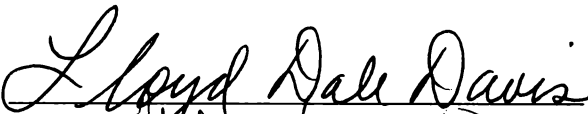


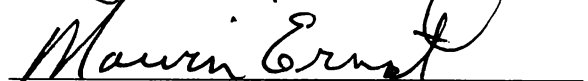
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Brian Walker entitled "A Study of Job Satisfaction of Teachers in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Policy Studies.

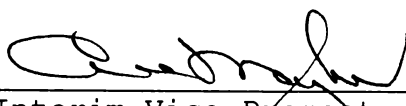

Dr. Mary Jane Connelly, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:





Accepted for the Council:


Interim Vice Provost and
Dean of The Graduate School

A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS IN
THE TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION OF CHRISTIAN
SCHOOLS

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

Brian Eugene Walker

May 2001

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express his gratitude and appreciation to many individuals whose assistance and support were instrumental in the preparation of this dissertation:

To Dr. Mary Jane Connelly, Chairperson of my dissertation committee, for her encouragement, guidance, advice, and wisdom throughout the development of the dissertation. Her commitment to conducting scholarly research and unwavering faith in me to complete this research project served as the impetus for the completion of this dissertation.

To Dr. Lloyd Davis, for serving on my committee and for offering expert advice on the statistical treatment and analysis of the survey data. His assistance in the interpretation and analysis of the data served a vital role in the development of the conclusions and recommendations for further study.

To Dr. Marvin Ernst and Dr. George Harris, for serving on my committee, providing encouragement, and offering advice. Their constructive comments motivated me to enhance the quality of this dissertation.

To Dr. Dan Quarles, Director of the UTK/UTC Graduate Center, for his willingness to listen to my ideas, to offer advice, and to provide direction in the development of this research project.

To Mrs. Carol Calvert, Dr. Gerry Carlson, Dr. Bill Henry, Dr. Clayton Hunt, Dr. Connie Pearson, Dr. James Price, Dr. Roger Stiles, Dr. Phil Suiter, Dr. Charles Walker, and Mrs. Kristy Walker, for critiquing my survey for format, instruction clarity, and question construction.

To the TACS principals, for granting me permission to survey their teachers; and to the teachers in TACS, for participating in the survey study.

To Mrs. Roberta Thurmond, Secretary of the UTK/UTC Graduate Center, for the ability to utilize her expertise in APA format and style in typing this dissertation.

To Margaret Casado, UTK Off-Campus Services Librarian, for her assistance in obtaining and mailing me a number of books and periodicals.

To Inez Ketron, for her constructive comments and editorial suggestions.

To my parents, Dr. and Mrs. Charles Walker, whose encouragement, interest, support, and assistance provided continual motivation.

To my loving wife Kristy, who daily demonstrated patience, understanding, and self-sacrificial love. Your support, encouragement, and assistance will always be appreciated.

Most of all, I would like to thank the Lord Jesus Christ for the ability and health that He gave me to complete this research project.

ABSTRACT

The conception of this research study resulted from an interest in the job satisfaction of teachers in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS). The underlying purpose of this study was to identify work-related dimensions which could be predictors of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS, to identify groups of work-related variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) which could be predictors of TACS teachers' satisfaction with work-related dimensions, and to identify demographic variables which could account for differences of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS. The research problem is important in that a number of components inherent to key motivational theories have not been studied in schools that are members of TACS as a means of determining teacher job satisfaction.

The population of the study consisted of 369 full-time teachers in 34 traditional TACS schools. The TACSQ, the survey questionnaire, was comprised of two sections: a 28-item nondemographic section and an 11-item demographic section. Two hundred eighty-five questionnaires were analyzed, resulting in a response rate of 77.2 percent.

The statistical tests used to evaluate the six research questions included descriptive statistics, multiple linear regression, simple linear regression, one-way analysis of variance, Newman-Keuls test, Duncan's new multiple range test, and independent *t* tests.

From an analysis of the data, it was concluded that TACS teachers were moderately satisfied with their teaching positions. It was found that 65 percent of the variance in predicting overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers was explained by the combined predictor variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales). Moreover, it was also found that the summed intrinsic variables, summed extrinsic variables, and summed religious variables were good predictors of intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and religious satisfaction, respectively. Two demographic variables, i.e., age and grade level of teaching position, accounted for significant differences in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Conclusions of the study include the following: (1) the job satisfaction of teachers in TACS is similar to the job satisfaction of disparate groups of private religious school teachers in the literature review; (2) job-related variables not addressed on the TACSQ may have an effect on

the job satisfaction of TACS teachers; (3) TACS principals who develop and implement strategies for improving workplace variables (intrinsic and extrinsic) which are perceived by their teachers to be dissatisfying might enhance job aspects that lead to increased intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction; (4) intrinsic and religious satisfaction play a vital role in the overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers; (5) low monetary compensation and limited advancement opportunities lend support to additional extrinsic variables assuming greater importance in the extrinsic job satisfaction of TACS teachers, variables which teachers perceived to be marginally satisfying (e.g. participating in making decisions that impact one's work) and which are under the control of the administrator.

Recommendations for further research include: (1) adding intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious items to the TACSQ pertaining to variables not investigated in the study to determine the effect of the new variables on the job satisfaction of TACS teachers, such as asking teachers how satisfied they are with the discipline in their schools, their schools' staff development programs, and the churches of which they are members; (2) conducting further

statistical tests with the data supplied by the teachers responding to the TACSQ for the purpose of identifying the best predictors of job satisfaction of TACS teachers; (3) exploring TACS teacher job satisfaction to a greater extent by including a free response (open-ended questions) section to the TACSQ which addresses teachers' feelings about their jobs; (4) developing strategies for improving extrinsic workplace factors in TACS schools other than monetary compensation and advancement opportunities, such as TACS principals increasing opportunities for their teachers to participate in making decisions that impact their work; and (5) conducting a study pertaining to the variables on the TACSQ in a different geographical region of the United States with groups of religious educators whose schools are affiliated with a Christian school organization that is a member of the American Association of Christian Schools.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background of the Problem	4
	Statement of the Problem	12
	Purpose of the Study	13
	Research Questions	14
	Significance	15
	Assumptions	16
	Limitations of the Study	17
	Delimitations of the Study	17
	Definition of Terms	18
II.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	22
	Motivational Theories	22
	Job Satisfaction Models	49
	Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction	53
	Extrinsic Variables and Job Satisfaction . . .	58
	Leadership Behaviors and Job Satisfaction	62
	Intrinsic Variables and Job Satisfaction . . .	74
	Religious Variables and Job Satisfaction . . .	84

Rational for Inclusion of Variables	
In Literature Review	90
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	
(Short Form)	94
Summary	107
III. METHODOLOGY	112
Population	112
Instrumentation	113
Norms of the MSQ (Short Form)	116
Supplemental Questions	118
Procedures	121
Nonresponse	125
Data Analysis	126
IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	132
Introduction	132
Purpose of the Study	132
TACSQ Response Rate	134
Description of the Population	135
Presentation and Analysis of Survey Data	153
Question 1	169
Question 2	170
Question 3	172
Question 4	174

Question 5	175
Question 6	176
Summary of Major Research Findings	187
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	189
Introduction	189
Summary of the Study	189
Conclusions	193
Recommendations	202
REFERENCES	212
APPENDICES	227
APPENDIX A. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	228
APPENDIX B. LETTER OF INTRODUCTION	232
APPENDIX C. COVER LETTER	234
APPENDIX D. FOLLOW-UP LETTER	236
APPENDIX E. FORM A	238
VITA	244

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Short Form): Items on the Short Form Used to Measure Scales From the Long Form	100
2. Age of TACS Teachers	136
3. Gender of TACS Teachers	137
4. Grade Level of Teaching Position of TACS Teachers	137
5. Years Teaching Experience of TACS Teachers	138
6. TACS Teachers' Years of Teaching Experience at Present School	139
7. TACS Teachers' Total Years of Teaching Experience in Non-Christian Schools	140
8. Highest Education Degree of TACS Teachers	140
9. Accreditation Status of Schools in Which TACS Teachers are Currently Employed	141
10. Teaching Assignment [Teaching Combined or Non-Combined Class(es)] of TACS Teachers	141
11A. Indication of TACS Teachers Teaching Primarily in Subject Area Endorsement(s) Of Major and/or Minor in College	142
11B. Number of Classes that TACS Teachers are Teaching Outside of Subject Area Endorsement(s)	142
12. School Location of TACS Teachers	143
13. TACS Teacher Mean Satisfaction Scores on the Workplace Variables (Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Religious) Contained on the TACSQ	149

14.	Forward Multiple Regression of Overall Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers on Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Religious Dimension Scales	155
15.	Forward Multiple Regression of Intrinsic Satisfaction of TACS Teachers on Summed Intrinsic Variables	155
16.	Forward Multiple Regression of Extrinsic Satisfaction of TACS Teachers on Summed Extrinsic Variables	156
17.	Forward Multiple Regression of Religious Satisfaction of TACS Teachers on Summed Religious Variables	156
18.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Age Using One Way Analysis of Variance	157
19.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Gender Using Independent <i>T</i> Test	158
20.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Grade Level of Teaching Position Using One Way Analysis Of Variance	159
21.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Total Years of Teaching Experience Using One Way Analysis of Variance	160
22.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Total Years of Teaching Experience in Present School Using One Way Analysis of Variance	161
23.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Total Years of Teaching Experience in Non-Christian Schools Using One Way Analysis of Variance	162

24.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Highest Degree Earned Using One Way Analysis of Variance	163
25.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Accreditation Status of Schools in Which Teachers are Currently Employed Using Independent <i>T</i> Test	164
26.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Teaching Assignment [Teaching Combined or Non-Combined Class(es)] Using One Way Analysis of Variance	165
27A.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Teacher Indication of Teaching Primarily Within Subject Area Endorsement(s) of Major and/or Minor in College Using Independent <i>T</i> Test	166
27B.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on Number of Classes Taught Outside of Subject Endorsement Area(s) Using Independent <i>T</i> Test	167
28.	A Comparison of Job Satisfaction of TACS Teachers Based on School Location Using Independent <i>T</i> Test	168

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"I will not be returning to teach next year" are perhaps the most disheartening words an administrator can hear from a teacher. Teachers cite various reasons for resigning, but one of the underlying reasons for many teacher resignations is job dissatisfaction. Frustrated with factors which hinder teaching, teachers often become dissatisfied with their jobs. When teachers perceive these factors have not improved and will not improve, they may resign.

