x}$ = 4.106) were more satisfied than those who responded "yes" ($\bar{x}$ = 3.787) as shown in Table 11.

Table 9: *Mean Score Comparison Between Groups Based on Number of Years Under Current Principal*

(I) How many years have you worked under the current principal?	(J) How many years have you worked under the current principal?	$\bar{x}$ Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]
Less than 1	1-5	-.162	.090	.433
	6-10	-.136	.105	1.000
	10 or more	.099	.120	1.000
1-5	Less than 1	.162	.090	.433
	6-10	.026	.082	1.000
	10 or more	.261	.101	.063
6-10	Less than 1	.136	.105	1.000
	1-5	-.026	.082	1.000
	10 or more	.234	.110	.204
10 or more	Less than 1	-.099	.120	1.000
	1-5	-.261	.101	.063
	6-10	-.234	.110	.204

Table 10: *Comparison of Mean Scores Based on Consideration of Leaving the Profession*

Have you ever considered leaving the teaching profession?	$\bar{x}$	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No	4.073	.206	3.668	4.479
Yes	3.819	.200	3.426	4.212

Table 11: *Comparison of Mean Scores Based on Leaving the Profession if Possible*

If it were possible, would you leave the teaching profession?	$\bar{x}$	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No	4.106	.204	3.705	4.506
Yes	3.787	.202	3.389	4.185

Related Null Hypothesis H_o1: There are no statistically significant differences between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal.

The previously explained results of this study led to Null Hypothesis 1 (H_o1) being rejected. Multiple statistically significant differences were found when examining pairings between overall job satisfaction and individual demographic variables. When paired with overall job satisfaction, a statistically significant difference was found with the demographic variables of gender, marital status, tenure, and years under the current principal. Statistically significant differences were also found with overall job satisfaction and the question of considering leaving the profession as well as overall job satisfaction and the question of leaving as a possibility.

Research Question 2: Are there statistically significant differences among the facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal?

The researcher conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) using each of the demographic variables and the two questions of intent to stay as the independent variables with each factor (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication) of the JSS used as the dependent variable to address research question two. The researcher also performed post hoc tests including Pillai's Trace, Wilks' Lambda, Hotelling's Trace, and Roy's Largest Root to better understand the findings. Due to the nature of this study, the statistic's consultant advised focusing on Pillai's Trace and Wilks' Lambda for statistically significant differences. Significance was measured at the 0.05 level. Results of the post hoc tests are shown in Table 12. According to these tests,

gender, tenure status, considered leaving, and leaving as a possibility revealed statistically significant results with facets of the JSS. As in Research Question 1, significance with ethnicity was disregarded for Research Question 2.

Table 12: *Post Hoc Results of Demographic Variables and JSS Facets*

Effect		Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.763	96.938[a]	9.000	271.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.237	96.938[a]	9.000	271.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	3.219	96.938[a]	9.000	271.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	3.219	96.938[a]	9.000	271.000	.000
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.085	2.812[a]	9.000	271.000	.004*
	Wilks' Lambda	.915	2.812[a]	9.000	271.000	.004*
	Hotelling's Trace	.093	2.812[a]	9.000	271.000	.004
	Roy's Largest Root	.093	2.812[a]	9.000	271.000	.004
Marital Status	Pillai's Trace	.035	1.082[a]	9.000	271.000	.376
	Wilks' Lambda	.965	1.082[a]	9.000	271.000	.376
	Hotelling's Trace	.036	1.082[a]	9.000	271.000	.376
	Roy's Largest Root	.036	1.082[a]	9.000	271.000	.376
Ethnicity	Pillai's Trace	.173	1.855	27.000	819.000	.005
	Wilks' Lambda	.836	1.856	27.000	792.102	.005
	Hotelling's Trace	.186	1.856	27.000	809.000	.005
	Roy's Largest Root	.103	3.129[b]	9.000	273.000	.001
Discipline Area	Pillai's Trace	.121	1.270	27.000	819.000	.163
	Wilks' Lambda	.884	1.268	27.000	792.102	.165
	Hotelling's Trace	.127	1.266	27.000	809.000	.166
	Roy's Largest Root	.060	1.832[b]	9.000	273.000	.063
Age	Pillai's Trace	.170	1.352	36.000	1096.000	.082
	Wilks' Lambda	.839	1.359	36.000	1017.300	.078
	Hotelling's Trace	.182	1.366	36.000	1078.000	.075
	Roy's Largest Root	.104	3.168[b]	9.000	274.000	.001
School Size	Pillai's Trace	.132	1.036	36.000	1096.000	.412
	Wilks' Lambda	.873	1.040	36.000	1017.300	.406
	Hotelling's Trace	.139	1.043	36.000	1078.000	.400
	Roy's Largest Root	.085	2.574[b]	9.000	274.000	.007
Tenure Status	Pillai's Trace	.069	2.242[a]	9.000	271.000	.020*
	Wilks' Lambda	.931	2.242[a]	9.000	271.000	.020*
	Hotelling's Trace	.074	2.242[a]	9.000	271.000	.020
	Roy's Largest Root	.074	2.242[a]	9.000	271.000	.020

Effect		Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.
Number of Years Under Current Principal	Pillai's Trace	.134	1.422	27.000	819.000	.077
	Wilks' Lambda	.871	1.423	27.000	792.102	.076
	Hotelling's Trace	.142	1.423	27.000	809.000	.076
	Roy's Largest Root	.073	2.219[b]	9.000	273.000	.021
Considered Leaving Teaching Profession	Pillai's Trace	.074	2.409[a]	9.000	271.000	.012*
	Wilks' Lambda	.926	2.409[a]	9.000	271.000	.012*
	Hotelling's Trace	.080	2.409[a]	9.000	271.000	.012
	Roy's Largest Root	.080	2.409[a]	9.000	271.000	.012
Would Leave If It Were A Possibility	Pillai's Trace	.127	4.385[a]	9.000	271.000	.000**
	Wilks' Lambda	.873	4.385[a]	9.000	271.000	.000**
	Hotelling's Trace	.146	4.385[a]	9.000	271.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.146	4.385[a]	9.000	271.000	.000

a. Exact statistic
b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.
c. Design: intercept + gender + marital status + ethnicity + discipline area + age + school size + tenure status + number of years under current principal + considered leaving + leaving possibility
*Significant at the 0.05 level
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Once the post hoc results revealed significant pairings did exist, the researcher performed the MANOVA across all the variables to find exactly which pairings accounted for the significance. Statistically significant differences were found among several pairs as shown in Table 13. When gender served as the independent variable, a statistically significant differences were found between gender and the facets of promotion ($F = 4.405$, $p = 0.037$), supervision ($F = 6.219$, $p = 0.013$), contingent rewards ($F = 6.693$, $p = 0.010$), operating procedures ($F = 8.338$, $p = 0.004$), co-workers ($F = 4.986$, $p = 0.026$), and communication ($F = 7.233$, $p = 0.008$). The MANOVA showed marital status as the independent variable resulted in a statistically significant difference with only the facet of promotion ($F = 5.997$, $p = 0.015$). This was disregarded, however, because the post hoc tests (shown in Table 12) did not show marital status as having statistically significant differences. While promotion ($F = 2.615$, $p = 0.051$) was very close, no statistically significant differences were found when using discipline area as the independent variable. Likewise, no statistically significant differences were found when using either age or school size as the independent variable. Tenure status as the independent variable led to two statistically significant differences. Tenure status had statistically significant differences with the facets of pay ($F = 5.584$, $p = 0.019$) and contingent rewards ($F = 11.015$, $p = 0.001$). While the MANOVA using number of years under the current principal as the independent variable, yielded statistically significant difference results with both contingent rewards ($F = 2.848$, $p = 0.038$) and operating procedures ($F = 3.527$, $p = 0.015$), this finding was again disregarded because the post hoc tests did not show number of years under the current principal as having statistically significant differences.

When using considered leaving the profession as the independent variable, several statistically significant differences were found. Statistically significant differences were found

between considered leaving and each dependent variable promotion ($F = 7.967$, $p = 0.005$), contingent rewards ($F = 7.538$, $p = 0.006$), operating procedures ($F = 6.782$, $p = 0.010$), nature of work ($F = 13.642$, $p = 0.000$), and communication ($F = 7.369$, $p = 0.007$). Using leaving as a possibility as the independent variable also led to statistically significant differences with pay ($F = 4.217$, $p = 0.041$), promotion ($F = 6.969$, $p = 0.009$), supervision ($F = 4.327$, $p = 0.038$), fringe benefits ($F = 5.020$, $p = 0.026$), contingent rewards ($F = 13.353$, $p = 0.000$), operating procedures ($F = 4.005$, $p = 0.046$), nature of work ($F = 25.685$, $p = 0.000$), and communication ($F = 7.432$, $p = 0.007$). The only dependent variable to not show statistically significant differences with leaving as a possibility was co-workers.

