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JOB SATISFACTION AMONG TEACHERS IN MEMBER SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHEAST REGION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS INTERNATIONAL

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

Gordon D. Miller
May 2000

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Margaret J. Miller,

and to the memory of my father, P. Martin Miller, deceased.

They instilled in me a love of learning,

a respect for education,

and, most importantly,

provided a godly example of dedication, commitment and faith.

Without their love, support and example, I would never have achieved this level.

I love you, Mom and Dad – what I have become, I owe to you.

Additionally, I dedicate this dissertation to the Lord.

His strength and guidance were ever constant and unfailing.

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ABSTRACT

The perception of job satisfaction among teachers in selected member schools in the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International was studied to determine if any differences existed in job satisfaction based on selected personal, educational and professional descriptors as reported by the teachers. Full-time teachers in grades kindergarten through twelfth grade at 82 randomly selected schools were surveyed. The survey used was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Long Form, 1967 edition, as well as descriptive questions. Differences in responses based on the descriptors were analyzed utilizing the chi-square test and analysis of variance. In general the teachers' responses indicated that they were satisfied with intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction aspects of their jobs; however, teachers were not satisfied with compensation and lower levels of satisfaction were noted for advancement and company policies and practices.

There were statistically significant differences noted with regard to social status based on age. Statistically significant differences based on gender were noted with regard to authority, independence, responsibility, advancement, compensation, recognition, and supervision–human relations. Statistically significant differences based on teaching level were noted with regard to creativity, independence, and supervision–human relations. Statistically significant differences based on marital status were noted with regard to social status, recognition, supervision–human relations, and supervision–technical. Statistically significant differences based on salary were noted with regard to authority, creativity, responsibility, security, social status, advancement, and compensation. There were no statistically significant differences based on highest degree earned or years of experience.

There was a statistically significant difference in the extrinsic grand means for the gender, salary, and experience variables.

In general, the teachers surveyed expressed high levels of satisfaction with their jobs. Their three main areas of concern were compensation, advancement and company policies and practices, with compensation being the area of greatest concern. The concerns were not severe enough to warrant seeking other employment opportunities, however. Compensation policies should be analyzed to determine where inequalities exist and to determine ways whereby compensation options may be increased. Procedures for determining advancement should be structured to allow more opportunities or to demonstrate equality of advancement opportunity. Teacher involvement in policy decision-making should be encouraged.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Work . . . such a dominant aspect of daily life. Depending on the individual's perception, it can be an exciting and exhilarating experience or it can be a depressing drudgery that one must simply endure. For some, work brings a sense of gratification and contentment; for others, it is a source of stress, anxiety and, in some cases, fear and depression. So the question arises, what is it about an individual's work, or job, that causes satisfaction as compared to those elements that create a sense of dissatisfaction? If the aspects of the job that bring satisfaction can be identified, would it not be beneficial to employers and employees to restructure organizational requirements to increase that satisfaction and, hopefully, increase employee morale and output?

Lortie (1975) stated that "all else being equal, we expect higher engagement to be associated with higher satisfaction, as in the adage that one gets out of life what one puts into it" (p. 89). Yet it would seem the reverse would be true, also. The higher the satisfaction in the job, the more the individual will put into the performance of his or her responsibilities, the more the individual will express good organizational citizenship behaviors (Bateman and Organ, 1983), and the more the individual will behave considerately and sensitively toward others (Motowidlo, 1984). Freeman's study (1978) reported job satisfaction as an impacting factor on economic variables such as labor

market mobility and unionism. Additionally, one might expect that the more satisfied the employees, the greater likelihood of retaining those employees (Hinton, 1991).

The knowledge of job satisfaction remains fragmented, though it is a topic of great interest. A reason for the fragmentation is that "many if not most investigations lack theoretical foundations and produce only isolated facts" (Miskel and Ogawa, 1988, p. 289). It has been suggested that more than 5000 studies of job satisfaction have been published since the 1930s (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992).

In his 1969 study, Locke defined job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (p. 316). In other words, satisfaction is determined by the individual's views of what he or she gets out of the job. Locke noted, however, that levels of satisfaction will vary based on individual value perceptions. The degree of importance of a value to an individual will impact the affect produced by that value (Mobley & Locke, 1970). Further, satisfaction should be regarded as an outcome of performance (as perceived and appraised by the individual) and should not be considered a means of predicting future performance (Locke, 1970).

According to Landy (1989), job satisfaction "has generally been measured as an attitude" (p. 473), that is, a feeling, belief or action tendency. Further, Landy explained that scales used for measuring job satisfaction usually measure one of the first two aspects: feeling or belief.

Attitudes about individuals' jobs have been described as consisting of three related parts: (1) the beliefs held by the individual regarding the job, (2) the attitude of the

individual and (3) the individual's behavioral intentions that come as a result of the attitude (Steers & Porter, 1991). Steers and Porter further explained that the negative beliefs (or perceptions) of the individual about the job lead to negative job attitudes which then lead to behavioral intentions such as leaving. Contrastingly, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) determined that job satisfaction and job performance are only slightly related to each other. Ilgen and Hollenback (1977) reported that there was not a significant causal relationship between job satisfaction and behavior, specifically, absenteeism.

Loher, Noe, Moeller and Fitzgerald (1985) used the job characteristics model developed by Hackman and Oldman (1976) to study the relation of job characteristics to job satisfaction. They evaluated the role of growth need strength (GNS) as a moderator of that relationship. Their findings indicated a stronger relationship for individuals with high GNS; whereas, environmental and situational characteristics were instrumental in determining satisfaction for individuals low in GNS.

Current theories about human motivation support the belief that individuals will behave in such a way as to prolong satisfaction in their lives (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967). If a job situation does not present itself in a way that brings satisfaction, the individual will often seek other means of gaining that satisfaction. Those means may come through departure from the organization or changing the organizational structure, if that is within the ability of the individual. Additionally, Judge and Watanabe (1993) concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, and Abraham (1989) conducted a study of the impact of environmental and genetic components on individual job satisfaction. They determined that it may be possible to predict job satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a future job based on knowledge of an individual's job satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his or her current job. It can be expected that job satisfaction will be "higher in times of high unemployment, or for those workers with either personal characteristics or skills that make them less mobile and therefore more committed to their present jobs" (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978, p. 245). Similar conclusions on the importance of unemployment rates in job satisfaction and turnover were determined in a 1987 study by Carsten and Spector.

Studies conducted by Drory and Shamir (1988), Katz (1978) and Staw and Ross (1985) each noted the importance and impact of intraorganizational and extraorganizational factors on an individual's satisfaction with his or her job. Internal organizational factors such as job redesign and organizational development were studied in addition to external individual factors such as community support and family conflict.

Similarly, Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1994) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and family satisfaction. Though their results did not support a causal relationship between job satisfaction and family satisfaction, they concluded that "it is possible that a causal relationship between job satisfaction and family satisfaction is represented best as a within-person process" (p. 577) and between-person analyses may not provide sufficient support for their theory.

Job satisfiers are not easily identified, however. People differ in what they perceive as satisfying and dissatisfying. That which is pleasing to one may be a source of

great displeasure to another (Dunnette et al., 1967). Or simply put, satisfaction for one will not necessarily be satisfaction for another due to individual differences and perceptions. Studies have reported the existence of differences in job satisfaction based on gender (Dalton & Marcis, 1987) and race (Bartel, 1981), though, admittedly, the Bartel study found less significant differences than previous studies had reported.

Rice, Gentile and McFarlin (1991) studied the importance of job facets (e.g., promotion opportunity, pay, co-workers, autonomy) to the individual in determining satisfaction. "For example, the relationship between perceived amount of promotion opportunity and satisfaction with promotion opportunity is moderated by the degree of importance attached to the promotion opportunity" (p. 31). Gerhart's 1987 study suggested that levels of satisfaction may be increased by well-designed personnel programs. Contrastingly, O'Reilly and Caldwell (1979) determined there was little evidence that job design and task characteristics are significant factors impacting satisfaction. According to their conclusions, "these organizational attributes are undoubtedly surrogates indexing some underlying phenomenon" (p. 164).

Though salary is usually thought to be a major contributing factor to job satisfaction, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) predicted that individuals who choose to stay in a position, knowing the pay is lower, have a tendency to be more intrinsically satisfied with their work than those who choose to take equivalent, higher-paying jobs based on salary alone. It would seem the key factor in this prediction would be the element of choice.

That is not to minimize the importance brought to a position by the salary paid. Rather, as noted by Salancik and Pfeffer, pay serves to not only "justify the activity [work

or position] but also to convey worth, status, and competence, as well as to provide for various goods and services obtained outside of work" (p. 246). Contrastingly, Rusbult and Farrell (1983), in a study of moderately professionalized technical workers, concluded that greater job rewards and lower job costs generate higher levels of employee satisfaction. According to their study, job rewards appeared to affect the work experience from the outset of employment.

Teachers do not differ from other professionals in the desire and need for job satisfaction. Like their students, teachers can be "at risk" and, for a variety of reasons, can be in danger of having a "bad" academic year (Berliner, 1990). This would translate into job dissatisfaction. Heath (1981) reported that a study by the National Education Association reported that one third of the teachers sampled were very dissatisfied with their current position and that 41% of those sampled would not choose teaching as a profession if they were able to begin their careers again. "Teachers whose jobs satisfy their strongest needs, provide opportunities for continued growth, and use their best potentials are better adapted and likely to have higher morale and be happier people" (p. 8). When teachers love their work, it is easier for them to be innovative and responsive to the needs of their students. Conversely, when they are dissatisfied, they can be dull, distracted and self-absorbed (Hill, 1995). In many cases, teachers feel locked into their jobs and feel they possess limited mobility options (both horizontally and vertically) as compared to persons in other professions (Lowther, Stark, & Chapman, 1984). For them, teaching is perceived as a plateau career in which long, dedicated service seldom results in promotion (Lowther, Gill, & Coppard, 1985).

For many, teaching presents few opportunities for making major status gains other than through leaving the classroom for full-time administration. The primary benefits which would come by persisting in teaching, annual salary increases, are simply the result of seniority and taking of courses. Incentives are not organized within educational structures and there is little, if any, variation in recognition of effort and talent among teachers (Lortie, 1975).

Few beginning teachers project long futures in the classroom. Generally, men work for promotion or, if that goal is not achieved, leave the profession or resign themselves to classroom teaching as a terminal status profession. Married women appear to be relatively satisfied as the profession offers a flat career line which permits them to come and go without serious loss of status (Lortie, 1975).

While satisfaction may foster improved performance, the inverse may be true. Whether satisfaction is a means to an end or an end in and of itself, increasing teacher satisfaction is a desirable goal (Sweeney, 1981). Locke and Schweiger (1979), however, viewed satisfaction solely as a means to an end, not an end in itself, and asserted that, while the goal of each individual is to achieve his or her own happiness, the individual cannot expect others (e.g., employers) to arbitrarily provide the individual with what he or she wants.

According to a 1995 report in the *Atlanta Journal* ("A Nation in Brief: Mixed Reviews"), a Louis Harris and Associates survey reported that teacher job satisfaction has increased in the last decade. The survey indicated that while suburban teachers have

grown more cheerful about the quality of education in public schools, urban teachers have grown more worried.

With the knowledge that most people want to find satisfaction in their work, administrators need to seek to enhance that feeling within their own school environments. In order to attract and retain qualified teachers, administrators in both public and private schools need to make a prioritized determination as to what aspects of their organizations can cause satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction (Ongkasuwan, 1994). As the administrators determine the sources of job satisfaction, they can strive to create a working environment that will bring about job satisfaction, and thus, stability, within the staff. According to Thompson, McNamara, and Hoyle (1997), educational researchers have displayed great interest in the study of job satisfaction and have devoted a great deal of effort studying it.

"Trite as it may seem, satisfaction is a legitimate goal in itself. The topic, therefore, is of general importance" (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969, p. 3).

Though numerous studies have been conducted dealing with various aspects of job satisfaction in the field of education, satisfaction perceptions among teachers in private Christian schools, and specifically, member schools of the Association of Christian Schools International is unknown. Research about the perceptions of those teachers does not exist.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of job satisfaction among teachers in selected member schools in the Southeast Region of the Association of

Christian Schools International (ACSI) and to determine if any differences exist in job satisfaction based on selected personal, educational and professional descriptors (e.g., age, gender, marital status, degree, experience) as reported by the teachers.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions applied:

Teachers are those employees who work full-time in the instructional areas of the schools.

Administrators are principals, headmasters or chief administrative officials of the schools.

Elementary teachers are those who teach predominantly in kindergarten through fifth grade.

Middle school teachers are those who teach predominantly in grades six, seven and eight.

High school teachers are those who teach predominantly in grades nine through twelve.

Personal descriptors are age, gender and marital status.

Educational descriptor is the highest degree attained.

Professional descriptors are salary, class level taught, total number of years teaching.

Job satisfaction is the individual's positive attitudes towards his/her past, current and future employment.

Job dissatisfaction is the individual's negative attitudes toward his/her employment.

Job facets are the components (promotion opportunity, co-workers, autonomy, pay) that comprise an individual's work experience (Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991).

Burnout is a progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose resulting from job-related conditions (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980).

Turnover refers to the voluntary departure, or quitting, of teachers from a particular school or from the profession entirely.

Extrinsic satisfaction factors are those which are derived from sources other than the individual and which may be applied to the individual by another source.

Intrinsic satisfaction factors are those which are determined by the individual and are self-applied.

General satisfaction factors are those attitudes by the individual toward co-workers and working conditions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The objectives of this study are expressed in the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the long-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) based on their personal, educational and professional descriptors?
2. Is there a difference in the means of the twelve intrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors?

3. Is there a difference in the means of the six extrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors?

4. Is there a difference in the means of the two general satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study was intended to increase understanding of private Christian school teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction, specifically within the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International. The identification of teachers' personal, professional and educational descriptors, as they are associated with intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction scales, might assist administrators in recruitment and retention of quality teachers in private Christian schools.

The study might also assist administrators in determining those factors that can enhance and improve the working environment. With this knowledge, administrators could provide improvements or change which would be useful in helping to decrease teacher job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, burnout and turnover.

The study was intended to allow teachers the opportunity to express their views regarding their work situation. As such, it could also provide a means for dialogue between administrators and teachers in an attempt to improve the overall climate of the institution.

This study could assist in identifying specific areas where inservice training is needed. It could also form a foundation for improving teacher preparedness through undergraduate teacher training programs.

The findings of the study could be useful for any private school, not just ACSI member schools in the Southeast Region. Its findings could have application in public school systems, as well.

LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

The limitations of this study include the following:

1. The study was limited to those teachers who returned the questionnaire with usable responses.
2. The study was limited to those schools whose administrators granted permission for the teachers to be surveyed.
3. The study was limited to the perceptions and honesty of the participants in completing the questionnaire.

The delimitations of this study include the following:

1. The sample size of the study was delimited to a stratified cluster sampling of member schools of the Southeast Region of ACSI.
2. The sample was delimited in size due to the cost involving in securing permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

3. The study was delimited by its selection of Christian schools affiliated with ACSI.

4. The study was delimited by the selection of only those schools which offer educational programs at the kindergarten level or above.

ASSUMPTIONS

For the purpose of the study, the following assumptions applied:

1. Items in the questionnaire accurately measure the factors being considered.
2. The participants in the survey responded honestly and candidly.
3. The schools selected through the stratified random cluster sampling procedure are representative of the designated population.
4. The condition of randomness was met.
5. The questionnaire rating scales are of equal interval value.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter I contains background for the problem, purpose of the study, definition of terms, research questions, the significance of the study, limitations and delimitations, and assumptions. Chapter II includes a review of related literature, including the historical background of job satisfaction, major theories of job satisfaction and current research relating to job satisfaction. Chapter III describes the methodology used in the study, including identification of the subjects, procedures for random selection, procedures for conducting the survey, instrumentation used in the

survey, and statistical analysis used in interpreting the data. Chapter IV includes the findings and analysis of the data from the survey. Chapter V concludes with a summation of the findings and a discussion of the conclusions and implications for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) defined job satisfaction as the feelings a worker has about his or her job. Job satisfactions are feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation and are a function of the perceived characteristics of the job, relating to an individual's frame of reference. Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) defined job satisfaction as an affective reaction to a job that results from the individual's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired. For teachers, satisfaction is the summation of the individual's assessment of his or her total rewards in teaching (Lortie, 1975).

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF JOB SATISFACTION RESEARCH

During the time of the Depression and Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal more and more emphasis was placed on the worker and the job environment. As a result of the workers' loss of confidence in the economic system, labor unions experienced a resurgence of power. No longer could the worker be considered a commodity. Rather, workers' rights, opinions and views were considered in contract negotiations and organizational restructuring.

The Hawthorne Studies conducted by Mayo (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) at Western Electric's Cicero, Illinois plant produced findings that supported the view that workers' satisfaction with their work environments and

supervisors had a direct impact on their job performance. They argued that it was necessary to consider the "whole person" on the job and that the increased routinization of job tasks, resulting from the industrial revolution, had reduced the possibility of workers finding satisfaction in the tasks they were doing (Steers & Porter, 1991). They discovered that workers "had minds, and that the appraisals they made of the work situation affected their reactions to it" (Ongkasuwan, 1994, p. 18).

Since that study, thousands of research projects dealing with the aspect of job satisfaction and its relationship to the worker have been reported (Cranny et al., 1992). In 1935, Hoppock, as cited in Ongkasuwan, used survey methods and attitude scales to examine job satisfaction and showed that satisfaction was related to gender, occupational level and age. Likert (1961, 1967), through his studies, was one of the earliest to advocate participatory management.

Likert's model dealt more with organizational climate, however. He hypothesized a continuum from an authoritarian, control-oriented climate to a very trusting, delegating communicative climate. His recommendation was to move organizations as closely as possible towards the trusting, communicative climate (Jones, 1997).

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) argued that factors, such as pay raises, were inadequate catalysts in worker job satisfaction, and often created frustration and dissatisfaction instead. Rather, satisfaction with the job could only come by allowing individuals enough responsibility and authority to provide them the opportunity to grow mentally (Ongkasuwan, 1994).

More recently, research has focused on determining the causes of job satisfaction with emphasis on the worker's reaction to the environment and the work itself. There has been no one theory of job satisfaction developed, however, which is recognized as the true theoretical view. Nevertheless, job satisfaction is a major aspect of many theories of motivation (Smith, 1986), two of the foremost theorists being Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg.

MAJOR THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory divided people's needs into five basic categories, arranged in an ascending hierarchical order: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualization.

1. Physiological needs. Physiological needs are the most basic human needs, those required for human existence (food, water, vitamins, hormones, etc.) and those that include sensory pleasures (tastes, smells, etc.) which may become goals of motivated behavior.
2. Safety needs. Beyond physiological needs, safety needs are those which seek physical and psychological security and stability. They would be represented by dependency, protection, freedom from fear, structure, order, etc.
3. Belongingness and love needs. Having met the physiological, physical and psychological needs, the individual now seeks the companionship and

friendship of others. They are the hunger for affectionate relationships, namely, a place within the individual's group or family.

4. Esteem needs. The esteem needs are those desires for self-respect and self-esteem, as well as, the desire for reputation, prestige or status in others' opinions. Satisfaction of the esteem need leads to self-confidence, self-worth and strength.

5. Self-actualization needs. Self-actualization needs are categorized in the desire to achieve one's ultimate, highest potential, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. In reality, self-actualization needs are the most difficult to fulfill and can never fully be realized.