Even though many Christian school teachers remain in Christian schools, Mills (2000) reported that over 50 percent of school administrators in the American Association of Christian Schools (AACS) perceive teacher turnover as a problem. Utilizing systematic sampling, the researcher conducted a survey of approximately 300 AACS school administrators and found that the teacher turnover rate in AACS schools was at least 20 percent annually. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 1998) conducted a survey of teacher turnover in public and

private schools (AACS schools included) and reported that the private school and public school full-time teacher turnover rate between the 1993-94 and 1994-95 school years was 16.2 and 12.8 percent, respectively.

Since private school teacher turnover rate is higher than public school teacher turnover, reasons for this increase become a concern for administrators. According to the NCES's (1998) study addressed in the preceding paragraph, the top five reasons identified by private school teachers for resigning their teaching positions and the percentages of teachers who resigned for these reasons are the following:

Family or personal move (18.9 percent), To pursue another career (15.5 percent), Pregnancy/child rearing (12.1 percent), Other family or personal reason (11.9 percent), For better salary or benefits (7.1 percent) (p. 58).

It must be noted that the study did not identify teacher dissatisfaction as a reason for teacher resignation.

Perhaps the underlying reason for some of these teacher resignations stemmed from frustration and dissatisfaction with organizational and/or task-related factors in the workplace.

Seemingly salary would be an important determinant of teacher job satisfaction, yet many private school teachers

(both secular and religious) do not consider salary as a significant contributor to job satisfaction. According to a recent report from the NCES (1997), private school teachers receive lower salaries than public school teachers. This finding is not surprising considering many private church-related schools are not subsidized by state or federal monies and rely primarily on tuition income to pay their teachers. Although private church-related teachers typically receive lower salaries than public school teachers, they apparently remain in the private church-related school movement for reasons other than monetary compensation.

More often, teacher frustration precipitated by the unfulfillment of work-oriented needs may result in job dissatisfaction and ultimately teacher turnover. According to Frataccia and Hennington (1982),

Teacher resignation . . . may be viewed as a form of frustration and may be related to the perceived inability of teachers to satisfy their needs [Herzberg's motivator and hygiene needs], hence derive satisfaction from teaching (p. 3).

Recognizing their roles in maintaining a school environment conducive to teacher job satisfaction, wise administrators identify the source of teachers' frustrations, develop and implement strategies to reduce teacher frustrations with

unfulfilled work-related needs, and assess the effectiveness of the strategies in increasing job satisfaction. Cates (1984) emphasized the importance of Christian school administrators identifying and meeting teachers' job-oriented needs:

If these job-oriented needs [motivators and hygienes] of the Christian school teacher can be determined by the administrator of the school, then the wise administrator will seek to satisfy these needs which will result in lower frustration levels for the teacher and, according to Frataccia and Hennington, will ultimately increase job satisfaction levels (p. 3).

Administrators who meet their teachers' needs will not only increase the job satisfaction levels of their teachers, as Frataccia and Hennington noted, but will likely encourage teachers to remain in their current teaching positions, which ultimately results in a reduction of teacher turnover.

Background of the Problem

Motivational theorists' (Maslow, 1970; Herzberg, 1959; Vroom, 1964; Hackman & Oldham, 1980) conceptual frameworks of the sources which motivate human behavior have greatly contributed to understanding employee job satisfaction. A

review of the job satisfaction literature from 1935 to 1999 revealed that a number of factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) found to impact job satisfaction were key components of motivation theory. According to Hoy and Miskel (1996), motivation theory and research indicate a consistent correlation between work motivation and job satisfaction. Four concepts of important and popular motivation theories which have been investigated in job satisfaction studies are needs, motivators and hygienes, expectancy, and job enrichment.

Historically the need theories have been among the most important models of work motivation. Basic to need theory is the concept of human needs. Two of the most commonly studied need theories are Maslow's needs hierarchy and Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theories. These theories argue that needs constitute the motivational force behind work-related behavior (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Maslow (1970) stated that a person's basic needs are arranged on a hierarchy in which higher level needs are activated as lower level needs are basically gratified. The needs, which range from the basic physiological to the more complex and psychological, are arranged in ascending

order of complexity: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualization (Quick, 1976).

Maslow (1970) believed a person is motivated by an attempt to satisfy the need that is most important at the time. Inherent in his theory is the prepotency of needs, in which a lower-level need must be basically gratified before a higher-level need can act as a motivator of human behavior. Maslow argued that the emergence of a new need after the satisfaction of a prepotent need is not instantaneous but a "gradual emergence by slow degrees from nothingness" (p. 54). For example, if prepotent need A is satisfied 10 percent, then need B may not emerge. However, as the satisfaction of need A continues to rise, need B slowly emerges. There comes a point where need A is gratified to the extent that it no longer serves as the prepotent need, in which case need B would become the prepotent need.

Herzberg (1966) developed his motivation-hygiene or two-factor theory from a study of 200 engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. He theorized that a person has two basic sets of needs: (1) the need to avoid unpleasantness, and (2) the need to grow psychologically. Using critical incident methodology, he

asked the participants in his study to identify a time when they felt exceptionally good about their jobs and a time when they felt exceptionally bad. Herzberg found that the motivational components of a job (work itself, achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, and possibility of growth) satisfied a person's need to grow psychologically, while the hygiene components of a job (company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, working conditions, status, personal life, and job security) satisfied man's need to avoid pain. The hygienes or dissatisfiers were found to be components of the work context or the work environment, while the motivators or satisfiers were components of the work content or work tasks.

One key finding of Herzberg's study (1966) was the factors which produced job satisfaction were separate and distinct from the factors which produced job dissatisfaction. The motivating factors led to positive job attitudes or job satisfaction, while the hygiene factors did not motivate workers or cause job satisfaction but instead prevented job dissatisfaction. Since separate factors were instrumental in producing these two job feelings, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were not

opposite ends of the same continuum. Instead, the opposite of job satisfaction was no job satisfaction, and the opposite of job dissatisfaction was no job dissatisfaction. In other words, job satisfaction existed on a dual continua, a concept which Herzberg said was difficult to grasp.

Herzberg (1966) argued that a "hygienic" environment prevents a worker from being dissatisfied; such an environment, however, does not provide a place for psychological growth. Growth depends upon achievement, and achievement requires the performance of a task. "The motivators are task factors and thus are necessary for growth; they provide the psychological stimulation by which the individual can be activated toward his self-realization needs" (p. 78).

Maslow and Herzberg emphasized the same set of relationships. Maslow focused on the needs of the psychological person, while Herzberg focused on the psychological person and how a job affects one's needs. The expectancy theory of motivation, however, provided a more complex approach of human behavior in organizations (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). Expectancy theory was popularized with Vroom's (1964) theoretical formulas of motivation in

the work environment. Vroom developed two models of expectancy theory: one model (valence model) to predict the valences of outcomes, and the second model (force model) to predict the force toward behavior (Mitchell, 1974). Three basic components of these models include valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. Valence represents the "affective orientations towards particular outcomes," (Vroom, 1964, p. 15) i.e., it is the positive or negative value that a person assigns to the possible outcomes of action at work (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Expectancy, which is an action-outcome association, "is a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome" (Vroom, 1964, p. 17). Instrumentality features an outcome-outcome association, the belief that the attainment of a second outcome, like an award, is dependent upon the attainment of a first outcome, such as achievement (Vroom, 1964).

Vroom (1964) contended in the valence model that the valence of an outcome to a person is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and [the person's] conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcomes (p. 17).

Basically, this model maintains

that the worker's satisfaction with a job or anticipated satisfaction with an occupation results from the instrumentality of the job for attaining other outcomes and the valences of those outcomes (Mitchell, 1974, p. 1054).

Vroom argued in his second model "that expectancy and valence combine multiplicatively to determine motivation or force" (Lawler, 1973, p. 46). Accordingly:

The force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes (Vroom, 1964, p. 18).

Most formulations of expectancy theory indicate that valence (V), instrumentality (I), and expectancy (E) combine in a multiplicative fashion to produce the mathematical equation: Force to perform = $f[\text{expectancy} \times \sum (\text{instrumentalities} \times \text{valences})]$ (Schwab, Olian-Gottlieb, & Heneman III, 1979). This relationship can also be expressed as the force of motivation (FM) is the product of expectancy and the sum of the products of instrumentality and valency items. That is, $FM = E (\sum IV)$ (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988).

While the two need theories and expectancy theory have been used in many studies to explain the motivating forces

of employee behavior, there have also been a number of motivation researchers of job enrichment who have identified ways that a job can be restructured to foster greater intrinsic motivation. Perhaps Hackman and Odom (1980) conducted the most well-known study of job enrichment (Sergiovanni, 1992). Their job enrichment model contained the idea that three critical psychological states were essential in producing intrinsic motivation. First, the worker must perceive work to be meaningful. Trivial work is unlikely to produce intrinsic motivation. Second, the worker must assume responsibility for the work outcomes. A worker who views the quality of work dependent more on external factors such as procedure manuals or the guidance of a supervisor than personal efforts or initiatives is not as likely to experience the feelings that accompany success or failure. Third, the worker must be knowledgeable of personal performance at work. Workers who receive no feedback about how well they are doing are unaware of the quality of their job performances (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Sergiovanni pointed out the benefits of including these three psychological states in a work environment.

When the three psychological states are present, people are likely to feel good, perform well, and continue to perform well, in the effort to experience more of these feelings in the future. When these feelings are experienced, people do not have to depend on someone else to motivate or lead them (p. 61).

Statement of the Problem

The problem is that a number of components inherent to key motivational theories have not been studied in schools that are members of the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS) as a means of determining teacher job satisfaction. There have been many teacher job satisfaction studies conducted in public schools which utilized motivational theories to help explain faculty job satisfaction; however, few studies have been conducted in private church-related schools. One study (Henry, 1989) was identified in the review of the literature which focused on the job satisfaction of teachers in TACS; however, this study was limited to principal leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction in TACS schools. To gain a broader understanding of job satisfaction of TACS teachers, it is necessary to study additional components of motivation theory which may impact this group of educators' job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is (a) to determine the relationship between the faculty members' perceptions of their overall level of job satisfaction and satisfaction with work-related dimensions (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious), (b) to determine the relationship between faculty members' perceptions of satisfaction with each work-related dimension and the variables which collectively formulate each dimension, and (c) to determine the relationship between faculty members' perceptions of their overall level of job satisfaction and selected demographic (organizational and personal) variables.