Table 13: *MANOVA Results with Demographic Variables and JSS Facets*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Corrected Model	Pay	10.693[a]	22	.486	1.224	.226
	Promotion	61.471[b]	22	2.794	3.643	.000
	Supervision	14.586[c]	22	.663	1.512	.069
	Fringe Benefits	45.751[d]	22	2.080	2.001	.006
	Contingent Rewards	101.315[e]	22	4.605	3.737	.000
	Operating Procedures	50.831[f]	22	2.311	3.016	.000
	Co-workers	28.143[g]	22	1.279	1.670	.032
	Nature of Work	50.602[h]	22	2.300	3.959	.000
	Communication	68.640[i]	22	3.120	2.836	.000
Intercept	Pay	50.605	1	50.605	127.458	.000
	Promotion	47.966	1	47.966	62.532	.000
	Supervision	136.566	1	136.566	311.357	.000
	Fringe Benefits	106.202	1	106.202	102.195	.000
	Contingent Rewards	71.724	1	71.724	58.208	.000
	Operating Procedures	39.607	1	39.607	51.694	.000
	Co-workers	156.124	1	156.124	203.817	.000
	Nature of Work	210.690	1	210.690	362.639	.000
	Communication	142.356	1	142.356	129.391	.000
Gender	Pay	.445	1	.445	1.120	.291
	Promotion	3.379	1	3.379	4.405	.037*
	Supervision	2.728	1	2.728	6.219	.013*
	Fringe	3.175	1	3.175	3.055	.082
	Contingent Rewards	8.247	1	8.247	6.693	.010*
	Operating Procedures	6.388	1	6.388	8.338	.004*
	Co-workers	3.819	1	3.819	4.986	.026*
	Nature of Work	.058	1	.058	.100	.752
	Communication	7.958	1	7.958	7.233	.008*
Marital Status	Pay	.073	1	.073	.183	.669
	Promotion	4.600	1	4.600	5.997	.015*
	Supervision	.396	1	.396	.903	.343
	Fringe Benefits	.050	1	.050	.048	.827
	Contingent Rewards	3.464	1	3.464	2.811	.095
	Operating Procedures	1.427	1	1.427	1.862	.173
	Co-workers	.531	1	.531	.693	.406
	Nature of Work	1.597	1	1.597	2.748	.099
	Communication	3.109	1	3.109	2.826	.094

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Ethnicity	Pay	1.004	3	.335	.843	.471
	Promotion	4.503	3	1.501	1.957	.121
	Supervision	1.471	3	.490	1.118	.342
	Fringe Benefits	9.164	3	3.055	2.939	.034*
	Contingent Rewards	1.548	3	.516	.419	.740
	Operating Procedures	4.330	3	1.443	1.884	.132
	Co-workers	2.649	3	.883	1.153	.328
	Nature of Work	5.023	3	1.674	2.882	.036*
	Communication	9.480	3	3.160	2.872	.037*
Discipline Area	Pay	1.165	3	.388	.978	.404
	Promotion	6.018	3	2.006	2.615	.051
	Supervision	1.416	3	.472	1.076	.360
	Fringe Benefits	4.157	3	1.386	1.333	.264
	Contingent Rewards	.613	3	.204	.166	.919
	Operating Rewards	3.180	3	1.060	1.384	.248
	Co-workers	.124	3	.041	.054	.983
	Nature of Work	2.510	3	.837	1.440	.231
	Communication	3.665	3	1.222	1.110	.345
Age	Pay	1.004	4	.251	.632	.640
	Promotion	4.927	4	1.232	1.606	.173
	Supervision	1.041	4	.260	.593	.668
	Fringe Benefits	6.074	4	1.518	1.461	.214
	Contingent Rewards	7.595	4	1.899	1.541	.190
	Operating Procedures	4.890	4	1.222	1.595	.176
	Co-workers	6.727	4	1.682	2.195	.070
	Nature of Work	1.127	4	.282	.485	.747
	Communication	7.500	4	1.875	1.704	.149
School Size	Pay	2.682	4	.670	1.689	.153
	Promotion	1.844	4	.461	.601	.662
	Supervision	.540	4	.135	.308	.873
	Fringe Benefits	.908	4	.227	.218	.928
	Contingent Rewards	7.139	4	1.785	1.448	.218
	Operating Procedures	1.804	4	.451	.589	.671
	Co-workers	3.118	4	.779	1.017	.399
	Nature of Work	1.496	4	.374	.644	.632
	Communication	2.428	4	.607	.552	.698

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Tenure Status	Pay	2.217	1	2.217	5.584	.019*
	Promotion	1.331	1	1.331	1.735	.189
	Supervision	1.155	1	1.155	2.634	.106
	Fringe Benefits	.648	1	.648	.623	.431
	Contingent Rewards	13.572	1	13.572	11.015	.001**
	Operating Procedures	1.591	1	1.591	2.077	.151
	Co-workers	1.609	1	1.609	2.101	.148
	Nature of Work	.296	1	.296	.509	.476
	Communication	1.317	1	1.317	1.197	.275
Number of Years Under Current Principal	Pay	.663	3	.221	.556	.644
	Promotion	5.251	3	1.750	2.282	.079
	Supervision	.759	3	.253	.577	.631
	Fringe Benefits	7.591	3	2.530	2.435	.065
	Contingent Rewards	10.526	3	3.509	2.848	.038*
	Operating Procedures	8.106	3	2.702	3.527	.015*
	Co-workers	3.305	3	1.102	1.438	.232
	Nature of Work	.157	3	.052	.090	.965
	Communication	8.045	3	2.682	2.437	.065
Considered Leaving Teaching Profession	Pay	.000	1	.000	.001	.975
	Promotion	6.111	1	6.111	7.967	.005**
	Supervision	.926	1	.926	2.111	.147
	Fringe Benefits	.179	1	.179	.173	.678
	Contingent Rewards	9.288	1	9.288	7.538	.006**
	Operating Procedures	5.196	1	5.196	6.782	.010**
	Co-workers	2.598	1	2.598	3.391	.067
	Nature of Work	7.926	1	7.926	13.642	.000**
	Communication	8.108	1	8.108	7.369	.007**
Would Leave If It Were A Possibility	Pay	1.674	1	1.674	4.217	.041*
	Promotion	5.345	1	5.345	6.969	.009**
	Supervision	1.898	1	1.898	4.327	.038*
	Fringe Benefits	5.217	1	5.217	5.020	.026*
	Contingent Rewards	16.453	1	16.453	13.353	.000**
	Operating Procedures	3.068	1	3.068	4.005	.046*
	Co-workers	.816	1	.816	1.065	.303
	Nature of Work	14.923	1	14.923	25.685	.000**
	Communication	8.177	1	8.177	7.432	.007**

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Error	Pay	110.773	279	.397		
	Promotion	214.010	279	.767		
	Supervision	122.374	279	.439		
	Fringe Benefits	289.938	279	1.039		
	Contingent Rewards	343.784	279	1.232		
	Operating Procedures	213.763	279	.766		
	Co-workers	213.714	279	.766		
	Nature of Work	162.097	279	.581		
	Communication	306.956	279	1.100		
Total	Pay	2567.625	302			
	Promotion	2914.563	302			
	Supervision	5748.063	302			
	Fringe Benefits	3982.875	302			
	Contingent Rewards	3844.688	302			
	Operating Procedures	2855.125	302			
	Co-workers	6937.500	302			
	Nature of Work	7539.375	302			
	Communication	4583.188	302			
Corrected Total	Pay	121.465	301			
	Promotion	275.481	301			
	Supervision	136.960	301			
	Fringe Benefits	335.689	301			
	Contingent Rewards	445.100	301			
	Operating Procedures	264.594	301			
	Co-workers	241.858	301			
	Nature of Work	212.699	301			
	Communication	375.596	301			

a. *R* Squared = .088 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .016)
b. *R* Squared = .223 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .162)
c. *R* Squared = .106 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .036)
d. *R* Squared = .136 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .068)
e. *R* Squared = .228 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .167)
f. *R* Squared = .192 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .128)
g. *R* Squared = .116 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .047)
h. *R* Squared = .238 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .178)
i. *R* Squared = .183 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .118)
*Significant at the 0.05 level
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Related Null Hypothesis H_o2: There are no statistically significant differences among the facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline.

Results of this study led to Null Hypothesis 2 (H_o2) being rejected. Multiple statistically significant differences were found when examining pairings between individual facets of the JSS and individual demographic variables. The researcher has presented significant findings regarding H_o2. When using overall job satisfaction, a statistically significant difference was found with the demographic variables of gender, marital status, tenure, and years under the current principal. Statistically significant differences were also found between overall job satisfaction and each of the two questions of considering leaving the profession and leaving as a possibility.

Many more statistically significant differences were found when examining pairings between individual facets of the JSS and individual demographic variables. When gender served as the independent variable, statistically significant differences were found between gender and the facets of promotion, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, and communication. In contrast, using marital status as the independent variable resulted in a statistically significant difference with only the facet of promotion. While promotion was very close (0.051), no statistically significant difference was found when using discipline area as the independent variable. Likewise, no statistically significant difference was found when using either age or school size as the independent variable. Tenure status as the independent variable led to two statistically significant differences. Tenure status had a statistically significant difference with pay and contingent rewards. Using number of years under the current principal as

the independent variable yielded statistically significant differences with both contingent rewards and operating procedures.