As lower level needs become satisfied, higher order needs become more important and, thus, function as high motivators. Those that have already been satisfied cease to be effective motivators, unless, for some reason, that level ceases to be fulfilled. Maslow's theory purported that the level that has not been achieved serves as the primary motivational force in an individual's life. This can have application to the individual's work environment to the degree the environment satisfies the need.

In relating Maslow's needs theory to education, Hill (1995) deduced that when teachers feel challenged, in control of their lives and have a sense of belonging, their basic needs have been met. With the meeting of those needs, their focus can then be directed toward becoming the adult attachment figure that children must have in order to have their own needs met. In other words, for teachers to be effective in meeting their students' needs, they (teachers) must first have their basic needs satisfied.

Carroll (1969) noted that Maslow's need hierarchy theory became the most significant theory in job satisfaction research at that time.

Maslow has not been without his critics, however. Locke (1976) questioned the existence of the higher order needs and also the basis on which those needs were determined. Randolph (1985) noted that a person's needs may change over time, or at least, the priority of needs may change. Wahba and Bridwell (1976) questioned the existence of the five distinct categories.

Frederick Herzberg, and his colleagues, (1959, 1987) investigated job factors that made a person satisfied or dissatisfied with his or her job. It was Herzberg's theory that there were two independent sets of needs and that both sets of needs affected the individual's behavior differently.

This has become known as Herzberg's two-factor theory and proposes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum, rather they are independent of each other. The factors that are involved in producing job satisfaction are separate from the factors that produce job dissatisfaction. Further, the opposite of one is not the other. Dissatisfaction is not the opposite of satisfaction. The opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction; the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. Further, different aspects of an individual's job may influence feelings of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg (1987), the growth or motivator factors that are intrinsic to the job are: achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement. The dissatisfaction-avoidance or hygiene factors that are extrinsic to the job include: company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal

relationships (peers, superiors and subordinates), working conditions, salary, status, and security. He further reported that if only a small percentage of the time and money currently devoted to the hygiene factors was given to job enrichment efforts, there would be an inordinately large return in satisfaction and economic gain. Jones (1997) supported this view by reporting that Herzberg's theory posited that workers were not motivated by the extrinsic factors of salary and working conditions, but by the intrinsic factors of achievement, recognition and responsibility. Similarly, Graen's 1966 study also supported the belief that intrinsic factors are more important contributors to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction than extrinsic factors.

Sergiovanni (1967), in his review of Herzberg's earlier work, identified the motivator factors as satisfiers and the hygiene factors as dissatisfiers. Smith (1986) noted that the hygiene factors stemmed from the nature of man to avoid environment-related pain. The motivators, he noted, were associated with the individual's ability to achieve, allowing for psychological growth.

Numerous instances of replication of Herzberg's theory have been reported. Wright (1991) cited studies by Simmons, Lacy, Graham, and Litt and Turk which related to satisfaction in educational settings. He further cited a 1966 study by Sergiovanni which replicated Herzberg's study in an educational setting by interviewing teachers to find out about events associated with their jobs which made them feel good or bad. According to Sergiovanni's classification of the teachers' responses, the first and second factors contributing to good feelings about the job were achievement and recognition.

Herzberg's critics have been quite vocal in their disapproval. Carroll (1969) identified a weakness of the Herzberg theory as its "lack of flexibility in explaining differences in individual personality needs" (p. 7). Carroll further noted that hygiene needs would have to be met before motivation needs could become operative. King (1970) found a lack of an explicit statement of the exact nature of the theory and gave five versions of the theory. Dunnette et al. (1967) stated:

> The two factor theory has fared poorly . . . regardless of the methodology used. It seems that the evidence is now sufficient to lay the two-factor theory to rest . . . so that researchers will address themselves to studying the full complexities of human motivation (p. 173).

Hulin and Waters (1971) discussed studies relating to King's 1970 reporting of five possible versions of Herzberg's theory. In Hulin and Waters' study, three of those versions were evaluated:

1. Theory 1. Variation in all intrinsic variables combined contributes more to variation in job satisfaction than it does to variation in job dissatisfaction. Conversely, variation in extrinsic variables combined contributes more to job dissatisfaction.
2. Theory 2. Variation in all intrinsic variables combined contributes more to job satisfaction than variation in all extrinsic variables combined. Similarly, variation in extrinsic variables combined contributes more to job dissatisfaction.

3. Theory 3. Each intrinsic variable contributes more to job satisfaction than it does to job dissatisfaction and each extrinsic variable contributes more to job dissatisfaction than it does to job satisfaction (p. 211).

Their findings did not support any of the three theories.

Lortie (1975) referred to motivators as rewards and proposed a third type of reward which promoted job satisfaction. In addition to extrinsic (which would parallel Herzberg's hygiene factors) and psychic or intrinsic rewards (which would parallel Herzberg's motivator factors), he suggested ancillary rewards (objective characteristics which are perceived as rewards, e.g., work schedules). Further, he asserted that it would be expected that teachers would concentrate on the psychic rewards and that the energy they direct toward attaining those rewards would impact their total rewards.

In addition to Herzberg's two-factor theory, others have offered a number of theories to explain or identify job satisfaction. Lawler (1973), in his Model of Facet Satisfaction, identified individual perception as the most important factor in determining satisfaction. If actual rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) are equal to perceptions of what would be equitable rewards, the individual experiences satisfaction. If the actual rewards either exceed or do not reach perceived equitable rewards, the individual experiences discomfort or dissatisfaction, respectively.

Locke's (1976) Value Theory explained job satisfaction as being determined by the fulfillment of individual values. He differentiated between needs and values, with needs representing biological necessities while values are subject to the individual's desires, consciously or subconsciously.

The Opponent-Process Theory proposed by Landy (1978, 1989) suggested that individual satisfaction may change over time even though the reward may be constant. His theory assumed the existence of an emotional balance system that plays a role in individual perceptions of job satisfaction. He gave special note to the impact of time (i.e., when the satisfaction is measured) on the level of satisfaction.

CURRENT RESEARCH IN JOB SATISFACTION

Research on the issue of job satisfaction is varied. In addition to the studies cited previously, numerous studies, similar to those conducted by Hinton (1991) and Bryant (1996), have looked at job satisfaction factors in business and industry. Hinton surveyed workers at a carpet factory with implications found for improvement in job enrichment. Bryant studied employees from a distribution company to determine predictability of proactive voice versus proaction as it relates to job satisfaction.

International Studies

Educational studies of job satisfaction have been equally diverse. International studies have been conducted evaluating job satisfaction in other countries. Arulefela (1984) studied secondary school teachers in selected states in Nigeria. Runcie (1996) studied high school science teachers in Jamaica. Benson (1983) and Hart (1997) assessed teacher job satisfaction in Victoria, Australia with emphasis on local school organization (Benson) and stress factors affecting morale (Hart). Benson placed strong emphasis on the role of the administrator in improving teacher satisfaction through modification of the

organizational structure of the school. Hart determined that positive experiences were stronger determinants of morale than stress. Friedman (1992) studied burnout in Israeli elementary schools and found that teachers who feel satisfied with their work are least likely to feel burned out.

Canadian studies have included those conducted by the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (1996), Burke (1995) in Alberta, and Jensen (1991) in Saskatchewan. The British Columbia Teachers' Federation determined that the difference between those teachers who are "very satisfied" and those who are just "somewhat satisfied" is often closely related to the quality of the relationships those teachers have with other staff. Burke also found that peer relationships, and also administrative relationships, were the greatest contributors to satisfaction. Additionally, it was determined that the greatest contributors to dissatisfaction were relationships to school boards and the larger community. Jensen's study focused on rural administrators and their efforts to increase job satisfaction and leader effectiveness. It was determined that administrators' relationships with their director, students and central office staff were the sources of the greatest degree of satisfaction.

Studies in southeast Asia have included Wu's 1984 study of elementary teachers in Taiwan confirming Herzberg's two-factor theory and Sipon's 1996 study of Malaysian polytechnic instructors which countered Herzberg's theory that motivator factors, not hygiene factors, would be the source of job satisfaction. Sipon determined equal contributions on the part of both types of factors.

Other southeast Asian studies of note have been conducted in Thailand by Pumipuntu (1992), Ongkasuwan (1994), Prayotudomkit (1995) and Sarnswang (1995). Pumipuntu found that older college faculty members, with more experience, expressed higher levels of satisfaction. Ongkasuwan studied job satisfaction in private schools in Bangkok. Prayotudomkit studied teacher burnout in public and private elementary schools in Bangkok. Using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), it was determined that burnout is more likely to manifest itself in the construct of personal accomplishment rather than through emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Sarnswang studied satisfaction among academic deans in public and private universities, finding private school deans are more satisfied than public school deans with factors relating to working conditions and income.

U.S. Studies

In the United States, Adcock (1991) and Funderburg (1996) studied job satisfaction in Arkansas among school superintendents (Adcock) and business educators at secondary and community technical schools, both using the MSQ as their survey instrumentation. Birmingham (1984) used the MSQ to study intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcers of job satisfaction among teachers in Minnesota. Chapman (1984) used the MSQ to survey high school deans in Illinois. Ely (1993) and Pool (1997) studied job satisfaction in Ohio. Evers' 1992 study considered "stayers and leavers" among Michigan teachers, demonstrating that stayers had higher satisfaction scores, less stress, more seniority and perceived their working conditions more favorably. Finley (1991) and Guy

(1992) studied high school administrators in Tennessee and Iowa, respectively. Finley noted a higher level of job satisfaction among black administrators and Guy noted that administrators at larger schools (with more support staff) were significantly more satisfied. A second study in Iowa (Sweeney, 1981) focused on factors such as gender, career stage, age level and students in assessing teacher job satisfaction and needs, reporting that teachers in the 25 to 34 age range were least satisfied.

Frase's (1989) Arizona study looked at career ladders and merit pay plans as incentives for attracting and retaining quality teachers. He reported that teachers receiving intrinsic rewards experienced significant more opportunities for job enrichment and recognition over those who received extrinsic rewards. Seay, Smith and Crews (1995) studied superintendents' and school board chairs' attitudes towards merit pay for teachers. It was noted that merit pay promoted greater teacher morale and job satisfaction, thus supporting teacher retention which had an equally positive effect on the quality of education. Similarly, Lawson (1993) looked at career ladders in Missouri as they relate to teacher job satisfaction, finding no significant linear relationship between attitudes toward the career ladder and job satisfaction. Gibbons (1995) also conducted a study in Missouri, looking at motivational characteristics of job satisfaction for elementary school teachers using the Job Characteristics Model developed by Hackman and Oldham in 1976. His findings were inconclusive in determining an adequate instrument to measure teacher motivation.

In 1988, Jackson looked at reasons teachers in urban school districts in Nebraska gave for leaving the profession over a twenty year period. Jackson felt that it is important

to understand why some of the most talented and experienced teachers leave the profession. A similar study was conducted by Kottkamp, Provenzo and Cohn in 1986 surveying satisfaction among Florida teachers. Teacher satisfaction responses to a 1984 survey were compared to those reported by a study Lortie conducted in 1964. Results indicated slight declines in levels of teacher satisfaction with both the job and the workplace, with a more marked decline with regard to the school as a workplace than with regard to teaching as a job. Jarvis' 1993 study, also in Florida, used the MSQ to see if there was a relationship between teachers' attitudes and views toward change and their level of job satisfaction. Her findings indicated a significant relationship between teacher hardiness factors and job satisfaction.

Lofland's (1985) study in the District of Columbia and Stiles' (1993) study in Georgia looked at organizational climate and its impact on teacher job satisfaction. Lofland determined there was a need to provide training for administrators in identification and diagnosis of school climate and also in implementing changes to enhance job satisfaction. The results from Stiles' study indicated a significant relationship between organizational climate and teacher job satisfaction. Open climate and higher job satisfaction were also shown to be related. Both studies included the MSQ as their survey instrument.

Macula (1996) studied elementary teachers in New Jersey, Thorsen-Spano (1996) studied elementary teachers in California and Schlechty and Vance (1981) studied teachers in North Carolina. Macula studied the implications for the work of educational reform efforts and its significance in the teaching and learning process. Thorsen-Spano's study

involved teachers who volunteered to be surveyed regarding conflict resolution programs. Due to the nature of the sample group used in the study, generalizations could not be made and a relationship between conflict resolution programs and teacher job satisfaction could not be supported. Schlechty and Vance's longitudinal study of North Carolina teachers revealed that the most academically proficient teachers are the most likely to leave teaching. This, according to Schlechty and Vance, results in a steadily deteriorating talent pool of teachers.

Specialized Studies

Other studies have focused on specialized groups within the field of education. Jones (1995) studied organizational variables that impact teacher job satisfaction at the Atlanta (Georgia) Area School for the Deaf. Jones reported that staff preferences should be considered when planning staff development programs. Lobosco and Newman (1992) studied teachers of students with special needs. Results of the study indicated that working with special needs students is related to dissatisfaction in teaching and that there is a need for specialized training for those teachers who will be working with special needs students. Conversely, responses indicated that working with students who are gifted and talented is related to job satisfaction. Foran-Collins (1989) studied teachers working with severely disturbed adolescents in the Massachusetts Bureau of Institutional Schools' system. The results indicated a significant relationship between satisfaction and the job supports, feedback, supervision and clinical consultation provided for the teachers. Teacher satisfaction was related to the teachers' perceptions of the capabilities of their

supervisors and the job support provided by the administration. Sweeney (1981) suggested that teachers who spend a majority of their time working with low ability students are less satisfied than those teachers who work with students having average or higher abilities. Singh and Billingsley (1996) conducted a study in Virginia comparing teachers of students with emotional disorders with other special educators. They suggested the most important determinant of intent to stay in teaching was workplace conditions. It was further determined that administrative support was a key factor in that commitment. Brown (1996) studied the leadership practices of Trained Reading Recovery teachers and the relationship to job satisfaction. She found that job satisfaction was related to gender, highest degree and teaching context and that Trained Reading Recovery teachers are strategically positioned for leadership roles.

Specialized subject areas have also been addressed through numerous studies. Heston (1996) identified students as the greatest factor in determining both the level of job satisfaction and job stress among band directors. Blassingame (1996) studied satisfaction levels of physical education faculty at higher education institutions in Texas. There was no significant relationship determined to exist between job-related extrinsic satisfaction and retention of physical education faculty. The results of Scarborough's 1990 study looked at the personal and professional needs of technology teachers, determining that administrators should consider innovative alternatives for compensation, promotion and recognition while working cooperatively with the teachers to develop professional development programs. The results of Smith's (1986) study indicated that improvement in intrinsic factors would improve job satisfaction among secondary math and science

teachers in Tennessee. Further, the study indicated that satisfaction with teaching appeared to be linked to intrinsic rewards. In 1998, Weld's study of science teachers indicated that the decision to leave teaching seldom has to do with money. The salary discrepancy might be considered, however, as a "final straw" for exemplary teachers (of any subject discipline) who are frustrated by isolation and pay structures based on seniority and not talent, skill or professionalism.

Studies have also been conducted related to gender, race, age and special interest groups. Collier (1992) examined predictors of job satisfaction for female elementary school teachers. Plut (1991) looked at job-related attitudes among teachers, comparing different career stages and gender differences. Culver, Wolfe and Cross (1990) tested influences affecting job satisfaction among black teachers as compared to white teachers. For both racial groups, background demographics of age, sex, parents' education were found to be of little importance when compared to variables of school climate and commitment to teaching. Lowther, Gill and Coppard (1985) focused on the relationship between teacher age and the determinants of job satisfaction. Results indicated that job satisfaction increases with age for teachers, with teachers over age 50 being the most satisfied and teachers under 35 the least satisfied. It was also noted in their study, that "a major challenge for decision-makers is dealing with older, experienced teachers who have psychologically closed the door" (p. 525). As a result, staff development activities should build on career perceptions, rather than performance behavior.

Agars, Unckless and Tesluk (1998), in a cross-level study of factors influencing commitment to and participation in teacher's unions (e.g., the American Federation of

Teachers), reported findings that suggested that union participation was related to the teacher's perception of satisfaction with his or her job. Unions may gain support during times of dissatisfaction with the local or district administration. Nelson (1994) reported findings by the American Federation of Teachers that private school teachers are more likely to say they would choose teaching again than public school teachers. Bingham (1996) reported the results from a National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) survey that teachers' job-related attitudes and perceptions can hinder effective performance and affect the quality of education and student outcomes.

Burnout

Though the primary focus of this study will not be specifically dealing with teacher burnout, the implications of burnout causes and other factors that affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction are of note. There is a lot of information which focuses on burnout, its causes and its application. Although student behavior may be a central factor in causing teacher burnout, as believed by many teachers, studies indicate other factors seem to be at work (Friedman, 1992).

Berg (1994) suggested that younger teachers report higher levels of burnout than do older teachers, secondary teachers more so than elementary teachers, male teachers more than female teachers and less experienced teachers more than veteran teachers. Additionally, it was noted that instructional staff manifest higher levels of burnout than support staff. In three different reports, Byrne (1991, 1994, 1994) evaluated burnout among teachers in Canada and the validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The

Canadian study indicated that burnout was a multidimensional construct consisting of three facets: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment.

According to Cunningham (1982):

> Research suggests that burnout results in increased job turnover and absenteeism, reduced vitality, development of physical and emotional symptoms, physical and mental withdrawal and detachment, rigid adherence to standard operating procedures, free-floating anxiety and hostility and autocratic and dogmatic behavior (p. 239).

Further, Cunningham stated that in order to reduce burnout among teachers, there must be an increase in teacher support, improvement in physical, emotional and psychological conditioning, increase in teacher influence on the organizational management, operation and development, and development of quality of work programs in education.

Frank and McKenzie (1993) conducted an exploratory study of burnout in special educators, concluding that administrators need to learn to identify stress characteristics in the early stages and assist teachers in developing coping skills related to emotional exhaustion. Friedman and Farber's 1992 study in Israel suggested that in order to make a difference in combating burnout, reform efforts should:

> reduce classroom size, permit teachers to choose their own texts and design their own curriculum, provide additional services for students with learning difficulties, facilitate parent-teacher collaboration (p. 33).

Henderson-Sparks, Ehrgott and Sparks (1995) surveyed administrators to ascertain key factors that contributed most to the condition of their marginal teachers. Administrators from all levels listed lack of motivation, burnout and personal crises. Hipps (1990) used the MBI to develop a means of measuring educator job stress that would be applicable for both teachers and administrators. Hemmasi, Graf and Lust (1992) indicated that tenure at an institution impacted satisfaction negatively. Greer and Greer (1992) and Surpuriya and Jordan (1997) recommended changes in pre-service teacher training in order to provide teachers with the ability or means to cope before burnout becomes an issue for them.

Organizational Structure

Teacher participation in decision-making processes at the school level (Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley, & Bauer, 1990; Berg, 1994; Holdaway, 1978; Jones, 1997; Kushman, 1992; Taylor & Tashakkori, 1995; Woodruff, 1992) and the organizational structure and climate of the school (Berg, 1994; Farber & Ascher, 1991; Frase, 1989; Goodin, 1995; Hatchett, 1995; Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998; Lowther, Gill, & Coppard, 1985; Mason, 1980; Moore, 1996; Natale, 1993; Pisciotta, 1996; Schappe, 1998; Steinhauer, 1995; Walsh & Shay, 1993; Whaley, 1994) were noted by these and numerous other studies as being factors for increasing job satisfaction and, thus, decreasing dissatisfaction and burnout potential.