A questionnaire will be used to determine (a) faculty members' perceptions of their overall level of job satisfaction, (b) faculty members' perceptions of the degree of satisfaction with each work-related dimension, (c) faculty members' perceptions of the degree of satisfaction with variables that collectively formulate each work-related dimension, and (d) the demographic characteristics of the faculty members' and the relationship these factors have with their overall level of job satisfaction. Specifically, the purpose of the study

is to identify work-related dimensions which could be predictors of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS, to identify groups of work-related variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) which could be predictors of TACS teachers' satisfaction with work-related dimensions, and to identify demographic variables which could account for differences of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS.

Research Questions

The following questions guided the research of this study:

1. What is the overall satisfaction level of teachers in TACS?
2. What amount of variance of overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers is accounted for when using intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales to predict job satisfaction for this group of teachers?
3. Do the summed intrinsic variables predict stated intrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS?
4. Do the summed extrinsic variables predict stated extrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS?

5. Do the summed religious variables predict stated religious satisfaction for teachers in TACS?

6. Are there selected demographic variables which account for differences in overall job satisfaction of teachers in TACS?

Significance

The key ingredient to a successful school is a quality faculty. Maintaining quality teachers is a challenging task for any administrator. The wise administrator strives to identify and meet the needs of the faculty. Ultimately, the administrator creates a school environment conducive to teacher job satisfaction.

The proposed study is important for three reasons. First, the study investigates work-related dimensions which may assist in predicting job satisfaction. This information will enable the administrator to develop strategies for improving workplace aspects which can lead to increased job satisfaction; it will also encourage the administrator to maintain practices which enhance aspects that create faculty job satisfaction. Second, the study may benefit private church-related schools if work-related

dimensions are identified as predictors of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction encourages teachers to continue in current teaching positions, which can allow the school to enjoy the long term benefits of a quality faculty. Third, the faculty may benefit from the study. If the administrator identifies and improves work-related aspects which increase job satisfaction, then the school climate will be enhanced. Teachers will feel better about their jobs.

Assumptions

The assumptions of the study consist of the following:

1. Faculty members will answer the questionnaire items honestly.
2. Principals will include all the names of full-time teachers on rosters which are submitted to this researcher. A full-time teacher is a teacher who is employed for a full school day and who teaches four or more classes on a daily basis.
3. The principals of TACS will distribute the cover letters and questionnaires to their teachers but will not coerce them to participate in the study. Teacher

participation is completely voluntary. Teachers have the freedom to refuse to participate in the study or to withdraw from the study without penalty.

Limitations of the Study

Full-time teachers (grades 1-12) employed at selected traditional schools that are members of TACS will be surveyed in the study. The primary limitation of the study is that the results and conclusions may not be generalizable to other teacher populations. An additional limitation is the willingness of the teachers to respond to the survey.

Delimitations of the Study

The delimitations will include:

1. The population will consist of full-time teachers in traditional TACS schools who teach in grades 1-12.
2. The study will be conducted during the first semester of the 2000-2001 school year.
3. The expert review consisted of expert educational practitioners who have taught or been affiliated with

private church-related secondary schools and/or institutions for at least ten years and have a philosophical approach to education that is similar to teachers in TACS.

4. The data used in this study will be delimited to the job satisfaction factors on the modified short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the demographic questions.

Definition of Terms

American Association of Christian Schools. A national Christian school organization that subscribes to a statement of faith and consists of 41 Christian school state associations that also subscribe to the same statement of faith.

Extrinsic satisfaction. The general attitude that teachers have toward the extrinsic dimension of teaching, as measured by question 27 of the modified short-form MSQ.

Intrinsic satisfaction. The general attitude that teachers have toward the intrinsic dimension of teaching, as measured by question 26 of the modified short-form MSQ.

Job satisfaction descriptors. This researcher received permission from Dr. David Weiss (one of the creators of the MSQ and Director of the Vocational Psychology Research Department at the University of Minnesota) to use his discretion in depicting the levels of job satisfaction of TACS teachers with various work-related aspects. Such descriptors, as noted in Chapter 4, include marginally satisfied, moderately satisfied, and slightly satisfied (Personal Communication, February 1, 2001).

Modified short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The modified version of the short-form MSQ contains the original twenty questions on the short-form MSQ and eight additional questions. Several of the original questions were reworded to make them applicable to an educational setting. Permission to make these modifications was obtained from Dr. David Weiss, as noted in Chapter 3.

Overall job satisfaction. The general attitude that teachers have toward teaching is determined by calculating the sum of the teachers' scaled satisfaction scores and dividing the sum by the total number of teachers participating in the study. (The overall satisfaction score for each teacher in TACS is determined by calculating

the sum of the numerical weights [1-5, low to high satisfaction] for each selected response in questions 26-28 on the modified short-form MSQ.)

Religious satisfaction. The general attitude that teachers have toward the religious dimension of teaching, as measured by question 28 of the modified short-form MSQ.

Summed extrinsic variables. The sum of a teacher's responses to the extrinsic items on the modified short-form MSQ.

Summed intrinsic variables. The sum of a teacher's responses to the intrinsic items on the modified short-form MSQ.

Summed religious variables. The sum of a teacher's responses to the religious items on the modified short-form MSQ.

Tennessee Association of Christian Schools. A private church-related school organization recognized by the Tennessee State Legislature in TCA 49-50-801 (1990) and approved by the Tennessee State Department of Education as a private-school agency approval organization.

Work motivation. "The complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain

work-related behavior toward the accomplishment of personal goals" (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 168).

Work-related dimension scale. A scale which consists of items on the modified short-form MSQ. The items of the intrinsic dimension scale (questions 1-4, 7-11, 15-16, 20) contain the following intrinsic variables: ability utilization, achievement, activity, creativity, security, moral values, social status, social service, variety of responsibility, independence, authority, and responsibility. The items of the extrinsic dimension scale (questions 5-6, 12-14, 17-19, 23-25) consist of the following extrinsic variables: human relations and technical aspects of supervision, compensation, advancement, recognition, school policies, working conditions, co-workers, two aspects of participative decision making (input): job and school operation, and record keeping. The items of the religious dimension scale (questions 21-22) contain the following religious variables: God's will and biblical beliefs.

Work-related dimensions. The workplace aspects (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) addressed in this researcher's study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter contains a review of selected job satisfaction literature. The chapter is divided into eight major sections: (1) motivational theories, (2) job satisfaction models, (3) demographic variables and job satisfaction, (4) extrinsic variables and job satisfaction, (5) intrinsic variables and job satisfaction, (6) religious variables and job satisfaction, (7) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and (8) a summary of the literature.

Motivational Theories

Motivation theory has contributed significantly to the understanding of job satisfaction, and as a result of these contributions, various motivational components have been incorporated in numerous job satisfaction studies. Four of the more widely used motivational theories are Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory, Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy

theory, and Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model.

Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory asserts that motivational needs are arranged according to a hierarchy of prepotency in which higher-level needs are set in motion as lower-level needs are satisfied. The needs' hierarchy is arranged in ascending order of complexity, beginning with basic physiological needs and advancing to the more complex psychological needs (Quick, 1976). Maslow's first level of hierarchical needs originates with the basic physiological needs essential to life, namely food, water, oxygen, shelter, and sleep. Safety and security needs are positioned at the second level of the hierarchical continuum, primarily represented by needs related to security (protection from danger); freedom from fear, chaos, anxiety; and a support for structure, law, and order. The desire for belongingness, love, friendship, and affection occupy the third level of motivational hierarchical needs. As the needs represented by Maslow's first three levels are satisfied, the motivational needs delineated by levels four and five come into play, but

until this level is reached, the lower-level needs occupy the higher level of importance (Maslow, 1970). For example, a student deprived of sufficient food and rest is not overly interested in societal needs, but when fed and rested without fear of going hungry again, societal needs become much more important.

The higher-order esteem needs represented by the fourth level on the continuum are derived from two groups of need factors--self-respect and respect from others. This level represents the need for respect and appreciation by others, i.e., to be someone of worth, to be recognized as someone of importance. It is the intrinsic need to be somebody of some importance to others. The fifth and final level of Maslow's motivational needs--self-actualization or self-fulfillment needs--belongs to the consummation of one's full potential, i.e., being allowed to express oneself by doing what best accommodates the person (Maslow, 1970). Self-actualization, according to Maslow, "is the salient need only after all other needs have been satisfied. This presumably would happen later in life, if at all" (Deci, 1975, p. 58).

Maslow's five need categories are arranged on a hierarchical continuum of prepotency in which lower-level

needs comprise the basic needs and are inherently more important (prepotent) than higher-level or less basic needs. Once the level of physiological needs has been satisfied, their strength or importance decreases and the next higher-level needs serve as the primary motivational force of work-related behavior (Lawler, 1973). For example, when the basic physiological needs for food and water are continually satisfied, a person focuses on the next level of needs, i.e., safety. Therefore, Maslow contends that satisfied needs do not motivate. The gratification-activation process of "increased satisfaction/decreased importance/increased importance of the next higher need level repeats itself until the highest level of the hierarchy (self-actualization) is reached" (Lawler, 1973, p. 28). Consequently, behavior is "motivated by an attempt to satisfy the need that is most important at that point in time" (Lawler, 1973, p. 28).

A common misconception of Maslow's theory relates to a given level's needs being totally satisfied before a higher-level need develops. Maslow maintained that most people are partially satisfied and partially dissatisfied with their basic needs. However, a more accurate characterization of Maslow's theory would indicate that the

percentage of satisfaction decreases as the order of satisfied needs ascend the prepotency continuum. According to Maslow, the first three levels of needs require regular gratification and display minimal motivational effect, i.e., since these needs are satisfied on a regular basis the level of motivational effect greatly diminishes. They, so to speak, are soon taken for granted because of continuous occurrence. However, since the satisfaction of esteem and self-actualization needs (fourth and fifth levels) is seldom complete, both levels of needs serve as continuous motivators (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Although Maslow (1970) argues that a person's needs are arranged on a hierarchy of prepotency in which higher-level needs (esteem, self-actualization) are activated as lower-level needs (physiological, security, love) are satisfied, he noted exceptions to his theory. For example, some people will deprive themselves of everything to defend their ideals, high values, high social standards, etc. In essence, they become martyrs in defense of their ideals. Maslow explained the derivation of people's strength to uphold their ideals despite the deprivation of basic needs:

People who have been satisfied with their basic needs in life, particularly in their earlier years, seem to develop exceptional power to withstand present or

future thwarting of these needs simply because they have strong, healthy character structure as a result of basic need gratification (Maslow, 1970, p. 53).