Like gender, when using considered leaving as the independent variable, several statistically significant differences were found. Statistically significant differences were found between considered leaving and each dependent variable promotion, contingent rewards, operating procedures, nature of work, and communication. Leaving as a possibility used as the independent variable led to statistically significant differences with pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, nature of work, and communication. The only dependent variable to not show a statistically significant difference with leaving as a possibility was co-workers.

Research Question 3: Are there statistically significant differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline?

The researcher conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) using each of the demographic variables and the two questions of intent to stay as the independent variables with each leadership scale (organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure) of the SSLSSQ used as the dependent variable to address Research Question 3. Post hoc tests performed included Pillai's Trace, Wilks' Lambda, Hotelling's Trace, and Roy's Largest Root with a focus on Pillai's Trace and Wilks' Lambda for significance as advised by the statistic's counsultant due to the nature of this study. Significance was measured at the 0.05 level. Shown in Table 14, the post hoc tests revealed gender, age,

school size, number of years under current principal, considered leaving, and leaving as a possibility had significant results with the chosen leadership scales of the SSLSSQ.

Table 14: *Post Hoc Results of Demographic Variables and Leadership Scales*

Effect		Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.758	171.811[a]	5.000	275.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.242	171.811[a]	5.000	275.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	3.124	171.811[a]	5.000	275.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	3.124	171.811[a]	5.000	275.000	.000
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.049	2.851[a]	5.000	275.000	.016*
	Wilks' Lambda	.951	2.851[a]	5.000	275.000	.016*
	Hotelling's Trace	.052	2.851[a]	5.000	275.000	.016
	Roy's Largest Root	.052	2.851[a]	5.000	275.000	.016
Marital Status	Pillai's Trace	.016	.877[a]	5.000	275.000	.497
	Wilks' Lambda	.984	.877[a]	5.000	275.000	.497
	Hotelling's Trace	.016	.877[a]	5.000	275.000	.497
	Roy's Largest Root	.016	.877[a]	5.000	275.000	.497
Ethnicity	Pillai's Trace	.083	1.572	15.000	831.000	.075
	Wilks' Lambda	.919	1.567	15.000	759.555	.077
	Hotelling's Trace	.085	1.559	15.000	821.000	.079
	Roy's Largest Root	.040	2.214[b]	5.000	277.000	.053
Discipline Area	Pillai's Trace	.055	1.033	15.000	831.000	.418
	Wilks' Lambda	.946	1.032	15.000	759.555	.420
	Hotelling's Trace	.056	1.030	15.000	821.000	.421
	Roy's Largest Root	.038	2.083[b]	5.000	277.000	.068
Age	Pillai's Trace	.190	2.767	20.000	1112.000	.000**
	Wilks' Lambda	.822	2.785	20.000	913.022	.000**
	Hotelling's Trace	.204	2.784	20.000	1094.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.102	5.660[b]	5.000	278.000	.000
School Size	Pillai's Trace	.147	2.120	20.000	1112.000	.003**
	Wilks' Lambda	.858	2.149	20.000	913.022	.002**
	Hotelling's Trace	.159	2.169	20.000	1094.000	.002
	Roy's Largest Root	.107	5.940[b]	5.000	278.000	.000
Tenure Status	Pillai's Trace	.027	1.519[a]	5.000	275.000	.184
	Wilks' Lambda	.973	1.519[a]	5.000	275.000	.184
	Hotelling's Trace	.028	1.519[a]	5.000	275.000	.184
	Roy's Largest Root	.028	1.519[a]	5.000	275.000	.184

Effect		Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.
Number of Years Under Current Principal	Pillai's Trace	.091	1.727	15.000	831.000	.041*
	Wilks' Lambda	.911	1.737	15.000	759.555	.040*
	Hotelling's Trace	.096	1.744	15.000	821.000	.038
	Roy's Largest Root	.067	3.720[b]	5.000	277.000	.003
Considered Leaving Teaching Profession	Pillai's Trace	.064	3.741[a]	5.000	275.000	.003**
	Wilks' Lambda	.936	3.741[a]	5.000	275.000	.003**
	Hotelling's Trace	.068	3.741[a]	5.000	275.000	.003
	Roy's Largest Root	.068	3.741[a]	5.000	275.000	.003
Would Leave If It Were A Possibility	Pillai's Trace	.050	2.894[a]	5.000	275.000	.015*
	Wilks' Lambda	.950	2.894[a]	5.000	275.000	.015*
	Hotelling's Trace	.053	2.894[a]	5.000	275.000	.015
	Roy's Largest Root	.053	2.894[a]	5.000	275.000	.015

a. Exact statistic
b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.
c. Design: intercept + gender + marital status + ethnicity + discipline area + age + school size + tenure status + number of years under current principal + considered leaving + leaving possibility
*Significant at the 0.05 level
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Once the post hoc results revealed significant pairings did exist, the researcher performed the MANOVA across all the variables to find exactly which pairings accounted for the significance. Statistically significant differences were found among several pairs as shown in Table 15. When gender served as the independent variable, a statistically significant difference was found only with the leadership scale of trust and support ($F = 14.132$, $p = 0.000$). When age served as the independent variable, a statistically significant difference was found with only the leadership scale of efficacy ($F = 6.328$, $p = 0.000$). A statistically significant difference was also found between school size and organizational climate ($F = 3.787$, $p = 0.005$). The demographic variable number of years under current principal revealed a statistically significant difference with both organizational climate ($F = 4.701$, $p = 0.003$) and professional learning community ($F = 3.898$, $p = 0.009$). The MANOVA showed a statistically significant difference between tenure status and organizational climate. However, this was disregarded because the post hoc tests revealed no statistically significant difference with tenure status. No statistically significant difference was found when using marital status or discipline area as the independent variables.

When using considered leaving the profession as the independent variable, several statistically significant differences were found. A statistically significant difference was found between considered leaving and each dependent variable organizational climate ($F = 8.518$, $p = 0.004$), efficacy ($F = 6.773$, $p = 0.010$), trust and support ($F = 4.931$, $p = 0.027$), and professional learning community ($F = 8.355$, $p = 0.010$). Using leaving as a possibility as the independent variable led to a statistically significant difference with the leadership scale trust and support ($F = 13.334$, $p = 0.000$) and the leadership scale professional learning community ($F = 6.398$, $p = 0.012$).

Table 15: *MANOVA Results with Demographic Variables and Leadership Scales*

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Corrected Model	Organizational Climate	15.286[a]	22	.695	2.728	.000
	Efficacy	5.330[b]	22	.242	2.611	.000
	Trust and Support	40.971[c]	22	1.862	3.604	.000
	Professional Learning Community	16.709[d]	22	.759	3.481	.000
	Academic Pressure	10.040[e]	22	.456	1.338	.145
Intercept	Organizational Climate	71.163	1	71.163	279.372	.000
	Efficacy	54.875	1	54.875	591.514	.000
	Trust and Support	59.389	1	59.389	114.919	.000
	Professional Learning Community	53.310	1	53.310	244.348	.000
	Academic Pressure	68.853	1	68.853	201.931	.000
Gender	Organizational Climate	.503	1	.503	1.975	.161
	Efficacy	.121	1	.121	1.300	.255
	Trust and Support	7.303	1	7.303	14.132	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	.778	1	.778	3.566	.060
	Academic Pressure	.284	1	.284	.832	.362
Marital Status	Organizational Climate	.196	1	.196	.769	.381
	Efficacy	.019	1	.019	.207	.650
	Trust and Support	1.747	1	1.747	3.381	.067
	Professional Learning Community	.341	1	.341	1.562	.212
	Academic Pressure	.665	1	.665	1.951	.164
Ethnicity	Organizational Climate	1.836	3	.612	2.403	.068
	Efficacy	.720	3	.240	2.587	.053
	Trust and Support	3.794	3	1.265	2.447	.064
	Professional Learning Community	.911	3	.304	1.392	.245
	Academic Pressure	1.200	3	.400	1.173	.320
Discipline Area	Organizational Climate	.735	3	.245	.962	.411
	Efficacy	.186	3	.062	.667	.573
	Trust and Support	.934	3	.311	.602	.614
	Professional Learning Community	.693	3	.231	1.058	.367
	Academic Pressure	2.295	3	.765	2.243	.083
Age	Organizational Climate	1.163	4	.291	1.141	.337
	Efficacy	2.348	4	.587	6.328	.000**
	Trust and Support	3.502	4	.875	1.694	.151
	Professional Learning Community	1.721	4	.430	1.972	.099
	Academic Pressure	1.238	4	.309	.908	.460