Jones (1997), Woodruff (1992) and Bacharach et al. (1990) all noted that teachers who participated in decision-making processes expressed a higher level of job satisfaction

and higher morale. Holdaway (1978) asserted that a lack of participation in decision-making is the greatest source of teacher job dissatisfaction. Berg's 1994 study provided several organizational interventions that could be implemented:

1. Involve staff in decision making
2. Involve staff in program development
3. Involve staff in goal setting
4. Conduct yearly staff retreats
5. Provide workout centers for staff
6. Establish case-load ceilings
7. Hire more paraprofessionals
8. Increase pay
9. Offer flex-time opportunities
10. Offer a class in dealing with difficult people (p. 187).

As noted in Berg (1994), Farber and Ascher (1991), Goodin (1995), Hatchett (1995) and Steinhauer (1995), school-based management is a change in the governing structure of a school system which allows those most affected by a decision to help make the decision, thus, empowering the teachers to develop goals of education that will enhance their professionalism. Additional aspects of school climate that have been shown to enhance teacher satisfaction have been team teaching (Walsh and Shay, 1993; Natale, 1993); feedback, reward and support (Whaley, 1994); mentoring and seminars (Natale, 1993; Frase, 1989); workload adjustments (Ely, 1993; Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998);

work domain or environment improvement (Mason, 1980; Pisciotta, 1996; Schappe, 1998, Walsh and Shay, 1993); and flexible scheduling (Diener, 1985).

Administrative Impact

Neil (1994) suggested administrators need to be aware of the positive and moderate relationship between the organizational structure and culture and teacher job satisfaction. Means should be designed for strengthening school culture while addressing the needs of the teachers. Additionally, Neil noted that administrators in low socio-economic areas should not assume that the teachers in those areas will exhibit an inordinately high level of dissatisfaction just because of the income level of the student population.

Emphasis on organizational commitment was reported in Reyes (1990), Bartol (1979), Bateman and Strasser (1984), Farrell and Rusbult (1981), and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972). Each of these noted a strong relationship between the employee's organizational commitment and job satisfaction and the motivation and stimulation received at work through recognition, perceived school effectiveness, achievement and strong administrative leadership. In effect, it was felt that an employee's happiness with his or her job has a strong relationship with the level of commitment to the organization.

Administrative leadership styles and relationships with teachers have also been studied as factors impacting job satisfaction. Whaley (1994) reported that "experts have begun to examine administrative leadership in the schools as another way of dealing with education crises" (p. 46). Prest (1993) investigated the relationship between the

expressed job satisfaction of teacher assistants (paraprofessionals) and their perception of the leadership behaviors of those who are in supervisory roles over them. Dorminy and Brown (1982) studied the impact of administrators' behavior on the job satisfaction of assistant principals. They asserted that considerate high school administrators are most likely to have assistant principals highly satisfied in extrinsic factors such as working conditions, salary, security, supervision and policies. Culver et al. (1990) recommended that administrators should learn the needs of the subpopulations of teachers in their schools in order to bring about job satisfaction among the staff. Singh and Billingsley (1996) noted that the strongest influence on job satisfaction was administrative support and, subsequently, job satisfaction was the strongest common influence on intent to stay in the teaching profession.

Friedman and Farber (1992) were critical of the tendency of administrators (and parents) to overestimate teachers' sense of satisfaction. This tendency, they suggested, may speak to teachers as a "glib, unrealistic attitude toward their [teachers'] real needs" (p. 35). LoVette (1997) added to this view by stating that teachers are leaving the profession in great numbers because of insufficient pay and "the tremendous stress which is associated with society's negative attitudes toward schools, teachers, and administrators" (p. 306). In an effort to better understand the complexities of the variables that impact job satisfaction, Pool (1997) identified leadership styles as one of the factors that affects teacher satisfaction levels.

Pennington (1997) and Everett (1988) both noted a significant relationship between teacher motivation and the perceived leadership style of the administrator.

Administrators should be encouraged to display high levels of consideration in their behavioral leadership styles. Natale (1993) supported that view with results from a survey that showed a relationship between teacher dissatisfaction and perceived inadequacy of administrative support. Of those surveyed who cited feelings of dissatisfaction, over one fourth of them, the largest single group, listed inadequate administrative support as one of the main reasons for that dissatisfaction. Natale observed that "many teachers still believe school administrations to be more detrimental than helpful to the business of teaching" (p. 15). In contrast, Werner (1990) studied the effect of administrator-delivered positive reinforcement on teacher job satisfaction. The study did not produce significant support for the hypothesis that there was a significant impact. Caldwell (1992) studied elementary teachers' perceptions of administrators' motivation behaviors. Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivators and hygiene factors was included in that study.

Reyes and Hoyle (1992) conducted a study of teachers' satisfaction with their administrators' interpersonal communication. Specifically, they addressed three aspects of administrative communication that impacted the teachers: administrators' communication, administrators' feedback and perceived adequacy of the administrators' instructions. Administrators would benefit from knowing to what degree their communicative skills contribute to or detract from teacher job satisfaction.

Because of the smaller pool of available teachers and the numbers of retiring and departing teachers, Bacharach and Bamberger (1990) suggested that administrators become more sensitive to the potential causes of teacher dissatisfaction and departure.

Role conflict and ambiguity were found to be significantly and inversely related to job satisfaction.

Littrell, Billingsley and Cross (1994) studied the effects of perceived administrative support on teacher stress and personal health, job satisfaction, school commitment and intent to stay in teaching. The results indicated that administrative support decreases stress and burnout, supportive administrators are likely to have a positive effect on teacher commitment and satisfaction, and that teachers' personal health may be adversely affected by perceived nonsupportive administrative behavior. Four categories of proposed administrative support were suggested: emotional, providing open communication and interest in teachers' work; instrumental, helping teachers with work-related tasks; informational, offering teachers workshops and inservices; and appraisal, providing clear guidelines of effective teaching.

Compensation Impact

In its famous 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk*, the National Commission on Excellence in Education noted that one of the factors contributing to a decline in educational standards and the inability to attract able students to the teaching profession is the salary structure of most educational systems. Too often teachers are required to supplement their income with part-time summer employment. The National Commission on Excellence in Education noted that salaries for the teaching profession "should be increased and should be professionally competitive, market sensitive, and performance based" (p. 30). Although in most studies, salary was generally addressed as one

contributing factor to job dissatisfaction, Gándara (1992) reported that "though teachers note a number of working condition problems that trouble them . . . low salaries remain an important source of dissatisfaction among many teachers" (p. 229). Gándara further noted that increased salary was, for the largest portion of the teachers, the key to job satisfaction and the feeling of being considered true professionals.

Absenteeism

The problem with teacher absenteeism, often recognized as a representation of potential or existing job dissatisfaction, was noted by several studies for its importance. Hanisch and Hulin (1991) identified absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviors (e.g., tardiness, turnover) as being reflective of attitudes such as job dissatisfaction, low level of commitment to the organization, or an intention to quit. Iverson, Olekalns and Erwin (1998) saw personal accomplishment as a predictor of decreased absenteeism. Similarly, Reyes (1990) and Bridges (1980) noted that job satisfaction contributes to a decrease in absenteeism.

Scott and Wimbush (1991) conducted a study to examine the absenteeism in secondary schools to determine factors related to absenteeism. In the study, motivation to attend was expected to be high for those employees who perceived work to be more central to their life than other activities, and also for those who reported higher involvement and satisfaction with their work. Absenteeism was negatively related to job satisfaction and job involvement. Variables which impacted motivation to attend were noted as satisfaction with pay, with promotions, with peers and supervisors, and with the

work itself. Supportive of these findings was Jacobson's 1989 study of the impact of pay incentives on teacher absenteeism. In his study, financial rewards of higher attendance rates resulted in significant short-term reduction of teacher absences.

Sagie's study (1998) reported that an employee "who is absent from work is consciously or unconsciously expressing negative attachment to the organization . . . absence can provide him or her an opportunity to avoid the negative emotions associated with work" (p. 156). Conversely, higher satisfied employees, or those strongly committed to the organization, will avoid withdrawal behaviors and maintain continued attachment to the organization. Sagie suggested administrators provide detailed feedback to their employees about their attendance and absences.

Yet, in contradiction to Sagie's reporting, Randall's (1990) research showed little evidence that a meaningful and consistent relationship exists between attitude and absenteeism. According to Randall, poorer correlations were observed between work attitudes and absenteeism than those correlations in other areas.

Morale and Climate

Work attitudes were often reflective in the teachers' self-concepts. Sweeney's study in 1981 suggested that the greatest teacher need deficiency was in the category of esteem, prestige or status. "Lack of esteem continues to pose a serious problem for our teachers" (p. 205). Strike (1990) noted the need for recognition of teaching as a "profession" and LoVette (1997) noted that teacher prestige and status are probably lower than ever before.

LoVette attributed lack of respect, low salaries, little opportunity for advancement and decreasing job security as adding to the lack of prestige and respect for teachers and the teaching profession. As a result, many teachers feel dissatisfied with jobs that are "overwhelming, and low morale, stress, burnout, and low self-esteem are clearly evident" (p. 305). Just as a positive school climate can positively affect a child's self-concept, LoVette asserted that a positive teacher self-concept can be instrumental in producing positive student self-concepts. LoVette further noted, however, that studies have rarely focused on the esteem needs of teachers.

Similarly, Kushman (1992) reported that teachers need to feel in control of the learning process. When they do, they are more likely to perceive their own professional worth and efficacy, seek and find solutions to students' learning difficulties, and in the end, experience more success in the classroom leading to greater intrinsic satisfaction with teaching (p. 36). When that intrinsic satisfaction is achieved, the ability to retain quality teachers will increase.

Hill (1995) noted that teachers leave the teaching profession for numerous reasons: no sense of achievement, no sense of affiliation, and no sense of control. Lobosco and Newman (1992) and Ascher (1991) recognized the need to retain quality teachers as one of the major tasks facing the field of education. Ascher specifically noted the importance of working conditions and their impact on teacher morale and effectiveness. Pisciotta (1996), in a survey of private school and public school teachers in Texas, noted that nearly half (48%) of the public school teachers plan to leave teaching. This compared to only 28% of those in private education planning to leave.

Other Impacting Factors

Other causes of teacher satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction have been addressed in additional studies. The British Columbia Teachers' Federation study (1996) noted that dissatisfaction arises out of problems and demands of the job itself (i.e., workload, hours, student behavior, lack of support/resources, unhappiness with assignment, problems with administration and staff, and lack of stability). Reyes and Pounder (1993) addressed the issue of organization orientation in both public and private elementary schools.

Corcoran, Walker and White (1988) noted that positive working conditions which would have a positive impact on teacher satisfaction and, thus, retention of good teachers include: supportive administrative leadership, high levels of staff collegiality, high levels of teacher impact on decision-making, high levels of teacher input in curriculum and instruction decisions, and good physical working conditions.

Hall, Pearson and Carroll (1992) compared teachers who were contemplating leaving the teaching profession and those who planned to stay in the profession long term. Those who planned to leave expressed less satisfaction with their current employment and with their salary and had a more negative attitude toward teaching as a career and toward the school administration.

Verdugo, Greenburg, Henderson, Uribe and Schneider (1997) noted that due to the importance of teacher job satisfaction on job quality and student achievement, teacher satisfaction with their job autonomy may be a useful predictor of overall job satisfaction. Sergiovanni (1967) suggested that satisfaction factors tended to focus on the work itself and dissatisfaction factors tended to focus on the conditions of the work. Though the

elimination of job dissatisfiers would not insure job satisfaction, Sergiovanni further suggested that one cannot experience work satisfaction without the elimination or tempering of those factors that cause dissatisfaction.

Tokar and Subich (1997) tested to see if personality dimensions contributed to the ability to predict job satisfaction. The results indicated that personality traits are less relational to job satisfaction than practical issues such as finances, home-career conflict, the job market, and supervisory or other working conditions. Dowell (1985) also studied personality types and level of job satisfaction among east Texas teachers using the MSQ and Myers-Briggs test.

Engelking (1986) identified satisfaction factors as including recognition and achievement. Dissatisfaction factors were identified as relations with students and parents, lack of achievement by students and teachers, district policy and its administration, and communication with administrators.

Lobosco and Newman (1992) noted that teachers who like and are more involved in their profession would most likely be more effective teachers. Further, they reported that the level of job satisfaction perceived by teachers has been shown to be linked to the teachers' perceptions of their students. Though most teachers find student learning to be rewarding, Lobosco and Newman report that several studies have reported that the intrinsic rewards of teaching that have come from the students have declined. Friedlander (1964), however, indicated that intrinsic factors were the most important determinants of job satisfaction.

Measurement

In their study, Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley and Bauer (1990) determined four categories useful in measuring job satisfaction:

1. The authority the individual has for carrying out his or her work.
2. The individual's present job in light of career expectations.
3. The chance that the job provides the individual the opportunity to do what he or she does best.
4. The extent to which conditions in the individual's school enables that individual to be effective in his or her job.

Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) listed the following criteria in measurement of job satisfaction:

1. Job satisfaction must be measured reliably.
2. Different results may be expected according to the scales used.
3. Satisfaction cannot be judged in absolute terms, but involves comparisons.
4. Relationship between person and environment is interactive.
5. Job satisfaction can be broken down into components.
6. Each of these facets can be tied to one or more aspects of the work environment.
7. Satisfaction with these aspects are intercorrelated.
8. Some of this general factor can be attributed to relatively permanent characteristics of the individual.
9. Job level is typically correlated with satisfaction with all aspects of the job.

10. Community characteristics can account for a large proportion of the intercorrelation of satisfaction (p. 45-47).

Lester (1987) asserted that there is a growing need to create a more exact measure that can be applied specifically to job satisfaction in an educational setting. He noted that the problem of job satisfaction can be addressed in the context of three broad areas: definitions of job satisfaction, job characteristics and the instrumentation used.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

A secondary focus of this review is the usage and validity of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). It has been used in numerous studies to measure and determine levels of job satisfaction in various work areas. Studies other than the ones previously cited have used the MSQ as the main survey instrument, or as one of the survey instruments. Butler (1983) used the MSQ and the Work Values Inventory to compare group differences in determining whether control over value fulfillment acts as a moderator, along with value importance, of the value fulfillment-job satisfaction relationship. Hansen (1993) studied staff development perceptions. Lyimo (1997) studied female faculty members to determine if there was a relationship between personal demographic characteristics, institutional variables and the dimensions of job satisfaction. Mason (1981) studied comparative job satisfaction between administrators and teachers. Neuman (1997) concluded that general satisfaction levels among teachers were low, while recognizing that measuring general satisfaction is not a complete indicator of job satisfaction. Rhodes-Offutt (1990) noted that early childhood educators' job satisfaction

was related to numerous variables such as grade level experience, teaching experience, life satisfaction, ethnicity and salary. Thompson and Blain (1992) compared the MSQ with the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) and determined their usefulness for career counselors and for career-changing clients. Walker (1996) studied job satisfaction between teachers in magnet high schools and teachers in non-magnet high schools in Indianapolis.

SUMMARY

Intrinsic and extrinsic variables have been reviewed as factors in determining job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Research supports the view that of the two, intrinsic variables have a greater impact. Research does not discount the impact of extrinsic variables, however. Gender and age factors appeared to support the theory that women were generally more satisfied than men and that older teachers were more satisfied than younger teachers. Perceived administrative behavior and communication were noted as key factors in determining individual satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Additionally, factors such as salary scales, self-esteem, workloads, career ladders and student behavior were among those addressed in various studies.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

The methodology used in this study is presented in this chapter. The population is identified, the procedures for selecting the study sample are explained and the procedures used in conducting the study are presented. A description of the instrumentation used and a presentation of the statistical analysis procedures are also included.

SUBJECTS

The population of this study was full-time teachers at the 398 member schools of the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International which met the criteria of offering educational programs within the range of kindergarten through twelfth grade. The number of schools and student enrollment was obtained from the 1998 International Membership Directory. The number of grades offered varied by school, but those schools listed as offering preschool programs only were not included in the study. The total student enrollment in the schools in that region (including preschools) was approximately 116,000.

Twenty percent of the member schools in each of the seven states in the region were selected. The selection was from those schools which met the criteria of offering day school programs within the kindergarten through twelfth grade range. The sample for the

study was randomly selected through a stratified cluster sampling by state with the selection of 82 schools agreeing to participate, or approximately 20% of the schools in each state which met the criteria. Alabama had 10 out of 49 eligible schools chosen, Georgia had 16 out of 80 eligible schools chosen, Mississippi had 4 out of 19 eligible schools chosen, North Carolina had 16 out of 77 eligible schools chosen, South Carolina had 6 out of 28 eligible schools chosen, Tennessee had 12 out of 58 eligible schools chosen and Virginia had 18 out of 87 eligible schools chosen.

The selection of participating schools was accomplished by assigning each eligible school within a state a randomly selected number from a Table of Random Numbers (Leedy, 1997). The list of schools used was an alphabetical list by city within each state. From a different Table of Random Numbers (Gay, 1996), a starting point was randomly selected. Using the last two digits in the random numbers, the schools were selected in order of the listing of their assigned random number until the determined number of schools was obtained. All full-time teachers in those selected schools were given the opportunity to participate in the survey.

PROCEDURES

A permission to survey letter (Appendix A) was obtained from Tom McClure, regional director of the Southeast Region of ACSI. It delineated that participation in the survey was voluntary and that regardless of the decision to participate or not, no school would be impacted in its standings or relationship with ACSI.

After the random selection of schools, the chief administrator at each school was contacted by telephone and sent a follow-up letter (Appendix B) requesting permission to survey his/her teachers. Included with that letter was a copy of the ACSI permission letter and a postage-paid response card (Appendix B). There was a place on the card for the administrator to agree to or decline participation in the survey. If an administrator declined, another school from that state was randomly selected and contacted. There was also a place on the card for the administrator to indicate the number of full-time teachers at the school (to determine the number of surveys that was required per school). The administrator was asked to coordinate the distribution and collection of the surveys and to return whatever surveys were completed by the return deadline date (February 9, 1999), approximately three weeks from the initial mailing.

After receiving permission from the administrator, a survey packet was sent to the school with a cover letter to the administrator (Appendix B), enough survey packets for each of the full-time teachers and a postage paid return mailer for the administrator to use for returning the surveys once they were collected. The teacher survey packets included the survey, a cover letter explaining the importance of the teacher's participation in the survey and assurance of confidentiality and anonymity (Appendix C), a sealable envelope for returning the survey to the administrator and a Personal Descriptors page and Informed Consent page (Appendices D and E). Approximately one week before the deadline date, a follow-up letter (Appendix B) was sent to all administrators reminding them of the deadline date and requesting they send a memo to their teachers reminding those who are participating to return the surveys. If there was no response from a school

after a reasonable amount of time, a follow-up phone call was made to the administrator to ascertain the status of his/her school's participation. A postcard was sent to each school following receipt of their surveys to thank the administrators for their participation and to let them know that any additional surveys that came in after the mailback date could still be sent for inclusion in the study.

INSTRUMENTATION

The instrumentation utilized was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Long Form (100 items), 1967 edition. Personal information (descriptors) was collected as part of the survey instrument.

Each of the twenty satisfaction scales of the MSQ consists of five items. Each item refers to a reinforcer factor in the work environment. Participants identified their degree of satisfaction by means of five response alternatives (as provided on the MSQ): not satisfied, only slightly satisfied, satisfied, very satisfied and extremely satisfied.

The twenty job satisfaction factors, as identified in the MSQ manual are:

1. Ability utilization. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
2. Achievement. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.
3. Activity. Being able to keep busy all the time.
4. Advancement. The chances for advancement on this job.
5. Authority. The chance to tell other people what to do.