Strong people, as Maslow describes them, stand up for the truth in spite of the personal consequences. They withstand persecution, rejection, or hatred to defend their ideals.

Using Maslow's (1954) theory of human motivation as a conceptual framework and Porter's (1961) study in industry of five basic needs (ranging from lowest to highest order on the hierarchical continuum are security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization), Trusty and Sergiovanni (1966) conducted a study of the need-fulfillment deficiencies of 223 administrators and K-12 teachers in one school district. The researchers concluded that the largest need deficiencies were satisfying esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs, the top three psychological needs of the hierarchy advocated in Porter's study. Administrators reported less satisfaction with opportunities for self-actualization than teachers but more satisfaction with self-esteem opportunities than teachers. The greatest source of dissatisfaction for the elementary and high school teachers was their lack of self-esteem.

Maslow's needs hierarchy theory is not without its share of critics. Maslow's notion of distinct need categories and the arrangement of the needs on a hierarchical continuum has been challenged. Wahba and Bridwell (1976) reviewed ten factor-analytic studies conducted to "test Maslow's need classification scheme" and found there was "no clear evidence that human needs are classified in five distinct categories, or that these categories are structured in a special hierarchy" (p. 224). Lawler (1973) stated there was little research to substantiate Maslow's hierarchy beyond the security level; consequently, "it probably is not safe to assume more than a two-step hierarchy with existence and security needs at the lowest level and all the higher-order needs at the next level" (p. 34). A second criticism of Maslow's hierarchy theory is the failure of longitudinal studies to support the gratification/activation proposition; i.e., the higher the satisfaction of a need, the lower the importance of the need and the greater the importance of the succeeding need on the hierarchical continuum (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976).

The ambiguous definition of self-actualization is another criticism levied against Maslow's needs hierarchy theory. Maslow (1970) defines self-actualization as "to

become everything that one is capable of becoming" (p. 46). Taken literally, it is impossible for a person to become an almost unlimited number of things, as noted by Locke (1976):

A person who tried to become self-actualized in this respect would probably become neurotic due to unresolvable conflicts among the thousands of choices open to him (e.g., with respect to character, occupation, activities, friends, etc.). As Maslow defines it, the term self-actualization has no coherent meaning and cannot be used to explain anything (p. 1308).

The fact that Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory has received criticism, some of which appears justified, does not lessen the impact it has had on motivational research. However, as Deci (1975) contended, self-actualization may be the highest form of humanness, but the evidence is not clear-cut; only a person's values and experience can substantiate this claim.

Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg (1966) believed that man has two basic sets of needs in life: the need to avoid unpleasantness and the need to grow psychologically. Herzberg and his colleagues conducted a study with 200 engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, to test this concept. The

workers were asked to relate job-related incidents which made them feel exceptionally good about their jobs and incidents which made them feel exceptionally bad (Herzberg, 1966). The results of the study indicated there was one group of identifiable factors associated with motivation and satisfaction at work and another cluster of factors associated with dissatisfaction and apathy (Owens, 1998). The motivating factors, called "motivators," satisfied man's need to grow psychologically and characterized employees' relationships to what they do at work. These factors consisted of achievement, recognition, advancement, work itself, responsibility, and possibility of growth. The dissatisfiers, called "hygienes," satisfied man's need to avoid pain and depicted the work environment in which employees perform their work. These factors included company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations (supervisor, subordinate, and peers), working conditions, status, personal life, and job security (Herzberg, 1966).

It had been traditionally believed that the opposite of job satisfaction is job dissatisfaction, and that by removing the components of job dissatisfaction from the job, work would become satisfying and motivating (Owens,

1998). In other words, job satisfaction exists on a single continuum. Herzberg (1966) did not support this notion and suggested that the factors producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that produce job dissatisfaction. An employee who perceives that the motivational factors are satisfied will experience job satisfaction; however, when the motivational factors are not gratified, the result will be a state of no job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Although an employee may experience minimal dissatisfaction with the motivators, the "motivators combine to contribute more to satisfaction than dissatisfaction" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996, p. 174). On the other hand, when an employee perceives that the hygiene factors are not satisfied, the result is job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). If the hygienes are fulfilled, then the employee experiences minimal job satisfaction; however, "hygienes combine to contribute more to job dissatisfaction than to job satisfaction" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996, p. 174). In essence, Herzberg believed that job satisfaction existed on a dual continua: one continuum ranged from job satisfaction to no job satisfaction, and the second continuum ranged from dissatisfaction to no job dissatisfaction. Herzberg likened the dual-continua

concept to a starving artist who is extremely happy with his/her job but greatly dissatisfied with the monetary compensation of that occupation (Herzberg, 1966).

The replication of Herzberg's study in educational settings lends support for the theory. Sergiovanni (1967) was among the first educators to replicate Herzberg's study in an educational setting. Conducting a study with 71 elementary, junior high, and high school teachers in Monroe County, New York, Sergiovanni found that three of Herzberg's motivators (recognition, achievement, and responsibility) "were factors which contributed predominately to teacher job satisfaction" (p. 76), while "interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), supervision--technical, school policy and administration, personal life, and fairness-unfairness were factors which contributed predominately to teacher job dissatisfaction" (p. 76). Unlike Herzberg's study, advancement and work itself did not appear as motivators in this study. Some of the motivators and hygienes were bipolar factors (e.g., work itself) since they possessed the potential to be both satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Sergiovanni noted that the teachers did not view

advancement as a motivator since they were seldom given opportunities for advancement.

Schmidt (1976) asked 74 high school administrators to identify two incidents which made them feel exceptionally good about their administrative jobs and two incidents that produced exceptionally bad feelings. The results of the study revealed that this group of administrators were highly motivated by achievement, recognition, and advancement. According to Schmidt, these motivators were significant factors of job satisfaction and were "major forces in motivating them to approach their maximum potential" (1976, p. 81). Policy, administration, and interpersonal relationships with subordinates were significant factors of dissatisfaction in this study. The results of the study support the motivation-hygiene theory.

One major criticism of the motivation-hygiene theory is that the theory is method-bound or a function of its own methodology (Soliman, 1970; Schmidt, 1976). The theory is supported primarily by the critical-incident method that Herzberg utilized when asking respondents to describe events that made them feel exceptionally good about their jobs and events that made them feel exceptionally bad. The second criticism is directed at Herzberg's notion of the

dual continua of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Ewen, Smith, Hulin, & Locke, 1966; House & Wigdor, 1967; Soliman, 1970). Critics contend that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not mutually exclusive but are opposite ends of the same continuum. Factors which enable a worker to experience job satisfaction can also serve as sources of dissatisfaction if not present. The third criticism addresses the assumption of the motivation-hygiene theory that there is a "direct relationship between job satisfaction and effectiveness" (Owens, 1998, p. 151). Herzberg, however, only studied satisfaction and dissatisfaction of employees and did not relate either one of these concepts to work effectiveness or productivity (Owens, 1998).

Despite these and other criticisms of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, the theory remains widely influential and often appears in business, industry, and educational literature. Although critics have advocated the abandonment of Herzberg's theory "in favor of the newer and more complex expectancy theory" (Owens, 1998, p. 152), the motivation-hygiene theory continues to serve as a powerful model for explaining work motivation (Owens).

Expectancy Theory

Since the mid-1960s expectancy theory has occupied a salient place in the study of work motivation (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988). Expectancy theory was popularized with Vroom's (1964) expectancy-valence model of work motivation (Muchinsky, 1977); however, a number of modifications have been made to Vroom's theoretical formulas (Mitchell, 1974).

"Expectancy theory rests on the assumptions that motivation is a conscious process in which decisions lawfully relate to psychological events that accompany behavior and that forces in the individual and the environment combine to determine behavior" (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988, p. 281). The theory combines these assumptions with the basic concepts of valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. Valence represents the "affective orientations toward particular outcomes" (Vroom, 1964, p. 15), i.e., it is the positive or negative value that a person assigns to the possible outcomes of action at work (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). There are two kinds of outcomes: outcomes predicted on the "level of performance achieved" and outcomes "contingent on performance," such as recognition and promotion (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976, p. 74). Expectancy, which is an action-outcome association,

"is a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome" (Vroom, 1964, p. 17). Expectancy has a mathematical range from 0 to 1, with an expectancy of 0 indicating "no subjective probability that an act will be followed by an outcome" (Vroom, p. 18), while an expectancy of 1 indicates "certainty that the act will be followed by an outcome" (Vroom, p. 18). For example, suppose two teachers equally value good lessons and the effects of good lessons; however, one teacher believes that increased lesson preparation time results in improved lessons, while the other teacher believes that additional effort will not result in improved lessons. The first teacher would have strong expectancy since this teacher believed that additional preparation time resulted in improved lessons. The second teacher would have weak or no expectancy since this teacher did not believe that increased lesson preparation resulted in improved lessons (Silver, 1983).

Instrumentality, the third basic concept of expectancy theory, features an outcome-outcome association, the belief that the attainment of a second outcome, like an award, is dependent upon the attainment of a first outcome, such as achievement. Instrumentality ranges from -1, which

indicates "a belief that attainment of a second outcome is certain without the first outcome and impossible with it" (Vroom, 1964, p. 18), to 1, which denotes "that the first outcome is believed to be a necessary and sufficient condition for the attainment of the second outcome" (Vroom, p. 18). For example, if a high school football coach believed that leading one's team to the state tournament (first outcome) resulted in a substantial pay increase (second outcome), then instrumentality would be high.

Vroom (1964) developed two models of expectancy theory. The valence model stated that the

valence of an outcome to a person is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and [the person's] conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcomes (p. 17).

In essence, this model maintains "that the worker's satisfaction with a job or anticipated satisfaction with an occupation results from the instrumentality of the job for attaining other outcomes and the valences of those outcomes" (Mitchell, 1974, p. 1054). Vroom argued in his second model (force model) "that expectancy and valence combine multiplicatively to determine motivation or force" (Lawler, 1973, p. 46). The relationship of expectancies and valences is expressed accordingly:

The force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes (Vroom, 1964, p. 18).