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
School Size	Organizational Climate	3.858	4	.965	3.787	.005**
	Efficacy	.121	4	.030	.325	.861
	Trust and Support	1.235	4	.309	.597	.665
	Professional Learning Community	1.639	4	.410	1.878	.114
	Academic Pressure	1.290	4	.323	.946	.438
Tenure Status	Organizational Climate	1.322	1	1.322	5.191	.023
	Efficacy	.000	1	.000	.002	.969
	Trust and Support	1.906	1	1.906	3.688	.056
	Professional Learning Community	.731	1	.731	3.351	.068
	Academic Pressure	.222	1	.222	.652	.420
Number of Years Under Current Principal	Organizational Climate	3.592	3	1.197	4.701	.003**
	Efficacy	.632	3	.211	2.272	.080
	Trust and Support	1.622	3	.541	1.046	.372
	Professional Learning Community	2.551	3	.850	3.898	.009**
	Academic Pressure	1.104	3	.368	1.079	.358
Considered Leaving Teaching Profession	Organizational Climate	2.170	1	2.170	8.518	.004**
	Efficacy	.628	1	.628	6.773	.010*
	Trust and Support	2.548	1	2.548	4.931	.027*
	Professional Learning Community	1.823	1	1.823	8.355	.004**
	Academic Pressure	.196	1	.196	.575	.449
Would Leave If It Were A Possibility	Organizational Climate	.680	1	.680	2.669	.103
	Efficacy	.014	1	.014	.151	.698
	Trust and Support	6.891	1	6.891	13.334	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	1.396	1	1.396	6.398	.012*
	Academic Pressure	.431	1	.431	1.265	.262
Error	Organizational Climate	71.068	279	.255		
	Efficacy	25.883	279	.093		
	Trust and Support	144.184	279	.517		
	Professional Learning Community	60.870	279	.218		
	Academic Pressure	95.131	279	.341		
Total	Organizational Climate	2329.710	302			
	Efficacy	2288.061	302			
	Trust and Support	2684.250	302			
	Professional Learning Community	2426.000	302			
	Academic Pressure	2684.000	302			

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Corrected Total	Organizational Climate	86.354	301			
	Efficacy	31.213	301			
	Trust and Support	185.155	301			
	Professional Learning Community	77.579	301			
	Academic Pressure	105.171	301			

a. *R* Squared = .177 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .112)
b. *R* Squared = .171 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .105)
c. *R* Squared = .221 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .160)
d. *R* Squared = .215 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .154)
e. *R* Squared = .095 (Adjusted *R* Squared = .024)
*Significant at the 0.05 level
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Related Null Hypothesis H_o3: There are no statistically significant differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline.

Results of this study led to Null Hypothesis 3 (H_o3) being rejected. Multiple significant differences were found when examining pairings between each of the leadership scales and the individual demographic variables. A statistically significant difference with age was found with efficacy. A statistically significant difference was found between gender and trust and support. A statistically significant difference was also found between school size and organizational climate. The demographic variable number of years under current principal had a statistically significant difference with both organizational climate and professional learning community.

When using considered leaving the profession as the independent variable, several significances were found. A statistically significant difference was found between considered leaving and all leadership scales except academic pressure. Using leaving as a possibility as the independent variable resulted in a statistically significant difference with each of the leadership scales trust and support and professional learning community.

Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire?

The researcher performed dozens of regression analyses to determine significant relationships involving the overall composite of the chosen leadership scales as well as the individual leadership scales of organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional

learning communities, and academic pressures. The first regression analysis examined the relationship between the overall composite of the chosen scales and the overall job satisfaction. Significance was determined at the 0.05 level. Table 16 shows the regression results when using overall leadership composite with overall job satisfaction. The adjusted $r^2 = 0.542$. Shown in Table 17, a statistically significant relationship ($F = 357.136$, $p = 0.000$) resulted between overall satisfaction and the overall leadership composite when an ANOVA was performed and when regression analysis was conducted, as shown in Table 18.

Table 16: *Regression Results of Overall Leadership Composite and Overall Satisfaction*

Model	*R*	*R* Square	Adjusted *R* Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.737[a]	.543	.542	.38869

a. Predictors: (Constant), overall leadership

Table 17: *ANOVA Results of Overall Leadership Composite and Overall Satisfaction*

Model		Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
1	Regression	53.955	1	53.955	357.136	.000[a]
	Residual	45.323	300	.151		
	Total	99.279	301			

a. Predictors: (Constant), overall leadership
b. Dependent Variable: overall satisfaction

Table 18: *Relationship Between Overall Leadership Composite and Overall Job Satisfaction*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	*T*	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.741	.158		4.699	.000
	Overall leadership	1.056	.056	.737	18.898	.000

a. Dependent Variable: overall satisfaction

Related Null Hypothesis H_o4: There is no statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire.

Results of this study led to Null Hypothesis 4 (H_o4) being rejected. A statistically significant relationship existed between overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales.

Research Question 5: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire?

Regression analysis next examined the relationship between each leadership scale and overall job satisfaction. Significance was determined at the 0.05 level. Table 19 shows the results when using the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers as the predictors of overall job satisfaction. The adjusted r^2 was 0.575. A statistically significant relationship (F = 82.399, p = 0.000) resulted between overall satisfaction and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers when an ANOVA was performed as shown in Table 20. A closer look at the regression

revealed statistically significant relationship between three of the five leadership scales and overall job satisfaction as shown in Table 21. A statistically significant relationship occurred between the each of the three leadership scales of organizational climate, trust and support, and professional learning community and overall job satisfaction. A statistically significant relationship did not occur between the scale of efficacy or the scale of academic pressure with overall job satisfaction.

Table 19: *Regression Results of Leadership Scales and Overall Satisfaction*

Model	*R*	*R* Square	Adjusted *R* Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.763[a]	.582	.575	.37447

a. Predictors: (Constant), academic pressure, efficacy, organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community

Table 20: *ANOVA Results of Leadership Scales and Overall Satisfaction*

Model		Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
1	Regression	57.772	5	11.554	82.399	.000[a]**
	Residual	41.507	296	.140		
	Total	99.279	301			

a. Predictors: (Constant), academic pressure, efficacy, organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community
b. Dependent Variable: overall satisfaction
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Table 21: *Relationship Between Each Leadership Scale and Overall Job Satisfaction*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.415	.211		6.707	.000
	Organizational Climate	.148	.046	.138	3.197	.002**
	Efficacy	-.089	.073	-.050	-1.214	.226
	Trust and Support	.329	.035	.449	9.507	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	.346	.063	.306	5.449	.000**
	Academic Pressure	.071	.046	.073	1.546	.123

a. Dependent Variable: overall satisfaction
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Related Null Hypothesis H_o5: There is no statistically significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire.

Results of this study led to Null Hypothesis 5 (H_o5) being rejected. Statistically significant relationships existed between overall job satisfaction and three of the leadership scales. A statistically significant relationship existed between overall job satisfaction and the leadership scales organizational climate, trust and support, and professional learning community.

Research Question 6: Are there statistically significant relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales, as perceived by the teachers and measured by the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire?

The final series of regression analyses was performed to examine the relationships between each leadership scale and each facet of the JSS. In all pairings, significance was determined at the 0.05 level. Analysis began with examining regressions between the leadership scales as perceived by the teacher and each of the facets of the JSS, shown in Table 22. ANOVA

results, shown in Table 23, between the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and each of the facets of the JSS were then studied. Finally, specific relationships between each of the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and each facet of the JSS were assessed as shown in Table 24.

Table 22: *Regression Results of Leadership Scales and JSS Facets*

Facet	*R*	*R* Square	Adjusted *R* Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Pay				
Promotion	.454[a]	.207	.193	.85933
Supervision	.619[a]	.383	.373	.53423
Fringe Benefits	.245[a]	.060	.044	1.03260
Contingent Rewards	.682[a]	.465	.456	.89687
Operating Procedures	.393[a]	.154	.140	.86945
Co-workers	.661[a]	.437	.428	.67814
Nature of Work	.472[a]	.222	.209	.74749
Communication	.742[a]	.550	.543	.75547

a. Predictors: (Constant), academic pressure, efficacy, organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community

Table 23: *ANOVA Results of Leadership Scales and JSS Facets*

Facet		Sum of Squares	*df*	$\bar{x}$ Square	*F*	Sig.
Pay	Regression	2.027	5	.405	1.005	.415[a]
	Residual	119.438	296	.404		
	Total	121.465	301			
Promotion	Regression	56.898	5	11.380	15.410	.000[a]**
	Residual	218.583	296	.738		
	Total	275.481	301			
Supervision	Regression	52.480	5	10.496	36.776	.000[a]**
	Residual	84.480	296	.285		
	Total	136.960	301			
Fringe Benefits	Regression	20.072	5	4.014	3.765	.003[a]**
	Residual	315.617	296	1.066		
	Total	335.689	301			
Contingent Rewards	Regression	207.003	5	41.401	51.469	.000[a]**
	Residual	238.097	296	.804		
	Total	445.100	301			
Operating Procedures	Regression	40.837	5	8.167	10.804	.000[a]**
	Residual	223.758	296	.756		
	Total	264.594	301			
Co-Workers	Regression	105.733	5	21.147	45.983	.000[a]**
	Residual	136.124	296	.460		
	Total	241.858	301			
Nature of Work	Regression	47.312	5	9.462	16.935	.000[a]**
	Residual	165.386	296	.559		
	Total	212.699	301			
Communication	Regression	206.657	5	41.331	72.417	.000[a]**
	Residual	168.940	296	.571		
	Total	375.596	301			

a. Predictors: (Constant), academic pressure, efficacy, organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community
b. Dependent Variable: promotion
**Significant at the 0.01 level