6. Company (school) policies and practices. The way company (school) policies are put into practice.
7. Compensation. My pay and the amount of work I do.
8. Co-workers. The way my co-workers get along with each other.
9. Creativity. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.
10. Independence. The chance to work alone on the job.
11. Moral values. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.
12. Recognition. The praise I get for doing a good job.
13. Responsibility. The freedom to use my own judgment.
14. Security. The way my job provides for steady employment.
15. Social service. The chance to do things for other people.
16. Social status. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.
17. Supervision--human relations. The way my boss handles his employees.
18. Supervision--technical. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
19. Variety. The chance to do different things from time to time.
20. Working conditions. The working conditions (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).

The twenty job satisfaction scales are divided into three subscales: intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction. The intrinsic subscale measures the satisfaction with the

work itself. The extrinsic subscale measures the satisfaction with the work environment. The general satisfaction subscale consists of two scales.

The intrinsic subscale includes the following factors from the list given previously:

1. Ability utilization
2. Achievement
3. Activity
5. Authority
9. Creativity
10. Independence
11. Moral values
13. Responsibility
14. Security
15. Social service
16. Social status
19. Variety

The extrinsic subscale includes the following factors from the list given previously:

4. Advancement
6. Company (school) policies and practices
7. Compensation
12. Recognition
17. Supervision--human relations
18. Supervision--technical

The general satisfaction subscale includes the following factors from the list given previously:

8. Co-workers

20. Working conditions

The internal reliability of the MSQ was estimated using Hoyt's analysis-of-variance. The median Hoyt reliability coefficients ranged from .78 for Responsibility to .93 for Advancement and Recognition. Of the 567 Hoyt reliability coefficients reported in the MSQ manual, 83% were .80 or higher and only 2.5% were lower than .70. These suggest that the MSQ scales have adequate internal consistency reliabilities (Weiss et al., 1967).

Test-retest stability correlation coefficients are reported at a median coefficient of .83 (excluding the General Satisfaction scale) and .89 (for the General Satisfaction scale) based on a one-week interval for a sampling testing of seventy-five employees attending night school. Test-retest reliability correlation coefficients are also reported for a one-year interval of 115 employed individuals. For that group, the median stability coefficient, excluding General Satisfaction, was .61. The General Satisfaction stability coefficient for the one-year interval was .70 (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Evidence in support of construct validity for the MSQ was derived "indirectly from construct validation studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ), based on the Theory of Work Adjustment . . . analysis of the data yielded good evidence of construct validity for the Ability Utilization, Advancement and Variety scales of the MIQ and therefore indirectly for the same scales of the MSQ" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 16-17).

The personal information consisted of descriptors related to the participants' personal, educational and professional profile. Items included: gender, age, marital status, degree, length of teaching experience, class level taught, and salary (Appendix D).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The chi-square test of independence, used in testing categorical data to determine differences between independent variables (Borg, 1987; Hamburg, 1994), was used with Research Question 1, testing whether there is a significant difference in the responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors. The data were analyzed to ascertain the percentage of the participants in each of the five satisfaction scale categories: not satisfied, only slightly satisfied, satisfied, very satisfied, extremely satisfied. In some cases, when more than 20% of the categories had an expected count of less than five, some of the descriptive data categories were combined to yield an expected count of 20% or less.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical test was used with Research Questions 2, 3 and 4. For each question, it was used to determine whether there is a difference in the means of the respective satisfaction subscores (intrinsic, extrinsic and general) based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors. The means were calculated by converting the response to a scale ranging from 1 (not satisfied) to 5 (extremely satisfied). The Tukey HSD (honestly significant difference) test was used as a post-hoc analysis to identify where differences occurred. If there were fewer than three classifications, however, the Tukey HSD could not be performed.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study, research questions and analysis of the data are presented in this chapter. Each research question is presented in hypothesis form and applicable data analysis is discussed.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of job satisfaction among teachers in randomly selected member schools in the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI) and to determine if any differences exist in job satisfaction based on selective personal, educational and professional descriptors (age, degree, experience, gender, marital status, salary, and teaching level) as reported by the teachers.

RESEARCH QUESTION NULL HYPOTHESES

1. There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the long-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) based on their personal, educational and professional descriptors.

2. There is no difference in the means of the twelve intrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors.

3. There is no difference in the means of the six extrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors.

4. There is no difference in the means of the two general satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

At the 82 schools that granted permission to survey teachers, there were 1325 teachers who received the survey instrument. Of those, 725 returned the surveys. This gave a response rate of 55%. The number of usable surveys varied, depending upon the personal, educational and professional information provided by the teachers. Since the surveys were completed anonymously and voluntarily and the only contact person at each school was the administrator or his/her designee, it was not possible to do follow-up with individual teachers to ascertain why the non-response rate was as high as it was.

Due to the small numbers at the extremes of the satisfaction rating scales, it was necessary to collapse the rating scales for the chi-square analysis. They were collapsed into three categories: not/slightly satisfied, satisfied, very/extremely satisfied.

In some instances, the range frequencies (see Appendix F) in the descriptors representing the teachers' personal, educational and professional characteristics were too small, resulting in greater than 20% of the cells with an expected count less than five. According to Norušis (1997), "if too many of the expected values in a table are less than 5, the observed significance level based on the chi-square distribution may not be correct" (p. 308). Therefore, whenever the expected count was above 20%, the descriptors were also collapsed for the chi-square analysis. The only exception to this was the gender chi-square analyses. Due to only having two gender classifications, the characteristics could not be collapsed. The descriptors that were collapsed will be identified in their respective sections.

Seven null hypotheses (H_0) were tested for Research Hypothesis 1, one for each of the personal, educational and professional descriptors. The chi-square analysis was used for each of those null hypotheses. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for Research Hypotheses 2, 3 and 4. Acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis was based on a .05 alpha level of significance. Significance levels equal to or less than .05 were rejected. Thus, the probability of a Type I error occurring (rejection of the null hypothesis when it is actually true) is 5% or less.

For the chi-square analysis, the variables that were found to be significant are shown in Tables 1 through 22. Variables found not to be significant are presented in Appendix G. The significant variables are summarized in Table 23. The results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 are presented in Tables 24 through 27. A summary of all hypotheses is presented in Table 28.

Hypothesis 1

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the long-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) based on their personal, educational and professional descriptors.

Hypothesis 1a.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their age.

The fourth and fifth categories of the age descriptors (50-59 and 60+) were collapsed for the purposes of the chi-square analysis. One of the twenty satisfaction variables (5.0%) was found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. That variable (Social Status) is an intrinsic variable. There were no extrinsic or general satisfaction variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

Social Status (see Table 1): The number of usable responses was 712. Of the 712, 10.7% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 57.7% were satisfied and 31.6% were very/extremely satisfied. Of those who were age 20-29, 84.0% were satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. Of those who were age 30-39, 88.7% were satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. Of those who were age 40-49, 90.9% were satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. Of those who were age 50 or older, 94.3% were satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (63.3%) was the "satisfied" category for those who were age 40-49. With six degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .013 and the H_o was rejected.

Table 1

Significance of Teachers' Age and Social Status

AGE	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
20-29	28 (16.0%)	83 (47.4%)	64 (36.6%)	175
30-39	21 (11.3%)	106 (57.0%)	59 (31.7%)	186
40-49	19 (9.0%)	133 (63.3%)	58 (27.6%)	210
50+	8 (5.7%)	89 (63.1%)	44 (31.2%)	141
TOTAL	76 (10.7%)	411 (57.7%)	225 (31.6%)	712

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
16.056[a]	6	.013	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Teachers were generally satisfied with their social status, but the percentages for "very/extremely satisfied" were considerably lower than the percentages for "satisfied." Overall, teachers age 20-29 were less satisfied. This may be due in part to the fact that they are just beginning their careers and have not been able to achieve a desired social status level, yet. The visionary perceptions of teaching which they had in college may not have been realized during the early stages of their teaching careers. The satisfaction of the older teachers may be attributed to their career longevity and to the fact that the older teachers are those who have chosen to remain in the teaching profession.

Hypothesis 1b.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their degree.

For the purpose of the chi-square analysis, the degree categories were collapsed to two categories, Bachelor's Degree or less and Master's Degree or higher. There were no variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. The H_o was accepted.

Hypothesis 1c.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their gender.

The gender descriptors could not be collapsed. Seven of the twenty satisfaction variables (35.0%) were found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. Three of the seven (Authority, Independence, and Responsibility) are intrinsic variables. The other four (Advancement, Compensation, Recognition, and Supervision–Human Relations) are extrinsic variables. There were no general satisfaction variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

Authority (see Table 2): The number of usable responses was 714. Of the 714, 6.2% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 62.5% were satisfied and 31.3% were very/extremely satisfied. Ninety-five percent of the males were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 93.7% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (64.0%) was the "satisfied" category for female respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .021 and the H_o was rejected.

Table 2

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Authority

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	4 (5.0%)	40 (50.0%)	36 (45.0%)	80
Female	40 (6.3%)	406 (64.0%)	188 (29.7%)	634
TOTAL	44 (6.2%)	446 (62.5%)	224 (31.4%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
7.772[a]	2	.021	REJECT
[a] 1 cell (16.7%) has an expected count less than 5.			

Though both genders had high percentages of satisfaction with authority, there was a considerable difference between male and female perceptions in the "satisfied" and "very/extremely satisfied" categories. Females were higher in the "satisfied" category while males were higher in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. It may be that due to the fewer number of male teachers, those males may have a greater sense of authority within the school setting.

Independence (see Table 3): The number of usable responses was 713. Of the 713, 4.3% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 44.0% were satisfied and 51.6% were very/extremely satisfied. Ninety-five percent of the males were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 95.7% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (46.1%) was the "satisfied"

Table 3

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Independence

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	4 (5.0%)	22 (27.5%)	54 (67.5%)	80
Female	27 (4.3%)	292 (46.1%)	314 (49.6%)	633
TOTAL	31 (4.3%)	314 (44.0%)	368 (51.6%)	713

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
10.092[a]	2	.006	REJECT
[a] 1 cell (16.7%) has an expected count less than 5.			

category for female respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .006 and the H_o was rejected.

The greatest difference in responses was at the "satisfied" category, with females having a much higher response percentage. Contrastingly, the response percentages were reversed at the "very/extremely satisfied" categories, with males having the higher percentage. Again, this difference may be attributed, in part, to the large difference in the number of male and female teachers.

Responsibility (see Table 4): The number of usable responses was 714. Of those, 3.4% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 28.9% were satisfied and 67.6% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the males, 96.3% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 96.6% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely

Table 4

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Responsibility

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	3 (3.8%)	13 (16.3%)	64 (80.0%)	80
Female	21 (3.3%)	193 (30.4%)	420 (66.2%)	634
TOTAL	24 (3.4%)	206 (28.9%)	484 (67.8%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
6.982[a]	2	.030	REJECT
[a] 1 cell (16.7%) has an expected count less than 5.			

satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (80.0%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for the male respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .030 and the H_o was rejected.

Both genders expressed high percentages of satisfaction with responsibility. There was a notable difference between male and female responses in the "satisfied" and "very/extremely satisfied" categories. As reported previously, females were higher in the "satisfied" category while males were higher in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. Additional duties, such as coaching, may give the males a greater sense of responsibility.

Advancement (see Table 5): The number of usable responses was 712. Of the 712, 21.9% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 56.3% were satisfied and 21.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the males, 83.8% were either

Table 5

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Advancement

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	13 (16.3%)	38 (47.5%)	29 (36.3%)	80
Female	143 (22.6%)	363 (57.4%)	126 (19.9%)	632
TOTAL	156 (21.9%)	401 (56.3%)	155 (21.8%)	712

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
11.244[a]	2	.004	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 77.3% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (57.4%) was the "satisfied" category for female respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .004 and the H_o was rejected.

As in the previous category, the females expressed higher "satisfied" percentages while the males expressed higher percentages in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. There were considerable differences in the percentages in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. Again, due to the fewer number of males who teach at Christian schools, the perception may be that there is greater opportunity for advancement for them, simply because of the fewer numbers. There were larger percentages of males and females who were not/slightly satisfied, possibly due to limited advancement opportunities overall.

Compensation (see Table 6): Of the 714 usable responses, 60.6% of the teachers were not/slightly satisfied, 27.6% were satisfied and 11.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the males, 50.1% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 38.1% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (62.0%) was the "not/slightly satisfied" category for female respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .002 and the H_o was rejected.

Males were considerably higher in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. Females were notably higher in the "not/slightly satisfied" category, perhaps due to the limited number of higher paying positions and the large number of female teachers.

Table 6

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Compensation

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	40 (50.0%)	21 (26.3%)	19 (23.8%)	80
Female	393 (62.0%)	176 (27.8%)	65 (10.3%)	634
TOTAL	433 (60.6%)	197 (27.6%)	84 (11.8%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
12.743[a]	2	.002	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Recognition (see Table 7): The number of usable responses was 714. Of the 714, 14.8% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 37.3% were satisfied and 47.9% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the males, 92.6% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 84.2% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (61.3%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for male respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .024 and the H_0 was rejected.

The biggest percentage difference was in the "very/extremely satisfied" category, with males having the higher percentage. Conceivably, the males who have chosen to teach at Christian schools may have higher prominence simply due to their fewer numbers.

Table 7

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Recognition

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	6 (7.5%)	25 (31.3%)	49 (61.3%)	80
Female	100 (15.8%)	241 (38.0%)	293 (46.2%)	634
TOTAL	106 (14.8%)	266 (37.3%)	342 (47.9%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_0
7.499[a]	2	.024	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Supervision–Human Relations (see Table 8): The number of usable responses was 714. Of those, 12.6% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 23.5% were satisfied, and 63.9% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the males, 92.6% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 86.7% of the females were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (76.3%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for the male respondents. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .048 and the H_o was rejected.

The greatest difference in percentage was in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. There was a notably higher percentage of males than females. The males may feel a better relationship with their supervisors because of their limited numbers and their perceptions of easier accessibility to the supervisors.

Table 8

Significance of Teachers' Gender and Supervision–Human Relations

GENDER	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Male	6 (7.5%)	13 (16.3%)	61 (76.3%)	80
Female	84 (13.2%)	155 (24.4%)	395 (62.3%)	634
TOTAL	90 (12.6%)	168 (23.5%)	456 (63.9%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
6.055[a]	2	.048	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Hypothesis 1d.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their teaching level.

The teaching level categories were collapsed to two categories for the chi-square analysis: elementary (K-5) teachers and teachers who either teach only secondary grades (6-12) or a combination of elementary and secondary classes. Three of the twenty satisfaction variables (15.0%) were found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. Two of those variables (Creativity and Independence) are intrinsic variables; the other variable (Supervision–Human Relations) is an extrinsic variable. There were no general satisfaction variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

Creativity (see Table 9): The number of usable survey responses was 713. Of those who responded, 4.7% were not/slightly satisfied, 19.8% were satisfied, and 75.5% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the elementary teachers, 93.8% were satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 97.5% of the secondary and combination teachers were satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The "very/extremely satisfied" category for secondary and combination teachers was the highest single crosstabulation (81.0%). With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .010 and the H_o was rejected.

Overall, the secondary and combination teachers were more satisfied with their opportunity to be creative, perhaps due to the flexibility that is available in the secondary classrooms. Nevertheless, elementary teachers are generally perceived as being very creative. However, due to the self-contained nature of their classroom, they may not feel they have the opportunity to be as creative as they would like.

Table 9

Significance of Teachers' Teaching Level and Creativity

LEVEL	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
K-5	27 (6.2%)	95 (21.9%)	312 (71.9%)	434
6-12 and Combination	7 (2.5%)	46 (16.5%)	226 (81.0%)	279
TOTAL	34 (4.7%)	141 (19.8%)	538 (75.5%)	713

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
9.283[a]	2	.010	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Independence (see Table 10): The number of usable survey responses was 712. Of the 712, 4.4% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 44.1% were satisfied, and 51.5% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the elementary teachers, 94.5% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 97.5% of the secondary and combination teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (59.9%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for secondary and combination teachers. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .001 and the H_o was rejected.

The biggest difference in percentages was in the "very/extremely satisfied" category, with secondary and combination teachers higher. This may be due to the difference between a self-contained classroom and classes that change at regular intervals.

Table 10

Significance of Teachers' Teaching Level and Independence

LEVEL	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
K-5	24 (5.5%)	209 (48.3%)	200 (46.2%)	433
6-12 and Combination	7 (2.5%)	105 (37.6%)	167 (59.9%)	279
TOTAL	31 (4.4%)	314 (44.1%)	367 (51.5%)	712

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
14.086[a]	2	.001	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Supervision–Human Relations (see Table 11): The number of usable survey responses was 713. Of the 713, 12.6% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 23.6% were satisfied, and 63.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the elementary teachers, 85.7% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 90.0% of the secondary and combination teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (70.3%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for secondary and combination teachers. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .016 and the H_o was rejected.

The secondary and combination teachers were notably higher in the "very/extremely satisfied" category. With flexibility in scheduling and less constant supervisory responsibilities, those teachers may find it easier to relate to their supervisors.

Table 11

Significance of Teachers' Teaching Level and Supervision–Human Relations

LEVEL	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
K-5	62 (14.3%)	113 (26.0%)	259 (59.7%)	434
6-12 and Combination	28 (10.0%)	55 (19.7%)	196 (70.3%)	279
TOTAL	90 (12.6%)	168 (23.6%)	455 (63.8%)	713

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
8.287[a]	2	.016	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Hypothesis 1e.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their marital status.

The marital categories were collapsed to two categories for the chi-square analysis: Unmarried (which included single, divorced and widowed teachers) and Married. Four of the twenty satisfaction variables (20.0%) were found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. One of those variables (Social Status) is an intrinsic variable. The other three (Recognition, Supervision–Human Relations, and Supervision–Technical) were extrinsic variables. There were no general satisfaction variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

Social Status (see Table 12): The number of usable survey responses was 711. Of the 711, 10.7% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 57.8% were satisfied, and 31.5% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the unmarried teachers, 86.2% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 90.1% of the married teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (60.1%) was the "satisfied" category for married teachers. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .050 and the H_o was rejected.

Generally the married teachers were more satisfied with their social status. A key factor to be considered is that, most likely, the married teachers are not the sole financial support for their families and so they may not sense a need for social status as strongly as those who have no other financial or emotional support.

Table 12

Significance of Teachers' Marital Status and Social Status

MARITAL STATUS	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Unmarried	20 (13.8%)	71 (49.0%)	54 (37.2%)	145
Married	56 (9.9%)	340 (60.1%)	170 (30.0%)	566
TOTAL	76 (10.7%)	411 (57.8%)	224 (31.5%)	711

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
6.007[a]	2	.050	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Recognition (see Table 13): Of the 713 usable responses, 14.9% of the teachers were not/slightly satisfied, 37.3% were satisfied, and 47.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the unmarried teachers, 78.8% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 86.7% of the married teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (49.3%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for unmarried teachers. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .017 and the H_o was rejected.

Married teachers may have a higher sense of satisfaction with recognition because they have emotional support through their spouses. Unmarried teachers may feel a stronger need for recognition because they do not have that support at home.

Table 13

Significance of Teachers' Marital Status and Recognition

MARITAL STATUS	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Unmarried	31 (21.2%)	43 (29.5%)	72 (49.3%)	146
Married	75 (13.2%)	223 (39.3%)	269 (47.4%)	567
TOTAL	106 (14.9%)	266 (37.3%)	341 (47.8%)	713

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
8.126[a]	2	.017	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Supervision--Human Relations (see Table 14): Of the 713 usable responses, 12.6% were not/slightly satisfied, 23.6% were satisfied, and 63.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the unmarried teachers, 78.7% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 89.6% of the married teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (64.4%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for married teachers. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .001 and the H_o was rejected.