Most formulations of expectancy theory indicate that valence (V), instrumentality (I), and expectancy (E) combine in a multiplicative fashion to produce the mathematical equation: Force to perform = $f[\text{expectancy} \times \sum(\text{instrumentalities} \times \text{valences})]$ (Schwab, Olian-Gottlieb, & Heneman III, 1979). This relationship can also be expressed as $FM = E(\sum IV)$, i.e., the force of job motivation equals the product of expectancy and the sum of the products of instrumentality and valency items (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988).

Job motivation literature in education indicates strong support for the expectancy theory of motivation. Miskel, DeFrain and Wilcox (1980) tested the expectancy theory of motivation with secondary and higher education teachers and found strong support for the force of motivation as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. However, less support for the force of motivation as a significant predictor of job performance was reported for both groups. Miskel, McDonald, and Bloom (1983)

investigated the impact that expectancy motivation has on elementary and secondary school teachers. These researchers hypothesized that

the structural [e.g., collegial communication, teacher isolation] and expectancy [expectancy, valence, instrumentality] linkage variables will make positive contributions and demographic variables will make contributions to a linear composite that will be significantly related to teacher job satisfaction (p. 59).

The independent variables (structural, expectancy, and demographic variables) in this study formed a composite that significantly predicted teacher job satisfaction. The regression equation ($F = 4.1$, $df = 13.75$, $p < .01$) explained 41 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. Two linkage variables made significant and unique contributions to the regression equation: discipline procedures and teacher isolation. The researchers indicated that the expectancy linkage was significantly correlated to perceived school effectiveness, teacher job satisfaction, and student attitudes.

Despite the support for the expectancy model, some researchers have criticized the model for various reasons. The first criticism is directed at the linear assumptions of the model, i.e., "The higher the expectancy the greater the force [motivation], the greater the instrumentality the

greater the force, and the greater the valence the greater the force" (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976, p. 95). The assumptions are debatable, and "to the extent they do not mirror reality, the predictions of the model are weakened" (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976, p. 95). The second criticism addresses the overemphasis of intellectualism of the theory. "Expectancy theory overintellectualizes the cognitive processes people go through when choosing alternative action (at least insofar as choosing a level of performance or effort is concerned)" (Schwab, et al., 1979, p. 146). An individual does not have the "information-processing capacity to consider all of the relevant information nor do they always select the best alternative when deciding how to act" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996, p. 111). The third criticism pertains to the dependent variable (effort or choice) of the expectancy model:

The model attempts to predict choice or effort and most of the research activity has been directed at the latter. However, organizational psychology is without any clear specification of the meaning of effort and consequently there is no operationalization of the variable that possesses even a modicum of construct validity (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976, p. 92).

Although expectancy theory has its share of critics, it has emerged as a popular work motivation model (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988). Expectancy theory is beneficial to educators

since "it offers useful insights to explain educator effort" (Miskel & Ogawa, p. 283). The theory has instigated a large number of studies in educational and business arenas, and the results of the studies are "generally supportive" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996, p. 111).

Job Characteristics Model

Although the two need theories [Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory and Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory] and the expectancy theory (1964) have been used extensively in many motivation studies to explain motivating forces in relation to employee behavior, a number of job enrichment researchers have identified ways to restructure jobs in an effort to increase employee intrinsic motivation. Hackman and Oldham (1980) conducted one of the most well known studies of job enrichment (Sergiovanni, 1992). The researchers "combined and unified Maslow's need fulfillment theory of motivation, Herzberg's concern for job redesign and intrinsic motivation, and expectancy theory into a theory of job design" called the job characteristics model (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 193).

Basic to the job characteristics model is the idea that three critical psychological states are essential in

producing positive intrinsic motivation. First, employees must perceive their work to be meaningful. Meaningless work does little to foster intrinsic motivation. Second, employees must assume responsibility for their work outcomes. Employees who perceive that the quality of their work is more dependent upon external sources such as policy manuals or the orders of their supervisors than their own initiatives are less likely to experience feelings associated with success or failure. Third, employees must be knowledgeable of their work performances. Employees who receive no feedback via job performances are unaware of their work quality (Hackman & Odom, 1980).

The psychological states do not occur spontaneously but are fostered by five critical job characteristics which increase intrinsic motivation.

1. *Skill variety* is the degree to which a job requires a number of tasks, skills, and talents to complete the work.

2. *Task identity* is the degree to which a job requires a whole segment of work to be completed with a visible outcome.

3. *Task significance* is the degree to which a job significantly impacts other people within or outside the work organization.

4. *Autonomy* is the degree to which a job provides substantial freedom, discretion, and independence in scheduling work and determining work procedures.

5. *Feedback* is the degree to which an employee is provided with clear and direct information about work performance (Hackman & Odom, 1980).

Hackman and Oldham (1980) combined the five job characteristics into a single motivational index that reflects the overall potential for a job to foster the three psychological states and ultimately produce work motivation. The motivating potential score (MPS) of a job, which is the product of the average of the aspects of meaningfulness [skill variety (SV), task identity (TI), and task significance (TS)], job autonomy (A), and job feedback (F), is represented by the following formula:

$$MPS = \left[\frac{SV + TI + TS}{3} \right] \times A \times F$$

Although the motivating potential of a job may be high, this does not guarantee that a worker will experience increased intrinsic motivation. "Some employees 'take off'

on jobs that are high in motivating potential; others are more likely to 'turn off'" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 82). There are "three characteristics [moderating conditions] of people that seem especially important in determining who will (and who will not) respond positively to high MPS jobs" (p. 82). The moderating conditions include:

1. *Knowledge and skills.* Employees who have the necessary knowledge and skills to perform the work "will experience substantially positive feelings as a result of their work activities" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 84).

2. *Growth-need strength.* Employees who have strong needs for accomplishment, learning, and self-development, i.e., strong growth-need strength, are "predicted to develop high internal motivation when working on a complex, challenging job" (Hackman & Odom, 1980, p. 85).

3. *Work context satisfaction.* Employees satisfied with the work context, i.e., pay, interpersonal relationships with colleagues, job security, supervisors, are expected to "respond more positively to enriched and challenging jobs than individuals who are dissatisfied with these aspects of the work context" (Hackman & Odom, 1980, p. 86).

Internal work motivation has been addressed as one key outcome of an enriched job; however, there are additional work outcomes that are associated with jobs that produce work motivation. First, personal outcomes associated with a motivating job include *growth satisfaction* and *general satisfaction*. When a job has high MPS, employees are provided enriched opportunities for increased learning and personal growth and report these opportunities to be personally satisfying (*growth satisfaction*). Enriched jobs also foster high employee *general job satisfaction*, which can be measured by questions such as: "Generally speaking, how satisfied are you with your job?" "How frequently do you think of quitting this job?" (Hackman & Odom, 1980, p. 89). Second, when the motivating potential of a job is improved through work redesign, the outcome *work effectiveness*, especially the quality of the services or goods rendered, is generally expected to improve. Ultimately, flawless products are manufactured or quality customer service is afforded to clients (Hackman & Odom, 1980).

Hackman and Oldham (1980) developed the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) to measure the key elements of the job characteristics model previously addressed. "The survey

measures several job characteristics, employees' experienced psychological states, employees' satisfaction with their jobs and work context, and the growth need strength of respondents" (p. 275). The JDS has been utilized in educational settings to assess the effectiveness of job-enrichment programs.

The results of research studies provide support for the job characteristics model. Frase and Heck (1992) modified Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model with the aid of a steering committee (a teacher and a principal from each of the ten Fort McMurray Catholic Schools, representatives from the central office, instructional specialists, and a consultant) in an effort to diagnose the work environments of ten Fort McMurray Catholic Schools (FMCS). The steering committee administered the revised JDS to the teachers and administrators in the FMCS, evaluated the results of the survey to identify problem areas and sources of low teacher and administrator morale, and developed restructuring interventions to improve the sources of low teacher and administrator morale. As a result of the restructuring efforts, improvements were made in almost all problem areas, and the motivating potential scores for each FMCS

school improved. "Some of the improvements", noted Frase and Heck, "were statistically significant" (pp. 8-9).

Pastor and Erlandson (1982) used a portion of the JDS in their study of 150 secondary public school teachers from ten school districts in five different geographical locations in the United States. In an effort to identify sources of teacher motivation by determining the relationship of teachers' needs (higher-and lower-level needs) and job satisfaction, the researchers concluded from the survey results and open-ended interviews the following: (1) secondary public school teachers' needs "are predominately higher order in nature. The need to take on responsibility for one's own goals and to see these goals through to completion was the most heavily emphasized" (p. 182). (2) "Job satisfaction is significantly related to teacher goals" (p. 182).

Despite the usefulness of the job characteristics model in educational settings, Hackman and Odom (1980) acknowledged several shortcomings of their model. First, the model treats the job characteristics as if they are independent or uncorrelated with each other. Jobs that are high on one characteristic, however, are often high on other characteristics as well. For example, "skill variety

and autonomy are closely associated in many organizations" (p. 96). Second, the links between the job characteristics and the psychological states are not as definite as the original model indicates. Some of the job characteristics, especially autonomy, appeared in some research investigations to have impacted psychological states other than the ones indicated in the model. Third, the model contains feedback flaws. It is difficult at times to determine what is and what is not "job-based" feedback. In addition:

The model does not address feedback from non-job sources (such as supervisors, co-workers, or one's self) that also affect knowledge of the results of the work, let alone the complex interactions that no doubt exist among these sources of information about performance (p. 97).

The underlying theme of job characteristics research "has been to determine the fundamental structure of job characteristics and the normative effects of job structure on affective responses" (Kanfer, 1990, p. 84). The job characteristics model has been effectively utilized in redesigning jobs to foster greater intrinsic employee satisfaction; however, the difficulties in implementing job design changes, as noted by Hoy and Miskel (1996), make job design efforts "difficult to achieve" (p. 326).

Job Satisfaction Models

Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory, Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, and Hackman and Odom's (1980) job characteristics model serve as conceptual frameworks that significantly contribute to the understanding of employee job satisfaction. A review of the job satisfaction literature from the early 1930s to 1999 revealed that components of these motivation theories have been utilized as intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction variables in a plethora of research investigations. Three approaches to studying job satisfaction have typified the research since the 1960s: the general relationships model, the discrepancy model, and the integrated model (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988).