Table 24: *Relationship Between Leadership Scales and JSS Facets*

Facet		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.
Pay	(Constant)	2.895	.358		8.088	.000
	Organization Climate	.093	.079	.078	1.182	.238
	Efficacy	-.062	.124	-.032	-.505	.614
	Trust and Support	-.050	.059	-.061	-.845	.399
	Professional Learning Community	.137	.108	.109	1.270	.205
	Academic Pressure	-.127	.078	-.118	-1.632	.104
Promotion	(Constant)	1.559	.484		3.219	.001
	Organization Climate	-.049	.106	-.027	-.459	.647
	Efficacy	-.359	.167	-.121	-2.145	.033*
	Trust and Support	.334	.079	.274	4.212	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	.513	.146	.272	3.521	.000**
	Academic Pressure	.042	.105	.026	.396	.692
Supervision	(Constant)	2.852	.301		9.474	.000
	Organization Climate	.023	.066	.019	.353	.724
	Efficacy	-.055	.104	-.026	-.529	.597
	Trust and Support	.545	.049	.634	11.053	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	-.063	.091	-.047	-.691	.490
	Academic Pressure	.052	.065	.045	.794	.428
Fringe Benefits	(Constant)	1.592	.582		2.736	.007
	Organization Climate	.233	.128	.118	1.822	.069
	Efficacy	.112	.201	.034	.559	.577
	Trust and Support	.044	.095	.033	.460	.646
	Professional Learning Community	.213	.175	.103	1.220	.224
	Academic Pressure	.075	.126	.042	.598	.550

Facet		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.
Contingent Rewards	(Constant)	-.121	.505		-.239	.811
	Organization Climate	.161	.111	.071	1.452	.147
	Efficacy	-.349	.175	-.092	-1.995	.047*
	Trust and Support	.758	.083	.489	9.155	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	.618	.152	.258	4.068	.000**
	Academic Pressure	.029	.110	.014	.266	.790
Operating Procedures	(Constant)	.795	.490		1.622	.106
	Organization Climate	.319	.108	.182	2.967	.003**
	Efficacy	.008	.169	.003	.048	.962
	Trust and Support	.292	.080	.244	3.633	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	.034	.147	.019	.233	.816
	Academic Pressure	.105	.106	.066	.992	.322
Co-Workers	(Constant)	2.097	.382		5.487	.000
	Organization Climate	.100	.084	.060	1.192	.234
	Efficacy	-.391	.132	-.141	-2.961	.003**
	Trust and Support	.152	.063	.133	2.422	.016*
	Professional Learning Community	.943	.115	.534	8.203	.000**
	Academic Pressure	.118	.083	.078	1.422	.156
Nature of Work	(Constant)	2.406	.421		5.712	.000
	Organization Climate	.142	.092	.090	1.531	.127
	Efficacy	.064	.146	.025	.443	.658
	Trust and Support	.200	.069	.186	2.892	.004**
	Professional Learning Community	.373	.127	.225	2.942	.004**
	Academic Pressure	.118	.091	.083	1.289	.199

Facet		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.
Communication	(Constant)	-1.338	.426		-3.142	.002
	Organization Climate	.311	.093	.149	3.328	.001**
	Efficacy	.235	.147	.068	1.593	.112
	Trust and Support	.684	.070	.480	9.800	.000**
	Professional Learning Community	.344	.128	.156	2.686	.008**
	Academic Pressure	.224	.092	.119	2.433	.016*

a. Dependent Variables: facets
*Significant at the 0.05 level
**Significant at the 0.01 level

The first regression analysis examined the relationship between each leadership scale and the job satisfaction facet of pay. No statistically significant relationship was found with this pairing. This was followed by examining the regression between the leadership scales and promotion. In this case, a statistically significant relationship was found. Table 22 shows the results including the adjusted r^2 of 0.193. A strong statistically significant relationship (F = 15.410, p = 0.000) between promotion and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. As shown in Table 24, a statistically significant relationship was found between three of the leadership scales and promotion. A statistically significant relationship appeared between the scale of efficacy and promotion, between the scale of trust and support and promotion, and between the scale of professional learning community and promotion. The next facet to show a statistically significant relationship when analyzed with the leadership scales was supervision. Table 22 shows the adjusted r^2 = 0.373 in this case. Strong statistically significant relationships (F = 36.776, p = 0.000) between supervision and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. As shown in Table 24, only one leadership scale revealed a statistically significant relationship involving supervision. A statistically significant relationship appeared between the scale of trust and support and the facet of supervision.

Unlike the other facets, the analysis between the leadership scales and fringe benefits seemed inconsistent. Inconsistencies are shown in Table 22, Table 23, and Table 24. While small, Table 22 shows the adjusted r^2 = 0.044 between leadership scales and fringe benefits. A statistically significant relationship (F = 3.765, p = 0.003) between fringe benefits and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. Closer examination (shown in Table 24), however, between leadership scales and fringe benefits

revealed no significant pairings. More research needs to be done in this area to explain the inconsistency.

Statistically significant relationships resulted in pairing the leadership scales with contingent rewards. The adjusted $r^2 = 0.456$, shown in Table 22. Strong statistically significant relationships ($F = 51.469$, $p = 0.000$) between contingent rewards and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. As shown in Table 24, examining each leadership scale paired with contingent rewards did yield statistically significant relationships in multiple cases. Statistically significant relationships were found between the leadership scales of efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community and the facet contingent rewards.

Statistically significant relationships resulted in pairing the leadership scales with operating procedures. The adjusted $r^2 = 0.140$, shown in Table 22. Strong statistically significant relationships ($F = 10.804$, $p = 0.000$) between operating procedures and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. As shown in Table 24, examining each leadership scale and operating procedures yielded two statistically significant relationships. The first was between the scale of organizational climate and facet of operating procedures. The second was between the scale of trust and support and facet of operating procedures.

Statistically significant relationships resulted in pairing the leadership scales with co-workers. The adjusted $r^2 = 0.428$, shown in Table 22. Strong statistically significant relationships ($F = 45.983$, $p = 0.000$) between co-workers and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. Table 24 shows the results of pairing each leadership scale with the facet of co-workers. Three statistically significant relationships resulted. There were

statistically significant relationships between the leadership scales of efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community and the facet co-workers.

Statistically significant relationships resulted in pairing the leadership scales with nature of work. The adjusted $r^2 = 0.209$, shown in Table 22. Strong statistically significant relationships ($F = 16.935$, $p = 0.000$) between nature of work and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. As shown in Table 24, examining each leadership scale and the facet nature of work yielded two statistically significant relationships. The first was between the scale of trust and support and facet nature of work. The second was between the scale of professional learning community and facet nature of work.

Statistically significant relationships resulted in pairing the leadership scales with communication. The adjusted $r^2 = 0.543$, shown in Table 22. Strong statistically significant relationships ($F = 72.417$, $p = 0.000$) between communication and the leadership scales resulted when an ANOVA was performed, shown in Table 23. As shown in Table 24, four of the five leadership scales showed statistically significant relationships with the facet communication. These were organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure. The only scale that did not yield a statistically significant relationship was efficacy.

Related Null Hypothesis H_o6: There are no statistically significant relationships among the facets of the JSS and the scales of the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire.

Results of this study led to Null Hypothesis 6 (H_o6) being rejected. Statistically significant relationships existed between seven of the nine facets of the JSS and at least one of the leadership scales. There were only two facets of the JSS (pay and fringe benefits) to reveal no statistically significant relationships with any of the five leadership scales. The JSS facet of

promotion had a statistically significant relationship with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. The JSS facet of supervision had a statistically significant relationship with only trust and support. The JSS facet of contingent rewards had a statistically significant relationship with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. The JSS facet of operating procedures had a statistically significant relationship with both organizational climate and trust and support. The JSS facet of co-workers had a statistically significant relationship with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. The JSS facet of nature of work had a statistically significant relationship with both trust and support and professional learning community. The final JSS facet to reveal significant relationships was communication. Communication had a statistically significant relationship with organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure. Pay and fringe benefits were the only two facets to have no significant relationships with any of the five leadership scales.