The relationship that a teacher has with his/her supervisor may be impacted by that teacher's marital status. Married teachers may not desire more from a supervisor since that teacher has a home support resource that is not available to the unmarried teacher.

Table 14

Significance of Teachers' Marital Status and Supervision--Human Relations

MARITAL STATUS	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Unmarried	31 (21.2%)	25 (17.1%)	90 (61.6%)	146
Married	59 (10.4%)	143 (25.2%)	365 (64.4%)	567
TOTAL	90 (12.6%)	168 (23.6%)	455 (63.8%)	713

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
14.149[a]	2	.001	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Supervision–Technical (see Table 15): The number of usable responses was 713. Of those teachers who responded, 10.1% were not/slightly satisfied, 31.6% were satisfied, and 58.3% were very/extremely satisfied. Eighty-five percent of the unmarried teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 91.1% of the married teachers were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (60.3%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for unmarried teachers. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .025 and the H_o was rejected.

Since most married teachers are probably providing a second family income, they may not be as critical of the decision-making abilities of the supervisor. They may not perceive administrative decisions as having significant impact on their families.

Table 15

Significance of Teachers' Marital Status and Supervision–Technical

MARITAL STATUS	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
Unmarried	22 (15.1%)	36 (24.7%)	88 (60.3%)	146
Married	50 (8.8%)	189 (33.3%)	328 (57.8%)	567
TOTAL	72 (10.1%)	225 (31.6%)	416 (58.3%)	713

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
7.378[a]	2	.025	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Hypothesis 1f.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their salary.

Salaries, as reported by the teachers, were to be base salaries only. Supplements for extra responsibilities were not to be included. The salary categories were collapsed to two categories for the chi-square analysis: Less than $20,000 and $20,000 or greater. Seven of the twenty satisfaction variables (35.0%) were found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. Five of those variables (Authority, Creativity, Responsibility, Security, and Social Status) are intrinsic variables. The other two variables (Advancement and Compensation) are extrinsic variables. There were no general satisfaction variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

Authority (see Table 16): The number of usable survey responses was 714. Of the 714, 6.2% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 62.5% were satisfied, and 31.3% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 93.1% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 95.1% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (65.7%) was the "satisfied" category for teachers who earn less than $20,000. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .015 and the H_0 was rejected.

There was a notable difference in percentages at the very/extremely satisfied level. This could demonstrate that teachers with higher salaries are those who have positions of greater authority, such as department heads.

Table 16

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Authority

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	30 (7.0%)	283 (65.7%)	118 (27.4%)	431
≥ $20,000	14 (4.9%)	163 (57.6%)	106 (37.5%)	283
TOTAL	44 (6.2%)	446 (62.5%)	224 (31.3%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
8.432[a]	2	.015	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Creativity (see Table 17): The number of usable survey responses was 714. Of the 714, 4.8% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 19.7% were satisfied, and 75.5% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 93.7% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 97.6% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (79.2%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for the teachers who make $20,000 or more. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .040 and the H_o was rejected.

Satisfaction with creativity was not significantly impacted by salary. Higher paid teachers expressed greater levels of satisfaction with creativity, but there was not a significant difference between their views and those of the lower paid teachers.

Table 17

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Creativity

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	27 (6.3%)	89 (20.6%)	315 (73.1%)	431
≥ $20,000	7 (2.5%)	52 (18.4%)	224 (79.2%)	283
TOTAL	34 (4.8%)	141 (19.7%)	539 (75.5%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
6.436[a]	2	.040	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Responsibility (see Table 18): The number of usable survey responses was 714. Of the 714, 3.4% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 28.8% were satisfied, and 67.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 95.6% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 98.2% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (73.5%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for teachers who earn $20,000 or more. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .014 and the H_o was rejected.

Higher paid teachers expressed higher levels of satisfaction with their levels of responsibility. In general, however, teachers at both salary levels were highly satisfied with the amount of responsibility they have.

Table 18

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Responsibility

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	19 (4.4%)	136 (31.6%)	276 (64.0%)	431
≥ $20,000	5 (1.8%)	70 (24.7%)	208 (73.5%)	283
TOTAL	24 (3.4%)	206 (28.8%)	484 (67.8%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
8.556[a]	2	.014	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Security (see Table 19): The number of usable survey responses was 714. Of the 714, 10.4% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 44.7% were satisfied, and 44.9% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 88.9% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 90.8% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (53.0%) was the "very/extremely satisfied" category for teachers who earn $20,000 or more. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .002 and the H_o was rejected.

The highest percentage difference was noted in the "very/extremely satisfied" category, with teachers in the lower salary range expressing higher percentages of satisfaction. Regardless of salary, however, the teachers feel secure in their jobs.

Table 19

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Security

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	48 (11.1%)	212 (49.2%)	171 (39.7%)	431
≥ $20,000	26 (9.2%)	107 (37.8%)	150 (53.0%)	283
TOTAL	74 (10.4%)	319 (44.7%)	321 (45.0%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
12.327[a]	2	.002	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Social Status (see Table 20): The number of usable survey responses was 712. Of the 712, 10.7% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 57.7% were satisfied, and 31.6% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 88.8% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 90.1% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (62.2%) was the "satisfied" category for teachers who earn less than $20,000. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .002 and the H_o was rejected.

The differences noted in perceptions of social status were similar to those noted in other categories. Teachers with lower salaries express higher percentages of "satisfied" while those with higher salaries had higher percentages in the upper satisfied categories.

Table 20

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Social Status

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	48 (11.2%)	267 (62.2%)	114 (26.6%)	429
≥ $20,000	28 (9.9%)	144 (50.9%)	111 (39.2%)	283
TOTAL	76 (10.7%)	411 (57.7%)	225 (31.6%)	712

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
12.710[a]	2	.002	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Advancement (see Table 21): The number of usable survey responses was 712. Of those, 21.9% were not/slightly satisfied, 56.3% were satisfied, and 21.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 75.8% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 81.6% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (56.9%) was the "satisfied" category for those teachers who earn less than $20,000. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .032 and the H_o was rejected.

The percentages of satisfaction are lower with regard to advancement. Due to the limited advancement opportunities, teachers at both levels did not express the same high levels of satisfaction with advancement that they expressed in other categories.

Table 21

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Advancement

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	104 (24.2%)	244 (56.9%)	81 (18.9%)	429
≥ $20,000	52 (18.4%)	157 (55.5%)	74 (26.1%)	283
TOTAL	156 (21.9%)	401 (56.3%)	155 (21.8%)	712

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
6.876[a]	2	.032	REJECT
[a] 0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Compensation (see Table 22): The number of usable survey responses was 714. Of the 714, 60.6% of the teachers who responded were not/slightly satisfied, 27.6% were satisfied, and 11.8% were very/extremely satisfied. Of the teachers who earn less than $20,000, 34.5% were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied; 46.7% of the teachers who earn $20,000 or more were either satisfied or very/extremely satisfied. The highest single crosstabulation (65.4%) was the "not/slightly satisfied" category for teachers who earn less than $20,000. With two degrees of freedom, the chi-square analysis yielded a significance of .000 and the H_o was rejected.

Compensation is the area of greatest concern. Regardless of salary range, the majority of the teachers are not satisfied with their compensation. Understandably, the lower paid teachers are the least satisfied.

Table 22

Significance of Teachers' Salary and Compensation

SALARY	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied	very/extremely satisfied	TOTAL
< $20,000	282 (65.4%)	117 (27.1%)	32 (7.4%)	431
≥ $20,000	151 (53.4%)	80 (28.3%)	52 (18.4%)	283
TOTAL	433 (60.6%)	197 (27.6%)	84 (11.8%)	714

Chi-square	DF	Significance	H_o
21.594[a]	2	.000	REJECT
[a]0 cells have expected count less than 5.			

Hypothesis 1g.

There is no difference in teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the MSQ based on their years of teaching experience.

For the purpose of the chi-square analysis, the experience categories were collapsed to two categories, 1-7 years and 8 years or more. There were no variables found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. The H_o was accepted.

Summary of the Results of Hypotheses 1a Through 1g

Table 23 presents a summary of the statistically significant differences between teachers' personal, educational and professional characteristics and the twenty MSQ job satisfaction factors.

Table 23

Summary of Significance of Hypotheses 1a Through 1g

Factor	Age	Degree	Gender	Level	Marital	Salary	Exper.
Ability Utilization							
Achievement							
Activity							
Authority			SIG			SIG	
Creativity				SIG		SIG	
Independence			SIG	SIG			
Moral Values							
Responsibility			SIG			SIG	
Security						SIG	
Social Service							
Social Status	SIG				SIG	SIG	
Variety							
Advancement			SIG			SIG	
Company Policies...							
Compensation			SIG			SIG	
Recognition			SIG		SIG		
Supervision--HR			SIG	SIG	SIG		
Supervision--Tech.					SIG		
Co-Workers							
Working Conditions							
There are 22 out of 140 cells that were found to be significant (SIG) with an α of .05.							

There was a statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on age and the job satisfaction factor of Social Status.

There was no statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on degree and the twenty job satisfaction factors.

There was a statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on gender and the job satisfaction factors of Authority, Independence, Responsibility, Advancement, Compensation, Recognition, and Supervision–Human Relations.

There was a statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on their teaching level and the job satisfaction factors of Creativity, Independence, and Supervision–Human Relations.

There was a statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on marital status and the job satisfaction factors of Social Status, Recognition, Supervision–Human Resources, and Supervision–Technical.

There was a statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on salary and the job satisfaction factors of Authority, Creativity, Responsibility, Security, Social Status, Advancement, and Compensation.

There was no statistically significant difference in the teachers' responses based on experience and the twenty job satisfaction factors.

Hypothesis 2

There is no difference in the means of the twelve intrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors.

Based on the analysis of variance of the seven descriptor variables, none were found to be significant at the .05 level. The H_o was accepted (see Table 24).

Hypothesis 3

There is no difference in the means of the six extrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors.

Based on the analysis of variance of the seven descriptor variables, three (42.9%) were found to be significant at the .05 level. There was a statistically significant difference in the extrinsic means for the gender, salary and experience variables. There was no significant difference for the age, degree, level and marital variables (see Table 25).

A post hoc test could not be performed for the gender variable because there were fewer than three gender classifications. The Tukey HSD post hoc test was used for analysis of the salary and experience comparisons to identify where the difference lies (see Table 26). Since the fourth salary category ($40,000+) had only one case, the third and fourth categories were collapsed for the Tukey HSD. The collapsed ANOVA data are included in Table 25. For salary, post hoc analysis showed a significant difference in the means of teachers making less than $20,000 and those making $20,000-$29,000. For experience, post hoc analysis showed a significant difference in the means of teachers with 4-7 years of experience and those with 16+ years of experience. Conceivably, the teachers in the 4-7 year range are possibly at a transitional stage in their professional career, considering whether or not to remain in education. Those with 16+ years experience have, in all probability, settled into their career.

Table 24

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Descriptor Variables and the Twelve Intrinsic Satisfaction Scales

Variable	Group	#	Mean	Standard Deviation	DF Between	F Ratio	Sig.
Age	20-29	175	3.7714	.7065	4	.425	.790
	30-39	186	3.7984	.7002			
	40-49	211	3.8483	.6588			
	50-59	123	3.8537	.6857			
	60+	19	3.8421	.8342			
Degree	Bachelor	564	3.8165	.6838	2	.144	.866
	Masters	139	3.8201	.7148			
	Doctoral	10	3.7000	.6749			
Gender	Male	80	3.8750	.5819	1	.631	.427
	Female	634	3.8099	.7025			
Level	K-5	434	3.7984	.7138	2	.352	.704
	6-12	250	3.8440	.6429			
	Combo	29	3.8276	.7106			
Marital	Single	97	3.7526	.6775	3	.939	.421
	Married	567	3.8175	.6795			
	Widowed	12	4.0833	.9962			
	Divorced	37	3.8649	.7514			
Salary	< $20K	431	3.7923	.7212	3	.545	.652
	$20-29K	259	3.8494	.6444			
	$30-39K	23	3.9130	.5964			
	$40K+	1	4.0000				
Experience	1-3	186	3.7527	.7152	3	1.378	.248
	4-7	183	3.7842	.6450			
	8-15	197	3.8477	.6978			
	16+	147	3.8912	.6937			

Table 25

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Descriptor Variables and the Six Extrinsic Satisfaction Scales

Variable	Group	#	Mean	Standard Deviation	DF Between	F Ratio	Sig.
Age	20-29	175	3.1571	.8507	4	1.929	.104
	30-39	186	3.3065	.8237			
	40-49	211	3.2417	.8300			
	50-59	123	3.3455	.7331			
	60+	19	3.5789	.7685			
Degree	Bachelor	564	3.2447	.8071	2	.760	.468
	Masters	139	3.3381	.8475			
	Doctoral	10	3.2000	.9189			
Gender	Male	80	3.4625	.7947	1	5.295	.022
	Female	634	3.2397	.8185			
Level	K-5	434	3.2177	.8291	2	1.765	.172
	6-12	250	3.3380	.7831			
	Combo	29	3.3103	.9298			
Marital	Single	97	3.2165	.8807	3	1.720	.161
	Married	567	3.2681	.7906			
	Widowed	12	3.7500	.7538			
	Divorced	37	3.1622	1.0412			
Salary (collapsed)	< $20K	431	3.1961	.7934	2	4.774	.009
	$20-29K	259	3.3494	.8551			
	$30K+	24	3.5833	.7173			
Experience	1-3	186	3.3065	.8559	3	3.269	.021
	4-7	183	3.1011	.7893			
	8-15	197	3.3147	.8406			
	16+	147	3.3367	.7429			

Table 26

Summary of Post Hoc Analysis of Salary and Experience

Variable (I)	Variable (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Significance
< $20,000	$20,000 - $29,000	-.1534*	.044
	$30,000 or more	-.3873	.060
$20,000 - $29,000	< $20,000	.1534*	.044
	$30,000 or more	-.2339	.369
$30,000 or more	< $20,000	.3873	.060
	$20,000 - $29,000	.2339	.369
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.			

Variable (I)	Variable (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Significance
1-3 years	4-7 years	.2054	.072
	8-15 years	-8.27E-03	1.000
	16+ years	-3.03E-02	.987
4-7 years	1-3 years	-.2054	.072
	8-15 years	-.2136	.051
	16+ years	-.2356*	.044
8-15 years	1-3 years	8.269E-03	1.000
	4-7 years	.2136	.051
	16+ years	-2.20E-02	.995
16+ years	1-3 years	3.208E-02	.987
	4-7 years	.2356*	.044
	8-15 years	2.201E-02	.995
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.			

Hypothesis 4

There is no difference in the means of the two general satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors.

Based on the analysis of variance of the seven descriptor variables, none were found to be significant at the .05 level. The H_o was accepted (see Table 27).

SUMMARY

The results of the data analysis for each of the hypotheses were presented in this chapter. The statistically significant differences between teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors and the twenty job satisfaction factors and the intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction subscores are presented. The following conclusions can be developed:

A. Age -- A statistically significant difference was shown in responses to Social Status. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic, extrinsic or general satisfaction subscores based on age.

As age increased, there was an increase in satisfaction. Several factors could contribute to this increase. Teachers at the beginning of their careers, generally fresh out of college, may not feel a sense of social status related to their career. As teachers continue in the profession, either their need for social status is accomplished, the need diminishes, or the need is fulfilled in other areas. In those cases, other factors, not necessarily related to their career, may contribute to their overall sense of social status.

Table 27

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Descriptor Variables and the Two General Satisfaction Scales

Variable	Group	#	Mean	Standard Deviation	DF Between	F Ratio	Sig.
Age	20-29	175	3.8000	.8442	4	1.788	.129
	30-39	186	3.7473	.7889			
	40-49	211	3.9005	.7835			
	50-59	123	3.8293	.7322			
	60+	19	4.1579	.8983			
Degree	Bachelor	564	3.8103	.7892	2	.823	.440
	Masters	139	3.8921	.8226			
	Doctoral	10	4.0000	.8165			
Gender	Male	80	3.9375	.7850	1	1.626	.203
	Female	634	3.8170	.7977			
Level	K-5	434	3.8249	.7965	2	.163	.849
	6-12	250	3.8440	.7837			
	Combo	29	3.7586	.9124			
Marital	Single	97	3.8247	.8540	3	1.169	.321
	Married	567	3.8236	.7800			
	Widowed	12	4.2500	.8660			
	Divorced	37	3.7838	.8542			
Salary	< $20K	431	3.8097	.7930	3	.374	.772
	$20-29K	259	3.8533	.8080			
	$30-39K	23	3.9565	.7674			
	$40K+	1	4.0000				
Experience	1-3	186	3.8226	.8092	3	.538	.656
	4-7	183	3.8361	.7812			
	8-15	197	3.7817	.8069			
	16+	147	3.8912	.7863			

B. Degree – There were no statistically significant differences shown in responses to any of the twenty satisfaction variables. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic, extrinsic or general satisfaction subscores based on degree. Thus, the highest degree earned did not make a statistically significant difference in the teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction.

C. Gender – Statistically significant differences were shown in responses to Authority, Independence, Responsibility, Advancement, Compensation, Recognition, and Supervision–Human Relations. There was a statistically significant difference in the means of the extrinsic subscores based on gender. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic and general satisfaction subscores based on gender.

In all but two of the scales, men expressed higher levels of satisfaction than women. In the two where women were higher (Independence and Responsibility), the difference was small. An important consideration is the small number of men teachers in the response group. Since they are so few in number, the men may feel a greater potential for opportunities than what the women feel. Their minority status may, in fact, offer them more recognition and more authority, simply due to the uniqueness of being a male in a traditionally female dominated profession. Additional responsibilities, such as coaching, though not included in this study, may also be factors in developing a higher sense of satisfaction.

D. Level – Statistically significant differences were shown in response to Creativity, Independence, and Supervision–Human Relations. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction subscores based on level.

In each area, higher levels of satisfaction were reported by teachers who either teach secondary classes or teach a combination of elementary and secondary classes. The nature of the traditional self-contained elementary classroom may be such that teachers in those rooms do not feel as much independence as those who have rotating schedules and regular class changes. Though elementary teachers are generally perceived as being creative in the kinds of things they do, they may not perceive their own creativity because they are with the same students all day, every day. Teachers in secondary and combination classes have an opportunity to interact with different students each period and, possibly, have more opportunity to interact with supervisors and peers during class changes and non-supervisory times. The time during class changes may give secondary and combination teachers a sense of more independence, as well.

E. Marital – Statistically significant differences were shown in responses to Social Status, Recognition, Supervision–Human Relations, and Supervision–Technical. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction subscores based on marital status.

In each case, married teachers expressed higher levels of satisfaction than the unmarried teachers. Admittedly, collapsing the non-married variables into a single category does not make allowances for needs and perceptions that may be unique to teachers who are divorced or widowed. Still, 80% of the teachers who responded were married and the breakdown in the other classifications was too small to allow for sufficient analysis without collapsing them. Future study of those particular distinctions may be warranted.

Taking all that into consideration, there are still some factors that may significantly impact teachers' perceptions. Eighty-eight percent of the married teachers are female. Thus, it can be assumed that most of them are not the sole source of income for their families and are, in fact, providing a secondary income. Therefore, they may not have the same sense of financial need that the unmarried teachers feel. Similarly 86.3% of the male respondents are married. They, also, may have the benefit of a second income from a working spouse or may assume additional responsibilities, such as coaching, that supplement their base income. It should be noted, the assumption of additional responsibilities is not limited by marital status nor to a specific gender. Those opportunities are available to all teachers, male and female, married and unmarried, and provide the means for teachers to acquire supplemental income.