General Relationships Model of Job Satisfaction

The general relationships model of job satisfaction depicts how organizational, task, and individual variables combine to relate to job satisfaction. Organizational variables, i.e., centralization, supervision, leadership, feedback, culture, etc., characterize an organization in

which employees perform their jobs. Task or job-related variables (e.g. achievement, variety, challenge, pay) pertain to factors that employees experience in completing work tasks. Personal variables include individual characteristics such as age, gender, level of education, ability, and motivation (Hoy & Miskel, 1996).

Glisson and Durick (1988) investigated organizational, task, and personal variables in their study of 319 human service workers in 22 human service organizations and found that task-related variables were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. Thompson, McNamara, and Hoyle's (1997) meta-analysis of job satisfaction studies published in the first 26 volumes of the *Educational Administrative Quarterly* indicated that job-related characteristics, i.e., role conflict and role ambiguity, were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. This finding, however, was "based upon at most seven study correlations. Caution should be exercised when interpreting meta-analysis findings based on a small sample of independent study correlations" (p. 22).

Discrepancy Model

The discrepancy model of job satisfaction is the second conceptual framework for studying job satisfaction. Locke (1969) posited that "job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are 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). Job satisfaction, according to the researcher, is a perceived discrepancy, not an actual discrepancy. Locke argued that satisfaction is a difference between what a person wants and what one perceives to actually receive. The more that an employee's wants exceed what is received, the greater the job dissatisfaction (Lawler, 1973). A similar conceptualization identifies job satisfaction as "a perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return" (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969, p. 6) and what is received. In other words, job satisfaction is a discrepancy between the work motivation of employees and the rewards or incentives offered by the organization. If the motivational factors exceed the organization incentives, the result is job dissatisfaction. Conversely, if organizational rewards exceed motivation factors, the product is job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1996).

Integrated Model

Lawler (1973) integrated the general relationships and discrepancy models of job satisfaction to form a facet model of job satisfaction. The integrated model includes the discrepancy model since satisfaction is viewed as the discrepancy between what a person perceives should be received and what the person perceives as actually received. The perception of what a person should receive is also influenced by components of the general relationships model, namely personal job inputs such as skill, experience, age, effort, education, past and present performances, etc., and task or job-related characteristics, i.e., level of demands, difficulty, time-span, and amount of responsibility. An important generalization of Adams' equity theory was incorporated into the integrated model (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988). This generalization emphasizes the idea that a worker compares the input and outcomes of others to their own input and outcomes. The worker experiences job satisfaction when the perceived inputs and outcomes are equal. If the worker perceives being under-rewarded or over-rewarded for the

work accomplishment, inequity occurs and the result is job dissatisfaction (Adams, 1963).

Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction

The review of the job satisfaction literature revealed that there have been many studies conducted on the effects that intrinsic and extrinsic variables have on job satisfaction. One area of job satisfaction that has not been investigated as thoroughly is the personal characteristics of workers (Glisson & Durick, 1988). The impact of three personal characteristics on job satisfaction will be examined in the following section.

Age and Job Satisfaction

Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) found age and job satisfaction to have a curvilinear relationship. Based on an analysis of 17 out of 23 studies on the job satisfaction of employees at various age levels, Herzberg reported that job satisfaction is high when individuals start their first jobs. Satisfaction declines when employees are in their early and middle twenties; however, satisfaction escalates in the late twenties and

early thirties and continues to rise throughout the careers of most employees. Herzberg stated that the decline in job satisfaction may be attributed to reasons such as: (1) the difference between the varied tasks of students in school and the routine daily tasks of beginning employees, (2) employees' lack of understanding of advancement possibilities, and (3) employees' perceptions of lack of seniority and security in their jobs. The increase in job satisfaction may be ascribed to "the increasing seniority and security feelings, the broadening of interests, and the general rise in adjustment and satisfaction with life" (p. 11). On the other hand, Hulin (1963) reported a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction. He found the relationship between age and job satisfaction to be linear (job satisfaction increases with an age increase) rather than curvilinear.

Rathmann (1998) conducted a study of 350 Lutheran teachers and found a significant difference in the satisfaction levels of teachers who were over 35 years of age and those who were 35 years of age and under. The teachers who were over 35 were more satisfied than their younger colleagues. The researcher expected the older group of teachers to experience greater satisfaction since

the younger group "is likely to contain more [teachers] who are simply giving teaching a try and will eventually leave the profession" (p. 94). Sweeney (1981) also reported that older teachers' satisfaction levels are greater than that of younger teachers. Teachers who were 45 years of age and older were more satisfied than their colleagues who were in the age groups of 25-34 and 35-44. The group of teachers who experienced the least degree of satisfaction were between the ages of 25-34. Sweeney explained that these teachers' susceptibility to burnout is attributed to an "unsettled period" (p. 5). The researcher depicted this time period accordingly: "Buying their first home with their own youngsters appearing on the scene, they feel the pangs of economic insecurity and ask themselves, "Do I want to do this for the next 30 years?" (p. 5).

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1997), younger teachers (under 30) in public schools experienced greater career satisfaction than their older counterparts. In private schools (secular and religious) the youngest elementary teachers (under 30) and secondary teachers in the age group of 40-49 indicated the greatest levels of satisfaction.

Years of Teaching Experience and Job Satisfaction

McCarthy (1998) investigated the impact that the total years of teacher experience had on job satisfaction of 40 public school teachers in Monroe, Washington, and found there existed few differences in satisfaction according to total years of teaching experience. On the other hand, Rooney (1989) found that Catholic teachers' overall job satisfaction levels increased as the number of years of teaching experience increased. The researcher explained that teachers who have taught in the Wichita Diocesan system for more than 15 years may experience greater satisfaction since they have experienced satisfaction with job aspects "related to elements of their religious beliefs, concern with giving Christian witness, freedom to pray in the classroom, and the strong support of a Christian community life in the Catholic school" (p. 115). The National Center for Education Statistics (1997) reported that less experienced teachers (three years or less) in public schools had a greater degree of career satisfaction than their more experienced counterparts. The relationship between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction in private schools, however, was bi-polar. In other words, the teachers with the greatest (twenty years

or more) and least (three years or less) teaching experience had the highest levels of job satisfaction.

Years of Teaching Experience in the Same School and Job Satisfaction

Herzberg, et al. (1957) conducted a review of literature on employees' length of service in various organizations and their job morale or satisfaction. He discovered a trend which indicated that employees begin a job with high morale; however, their morale drops during their first year and continues to remain low for a number of years. As they continue to work in the same organizations, however, their morale increases. Rathmann (1998), like Herzberg, investigated the impact that the number of years in one organization had on employee job satisfaction. He found a significant positive relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the number of years taught at the present school. The researcher reported that teachers who had taught at their present schools for more than five years were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than teachers who had been teaching for five years or less. Rathmann suggested that teachers who teach in a school where they feel supported, encouraged, and

successful will probably continue teaching in a school environment which provides them job satisfaction.

Extrinsic Variables and Job Satisfaction

Lortie (1975) identified three basic reward systems of school teaching: psychic (intrinsic), extrinsic, and ancillary rewards. Extrinsic rewards exist independently of the person who occupies the work role; these rewards are provided by an organization and are afforded to all employees. Even though the structure of teaching rewards does not emphasize the attainment of extrinsic rewards but rather psychic (intrinsic) rewards, extrinsic rewards serve an important role in education. "People [including teachers] can be motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards" (Malen, Murphy, & Hart, 1988, p. 95). Six extrinsic variables and their effects on job satisfaction will be addressed in the following section.

Compensation and Job Satisfaction

Monetary compensation is probably the "most discussed extrinsic reward" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996, p. 317). Salary has been identified as a factor which must be satisfied to

prevent job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966), yet an element (high pay) of a work role that is most conducive to job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964). Vroom believed that satisfaction with pay was contingent upon the equity of the pay, not the actual amount received. The researcher assumed that people strive to obtain an amount of money that is fair or equitable since they "are guided by a moral system which has as a basic tenant the fair distribution of rewards" (p. 168). If people receive less than a fair amount, they feel wronged. If they receive more than a fair amount, they feel guilty. Job satisfaction, according to Vroom, is a "function of the amount of difference between the amount of reward the person believes he should receive and the amount of reward which in fact he does receive" (p. 168).

Monetary compensation continues to be a topic of interest in many job satisfaction studies in educational settings. Sergiovanni (1967) replicated Herzberg's study in an educational background and found that the teachers in his study perceived salary as a bi-polar factor. McCarthy (1998), who replicated Sergiovanni's study in an effort to verify Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's findings (1959), interviewed 40 teachers from Monroe County, Washington, and

found that compensation was neither a motivator nor hygiene, a concept contrary to Herzberg's and Sergiovanni's findings. This finding was "consistent with a profession which generally grants salary increases for longevity and education rather than merit, accomplishment, or achievement" (McCarthy, p. 102).

The effect of salary on teacher job satisfaction in private religious settings is intriguing since teachers in the average religious school receive lower salaries than their public school counterparts. Rooney (1989) conducted a study of Catholic teachers and administrators in the Diocese of Wichita and found that religious educators were more satisfied with their salaries than lay educators. The responses to the free-response section of the survey instrument indicated, however, that a majority of both groups of educators perceived salary as a major source of dissatisfaction. The problem stemmed from the inequity of the pay schedules in the Diocesan schools as well as few parish schools had pay schedules comparable to local public schools. This finding supports Vroom's (1964) notion that the equity of compensation is based on a moral system which dictates the fairness of the amount of compensation. Fairness depends on the comparison of an employee's

compensation to that of counterparts in the same or similar system.

Rathmann (1998) conducted a job satisfaction study of teachers in the Florida/Georgia District of the Lutheran Church-Missouri Synod (LCMS) and found that teachers experienced high levels of job satisfaction despite their low salaries. The synodically-trained teachers, however, experienced a significantly greater degree of job satisfaction than their non-synodically trained counterparts. Rathmann stated that "the fact that satisfaction with salary level yielded the lowest mean score of all the variables thought to contribute to job satisfaction seems to indicate that those teaching in Lutheran schools overall value their work as a ministry and calling to which they are committed" (p. 92). The ministry or calling aspect of teaching may be partially explained by teachers' religious orientations which place primary emphasis on teaching as a calling of God and as a ministry to help meet students' needs in four domains: academic, spiritual, social, and physical. The training of students in these domains is viewed by many religious educators as biblically-based: "And Jesus increased [grew] in wisdom [academics] and stature [physical], and in favor with God

[spiritual] and man [social]" (Luke 2:52, King James Version).