Summary of Findings by Research Questions and Hypotheses

This descriptive study explored the connections between job satisfaction and perceived leadership behaviors. Participants included 302 teachers from public secondary schools in Central and East Tennessee. Instruments used were the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a researcher-created demographics questionnaire. The JSS measured overall job satisfaction and 9 individual facets. The SSLSSQ measured 5 chosen leadership scales (organizational climate, efficacy, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure). The teachers' demographics variables were gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under

current principal. Participants completed all three parts online. Analyses included descriptive statistics, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, and regression analysis. Six null hypotheses were tested and all rejected. Statistically significant differences were found between overall job satisfaction and the demographic variables of gender, marital status, tenure, and years under the current principal. Pairings of each of the facets of the JSS and individual demographic variables yielded statistically significant differences among multiple pairings. Statistically significant differences existed between gender and promotion, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, and communication. There were statistically significant differences between tenure status and the facets of pay and contingent rewards. Examination between the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and demographic variables yielded statistically significant differences between gender and trust and support, between age and efficacy, between school size and organizational climate, and number of years under current principal was significant with both organizational climate and professional learning community. A statistically significant relationship existed between overall job satisfaction and overall composite score of the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Examination between the overall job satisfaction and several of the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers yielded statistically significant relationships. Statistically significant relationships resulted between organizational climate, trust and support, and professional learning community with overall job satisfaction. Statistically significant relationships existed among multiple pairings of facets of the JSS and leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Examining promotion resulted in statistically significant relationships were found with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. Only one leadership scale revealed a statistically significant relationship involving supervision—trust and support. Contingent rewards had statistically significant relationships with efficacy,

trust and support, and professional learning communities. Statistically significant relationships occurred between operating procedures and the scales organizational climate and trust and support. Examination of pairings involving co-workers yielded statistically significant relationships with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. Trust and support and professional learning community both had a statistically significant relationship with nature of work. Four of the five leadership scales—organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure—resulted in statistically significant relationships with communication. Statistically significant results were found with the leadership scale trust and support more than any of the other leadership scales.

Summary of the Findings and Results Chapter

In Chapter 4, the researcher offered the analysis of the data for the six research questions and their hypotheses regarding leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and job satisfaction in public secondary schools in Central and East Tennessee in this chapter. Statistical analyses displayed perceptions of teachers' behaviors and principal behaviors at the participants' respective schools through utilization of the JSS and the SSLSSQ.

This chapter included the response rate achieved by the study, a profile of the sample, and analytical findings to the research questions. Tables were displayed when necessary to clarify summary in the text or when more efficient in presenting findings. Results were reported first by simple descriptive analyses according to instrument and then by correlational analyses among factors measured.

Simple descriptive statistics were used to analyze and describe the participants. The quest to find significant differences began with an ANOVA between the independent demographic variables and the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction**.** To address the research questions

and hypotheses, the researcher began by conducting and reporting the results of two multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs). The first was between the demographic variables including the intent to stay questions with each facet of the JSS. The second was between the demographic variables including the intent to stay questions with each of the leadership scales. A Bonferroni adjustment was used and significance was determined at the 0.05 level.

Finally, the researcher performed multiple regressions to determine significant relationships. The first regression examined the relationship between the overall composite of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and the overall job satisfaction. The second series of regressions examined the relationship between each leadership scale and overall job satisfaction. The final series of regressions examined the relationship between each leadership scale and each facet of the JSS. Again, significance was determined at the 0.05 level.

The analyses resulted in significant relationships found among dozens of pairings. Each research question was addressed with at least one significance found for each. This resulted in all six null hypotheses being rejected.

In Chapter 5, the researcher will present the conclusions, recommendations, and implications resulting from this study.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore the differences and relationships resulting from analysis of data received using the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a demographic questionnaire administered to Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the SSLSSQ and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers.

In Chapter 4, the researcher offered the analysis of the data for the six research questions and their hypotheses regarding perceived principal behaviors and job satisfaction in public secondary schools in Central and East Tennessee. Statistical analyses displayed perceptions of

teachers' behaviors and principal behaviors at the participants' respective schools through utilization of the JSS and the SSLSSQ. The chapter included the response rate achieved by the study, a profile of the sample, and analytical findings to the research questions.

In Chapter 5, the researcher presented conclusions, recommendations, and implications resulting from the analyses.

Major Findings

Teachers are leaving the field of education at alarming rates. Multiple studies reported between ten and fifty percent of teachers leave classrooms every year (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Henke & Zahn, 2001; Keigher 2010; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006; Norton, 1999). When the teachers leave the classroom, administrators are left with the burden of finding competent replacements. The reasons teachers leave the profession vary. However, one of the main causes of these unexpected voids is teachers leaving the profession due to lack of job satisfaction or lack of administrative support (Angelle, 2002; Littrell, 1994; Schlichte, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005). Teacher attrition is costing Tennessee millions of dollars every year (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005). This brings into question how the behaviors of the principal contribute to teacher attrition. Research examining the behavior of high school principals in terms of teacher job satisfaction is needed for a greater understanding of the issue of teacher attrition. This study will lay a foundation for understanding how principal behaviors may be a component in teachers' decisions to leave the profession.

This descriptive study explored the connections between job satisfaction and perceived leadership behaviors. Analyses included descriptive statistics, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, and regression analysis. Six null hypotheses were tested and all rejected. Statistically significant differences were found between overall job satisfaction and the teachers' demographic variables

of gender, marital status, tenure, and years under the current principal. Pairings of each of the facets of the JSS and individual demographic variables yielded statistically significant differences among multiple pairings. Statistically significant differences existed between gender and promotion, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, and communication. There were statistically significant differences between tenure status and the facets of pay and contingent rewards. Examination between the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers and demographic variables yielded statistically significant differences between gender and trust and support, between age and efficacy, between school size and organizational climate, and number of years under current principal was significant with both organizational climate and professional learning community. A statistically significant relationship existed between overall job satisfaction and overall composite score of the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Examination between the overall job satisfaction and several of the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers yielded statistically significant relationships. Statistically significant relationships resulted between organizational climate, trust and support, and professional learning community with overall job satisfaction. Statistically significant relationships existed among multiple pairings of facets of the JSS and leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Examining promotion resulted in statistically significant relationships were found with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. Only one leadership scale revealed a statistically significant relationship involving supervision—trust and support. Contingent rewards had statistically significant relationships with efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning communities. Statistically significant relationships occurred between operating procedures and the scales organizational climate and trust and support. Examination of pairings involving co-workers yielded statistically significant relationships with

efficacy, trust and support, and professional learning community. Trust and support and professional learning community both had a statistically significant relationship with nature of work. Four of the five leadership scales—organizational climate, trust and support, professional learning community, and academic pressure—resulted in statistically significant relationships with communication. Statistically significant results were found with the leadership scale trust and support more than any of the other leadership scales.

Findings Unique to this Study

Under the suggestion of one of the committee members, the researcher added two intent-to-stay questions to the demographics questionnaire. When asked if they had considered leaving the teaching profession, 63.9% of participants responded "yes". When asked if they would leave the profession if it were possible, 39.1% of participants responded "yes". These findings are consistent with the multiple studies that reported between ten and fifty percent of teachers leave classrooms every year (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Henke & Zahn, 2001; Keigher 2010; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006; Norton, 1999). Furthermore, statistically significant differences were found with overall job satisfaction and the question of considering leaving the profession ($F = 13.147$, $p = 0.000$) as well as overall job satisfaction and the question of leaving as a possibility ($F = 20.746$, $p = 0.000$).

Closer examination of demographic variables led to statistically significant differences as well. Statistically significant differences were found between considered leaving and each dependent variable promotion ($F = 7.967$, $p = 0.005$), contingent rewards ($F = 7.538$, $p = 0.006$), operating procedures ($F = 6.782$, $p = 0.010$), nature of work ($F = 13.642$, $p = 0.000$), and communication ($F = 7.369$, $p = 0.007$). Using leaving as a possibility as the independent variable also led to statistically significant differences with pay ($F = 4.217$, $p = 0.041$), promotion ($F =$

6.969, $p = 0.009$), supervision ($F = 4.327$, $p = 0.038$), fringe benefits ($F = 5.020$, $p = 0.026$), contingent rewards ($F = 13.353$, $p = 0.000$), operating procedures ($F = 4.005$, $p = 0.046$), nature of work ($F = 25.685$, $p = 0.000$), and communication ($F = 7.432$, $p = 0.007$). The only dependent variable to not show statistically significant differences with leaving as a possibility was co-workers. This was consistent with multiple studies (Cookson, 2005; Lawrence, Glidden, and Jobe (2006); Merbler, 2005; Um and Harrison, 1998) in the review of literature that addressed the importance of relationships with coworkers. A statistically significant difference was found between considered leaving and each dependent variable organizational climate ($F = 8.518$, p =0.004), efficacy ($F = 6.773$, $p = 0.010$), trust and support ($F = 4.931$, $p = 0.027$), and professional learning community ($F = 8.355$, $p = 0.010$). Using leaving as a possibility as the independent variable led to a statistically significant difference with the leadership scale trust and support ($F = 13.334$, $p = 0.000$) and the leadership scale professional learning community ($F =$ 6.398, $p = 0.012$).