Additionally, the married teachers have the benefit of emotional, as well as financial, support at home through their spouses and it would be unwise to discount the impact of having that spousal support. Married teachers may gain their sense of social status and recognition through their spouses and may feel they are better able to relate to their supervisors. Contrastingly, unmarried teachers may either feel the need for more input and emotional support from their supervisors or, if the supervisors are married, unmarried teachers may feel they are unable to relate to the supervisors or that the supervisors are unable to relate to their particular needs.

F. Salary – Statistically significant differences were shown in responses to Authority, Creativity, Responsibility, Security, Social Status, Advancement, and Compensation. There was a statistically significant difference in the means of the extrinsic subscores based on salary. Post hoc analysis showed the differences to be significant between those making less than $20,000 and those making $20,000-$29,000. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic and general satisfaction subscores based on salary.

Almost 2/3 of the teachers who responded earn less than $20,000. In every instance, teachers with higher salaries ($20,000 or more) expressed higher levels of satisfaction. This would appear to be a simple matter of economic impact. Quite simply, teachers who make more seem

to be more satisfied. Yet, interestingly enough, the teachers with the lower salaries were not exceptionally lower in their expressions of satisfaction.

Higher salaries can contribute to a sense of higher social status and financial security. The salaries reported were supposed to be base salaries, but it may be that some of those with higher salaries also have additional responsibilities which allow them the opportunity to be more creative and to have more authority, at least in their perception.

Salary (Compensation) was the only scale that had greater than 50% in the not/slightly satisfied range for every descriptive variable. Yet, in spite of the low salaries, teachers consistently expressed high levels of satisfaction, demonstrating that, regardless of salary, they receive satisfaction from what they do.

Of those with the lower salaries, 265 (61.6%) have 1-7 years of experience. Thus, 2/3 of those making less than $20,000 are in the early stages of their careers. This may account, in part, for their lower salaries and some of their salary-based perceptions, though experience alone was not a statistically significant factor impacting those perceptions.

G. Experience – There were no statistically significant differences shown in responses to any of the twenty satisfaction variables. There was a statistically significant difference in the means of the extrinsic subscores based on experience. Post hoc analysis showed the differences to be significant between teachers with 4-7 years of experience and those with

16+ years of experience. There was no statistically significant difference in the means of the intrinsic and general satisfaction subscores based on experience. Thus, the length of experience did not make a statistically significant difference in the teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction. Experience may impact salary level, but experience alone was not shown to be statistically significant.

The statistically significant differences are presented in Table 28. The numbers in parentheses represent the percentage of satisfaction scales that a variable has in a particular subscale category (intrinsic, extrinsic, or general satisfaction). For example, there is one intrinsic scale (Social Status) that was statistically significant with regard to the responses based on age. That one scale is 8.3% of the twelve intrinsic scales.

Table 28

Summary of Significance of Hypotheses 1 Through 4

Variable	Hypothesis 1			
	Intrinsic [12 scales]	Extrinsic [6 scales]	General [2 scales]	Total [20 scales]
Age	1 (8.3%)	-	-	1 (5.0%)
Degree	-	-	-	-
Gender	3 (25.0%)	4 (66.7%)	-	7 (35.0%)
Level	2 (16.7%)	1 (16.7%)	-	3 (15.0%)
Marital	1 (8.3%)	3 (50.0%)	-	4 (20.0%)
Salary	5 (41.7%)	2 (33.3%)	-	7 (35.0%)
Experience	-	-	-	-

Variable	Hypothesis 2 Intrinsic Means	Hypothesis 3 Extrinsic Means	Hypothesis 4 General Means
Age	NS	NS	NS
Degree	NS	NS	NS
Gender	NS	SIG	NS
Level	NS	NS	NS
Marital	NS	NS	NS
Salary	NS	SIG	NS
Experience	NS	SIG	NS
NS = Not Significant / SIG = Significant			

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of job satisfaction among teachers in selected member schools in the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International and to determine if any differences exist in job satisfaction based on selected personal, educational and professional descriptors as reported by the teachers. Given this purpose, four research questions guided the study. They are:

1. Is there a difference in the teachers' responses to the twenty job satisfaction scales on the long-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) based on their personal, educational and professional descriptors?
2. Is there a difference in the means of the twelve intrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors?
3. Is there a difference in the means of the six extrinsic satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors?
4. Is there a difference in the means of the two general satisfaction scales of the MSQ based on the teachers' personal, educational and professional descriptors?

The population of the study consisted of full-time teachers in kindergarten through twelfth grade at 82 randomly selected schools in the Southeast Region. The schools were of varied Christian denominational affiliations and their main similarities were their identification as Christian schools and their membership in ACSI. The data were collected through individual surveys (the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire long form) sent to the school administrators for distribution to the teachers who met the full-time and grade level criteria. Frequencies of responses were noted and the surveys were analyzed using chi-square analysis for Research Question 1 and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Research Questions 2 through 4. The statistical analysis was described in Chapter IV.

CONCLUSIONS

A list of the most significant conclusions that emerged from the data follows:

1. Teachers in all age groups were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. There were statistically significant differences shown with regard to Social Status. Teachers age 50 and above were the most satisfied and teachers age 20-29 were least satisfied.. Teachers in all age groups were not/slightly satisfied with the extrinsic factor of Compensation and showed lower levels of satisfaction with Company Policies and Practices (also, extrinsic) and Working Conditions (general satisfaction). Teachers of all age groups were satisfied with the other extrinsic and general satisfaction factors.

Therefore, teacher expressions of satisfaction increased with age. A key factor in this may simply be that the older teachers are those who have chosen to stay with the profession and, thus, would logically be more positive about their satisfaction with that choice. Many of the younger teachers may have already determined that they do not want to stay in education (or private Christian education) and their satisfaction perceptions may lower the overall percentages for their age group.

2. Teachers in both degree classifications were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. They were not/slightly satisfied with the extrinsic factor of Compensation and showed lower levels of satisfaction with Advancement and Company Policies and Practices (both extrinsic). They were satisfied with the other extrinsic and general satisfaction aspects of their work. There were no statistically significant differences in responses based on degree.

The level of degree earned did not significantly impact teacher perceptions. In the Christian schools surveyed, there were more than three times as many teachers with an undergraduate degree or less as compared to those who had graduate degrees of some type. It would appear that degree, in and of itself, is not a factor that impacts teacher job satisfaction among those surveyed.

3. Statistically significant differences were shown in gender responses with regard to the intrinsic factors of Authority, Independence, and

Responsibility. Males were the most satisfied with Authority and females were the most satisfied with Independence and Responsibility. Overall, teachers of both genders were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. Statistically significant differences were shown with regard to the extrinsic factors of Advancement, Compensation, Recognition, and Supervision–Human Relations. Males were the most satisfied in each of those categories. Overall, teachers of both genders were satisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their work. They were not/slightly satisfied with the extrinsic factor of Compensation. Teachers of both genders were satisfied with the general satisfaction aspects of their work.

As noted previously, the smaller number of males in the survey may have a substantial impact on the findings. Their numbers may work to their favor in that they may have, or perceive themselves as having, a greater profile at the school and, thus, greater opportunity for advancement or for making a significant difference in school policies. Contrastingly, the female teachers may sense a greater competition for advancement and authority roles because of the greater number of females. Similarly, the female teachers may also sense that because of the small number of males, priority may be given to male teachers for those advancement and authority opportunities.

4. Teachers in both teaching levels were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. There were statistically significant differences shown with

regard to Creativity and Independence. In each of these factors, secondary and combination teachers were the most satisfied. Teachers in both level categories were not/slightly satisfied with the extrinsic factor of Compensation and showed lower levels of satisfaction with Advancement and Company Policies and Practices. They were satisfied with the other extrinsic and the general satisfaction aspects of their work.

In almost every category, secondary and combination teachers expressed higher levels of satisfaction. It could be that the nature of the position does impact teacher perceptions. Elementary teachers are, most often, in self-contained classrooms and work with the same students for most of the school day. Secondary and combination teachers have set class periods and, generally, different students in each of those periods. By virtue of their age, elementary students may require more direct supervision, thus giving the elementary teachers a greater sense of constant responsibility and a lower sense of independence. Secondary and some combination teachers, on the other hand, may feel more freedom and flexibility during class changes and non-instructional time because their students are older and do not need to be supervised as closely.

5. Unmarried and married teachers were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. There were statistically significant differences shown in their response with regard to Social Status. Statistically significant differences were shown in their responses to the extrinsic factors of Recognition,

Supervision–Human Relations, and Supervision–Technical. In each of these, married teachers were the most satisfied. Additionally, teachers of both marital status categories were not/slightly satisfied with the extrinsic factor of Compensation and showed lower levels of satisfaction with the extrinsic factor of Advancement. They were satisfied with the other extrinsic and general satisfaction aspects of their work.

A significant number (80%) of the respondents were married. The married teachers consistently expressed higher levels of satisfaction. There are a number of factors that should be considered with regard to marital status and the impact that status has on teacher perceptions. In many ways, the support of a spouse can lighten the emotional and financial burden that an individual carries, even impacting that individual's perceptions about his/her job. Since so many of the respondents were married, the consideration that their income may, in fact, be a secondary family income cannot be overlooked. Similarly, having a spouse to provide emotional support may relieve some of the pressures or frustrations that an individual may have. That is not to say that unmarried teachers do not have external emotional and financial support nor does it mean that they have greater need for it than married teachers. It is more likely, however, that the impact of a spouse, in whatever fashion that may be, does provide some means in helping teachers cope with their jobs. Though that impact cannot be ignored, it is not measured in this study.

6. Teachers at both salary levels were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. There were statistically significant differences shown in their responses with regard to Authority, Creativity, Responsibility, Security, and Social Status. For each of those factors, teachers with salaries of $20,000 or more were the most satisfied. Overall, teachers at both salary levels were generally satisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their work. There was a significant difference shown with regard to Compensation with teachers with salaries of $20,000 or more being the most satisfied. However, there were higher percentages of teachers at both salary levels who were not/slightly satisfied with Compensation. Additionally, teachers at both salary levels showed lower levels of satisfaction with Advancement and Company Policies and Practices. Teachers of both salary levels were satisfied with the general satisfaction aspects of their work.

Regardless of salary the teachers were generally satisfied with their work. Though the higher paid teachers had higher satisfaction percentages, there was not a significant difference in the responses given by the lower paid teachers. Salary seems to be the greatest area of concern, though it does not seem to significantly impact teacher perceptions of satisfaction. A possible consideration, which will be discussed later in this chapter, is that teachers in Christian schools realize their salaries will be lower and perceive they have a greater purpose for being at the Christian school. They appear to be willing to accept the trade-off of lower salaries in exchange for the

benefits that come from the Christian school environment (i.e., smaller class loads, freedom to share their religious faith, generally fewer discipline problems, a positive Christian environment).

7. Teachers at both levels of experience were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work. They were not/slightly satisfied with the extrinsic factor of Compensation and showed lower levels of satisfaction with the extrinsic factors of Advancement and Company Policies and Practices. They were satisfied with the other extrinsic and general satisfaction aspects of their work. There were no statistically significant differences in responses based on experience.

Initially, one might assume that responses based on experience would parallel those based on age, with the more experienced teachers consistently expressing higher levels of satisfaction because they have stayed with the profession. This was not the case with this study, however. Significant differences were not shown and the higher percentages were not limited to one experience category over another. Thus, it can be concluded that for the Christian school teachers who responded, their years of experience did not significantly impact their satisfaction perceptions. In reality, other than the lower percentages for Advancement, Compensation and Company Policies and Practices, their perceptions are not impacted by their years of teaching experience. There is no determination of years of experience at their respective school, however. Future study might warrant

identifying the years of experience at a given school to see if there are significant differences in responses based on that factor.

Consistently, teacher responses to Compensation were not/slightly satisfied. Similarly, responses to Advancement and Company Policies and Practices were repeatedly lower than responses to other factors.

DISCUSSION AND REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY

According to Lortie (1975), the "traditions of teaching" have a tendency to muzzle personal ambition. Teachers who seek money, power or prestige are often viewed with suspicion as to their commitment and education is perceived as a service-oriented profession. The virtue of giving more than receiving is highly extolled and countless numbers of teachers derive satisfaction from seeing and participating in student success, from knowing that their impact on the student is life-changing and that they are giving so their students may receive and achieve success and fulfillment. In many cases, the teachers' drive to teach comes from sharing and imparting knowledge and from knowing they are giving students something the students can use and apply and that will make a difference in the students' lives (Miller, 1998).

Numerous studies, predominantly in public education and higher education sectors, have been conducted to analyze the factors which impact levels of job satisfaction in various educational settings. An often unstated goal of many of these studies of job satisfaction is the desire to learn what might be done to enhance the teachers' levels of

satisfaction. The topic of job satisfaction is one that is considered time and again because of the apparent relationship between job satisfaction, performance and decision to stay.

Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) reported the presence of six "relatively independent" factors that should be considered when studying job satisfaction. They are:

1. General satisfaction and morale
2. Attitudes toward the company [school] and its policies
3. Satisfaction with intrinsic aspects of job satisfaction
4. Attitudes toward the immediate supervisor
5. Attitudes toward satisfaction of [personal] aspirations
6. Satisfaction with conditions at the present job.

Often overlooked in many of the studies, the private school sector can also be a source of substantial information related to this topic. Reyes and Pounder (1993) reported that there are differences in job satisfaction levels and commitment between private and public schools. They suggested that the strength of the private school sector is often a result of greater homogeneity of beliefs among the teachers and staff. Because of this commonality in values and beliefs, they believe the organizational commitment level tends to be stronger in private schools even though factors such as compensation are generally lower. It should be noted, however, that there is often a distinction between private Christian schools and other (non-sectarian) private schools with regard to funding and compensation. In general, though not always the case, private Christian schools are unable to offer salaries commensurate with those offered in the more heavily endowed private schools and in the public school systems.

This study has focused on private Christian schools in the Southeast Region of ACSI. Though compensation has been shown to be a significant factor in the perceptions of many of the teachers, it is not significant enough to cause the teachers to leave the school for higher-paying positions elsewhere. Obviously, other factors must play a part in giving the teachers satisfaction in their jobs and, thus, causing them to be willing to accept the trade-off of lesser pay.

Differences were noted in social status based on age. Though teachers in all age ranges expressed satisfaction, a lower percentage of teachers in the 20-29 age range were satisfied. A possible contributing factor to this could be that the younger teachers are at the beginning of their careers and are still trying to establish their identities as teachers and even whether or not they intend to stay in education or in private Christian education. Similarly, the older teachers in private Christian education may feel a greater sense of commitment to where they are professionally and greater fulfillment from what they do.

There were no statistically significant differences based on degree. Chapman's 1984 study reported that intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction decreased as the level of graduate education increased. This was not fully supported by the findings of this study. The means of the intrinsic and extrinsic scales increased at the Masters level and decreased at the Doctoral level. The means of the general satisfaction scale increased at both the Masters and Doctoral levels. There were only ten respondents who reported a degree beyond the Masters level. This number is too small to allow for any conclusions about perceptions of those who have degrees beyond the Masters level. An increase in their number could dramatically impact the results.

There were statistically significant differences in some areas based on gender. Notably, the males were more satisfied with advancement, authority, compensation, recognition, and supervision–human relations. Females were more satisfied with responsibility and independence. One possible explanation for the higher male perceptions might be that there were substantially fewer males (n=80) than females (n=634) and those males might have perceived themselves as having more opportunity for authority, recognition and advancement simply because of their fewer numbers and the need for the establishment of credible male role models. As a result, their compensation might also be at a higher level due to the opportunities that are afforded them. This is not meant to imply gender discrimination; rather, the pool of individuals from which to pull is smaller with males and, therefore, their perceptions of more opportunities may be higher. The higher numbers of females may cause many to feel they don't have the opportunities for advancement and authority that they would like to have.

The higher number of females could also positively impact their perceptions. They may have higher satisfaction perceptions about independence and responsibility because they may not feel they are as noticeable as the male teachers. The old adage of safety in numbers may apply here simply because the females may not sense they are under scrutiny, or the proverbial microscope, as much as the males do. That is not to say that the female teachers have more independence and responsibility as males, it just may be that their perceptions are skewed by their large numbers.

A possible explanation for the secondary and combination teachers expressing higher percentages of satisfaction with creativity, independence and supervision–human

relations could be the class schedules with different students, periods and subjects that are the norm for secondary teachers. In contrast, the elementary teachers might perceive their teaching environment (self-contained classrooms) as offering less opportunity for these factors.

Consistently, the married teachers expressed statistically significant higher levels of satisfaction with regard to a number of factors. Quite possibly, the married teachers are not the sole income providers for their families and do not feel the frustration and/or urgency that comes from being the principal provider. Therefore, their incomes may be supplemental and the factors where significant differences were noted simply might not be as important to them. Contrastingly, for the unmarried teachers, as sole providers, factors such as recognition, social status and supervision–human relations might be perceived as being of high importance.

There were no statistically significant differences based on years of experience. Adcock (1991) found that satisfaction with responsibility was related to teaching experience. However, the findings of Hemmasi et al. (1992) differed from Adcock's with respect to the impact of teaching experience on satisfaction in general. Hemmasi et al. found that length of time at an institution had a negative impact on satisfaction. This related specifically to tenure with an institution and did not directly relate to overall teaching experience. Reyes (1990) reported that the total years of teaching experience and personal value orientation may be other variables that influence job satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

The teachers in this study consistently showed high levels of satisfaction with creativity and independence. Statistically significant differences were noted based on teaching level (for creativity and independence) and gender (for independence). This would agree with the findings of Friedlander (1964), who indicated that the freedom to choose textbooks, programs and media, and the opportunity to be creative enhanced satisfaction. Similarly, Evers (1992) and Diener (1985) found that flexible and autonomous (independent) working conditions were influential factors in promoting job satisfaction. Thus, increasing opportunities for creativity and independence in decision-making as it relates to the classroom, could increase levels of satisfaction.

Satisfaction with authority was high in all categories, with statistically significant differences based on gender and salary. Pumipuntu (1992) indicated that as teachers' age increased, their satisfaction with their level of authority increased and Guy (1992) found the level of authority to be significantly related to the level of job satisfaction.

In this study, the responses regarding responsibility were consistently high. The only statistically significant differences in responses were noted with regards to salary level with teachers with salaries of $20,000 or more expressing higher levels of satisfaction with responsibility. There was a lower percentage of younger teachers (age 20-29) who expressed satisfaction with responsibility. Initially, this might be attributed to their lack of teaching experience. Contrastingly, however, there were minimal differences in the percentages of satisfied responses based on years of experience with teachers with less experience (1-7 years) having a slightly higher percentage.

In all descriptive categories, teachers expressed high levels of satisfaction with moral values. This would be consistent with Reyes' (1990) and Reyes and Pounder's (1993) findings mentioned previously. The homogeneity of religious views embraced in a private Christian school would be expected to promote higher levels of satisfaction with the moral values espoused by that school and would be less likely to be in conflict with the individual's personal moral values.

Two factors having lower percentages of satisfaction were advancement and company policies and practices. Statistically significant differences were noted by gender for advancement. As stated previously, the differences in gender perceptions may be due, in part, to the smaller number of males in the private Christian school sector.