Leadership Behaviors and Job Satisfaction

The role of administrative behavior is a vital component of teacher job satisfaction. Researchers have indicated that several administrative behaviors that are critical to teacher job satisfaction are (1) support for teachers (Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994; Litt & Turk, 1985; Rathmann, 1998), (2) participative decision making (Knoop, 1981; Belasco & Alutto, 1972; Mohrman, Cook, & Mohrman, 1978; Duttweiler, 1986; Rathmann, 1998; Henry, 1989; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Schneider, 1984), and (3) recognition of teachers (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1967; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Anderman, et al., 1991).

Support and Job Satisfaction

Administrative support of teachers is an integral component of teacher satisfaction. Littrell, Billingsley, and Cross (1994) conducted a study with general and special educators and examined the impact that four levels of principal support (emotional, appraisal, instrumental, and

informational) had on teacher satisfaction. The study revealed that principal support is important to teacher well being or job satisfaction. Principals who provided emotional and informational teacher support were more apt to have teachers who were satisfied with their work. The extent of emotional support (e.g., expressing appreciation, listening and considering teachers' ideas, maintaining open communication), which both groups of educators indicated as the most important type of support, contributed significantly to job satisfaction. The results of the study suggest that teachers perceive greater principal support "when there is a high degree of camaraderie and optimism in their school and when teachers frequently interact with their principals" (p. 305).

Litt and Turk (1985) investigated the sources of stress and dissatisfaction of 360 public high school teachers in Connecticut with 5 to 15 years of teaching experience. The researchers found that the teachers were more satisfied with their teaching positions when they had principals who made them feel comfortable and took an interest in their personal welfare and professional development. Rathmann (1998) found in his study of Lutheran school teachers that the most significant Pearson

product-moment correlation was job satisfaction and administrative support ($r = .36$, $r^2 = .13$). The principals' role in encouraging and supporting their teachers is critical:

He or she initiates and orients beginning and new teachers into the life of the congregation and school community; speaks on behalf of the teacher as concerns arise; assists the teacher in finding solutions to problems and challenges; and guides, praises, and motivates teachers in an ongoing supervisory capacity (p. 109).

Participative Decision Making and Job Satisfaction

Knoop (1981) studied the impact that the leadership styles consideration and initiating structure had on job satisfaction of 1,812 elementary and secondary teachers. These two leadership dimensions "were measured with the 10-item Form XII of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire" (p. 6). The data analyses indicated that the Pearson product-moment correlations for consideration and job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision were $r = .22$ ($r^2 = .05$) and $r = .51$ ($r^2 = .26$), respectively. In contrast, the correlations for initiating structure and job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision were $r = .08$ ($r^2 = .01$) and $r = .24$ ($r^2 = .06$), respectively.

There was a significant difference between these two pairs of Pearson product-moment correlations. The results of the study supported the research hypothesis, which stated that "considerate leadership behavior is desirable in education Principals who are highly considerate have teachers who are moderately satisfied with their jobs and highly satisfied with their principal's leadership style and with their input into decision-making" (p. 11).

Belasco and Alutto (1972) investigated the relationship of three states of teacher participation (saturated, equilibrium, and deprived) in school system decision making and job satisfaction. Participative decision making was defined as the discrepancy between the number of decisions in which a teacher currently participated and the number of decisions in which the teacher wished to participate. Teachers from two school districts in Western New York State responded to 12 questions concerning their degree of participation in a broad array of school decisions (e.g., "Hiring new faculty members," "Determining faculty salaries," "Resolving learning problems of individual students," "Resolving faculty member grievances" (p. 49). The researchers found that teachers who were decisionally deprived reported

significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than the equilibrium or saturated groups.

Mohrman, et al. (1978) investigated participative decision making from a multidimensional perspective. Using Belasco and Alutto's (1972) twelve questions regarding participation in decision making from a school system perspective, the researchers divided the questions into three decision domains: managerial, technical, and negotiation. The managerial domain consisted of areas that are "supportive in nature" (p. 19), such as "Hiring new professional staff" and "Resolving problems with community groups" (p. 18). The technical domain included decisional areas that address instructional aspects (e.g., "Selecting specific instructional texts" and "Establishing classroom disciplinary procedures" (p. 18), while the negotiation domain "reflects issues and activities that are dealt with by the teachers' union" (p. 19) and includes "Resolving employee grievances" and "Determining professional salaries" (p. 18). The only decisional domain that was found to have a significant relationship with teacher job satisfaction was participation in technical decisions. Interestingly, the teachers reported a greater level of managerial domain deprivation than technical domain

deprivation. The researchers suggested that "teachers' feelings of managerial domain deprivation may decrease if they perceive greater control over those decisions that are more directly related to their work" (p. 26).

Researchers (Duttweiler, 1986; Rathmann, 1998) indicate that teachers are concerned with making decisions that directly impact their work. Duttweiler conducted a review of the effective schools' literature and stated that part of the solution in motivating teachers and gaining their commitment is involving teachers in decisions that directly affect them. Rathmann (1998) noted that even though parochial school teachers express their dissatisfaction with the limited professional and material resources as compared to their public school counterparts, they enjoy a decentralizing structure which allows them greater input into the decisions that directly affect their work and a shared sense of purpose. The researcher added, "Greater autonomy can, of necessity, lead teachers to assert themselves to a fuller degree in their professional roles, contributing to a higher level of teacher efficacy and job satisfaction" (p. 33). Rathmann found in his study of Lutheran school teachers of the Florida/Georgia district of the LCMS that approximately 96 percent of the teachers

participating in the study enjoyed the freedom of planning their students' learning experiences.

Henry (1989) examined the relationship between principals' leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction in TACS. Using the Leader Behavior Analysis Questionnaire [based on Hershey and Blanchard's (1982) situational leadership theory] to ascertain the leadership styles of TACS principals, the researcher found that the dominate styles of principals' leadership behavior were selling and participative. The teachers in TACS indicated a high degree of satisfaction with their teaching positions. Henry concluded that since the principals in TACS had one dominate style of leadership (selling or participative) that was relationship oriented and teachers were extremely satisfied with their jobs, then these leadership styles were very important to job satisfaction.

Decisions and Zones of Acceptance

One aspect of decision making that must be addressed is the impact of actual and desired participation on job satisfaction. Hoy and Miskel (1991) stated that the concept of zone of acceptance should be used when decisions are made about who should be involved in the decision-

making process. If a person has a personal stake (high relevance) in a decision that is being made and has the expertise to make the decision, then the decision falls outside the zone of acceptance and the person should be allowed to participate in the decision-making process. If a person, however, does not have a high stake or interest in the decision and lacks the expertise to make the decision, then the decision falls inside the zone of acceptance and the person should not participate in the decision-making process.

Schneider (1984) conducted a study of middle and junior high school teachers to determine the relationship between overall level of job satisfaction and decision-making involvement. The interaction between teachers' levels of job involvement, teachers' expertise and willingness to participate, and job satisfaction were investigated in the study. The results indicated a significant negative correlation between teachers' levels of interest and their involvement in the decision-making process. In other words, teachers who indicated an interest to participate in making more decisions perceived they were making less decisions than those teachers who had lower interest in making decisions. Moreover, the level of

involvement and job satisfaction had a linear relationship, i.e., the more that teachers were involved in making decisions, the greater their job satisfaction. Schneider concluded that administrators should do their best to involve teachers who are affected by the decision, interested in the decision, and/or knowledgeable about the decision. If this process is followed, then teachers will participate in making more decisions and their job satisfaction levels will increase.

Recognition and Job Satisfaction

Another administrative behavior found to have a strong relationship with teacher job satisfaction is recognition of teachers. Herzberg (1966) found that recognition was a motivator and an important determinant of job satisfaction only when it was directed toward a specific accomplishment or achievement. Recognition which was nondirected and used only as an attempt to make a worker feel good was not a motivating factor. Sergiovanni (1967) reported that recognition was one of the strongest motivating factors for teachers in his study: "The need for recognition, the overt bolstering of self-esteem, appears to be most important for teachers" (p. 77). Sources of teacher

recognition cited by the researcher included principals, supervisors, colleagues, students, and parents; the various forms of recognition consisted of letters, gifts, incentives, oral statements, and committee appointments. Chapman and Lowther (1982) conducted a study of full-time public school teachers and found that the recognition which teachers received from their principals and supervisors had a strong positive relationship with career satisfaction. The researchers stated that if salaries and other external rewards are predetermined in an educational system, then administrative behaviors such as teacher recognition may take on a greater role as a correlate of teacher career satisfaction.

The effect of school culture on teacher job satisfaction provides yet another avenue to better understand teacher job satisfaction. Anderman, et al. (1991) hypothesized that a principal's actions or behaviors will create a distinct working environment or culture within a school, and this culture will be related to teacher job satisfaction. The researchers tested this hypothesis by developing a model of job satisfaction that linked a principal's leadership behaviors, school culture, and teacher job satisfaction/commitment. Using path

analysis, the researchers found that the strongest predictor of job satisfaction was a school culture that emphasized teacher recognition ($\beta = .46, p < .01$). The model suggests that teachers are pleased with an environment that recognizes teachers for doing a good job. This type of environment "is likely to exist when principals engage in particular behaviors," including the recognition of the "unique contributions" of their teachers (p. 19).

Co-Workers and Job Satisfaction

Researchers (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1967; Cates, 1984) have indicated that one source of dissatisfaction among employees is interpersonal relationships with colleagues. Collegial relationships, however, are a necessary component of job satisfaction in a work environment that heightens job satisfaction (Sergiovanni). Perhaps the reason for teachers' dissatisfaction with collegial relationships stems from the solitary nature of the average teaching position. Teachers are often isolated in the classroom with little opportunity for contact with their counterparts. Johnson (1990) made the following

observations concerning the isolating nature of the teaching position:

The real world of schools is usually depicted very differently, with teachers sequestered in classrooms, encountering peers only on entering or leaving the building. Engaged in parallel piecework, they devise curricula on their own, ignoring the plans and practices of their counterparts in other classrooms or grades; when it occurs, conversation offers a diversion from teaching rather than the occasion for its deliberation--travel plans rather than lesson plans are said to dominate faculty-room talk. Although such portrayals are often exaggerated, they contain more truth than most of us would like to believe" (p. 148).