Generalizability

In selecting the sample for a study, one must consider the extent of the generalizability of the results. Though the sampling technique for this study was purposive in nature, the researcher used a variety of approaches to increase the generalizability of the study. First, the researcher chose to use Public Secondary School teachers from Central and East Tennessee as the sample. By extending the geographic region, the opportunity for more schools and teachers to be involved in the study increased. Second, the researcher did not work toward including or excluding any demographic group of teachers within the schools. All certified, full-time teachers were asked to participate. The study was limited only by the districts' and schools' decision to accept or decline the offer to participate and the teachers' willingness to respond. Finally, the

researcher made multiple attempts to get unresponsive district directors to participate in the study.

Possible Concern

While the findings of this research are considered to be valid, there is an issue that should be taken into account when examining the results. This may or may not have made a difference in the collected results.

Another researcher (Chambers, 2011) at The University of Tennessee-Knoxville (UTK) was also attempting to gather data from much of the same population with overlap in the timeframe for gathering data. While this study used different instruments, the two studies were similar in both nature and methodology. A few principals expressed concerns about asking their teachers to participate in two studies in such a short period of time. In reference of the principals who did choose to participate, the researcher is concerned this may have hindered the teachers' willingness to participate. Also, the researcher is concerned this may have affected the number of responses indirectly as well. Since there were two researchers from the same university using similar methodologies, it would be easy for a willing participant to think s/he had responded to this study when in actuality s/he had responded to the other. Furthermore, regarding those who realized there were in fact two studies and were willing to participate in both, the researcher fears the participation in both may have affected their responses to the instruments. Both studies utilized two instruments as well as a demographic questionnaire. The researcher is concerned that if this study was the second one for a participant to complete, s/he may have tired of reading the questions and may have answered carelessly. In conclusion, data collected from a different group of participants or at a different time may have provided different results.

Conclusions

Statistically significant differences were found between overall job satisfaction and gender ($F = 7.920$, $p = 0.005$). This supports the claims of Bellas (1994) and Winkler (2000) but refutes the claims of Klassen and Anderson (2009) and Hill (2009). Further examination of this study revealed men had higher levels of job satisfaction than women supporting Mertler (2002) but refuting Bogler (2002), Ellis and Bernhardt (1992), Lortie (1975), and Ma and MacMillan (1999) who claimed women had higher levels of job satisfaction. Statistically significant differences were found between overall job satisfaction and marital status ($F = 4.003$, $p = 0.046$) with married respondents being more satisfied than single. This supports the findings of Goodlad (1984) and Lortie (1975) who reported married women as being more satisfied than unmarried women and men. Statistically significant differences were found between overall job satisfaction and tenure ($F = 6.226$, $p = 0.013$), with non-tenured teachers reporting higher levels of job satisfaction than tenured supporting reports by Ma and MacMillan (1999) and Mertler (2002). Also, statistically significant differences were found between overall job satisfaction and number of years under the current principal ($F = 2.943$, $p = 0.033$), with respondents in the 1-5 years category being the most satisfied.

When examining data from the SSLSSQ and the demographics questionnaire, several statistically significant differences resulted. When gender served as the independent variable, a statistically significant difference was found only with the leadership scale of trust and support ($F = 14.132$, $p = 0.000$) supporting statements in Hagedorn's (1996) study. When age served as the independent variable, a statistically significant difference was found with only the leadership scale of efficacy ($F = 6.328$, $p = 0.000$). A statistically significant difference was also found between school size and organizational climate ($F = 3.787$, $p = 0.005$) supporting reports by

Pearson and Moomaw (2005). The demographic variable number of years under current principal revealed a statistically significant difference with both organizational climate (F = 4.701, p = 0.003) and professional learning community (F = 3.898, p = 0.009) both supporting findings by Schlichte, Yssel, and Merbler (2005).

With the adjusted r^2 = 0.542, a statistically significant relationship (F = 357.136, p = 0.000) resulted between overall satisfaction and the overall leadership composite when an ANOVA was performed and regression analysis was conducted. Furthermore, a statistically significant relationship (F = 82.399, p = 0.000) resulted between overall satisfaction and the leadership scales with the adjusted r^2 = 0.575. The r^2 is important to note because it gives a clearer picture of the connections between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. The adjusted r^2 = 0.575 between overall satisfaction and the leadership scales indicates 58% of variance in a participant's overall job satisfaction score can be predicted from the leadership scale scores. A closer look at these scale scores revealed statistically significant relationship between the three leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of organizational climate, trust and support, and professional learning community and overall job satisfaction. These findings support Littrell's (1994) claim that administrator support is a major factor in teacher's well-being as well as Perie's and Baker's (1997) study that found working conditions including administrative support and leadership to be a contributing factor in levels of job satisfaction.

Lessons Learned

This study was designed to be quantitative in nature in an attempt to make participation easier for respondents who were willing to participate. In hindsight, some of the logistics involved in the study could have affected the survey results. Issues that may have affected the results are considered as follows under the headings data collection process and instrumentation.

Data Collection Process

With the access to and use of technology in today's society, the researcher designed the study with that detail in mind. The researcher designed the study to be quick and easy for participants. In fact, according to feedback from many participants, they were finished with both instruments and the demographic questionnaire in about 15 minutes. Participants were able to respond anyplace and anytime they had internet access. The problems arose with accessing participants. The design of the study required the researcher to first gain permission from system directors. In most cases, this took multiple attempts. Once permission from directors was finally received, the researcher then emailed the principals of the district schools that met the study's guidelines. The researcher explained the study and that the director had given permission. Finally, the researcher asked the principals to forward an email to the teachers. This email explained the study to the teachers and included the hyperlink for them to participate. In hindsight, the researcher realizes this design afforded many obstacles and offered many opportunities for breakdown in communication before the study actually reached the targeted group. A major obstacle was getting principals to actually send the email to the teachers. In some cases, the principals responded to the researchers request with questions and concerns before actually agreeing to send the email. In all cases where permission was granted, the researcher had to trust the principals to forward the email. The researcher had no way of guaranteeing it was ever sent. Finally, the researcher realized the impact of the personalization factor involved in the study. The researcher fears teachers may have viewed the request unimportant and simply deleted the email. The study was designed to be completely voluntary for participants. Therefore, there was nothing to hold them accountable for participating. While it would impact

the generalizability of the findings, the researcher feels it may have been better to choose a design that allowed the researcher to approach the teachers directly and face-to-face.

Another issue that seemed to arise with the technological aspect of the study involved the hyperlink to the study. One participant notified the researcher that he was unable to access the survey through the link provided. The researcher immediately rectified the problem and sent him a second email both apologizing and asking him to please try one more time. The researcher also contacted the principal of the respective school alerting him to the problem, apologizing, and asking him to send a second email. While this participant did alert the researcher, it is unknown if others had similar issues. Only he reported issues to the researcher.

Instrumentation

The researcher used MR Interview in the data collection process. Because the study was quantitative in nature, the participants simply clicked on the appropriate bubble to respond to the questions. The researcher took precautions in building the weblink to maintain the validity and reliability of the instruments. The study involved two instruments and a demographic questionnaire. One of the instruments and the demographic questionnaire were broken into sections in the original format and in the researcher's design. The Job Satisfaction Survey on paper is formatted to fit entirely on one page. The researcher attempted to do the same thing on the weblink. However, this resulted in the page being too long. This required participants to scroll on the page when they were answering the last questions if they wanted to see the choices along the top of the page. One participant commented she wished she could have seen the choices without having to scroll.

A larger number of participants accessed the weblink than actually completed the data collection process. While there is no way to know the exact reasons for this, the researcher

proposes two thoughts. In an attempt to make sure no questions were accidentally left blank, the researcher designed the study so that participants could not go to the next page until all questions were answered. If there were any questions a participant felt uncomfortable answering, s/he may have opted to forfeit the study midway rather than answering. Also, with the second portion being confined to one page and no way to see the rest of the questions before answering, the participants may have forfeited the study for fear of the amount of time that would be involved.

Recommendations

This study added to the knowledge of dynamics between teacher job satisfaction and perceived leadership behaviors. The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore the differences and relationships resulting from analysis of data received using the Job Satisfaction Survey ([JSS]; Spector, 1997), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire ([SSLSSQ]; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2005), and a demographic questionnaire administered to Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers. The study explored the differences between the overall satisfaction and the demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. To gain more clarity, the study explored the differences among the individual facets of the JSS and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, marital status, ethnicity, discipline area, age, school size, tenure status, and number of years under current principal. The study also analyzed the differences among the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers of the SSLSSQ and the teachers' demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, tenure status, and academic discipline. Furthermore, the study investigated the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the overall composite score of the chosen leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Additionally, the study investigated

the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of Central and East Tennessee public high school teachers and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. Finally, the study examined relationships among the facets of the JSS and the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers. This study helped clarify work remaining to be done in learning more about the two topics, the differences, and the relationships between them. This study lends itself to further research. Recommendations for future research are as follows:

1. The timing of this study is pertinent. The data for this study was collected during the 2010-2011 school year. This was the school year preceding Tennessee's changes to the teacher evaluation system. A replicate study with the same population could offer insight to some of the impacts the changes to the evaluation system have made.