With regard to company policies and practices, studies have emphasized the importance of teacher input and/or participation in policy making. Benson (1983) recommended that administrators involve teachers in decision-making, reporting that modification of the organizational structure of a school can improve levels of satisfaction. Reyes (1990) concurred by suggesting that as schools become more open to teacher participation in decision-making, the level of satisfaction increases.

The only factor that was consistently noted as not being satisfactory was compensation. In every descriptive category, more than half responded as being either not/slightly satisfied with compensation. Statistically significant differences were noted by gender (50.2% for males compared to 62.0% for females) and salary (65.5% for those making less than $20,000 compared to 53.4% for those making $20,000 or more). For both gender and salary, a total of 60.7% of the participants were not/slightly satisfied.

According to Gándara (1992), increased compensation was the key to job satisfaction for the largest portion of teachers. For many teachers, increased compensation helps to promote the feeling of being a professional. Further, Gándara recommended consideration of extended contracts to give teachers an option which would provide compensation at a level that would more accurately reflect their value to society.

Private Christian schools are often limited in their financial resources and, therefore, teachers must accept salaries that are less than what they could make in other educational settings. Yet, in spite of the lower salaries, the teachers expressed high levels of satisfaction in virtually all other areas of their work.

From personal experience in the private Christian school sector, the researcher has found that many teachers in those schools feel a sense of divine "calling" or "purpose" in what they are doing. This is not to say the lower salaries are justified by the ministry aspect of the position; rather, many of those teachers perceive their work as a ministry in and of itself and, therefore, though higher salaries would be welcomed and appreciated, they do not expect the salaries to be equal with what they would be able to get in other settings. Often, teachers in Christian schools work in settings that have limited financial and physical resources, require additional responsibilities beyond those that are part of the normal classroom setting and must meet and accept other affiliation (e.g., denominational) and/or lifestyle requirements that come as a result of being employed in a Christian school setting. To those teachers, however, the opportunity to be open about their religious faith, the somewhat cloistered setting of the parochial school environment and the smaller student/teacher ratio compensates for the limited funding and resources.

The two scales with the highest overall satisfaction percentages were moral values (99.0%) and social service (98.3%). Though this study was not designed to identify religious views, the high percentages of moral values and social service may coincide with the individual teachers' religious perceptions of what they do and why they do it. Theirs is not only a mission of commitment to education, but also a mission of commitment to the spiritual development of their students and the environment of the private Christian school provides the vehicle whereby that mission of spiritual nurturing can be accomplished.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Ascher (1991) offered several recommendations that could be implemented to increase teacher satisfaction. He suggested that schools/administrators (1) should work to improve management of existing resources, (2) should work toward smallness of scale, (3) should reward good teaching, (4) should empower teachers through a minimization of bureaucracy, (5) should work to break down teachers' feelings of isolation by promoting a community feeling among the staff, and (6) should provide opportunities and assistance for teachers to function as continuous learners.

Similarly, the findings of this study suggest a number of recommendations pertaining to job satisfaction as reported by the teachers who participated in the study. The three areas of lowest levels of satisfaction were Compensation, Advancement and Company Policies and Practices. The following recommendations, based on those concerns, are only applicable to those teachers/Christian schools that responded, though

they have potential applicability for other educational settings. Further study is recommended to determine if that applicability exists.

1. In spite of limited financial resources, compensation should be made a priority and should be analyzed to determine where inequalities may exist, where other sources of funding may be found and to develop creative ways whereby compensation options may be increased.
2. Procedures for determining advancement should be examined and restructured to allow more opportunities or, at least, to demonstrate an equality of advancement opportunity for men and women. Teachers should be encouraged and enabled to pursue advanced degrees which might increase both their potential for advancement and their salary level.
3. The policies and practices at the school should be structured in such a way as to encourage teacher participation in decision-making and to provide teachers with a voice in policy decisions. Teacher identification and ownership with the school and its policies should be promoted.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The results of this study suggest the following recommendations for further research:

1. This study should be replicated with more teachers from the Southeast Region of ACSI to see if the findings are representative of other teachers in the region. A response rate greater than 55% would have been preferred

to make the findings more credible. The structure of the study methodology prohibited direct access to the individual teachers and, thus, prohibited further follow-through in securing additional responses. Restructuring the methodology of the study would be advisable.

2. Further research should be conducted in other ACSI regions to determine if the perceptions of teachers in those regions are comparable to the perceptions of teachers in the Southeast Region. This would provide a more diverse population and would be useful in determining if there are geographic and other differences in schools affiliated with ACSI.

3. Further research should focus on other private schools (parochial and non-parochial), specifically in the southeastern geographical region, but also in other regions. This research would identify if commonality of location, affiliation or mission of a school have implications for perceptions of job satisfaction.

4. Further research should focus on policy-making procedures, opportunities for advancement and compensation and the impact they have on teacher perceptions of job satisfaction. This research could identify specific areas or practices that enhance job satisfaction.

5. Further research should be conducted to attempt to identify other factors that promote job satisfaction that might not have been identified in this study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Permission to Conduct Research Form

ASSOCIATION OF CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS INTERNATIONAL
SOUTHEAST REGION
STREET ADDRESS: 2386 CLOWER STREET, BLDG. B, SUITE 100, SNELLVILLE, GA 30078
MAILING ADDRESS: P.O. BOX 1537, SNELLVILLE, GA 30078
(770) 985-5840 / FAX (770) 985-5847

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

As regional director of the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI), I, Tom McClure, grant permission for Gordon D. Miller to conduct research related to his doctoral dissertation through a random survey of teachers at ACSI member schools in the Southeast Region.

I understand and agree that:

- the purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of job satisfaction among teachers in selected member schools in the Southeast and Florida Regions.
- schools selected to survey will be done through a random selection process.
- the chief administrator at each school will be personally contacted to request permission to survey his/her teachers and the administrators are under no obligation from ACSI to grant that permission. They will be informed that participation is voluntary and will have no impact on their membership or standing with ACSI.
- each administrator will sign a consent form indicating willingness for his/her school to participate in the study.
- a survey of no less than twenty questions and no more than one hundred questions will be distributed to the teachers in those schools whose administrators have agreed to participate.
- all surveys will be kept confidential and individual participants will be anonymous.
- the regional office will have access to the aggregate findings of the study.

My signature below indicates my agreement for the Southeast Region to participate in this research study.

Thomas A. McClure — Signature

8-7-98 — Date

NATIONAL/INTERNATIONAL HEADQUARTERS
MAILING ADDRESS: P.O. BOX 35097 COLORADO SPRINGS, CO 80935-3509 STREET ADDRESS: 731 CHAPEL HILLS DR., COLORADO SPRINGS, CO 80920 (719) 528-6906

"That in all things He might have pre-eminence" Col. 1:18

APPENDIX B

Letters to Administrators

FIRST LETTER TO ADMINISTRATORS

Dear Administrator:

This letter is follow-up to our recent telephone conversation. To recap what we discussed, I am a former headmaster of an ACSI accredited school and a doctoral student at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. I am requesting your permission to contact your full-time teachers in kindergarten and above for a study of their perceptions of teacher job satisfaction. Their decision to participate is voluntary and there should be no pressure on them to volunteer. Further, the teachers have the right to withdraw their participation at any time with no penalties of any kind.

Permission has been granted by the Southeast regional office of ACSI to conduct this study with the understanding that the schools contacted would know that their decision to participate is voluntary and will in no way impact their standing or affiliation with ACSI. A copy of the ACSI permission letter is attached.

Your school has been randomly selected from the region to take part in the study. The study will consist of a 100 question questionnaire (the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) and a one page, seven question personal descriptor page (identifying gender, age, marital status, degree, experience, level/grade taught, salary range). All information provided by your teachers will be anonymous and will be kept confidential. Results will be totaled, arranged in table form, and analyzed as a whole.

You should receive the surveys at the end of January, 1999. I am asking that you (or your designee) distribute the surveys when they arrive. When completed, the teachers should seal their responses in the envelopes provided and return them to your office. A deadline for the return of the responses will be set for three weeks following the mail date. On the day following that deadline date (which will be noted in the surveys), please return to me whatever surveys have been collected. A post-paid return mailer will be provided.

The data gathered will not be used in any way except as set forth in this proposal and will in no way reflect back on the individual schools surveyed. There will be an appendix listing of all schools which participated in the study, but no identification will be made as to individual responses received from those schools.

I appreciate your willingness to participate. It is understood that your decision is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw permission to survey your school at any time. I anticipate the findings will contribute to increased knowledge about perceptions of job satisfaction among ACSI teachers. As written documentation of your agreement to participate in this study, please complete the enclosed card and return it to me as soon as possible. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Gordon D. Miller

enc.

PERMISSION TO SURVEY RESPONSE CARD

Permission is granted for Gordon D. Miller to conduct a survey study of job satisfaction perceptions among the full-time teachers at:

_____ in _____
(Name of school) *(City/State)*

Number of surveys needed (full-time teachers/kindergarten and above):_____

_____ _____
(Signature of chief administrator) *(Date)*

ADMINISTRATOR COVER LETTER

Dear Administrator:

Enclosed you will find the materials for conducting the survey of your teachers regarding their perceptions of job satisfaction. Please distribute one envelope to each of your full-time teachers in grades kindergarten and above. Each envelope contains the following:

- Letter explaining the purpose of the study
- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
- Informed Consent form with personal descriptors on the back

Each teacher who chooses to participate is to complete the questionnaire and the personal descriptors form and seal them in the envelope. The envelopes should be returned to you (or your designee). The deadline date for returning the surveys to your office is February 9, 1999. Please send me whatever surveys have been collected through that date. A post-paid mailer has been provided for returning the surveys.

As mentioned in my previous letter, teacher and school participation is voluntary. There should be no pressure placed on the teachers to participate. Should you desire to withdraw your school from the study or should your teachers desire to withdraw their participation, you, or they, may do so at any time with no penalties or ramifications of any kind.

Thank you for your cooperation and your sacrifice of time and effort on behalf of this study.

Sincerely,

Gordon D. Miller

enc.

ADMINISTRATOR FOLLOW-UP LETTER

Dear Administrator:

This letter is a reminder that I need to receive the job satisfaction surveys sent to your school in January. The deadline date for returning the surveys is February 9, 1999.

I would appreciate it is you would send out a general memo to all teachers reminding them of the survey and deadline date. Please remind them that their participation is voluntary, they will be anonymous, all data will be kept confidential and there are no penalties for choosing not to participate.

Return those surveys which have been completed in the post-paid mailer the day following the deadline, February 10, 1999.

Your school's participation is very important. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Gordon D. Miller

APPENDIX C

Teacher Cover Letter

TEACHER COVER LETTER

Dear Teacher:

I am a former headmaster of an ACSI accredited school in Florida and a doctoral student at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. I need your assistance in conducting a study of the perceptions of job satisfaction among teachers in ACSI member schools. I have selected the Southeast Region because of my prior affiliation with, what was then, the Southeast Region (Florida included) of ACSI. At that time, and prior to the establishment of Florida as a separate region, the Southeast Region formed the largest member regional grouping of ACSI schools.

Permission has been granted by the Southeast regional office to conduct this study. Your school has been randomly selected to take part and your participation is very important. All responses to the survey will be anonymous. All individual responses will be kept in strictest confidence. Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw from participation at any time with no penalties or ramifications of any kind. For adequate data analysis, however, I need your participation.

I have enclosed an Informed Consent form (on the back of the personal descriptive page) giving more information about the study and protective measures for those who participate. Please take time to read it **prior** to completing the survey. If you are in agreement, take about 20 minutes to respond to the enclosed Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Please **do not** answer the personal information questions on page two of the MSQ. Rather, a set of personal descriptive questions has been provided on a separate page. For completion of the study and to assist in analyzing the data, it is essential that you complete that information and return it with the completed questionnaire. Seal your questionnaire and descriptive questions page in the envelope provided and return it to your school office on or before February 9, 1999. Your administrator will send me whatever surveys have been returned by that date.

I appreciate your help in providing the information needed for this study, and, again, your participation is understood to be voluntary and you are under no pressure to participate.

Sincerely yours,

Gordon D. Miller

enc.

APPENDIX D

Personal Descriptors Page

CONFIDENTIAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Your answers to all questions and information provided will be held in strictest confidence.

Check one box for each item below:

1. Gender:

   ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age range:

   ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60+

3. Marital status:

   ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced

4. Highest degree earned:

   ☐ Bachelors ☐ Masters ☐ EdS/EdD/PhD

5. Years of teaching experience (including this year):

   ☐ 1-3 ☐ 4-7 ☐ 8-15 ☐ 16+

6. Level taught (majority of day):

   ☐ Kindergarten/Elementary ☐ Middle School/Junior High ☐ High School

7. Current base salary range (not including supplements):

   ☐ Less than $20,000 ☐ $20,000-$29,000 ☐ $30,000-39,000 ☐ $40,000+

Return of the questionnaire will constitute your informed consent to participate.

APPENDIX E

Informed Consent for Subjects Receiving Survey

INFORMED CONSENT FOR SUBJECTS RECEIVING SURVEY

This Informed Consent is for individuals participating in the survey for the doctoral research conducted by Gordon D. Miller of the University of Tennessee. The title of this study is "Job Satisfaction Among Teachers in Member Schools of the Southeast Region of the Association of Christian Schools International." The purpose of the study is to investigate the perceptions of job satisfaction among teachers in selected member schools in the specified region of the Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI) and to determine if any differences exist in job satisfaction based on selected personal, educational and professional descriptors (gender, age, marital status, degree, experience, level/grade taught, salary range) as reported by the teachers. The following protective measures will be provided for all participants.

1. The chief administrator at each school has been personally contacted to secure permission to conduct the survey and is aware that teacher (and school) participation in the study is voluntary and in no way impacts the school's membership or standing with ACSI.

2. Teacher participation in the study is strictly voluntary and will not impact the teacher's standing at the school or relationship with ACSI. Teachers are under no pressure to respond and those who choose to participate may withdraw from the study at any time with no penalties or ramifications for doing so.

3. Anonymity will be assured for all participants because the questionnaire contains no identifying questions or codes. Results will be totaled, arranged in table form, and analyzed as a whole. Individual responses and personal descriptive information will not be identifiable and will be kept confidential.

4. Selection of schools to participate in the survey has been done through a random selection process.

5. Although the study will not benefit those who participate, it will contribute to increased knowledge about perceptions of job satisfaction among ACSI teachers in the Southeast Region.

6. The data gathered will not be used in any way except as set forth in this proposal. Aggregate findings of the study will be available upon request.

7. The researcher, Gordon D. Miller, will answer questions related to the study. His address is [redacted].

8. Return of the questionnaire, including the confidential background information, will constitute your informed consent to participate.

APPENDIX F

Data Frequencies

Table F-1

Data Frequencies

		Frequency	Percent
Valid – AGE	20-29	175	24.1
	30-39	186	25.7
	40-49	211	29.1
	50-59	123	17.0
	60+	19	2.6
	Total	714	98.5
Missing		11	1.5
Total		725	100.0
Valid – DEGREE	Bachelors	564	77.8
	Masters	139	19.2
	EdS/EdD/PhD	10	1.4
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0
Valid – GENDER	Male	80	11.0
	Female	634	87.4
	Total	714	98.5
Missing		11	1.5
Total		725	100.0
Valid – LEVEL	K/5	434	59.9
	6-12	250	34.5
	Combination	29	4.0
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0

Table F-1 (continued)

		Frequency	Percent
Valid – MARITAL	Single	97	13.4
	Married	567	78.2
	Widowed	12	1.7
	Divorced	37	5.1
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		11	1.5
Total		725	100.0
Valid – SALARY	< $20,000	431	59.4
	$20,000-$29,000	259	35.7
	$30,000-$39,000	23	3.2
	$40,000+	1	.1
	Total	714	98.5
Missing		11	1.5
Total		725	100.0
Valid – EXPERIENCE	1-3 years	186	25.7
	4-7 years	183	25.2
	8-15 years	197	27.2
	16+ years	147	20.3
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0

Table F-2

Data Frequencies (collapsed)

		Frequency	Percent
Valid – AGE	20-29	175	24.1
	30-39	186	25.7
	40-49	211	29.1
	50+	142	19.6
	Total	714	98.5
Missing		11	1.5
Total		725	100.0
Valid – DEGREE	Bachelors	564	77.8
	Masters+	149	20.6
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0
Valid – LEVEL	K/5	434	59.9
	6-12 & Combined	279	38.5
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0
Valid – MARITAL	Unmarried	146	20.1
	Married	567	78.2
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0
Valid – SALARY	< $20,000	431	59.4
	≥ $20,000	283	39.0
	Total	714	98.5
Missing		11	1.5
Total		725	100.0

Table F-2 (continued)

		Frequency	Percent
Valid – EXPERIENCE	1-7 years	369	50.9
	8+ years	344	47.4
	Total	713	98.3
Missing		12	1.7
Total		725	100.0

APPENDIX G

Tables of Non-Significance

Table G-1

Non-Significance of Teachers' Age and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Age	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	20-29	8 - 4.6%	167 - 95.4%
	30-39	8 - 4.3%	178 - 95.7%
	40-49	14 - 6.6%	197 - 93.3%
	50+	5 - 3.5%	137 - 96.5%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	20-29	5 - 2.9%	170 - 97.1%
	30-39	1 - 0.5%	185 - 99.5%
	40-49	1 - 0.5%	210 - 99.5%
	50+	3 - 2.1%	139 - 97.9%
Activity (Intrinsic)	20-29	3 - 1.7%	172 - 98.3%
	30-39	3 - 1.6%	183 - 98.4%
	40-49	2 - 0.9%	209 - 99.1%
	50+	5 - 3.5%	137 - 96.5%
Authority (Intrinsic)	20-29	14 - 8.0%	161 - 92.0%
	30-39	14 - 7.5%	172 - 92.5%
	40-49	12 - 5.7%	199 - 94.3%
	50+	4 - 2.8%	138 - 97.2%
Creativity (Intrinsic)	20-29	8 - 4.5%	167 - 95.4%
	30-39	10 - 5.4%	176 - 94.6%
	40-49	9 - 4.3%	202 - 95.7%
	50+	7 - 4.9%	135 - 95.1%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	9.093	6	.168
Achievement	9.424	6	.151
Activity	3.490	6	.745
Authority	9.024	6	.172
Creativity	1.858	6	.932

Table G-1 (continued)

Factor	Age	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Independence (Intrinsic)	20-29	9 - 5.1%	166 - 94.9%
	30-39	11 - 5.9%	175 - 94.1%
	40-49	5 - 2.4%	205 - 97.6%
	50+	6 - 4.2%	136 - 64.8%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	20-29	2 - 1.1%	173 - 98.9%
	30-39	0	186 - 100.0%
	40-49	2 - 1.0%	209 - 99.0%
	50+	3 - 2.1%	139 - 97.9%
Responsibility (Intrinsic)	20-29	8 - 4.6%	167 - 93.4%
	30-39	5 - 2.7%	181 - 97.3%
	40-49	5 - 2.4%	206 - 97.6%
	50+	6 - 4.2%	136 - 95.8%
Security (Intrinsic)	20-29	20 - 11.4%	155 - 88.6%
	30-39	17 - 9.1%	169 - 90.9%
	40-49	22 - 10.4%	189 - 89.6%
	50+	15 - 10.6%	127 - 89.4%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	20-29	2 - 1.1%	173 - 98.9%
	30-39	2 - 1.1%	184 - 98.9%
	40-49	5 - 2.4%	206 - 97.6%
	50+	3 - 2.1%	139 - 97.9%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Independence	7.763	6	.256
Moral Values	7.121	6	.310
Responsibility	3.216	6	.781
Security	1.639	6	.950
Social Service	5.806	6	.445

Table G-1 (continued)

Factor	Age	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Variety (Intrinsic)	20-29	6 - 3.4%	169 - 96.6%
	30-39	7 - 3.8%	179 - 96.2%
	40-49	7 - 3.3%	204 - 96.7%
	50+	6 - 4.2%	136 - 95.8%
Advancement (Extrinsic)	20-29	40 - 22.9%	135 - 77.1%
	30-39	42 - 22.6%	144 - 77.4%
	40-49	54 - 25.7%	156 - 74.3%
	50+	20 - 14.2%	121 - 85.8%
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	20-29	42 - 24.0%	133 - 75.0%
	30-39	38 - 20.4%	148 - 79.6%
	40-49	40 - 18.9%	171 - 81.1%
	50+	24 - 16.9%	118 - 83.1%
Compensation (Extrinsic)	20-29	113 - 64.6%	62 - 35.4%
	30-39	106 - 57.0%	80 - 43.0%
	40-49	135 - 64.0%	76 - 36.0%
	50+	79 - 55.6%	63 - 44.4%
Recognition (Extrinsic)	20-29	35 - 20.0%	140 - 80.0%
	30-39	25 - 13.4%	161 - 86.6%
	40-49	33 - 15.6%	178 - 84.4%
	50+	13 - 9.2%	129 - 90.8%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Variety	1.583	6	.954
Advancement	9.509	6	.147
Company Policies and Practices	4.126	6	.660
Compensation	5.731	6	.454
Recognition	9.538	6	.146

Table G-1 (continued)

Factor	Age	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Supervision–Human Relations (Extrinsic)	20-29	28 - 16.0%	147 - 84.0%
	30-39	20 - 10.8%	166 - 89.2%
	40-49	27 - 12.8%	184 - 87.2%
	50+	15 - 10.6%	127 - 89.4%
Supervision–Technical (Extrinsic)	20-29	22 - 12.6%	153 - 87.4%
	30-39	17 - 9.1%	169 - 90.9%
	40-49	20 - 9.5%	191 - 90.5%
	50+	13 - 9.2%	129 - 90.8%
Co-Workers (General)	20-29	8 - 4.5%	167 - 95.5%
	30-39	10 - 5.4%	176 - 94.6%
	40-49	5 - 7.7%	206 - 92.3%
	50+	3 - 5.2%	139 - 94.8%
Working Conditions (General)	20-29	28 - 25.7%	147 - 74.3%
	30-39	30 - 27.4%	156 - 72.6%
	40-49	25 - 31.0%	186 - 69.0%
	50+	22 - 20.9%	120 - 79.1%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Supervision–Human Relations	3.764	6	.709
Supervision–Technical	2.514	6	.867
Co-Workers	7.956	6	.241
Working Conditions	3.592	6	.732

Table G-2

Non-Significance of Teachers' Degree and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Degree	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	25 - 4.5% 10 - 6.7%	539 - 95.5% 139 - 93.3%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	8 - 1.4% 2 - 1.3%	556 - 98.6% 147 - 98.7%
Activity (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	8 - 1.4% 5 - 3.4%	556 - 98.6% 144 - 96.6%
Authority (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	36 - 6.4% 8 - 5.4%	528 - 93.6% 141 - 94.6%
Creativity (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	25 - 4.4% 9 - 6.0%	539 - 95.6% 140 - 94.0%
Independence (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	20 - 3.5% 11 - 7.4%	543 - 96.5% 138 - 92.6%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	4 - 0.8% 3 - 2.0%	560 - 99.2% 146 - 98.0%
Responsibility (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	16 - 2.9% 8 - 5.4%	548 - 97.1% 141 - 94.6%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	2.957	2	.228
Achievement	.113	2	.945
Activity	2.611	2	.271
Authority	.575	2	.750
Creativity	.903	2	.637
Independence	4.165	2	.125
Moral Values	2.442	2	.295
Responsibility	2.380	2	.304

Table G-2 (continued)

Factor	Degree	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Security (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	55 - 9.8% 19 - 12.7%	509 - 90.2% 130 - 87.3%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	8 - 1.5% 4 - 2.7%	556 - 98.5% 145 - 97.3%
Social Status (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	61 - 10.8% 15 - 10.1%	502 - 89.2% 133 - 89.9%
Variety (Intrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	20 - 3.6% 6 - 4.0%	544 - 96.4% 143 - 96.0%
Advancement (Extrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	126 - 22.4% 30 - 20.3%	437 - 77.6% 118 - 79.7%
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	114 - 20.2% 30 - 20.1%	450 - 79.8% 119 - 79.9%
Compensation (Extrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	341 - 60.4% 92 - 61.7%	223 - 39.6% 57 - 38.3%
Recognition (Extrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	89 - 15.8% 17 - 11.4%	475 - 84.2% 132 - 88.6%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Security	1.171	2	.557
Social Service	1.214	2	.545
Social Status	.060	2	.970
Variety	.399	2	.819
Advancement	1.293	2	.524
Company Policies and Practices	.513	2	.774
Compensation	2.780	2	.249
Recognition	2.729	2	.255

Table G-2 (continued)

Factor	Degree	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Supervision–Human Relations (Extrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	73 - 13.0% 17 - 11.4%	491 - 87.0% 132 - 88.6%
Supervision–Technical (Extrinsic)	Bachelors Masters+	60 - 10.6% 12 - 8.0%	504 - 89.4% 137 - 92.0%
Co-Workers (General)	Bachelors Masters+	23 - 4.1% 3 - 2.0%	541 - 95.9% 146 - 98.0%
Working Conditions (General)	Bachelors Masters+	81 - 14.4% 24 - 16.1%	483 - 85.4% 125 - 83.9%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Supervision–Human Relations	1.795	2	.408
Supervision–Technical	1.048	2	.592
Co-Workers	3.747	2	.154
Working Conditions	1.335	2	.513

Table G-3

Non-Significance of Teachers' Gender and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Gender	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	Male Female	3 - 3.8% 32 - 5.1%	77 - 96.2% 602 - 94.9%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	Male Female	0 10 - 1.6%	80 - 100.0% 624 - 98.4%
Activity (Intrinsic)	Male Female	1 - 1.3% 12 - 1.9%	79 - 98.7% 622 - 98.1%
Creativity (Intrinsic)	Male Female	1 - 1.3% 33 - 5.2%	79 - 98.7% 601 - 94.8%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	Male Female	1 - 1.3% 6 - 1.0%	79 - 98.7% 628 - 99.0%
Security (Intrinsic)	Male Female	11 - 13.8% 63 - 10.0%	69 - 86.2% 571 - 90.0%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	Male Female	1 - 1.3% 11 - 1.8%	79 - 98.7% 623 - 98.2%
Social Status (Intrinsic)	Male Female	7 - 8.8% 69 - 10.9%	73 - 91.2% 563 - 89.1%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	.848	2	.654
Achievement	1.881	2	.390
Activity	1.905	2	.386
Creativity	5.054	2	.080
Moral Values	.908	2	.635
Security	2.938	2	.230
Social Service	1.317	2	.518
Social Status	3.900	2	.142

Table G-3 (continued)

Factor	Gender	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Variety (Intrinsic)	Male Female	2 - 2.5% 24 - 3.8%	78 - 97.5% 610 - 96.2%
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	Male Female	10 - 12.5% 134 - 21.1%	70 - 87.5% 500 - 78.9%
Supervision–Technical (Extrinsic)	Male Female	5 - 6.3% 67 - 10.6%	75 - 93.7% 567 - 89.4%
Co-Workers (General)	Male Female	2 - 2.6% 24 - 3.8%	78 - 97.4% 610 - 96.2%
Working Conditions (General)	Male Female	10 - 12.6% 95 - 15.0%	70 - 87.4% 539 - 85.0%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Variety	4.077	2	.130
Company Policies and Practices	4.513	2	.105
Supervision–Technical	1.820	2	.403
Co-Workers	.375	2	.829
Working Conditions	1.319	2	.517

Table G-4

Non-Significance of Teaching Level and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Teaching Level	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	21 - 4.8% 14 - 5.0%	413 - 95.2% 258 - 95.0%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	8 - 1.8% 2 - 0.7%	426 - 98.2% 277 - 99.3%
Activity (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	8 - 1.8% 5 - 1.8%	426 - 98.2% 274 - 98.2%
Authority (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	29 - 6.7% 15 - 5.4%	405 - 93.3% 264 - 94.6%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	5 - 1.2% 2 - 0.7%	429 - 98.8% 277 - 99.3%
Responsibility (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	16 - 3.7% 8 - 2.9%	418 - 96.3% 271 - 97.1%
Security (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	45 - 10.4% 29 - 10.4%	389 - 89.6% 250 - 89.6%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	10 - 2.3% 2 - 0.7%	424 - 97.7% 277 - 99.3%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	.020	2	.990
Achievement	2.385	2	.303
Activity	.016	2	.992
Authority	.952	2	.621
Moral Values	.369	2	.832
Responsibility	5.282	2	.071
Security	.086	2	.958
Social Service	2.712	2	.258

Table G-4 (continued)

Factor	Teaching Level	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Social Status (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	44 - 10.1% 32 - 11.5%	388 - 89.9% 247 - 88.5%
Variety (Intrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	20 - 4.6% 6 - 2.2%	414 - 95.4% 273 - 97.8%
Advancement (Extrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	96 - 22.1% 60 - 21.5%	337 - 77.9% 219 - 78.5%
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	96 - 22.5% 48 - 17.3%	338 - 77.5% 231 - 82.7%
Compensation (Extrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	272 - 62.7% 161 - 57.7%	162 - 37.3% 118 - 42.3%
Recognition (Extrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	71 - 16.4% 35 - 12.5%	363 - 83.6% 244 - 87.5%
Supervision–Technical (Extrinsic)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	49 - 11.3% 23 - 8.3%	385 - 88.7% 256 - 91.7%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Social Status	.315	2	.854
Variety	4.882	2	.087
Advancement	2.415	2	.299
Company Policies and Practices	3.687	2	.158
Compensation	2.682	2	.262
Recognition	5.948	2	.051
Supervision–Technical	4.531	2	.104

Table G-4 (continued)

Factor	Teaching Level	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Co-Workers (General)	K-5 6-12 and Combined	17 - 3.9% 9 - 3.3%	417 - 96.1% 270 - 96.7%
Working Conditions (General	K-5 6-12 and Combined	65 - 14.9% 40 - 14.3%	369 - 83.1% 239 - 83.7%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Co-Workers	2.955	2	.228
Working Conditions	.132	2	.936

Table G-5

Non-Significance of Teachers' Marital Status and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Marital Status	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	7 - 4.8% 28 - 4.9%	139 - 95.2% 539 - 95.1%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	3 - 2.1% 7 - 1.2%	143 - 97.9% 560 - 98.8%
Activity (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	3 - 2.1% 10 - 1.8%	143 - 97.9% 557 - 98.2%
Authority (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	14 - 9.6% 30 - 5.3%	132 - 90.4% 537 - 94.7%
Creativity (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	9 - 6.2% 25 - 4.4%	137 - 93.8% 542 - 95.6%
Independence (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	9 - 6.2% 22 - 3.9%	137 - 93.8% 544 - 96.1%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	0 7 - 1.2%	146 - 100.0% 560 - 98.8%
Responsibility (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	7 - 4.8% 17 - 3.0%	139 - 95.2% 550 - 97.0%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	.169	2	.919
Achievement	.580	2	.748
Activity	.067	2	.967
Authority	5.191	2	.075
Creativity	1.442	2	.486
Independence	3.865	2	.145
Moral Values	2.668	2	.263
Responsibility	1.255	2	.534

Table G-5 (continued)

Factor	Marital Status	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Security (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	17 - 11.7% 57 - 10.0%	129 - 88.3% 510 - 90.0%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	2 - 1.4% 10 - 1.8%	144 - 98.6% 557 - 98.2%
Variety (Intrinsic)	Unmarried Married	6 - 4.1% 20 - 3.5%	140 - 95.9% 547 - 96.5%
Advancement (Extrinsic)	Unmarried Married	35 - 24.0% 121 - 21.4%	111 - 76.0% 444 - 78.6%
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	Unmarried Married	37 - 25.3% 107 - 18.9%	109 - 74.7% 460 - 81.1%
Compensation (Extrinsic)	Unmarried Married	76 - 52.0% 356 - 62.8%	70 - 48.0% 211 - 37.2%
Co-Workers (General)	Unmarried Married	9 - 6.2% 17 - 3.0%	137 - 93.8% 550 - 97.0%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Security	.322	2	.851
Social Service	.790	2	.674
Variety	.166	2	.921
Advancement	2.418	2	.299
Company Policies and Practices	5.472	2	.065
Compensation	5.720	2	.057
Co-Workers	3.594	2	.166

Table G-5 (continued)

Factor	Marital Status	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Working Conditions (General)	Unmarried Married	22 - 15.0% 83 - 14.6%	124 - 85.0% 484 - 85.4%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Working Conditions	.307	2	.858

Table G-6

Non-Significance of Teachers' Salary and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Salary	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	23 - 5.3% 12 - 4.2%	408 - 94.7% 271 - 95.8%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	8 - 1.9% 2 - 0.7%	423 - 98.1% 281 - 99.3%
Activity (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	10 - 2.3% 3 - 1.1%	421 - 97.7% 280 - 98.9%
Independence (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	19 - 4.4% 12 - 4.3%	412 - 95.6% 270 - 95.7%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	5 - 1.2% 2 - 0.7%	526 - 98.8% 281 - 99.3%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	6 - 1.4% 6 - 2.1%	425 - 98.6% 277 - 97.1%
Variety (Intrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	18 - 4.2% 8 - 2.8%	413 - 95.8% 275 - 97.2%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	.441	2	.802
Achievement	2.416	2	.299
Activity	3.309	2	.191
Independence	2.150	2	.341
Moral Values	.480	2	.786
Social Service	2.191	2	.334
Variety	2.214	2	.331

Table G-6 (continued)

Factor	Salary	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	90 - 20.9% 54 - 19.1%	341 - 79.1% 229 - 80.9%
Recognition (Extrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	66 - 15.3% 40 - 14.1%	365 - 84.7% 243 - 85.9%
Supervision–Human Relations (Extrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	59 - 13.7% 31 - 11.0%	372 - 86.3% 252 - 89.0%
Supervision–Technical (Extrinsic)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	44 - 10.2% 28 - 9.9%	387 - 89.8% 255 - 90.1%
Co-Workers (General)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	17 - 3.9% 9 - 3.2%	414 - 96.1% 274 - 96.8%
Working Conditions (General)	< $20,000 ≥ $20,000	66 - 15.4% 39 - 13.8%	365 - 84.6% 244 - 86.2%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Company Policies and Practices	.408	2	.816
Recognition	2.118	2	.347
Supervision–Human Relations	3.256	2	.196
Supervision–Technical	.072	2	.965
Co-Workers	.300	2	.861
Working Conditions	1.125	2	.570

Table G-7

Non-Significance of Teaching Experience and Job Satisfaction Factors

Factor	Experience	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Ability Utilization (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	17 - 4.6% 18 - 5.3%	352 - 95.4% 326 - 94.7%
Achievement (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	7 - 1.9% 3 - 0.9%	362 - 98.1% 341 - 99.1%
Activity (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	7 - 1.9% 6 - 1.8%	362 - 98.1% 338 - 98.2%
Authority (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	26 - 7.0% 18 - 5.3%	343 - 93.0% 326 - 94.7%
Creativity (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	17 - 4.6% 17 - 5.0%	352 - 95.4% 327 - 95.0%
Independence (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	19 - 5.1% 12 - 3.5%	350 - 94.9% 331 - 96.5%
Moral Values (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	2 - 0.5% 5 - 1.5%	367 - 99.5% 339 - 98.5%
Responsibility (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	12 - 3.3% 12 - 3.5%	357 - 96.7% 332 - 96.5%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Ability Utilization	4.272	2	.118
Achievement	1.869	2	.393
Activity	.035	2	.982
Authority	3.358	2	.187
Creativity	.590	2	.744
Independence	2.200	2	.333
Moral Values	2.443	2	.295
Responsibility	1.924	2	.382

Table G-7 (continued)

Factor	Experience	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Security (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	41 - 11.2% 33 - 9.6%	328 - 88.8% 311 - 90.4%
Social Service (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	5 - 1.4% 7 - 2.0%	364 - 98.6% 337 - 98.0%
Social Status (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	42 - 11.4% 34 - 9.9%	326 - 88.6% 309 - 90.1%
Variety (Intrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	11 - 3.0% 15 - 4.4%	358 - 97.0% 329 - 95.6%
Advancement (Extrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	84 - 22.8% 72 - 21.0%	284 - 77.2% 271 - 79.0%
Company Policies and Practices (Extrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	81 - 21.9% 63 - 18.4%	288 - 78.1% 281 - 81.6%
Compensation (Extrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	235 - 63.6% 198 - 57.6%	134 - 36.4% 146 - 42.4%
Recognition (Extrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	61 - 16.6% 45 - 13.1%	308 - 83.4% 299 - 86.9%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Security	2.150	2	.341
Social Service	4.355	2	.113
Social Status	.446	2	.800
Variety	4.024	2	.134
Advancement	3.139	2	.208
Company Policies and Practices	2.714	2	.257
Compensation	4.332	2	.115
Recognition	1.674	2	.433

Table G-7 (continued)

Factor	Experience	not/slightly satisfied	satisfied +
Supervision–Human Relations (Extrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	50 - 13.6% 40 - 11.6%	319 - 86.4% 304 - 88.4%
Supervision–Technical (Extrinsic)	1-7 years 8+ years	37 - 10.0% 35 - 10.2%	332 - 90.0% 309 - 89.8%
Co-Workers (General)	1-7 years 8+ years	14 - 3.8% 12 - 3.5%	355 - 96.2% 332 - 96.5%
Working Conditions (General)	1-7 years 8+ years	56 - 15.2% 49 - 14.2%	313 - 84.8% 295 - 85.8%

Factor	Chi-square	DF	Significance
Supervision–Human Relations	.596	2	.742
Supervision–Technical	.333	2	.847
Co-Workers	.060	2	.971
Working Conditions	.227	2	.893

VITA

Gordon D. Miller was born in Cleveland, Tennessee on November 18, 1951. He attended school in the Chattanooga, Tennessee public school system and graduated from Brainerd High School in June, 1969. In 1973, he graduated from Lee College (now Lee University), Cleveland, Tennessee, with a Bachelor of Science in History. He received a Masters of Education in Educational Administration and Supervision from Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia, in 1988 and received a Doctor of Education degree from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, with a major in Education (Leadership for Teaching and Learning), in 2000.

He began his professional career in education in 1973 as a high school teacher in Hamilton County, Tennessee. From 1975 to 1983, he taught middle school social studies in the Cobb County, Georgia school system. After a brief tenure as Administrative Coordinator for Straight, Inc., an adolescent drug rehabilitation program in Marietta, Georgia, he assumed the responsibility of Director of Children's Ministries at Mount Paran Church of God in Atlanta, Georgia, and eventually became Assistant Principal of Mount Paran Christian School in Marietta, Georgia. In 1989, he served as a missionary to Ghana, West Africa, and following his return to the United States, became Missions Coordinator for Trinity Foundation (now Global Servants), a non-denominational missions and evangelism organization. Following a brief tenure as Director of Adult Education at Calvary Assembly in Winter Park, Florida, he became Headmaster at Pine Castle Christian Academy in Orlando, Florida in 1993. He is currently the Executive Assistant to the President of Southeastern College in Lakeland, Florida.