2. A replicate study should be conducted in another area of the nation or across the nation. Because the study was conducted online, the population need not be limited to Tennessee. Conducting the study in another state or across the nation could possibly yield a larger sample that might enrich or disprove the results.

3. Additionally, repeating this study with the same instrumentation and population but a paper design and personal interactions could possibly yield a larger sample that might enrich or disprove the results.

4. A longitudinal study that follows teachers in the beginning of their careers to the end of their careers whether retiring or simply leaving the profession could offer insight to changes in teachers' perceptions.

5. A qualitative measure of job satisfaction and the leadership categories may help to glean a better understanding as to why teachers feel the way they do.

6. A comparative study between elementary, middle, and secondary schools regarding teacher job satisfaction and perceptions of leadership would allow researchers to determine similarities and differences among different school levels.

Implications

With the number of teachers leaving the classroom each year, it is obvious finding ways to combat this problem is of utmost important. The results of this study can help school administration be more aware of the teachers' satisfaction levels and perceptions of leadership. The following suggestions are for individuals, school administrators, district leaders, board

members, and teacher training programs in the development of ways to improve teacher job satisfaction and understand some of the relationships involving teacher job satisfaction.

1. Principals who are aware of their leadership behaviors and make conscientious decisions to develop and foster relationships with their teachers may improve teachers' levels of job satisfaction thereby resulting in a reduced attrition level at their school.

2. District leaders may begin to offer more training that fosters team-building within the schools. This could possibly strengthen the co-worker relationships thereby giving the teachers one more avenue of support in their profession.

3. Teachers can use the findings from this study to better understand factors that impact their job satisfaction. This may help them to make personal decisions that could possibly increase their levels of job satisfaction as well as those with whom they teach.

The study offered a large number of significant findings. Many of those involve demographic variables over which teachers, administrators and leaders have no control. However, while demographic variables cannot be controlled, administrators and leaders can become more conscientious of teachers' levels of job satisfaction and their perceptions of leadership behaviors. There was one leadership scale when serving as the independent variable that led to many statistically significant findings—trust and support. This would imply administrators can begin or continue to work toward building relationships with their teachers to improve teachers' job satisfaction thereby lowering the attrition rates in their respective schools.

Summary of the Study

Frameworked by Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, this descriptive study explored the connections between job satisfaction and perceived leadership behaviors. Participants included 302 teachers from public secondary schools in Central and East Tennessee. Instruments used were the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), the Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire (SSLSSQ), and a researcher-created demographics questionnaire. Analyses

included descriptive statistics, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, and regression analysis. Six null hypotheses were tested and all rejected. The testing of these hypotheses resulted in a large number of statistically significant findings.

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the conclusions, recommendations, and implications produced by this study. In conclusion, this research added to the body of knowledge regarding job satisfaction and leadership behaviors as well the connections between the two. The researcher offered recommendations for future research and implications resulting from this study that may help to help leaders combat the challenging problem of teacher attrition.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Gender

   ☐ Male
   ☐ Female

2. Marital Status

   ☐ Single
   ☐ Married

3. Ethnicity

   ☐ White ☐ Black
   ☐ Hispanic ☐ Other

4. Discipline Area

   ☐ Vocational
   ☐ Core Academic (Mathematics, English, Science, Social Studies)
   ☐ Special Education
   ☐ Elective (Physical Education, Art, Music

5. Age

   ☐ 21-30 ☐ 51-60
   ☐ 31-40 ☐ 61 and over
   ☐ 41-50

6. School Size (Based on student enrollment)

   ☐ 0-500 ☐ 1501-2000
   ☐ 501-1000 ☐ 2001 and over
   ☐ 1001-1500

7. Tenure Status

   ☐ Tenured
   ☐ Not-tenured

8. How many years have you worked under the current principal?

   ☐ Less than 1
   ☐ 1-5
   ☐ 6-10
   ☐ 10 or more

9. Have you ever considered leaving the teaching profession?

   ☐ No
   ☐ Yes

10. If it were possible, would you leave the teaching profession?

   ☐ No
   ☐ Yes

Appendix B

Job Satisfaction Survey

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C

Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire*

Organizational Climate	Serious Problem	Moderate Problem	Minor Problem	Not a Problem
Student absenteeism is a problem in this school.				
Lack of parental support or participation is a problem in this school.				
Teacher absenteeism is a problem in this school.				
Physical conflicts among students is a problem in this school.				
Chronic parent unemployment is a problem in this school.				
Robbery, theft, or vandalism at school is a problem in this school.				
Students' use of drugs or alcohol is a problem in this school.				
Verbal abuse of teachers is a problem in this school.				
Conflicts between students and teachers is a problem in this school.				
Parents' low education levels is a problem in this school.				

Efficacy	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am capable of making the kinds of changes expected in this school.				
The kinds of changes expected in this school are helping my students reach higher levels of achievement.				
I strongly value the kinds of changes expected in this school.				
If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult and unmotivated students.				
I am uncertain how to teach some of my students.				
My students' peers influence their motivation more than I do.				
Most of a student's performance depends on the home environment, so I have limited influence.				

Trust and Support	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel respected by the principal.				
The principal makes me feel comfortable to try new things in the classroom.				
I trust the principal at his or her word.				
It's ok in this school to discuss feelings, worries, and frustrations with the principal.				
The principal takes a personal interest in the professional development of teachers.				
The principal and teachers collaborate to make this school run effectively.				
The principal is available when I need to see him/her.				
Praise, public recognize, and/or provide tangible rewards to teachers whose instructional practices support the school's improvement efforts.				

Professional Learning Community	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Teachers at this school respect colleagues who are expert in their craft.				
Teachers in this school trust each other.				
Teachers in this school really care about each other.				
Teachers respect other teachers who take the lead in school improvement efforts.				
Many teachers openly express their professional views at faculty meetings.				
Teachers in this school are willing to question one another's views on issues of teaching and learning.				
We do a good job of talking through views, opinions, and values.				
Teachers are expected to continually learn and seek out new ideas in this school.				
Teachers are encouraged to experiment in their classrooms in this school.				
Teachers are encouraged to take risks in order to improve their teaching.				
Teachers in this school take responsibility for helping one another do well.				
Teachers in this school help maintain positive student behavior in the entire school.				
Teachers in this school take responsibility for improving the overall quality of teaching in this school.				

Academic Pressure	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Teachers in this school expect students to complete every assignment.				
Teachers in this school encourage students to keep trying even when the work is challenging.				
Teachers in this school set high expectations for academic work.				
Teachers in this school think it's important that all students do well in their classes.				

*This is not the entire Study of School Leadership School Staff Questionnaire. This represents only the statements for the leadership scales as perceived by the teachers for the current study.

Appendix D

Permission to Use JSS from Spector

--Forwarded Message Attachment--
From: pspector@usf.edu
To:
Subject: RE: Permission to use JSS
Date: Thu, 25 Mar 2010 13:04:44 -0400

Dear Amie:

You have my permission to use the JSS online in your dissertation. You can find details including conditions for free use (sending me an e-copy of your dissertation when it is done) in the Scales section of my website.

Best of luck with your dissertation.

Paul Spector
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VITA

Amie is a native Kentuckian and grew up in the Appalachian region Kentucky. Amie's parents had a limited education. Wanting the best for Amie and her sister, they taught both of them to not only value education but to pursue it. Amie believes this a major contributing factor to her passion for education, locally and globally. Amie has one desire regarding teaching—to see students achieve their fullest potential. Amie first earned a Bachelor of Science with a double major in Secondary Education and Math and a minor in religion. This was followed shortly with a Master of Arts in Educational Administration. Both were earned from the University of the Cumberlands. Nearly ten years later, Amie earned her Doctor of Philosophy from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Upon graduation from college, Amie relocated from Kentucky to Tennessee where she spent 13 years teaching math at the high school level with the exception of one year when she taught middle school. She taught all levels of math from at-risk to honors. In the 2012-2013, she began teaching resource math and reading to grades K-5.

While these are worthy accolades, more importantly to Amie is her Christian faith. Amie Rumph is a sinner saved by grace. The loss of her sister to colon cancer taught her to value those things most others take for granted. Amie values her relationship with God, family, and friends—in that order. Amie is an active member of Manley Baptist Church in Morristown, Tennessee. Amie and her family are sponsors and supporters of Hearts of Christ—a school-sponsorship program in Belize. Amie has many dreams and hopes, most revolving around her family, especially her sons. If Amie could teach her sons four life lessons by modeling, they would be: to listen to God's guidance in all aspects of life, to always have lofty goals, appreciate people, and never give up. Finally completing her PhD was her best example of the last lesson.