Rathmann (1998) reported that approximately 93 percent of the Lutheran teachers in his study perceived they were befriended and encouraged by their peers. The researcher explained that Lutheran schools are typically small, and this feature generally facilitates "close relationships among teachers, administrators, pastors, students' families, and members of sponsoring congregations" (p. 110). Interestingly, the highest Pearson product-moment correlation of teachers in the study was between teachers' perceptions of being supported (encouraged and befriended) by other faculty and staff and their perceptions of being effective with their students ($r = .92$, $r^2 = .85$). "This relationship suggests that teachers with positive

relationships with their peers also feel efficacious regarding their success with pupils" (p. 107).

Intrinsic Variables and Job Satisfaction

The nature of the teaching profession emphasizes the attainment of psychic or intrinsic rewards (Lortie, 1975). Intrinsic rewards are generated within an individual and cannot be physically manipulated by another person. Educators receive both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards but most often find intrinsic rewards more attractive and meaningful than extrinsic ones (Mitchell, Ortiz, & Mitchell, 1987). Mitchell and Peters (1988) stated that "the most potent rewards for good teachers are intrinsic and symbolic rather than extrinsic and material" (p. 75). The influence of five intrinsic variables on employee job satisfaction will be considered in the following section.

Achievement and Job Satisfaction

Researchers (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1967; Lortie, 1975; Holdaway, 1978) frequently cite achievement as an important component of teacher job satisfaction. Herzberg found that the strongest determinant of employee

job satisfaction is achievement. The achievement stories indicated by subjects in the researcher's study included successfully completing jobs, finding solutions to problems, and seeing the results of one's work.

Sergiovanni reported that the teachers in his study often identified achievement as a source of satisfaction when they recalled satisfying stories which made them feel exceptionally good about their jobs. These achievement-centered stories focused on teachers reaching and impacting their students in a positive way.

One of the benefits of working in the school profession is illustrated in Lortie's (1975) study of teachers in Five Towns. The Five Town sample consisted of 94 elementary, junior high, and high school teachers from 13 schools. The researcher conducted interviews with each teacher and found that it was of utmost importance for teachers to feel they had "reached" or impacted their students in some way. Their core rewards were tied to this perception. Lortie remarked:

Other sources of satisfaction (e.g., private scholarly activities, relationships with parents) pale in comparison with teachers' exchanges with students and the feeling that students have learned. We would therefore expect that much of a teacher's work motivation will rotate around the daily tasks--the actual instruction of students (p. 106).

Holdaway (1978) reported that the greatest Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($r = .70$, $r^2 = .49$) in his study of 801 K-12 teachers in Alberta, Canada, existed between overall satisfaction and the perception of achievement in teaching. The free response section of the questionnaire utilized in the researcher's study revealed that the most commonly mentioned facet that contributed to overall satisfaction is "Working with students" (p. 43). This aspect involved the interaction with and achievement of students, and supports Lortie's finding that teachers place great importance on "reaching" their students.

Ability Utilization

Motivation theorists provide key insights on the profound effect of ability utilization on job satisfaction. Maslow (1970) stated that even if a person's needs (physiological, safety, belongingness and love, and esteem) are gratified, they will often become restless or uncomfortable until they are doing what they were "fitted for" (p. 46). Maslow called this need self-actualization and emphasized the importance of people using their

abilities or skills in order to experience peace with themselves:

A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately at peace with himself. What a man *can* be, he *must* be. He must be true to his own nature. This need we may call self-actualization (p. 46).

Vroom (1964) conducted a study in 1962 involving the correlation between self-expression on a job and job satisfaction of 489 blue collar workers in a Canadian oil refinery. An employee's opportunity for expression was partly determined from questions such as: "How much chance do you get to use the skills you have learned for this job?" and "How much chance do you get to use the kinds of things you are best at?" (p. 143). Vroom found a correlation of .59 between self expression and employee job satisfaction.

Herzberg (1967) argued that vertical job loading rather than horizontal loading enriched an employee's job and ultimately increased job satisfaction. The researcher contended that horizontal loading was the problem of earlier job enrichment strategies. Basic to the idea of horizontal loading was management assigning more meaningless tasks that employees found mundane. Herzberg advocated vertical loading and cited a job enrichment

experiment (designed to compare the effects of horizontal and vertical loading) to illustrate the positive effects of vertical loading on employees' job attitudes. The experiment demonstrated that employees whose jobs were restructured based on vertical loading were more motivated, productive, and noticeably more satisfied with their jobs than employees whose jobs remained the same. The principles of vertical loading used in the experiment included:

1. Removing some controls while retaining accountability.
2. Increasing the accountability of individuals for own work.
3. Giving a person a complete natural unit of work (module, division, area, and so on).
4. Granting additional authority to an employee in his activity; job freedom.
5. Making periodic reports directly available to the worker himself rather than to the supervisor.
6. Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled.
7. Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks, enabling them to become experts (p. 110).

Hackman and Odom (1980) believed that work could be redesigned to foster intrinsic work motivation. The researchers stated that one of the psychological states which fosters intrinsic motivation is experienced meaningfulness of the work, and the job characteristic which generates this psychological state is skill variety,

i.e., the degree to which a job requires an employee to perform a variety of different tasks which utilize a number of the employee's skills and talents. When an employee's skills are utilized, the motivation potential of the job increases and the employee experiences greater job satisfaction. Glisson and Durick (1988) reported in their review of the job satisfaction literature that skill variety emerged as one of the strongest predictors of employee job satisfaction. Employees expressed greater job satisfaction when they perceived that an assortment of their abilities were being utilized at work. The results of the researchers' study with human service workers confirmed the literature review, i.e., skill variety once again emerged as a strong predictor ($\beta = .48$) of job satisfaction.

Security and Job Satisfaction

"The literature consistently suggests that reporting of job satisfaction is related to self-perception of needs fulfillment through work" (Kreis & Milstein, 1985, p. 75). Maslow (1970) stressed that the higher-level needs (esteem and self-actualization) cannot serve as motivating factors of work-related behavior unless the lower-level needs

(physiological, safety, and belongingness and love) are first basically gratified. Once the physiological needs are generally gratified, then the safety needs emerge as primary sources of work motivation. The expressions of a person's safety needs (assuming the person is living in a stable, peaceful society) are manifested in desire for tenure and protection, a savings account, and various forms of insurance, such as medical, dental, unemployment, etc.

Herzberg, et al. (1957) reviewed 16 studies involving over 11,000 employees in a variety of occupations in America and parts of the United Kingdom and found job security ranked first as the perceived most important job factor. In another review of the literature, Herzberg reported that as the educational and occupational levels of employees increased, the importance of job security lessened. Evidence from the literature review revealed that the reason job security became less important was likely because the greater skill and responsibility acquired by employees at higher occupational levels make them more desirable to people within and outside their companies (Herzberg, et al., 1957). This implies that the employees enjoyed the security of continued employment; consequently, job security becomes less significant and

higher-level needs assumed greater importance. Herzberg (1966) found in his study with engineers and accountants that security, i.e., tenure and company stability or instability, was a hygiene factor and a determinant of job dissatisfaction.

The relationship of security and job satisfaction has also been investigated in the educational arena. Sergiovanni (1967) reported that job security was a bipolar factor. Holdaway (1978) found that 88 percent of the teachers in his study were satisfied with their job security. When examining the frequency that the teachers mentioned job security as a facet that contributed to overall satisfaction with teaching as an occupation, the researcher reported that only 0.6 percent of the teachers mentioned job security as a facet that contributed most to overall job satisfaction.

One of the research questions which guided Rooney's (1989) study with Catholic educators was: "Does group membership (religious or lay) make a difference in the level of job satisfaction experienced by educators in the Wichita Diocesan Schools?" (p. 6). Rooney found that religious educators expressed greater satisfaction with their job security, i.e., "the presence or absence of

objective signs which indicate company stability, continued employment, and/or tenure in one's position" (p. 44) than lay educators. The explanation for this finding was described by the researcher in the following manner:

This was not surprising, however, because religious educators are supported by their religious communities and do not have to be concerned with their income or tenure in their position. The religious communities and the Diocese will always find ways to support and employ members of the religious orders (p. 113).

Responsibility and Job Satisfaction

Herzberg (1966) found that responsibility (responsibility for one's work or the work of others or being assigned to a new task) was a major determinant of job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1980) theorized that the feeling of responsibility was one of the three critical psychological states which helped foster intrinsic motivation. Responsibility, which results from a person being directly accountable for work outcomes, is stymied when a person perceives that the quality of one's work is dependent on an external source, such as a supervisor or another work unit, and not on individual efforts.

Sergiovanni (1967) found in his study of elementary and secondary teachers that teaching responsibility is a

major source of teacher job satisfaction. Although the responsibility of a teacher appeared in high attitude sequences (high attitude sequences depict positive feelings that teachers experience toward their jobs precipitated by school-related incidents which produce these feelings), this factor appeared in only 7 percent of high attitude sequences in the study. The researcher stated that "this percentage is small when one considers that teachers do assume a considerable amount of responsibility" (p. 77). A teacher is considered to be responsible for their own work in their classroom; however, there are a number of limitations or restraints placed on their responsibility, such as rules and regulations of the school, school district, and school board. Additional restraints are imposed by the state legislature and the American society at large; even the responsibility of what a teacher plans to teach "falls within the framework of the prescribed curriculum" (p. 77). Perhaps these restraints help explain the small frequency of high attitude sequences in Sergiovanni's study. The teachers in Cates' (1984) study perceived responsibility to be a bi-polar factor, depending upon teachers' perceptions of the extent of their responsibilities. Cates did not offer an explanation for

this finding. Perhaps part of the teachers' dissatisfaction with their teaching responsibilities stemmed from teaching out of their teaching field(s) and/or assuming excessive responsibilities such as paperwork, supervision duties, and extracurricular assignments.

Religious Variables and Job Satisfaction

The preceding sections of the literature review depicted the impact that selected intrinsic and extrinsic variables have on employee job satisfaction. One group of intrinsic variables that religious educators have perceived to be important to teacher job satisfaction is the religious aspects of teaching. The relationship of two religious variables and job satisfaction will be addressed in the following section.

God's Will and Job Satisfaction

Cates (1984) investigated the impact of God's will on the job satisfaction of teachers in North and South Carolina. The teachers indicated that being in God's will in their present teaching positions was the most important factor of job satisfaction. God's will, a biblical concept

(Romans 12:2, King James Version), refers to God's direction and plan for the life of a Christian. One author stated that God's will is "that which God wills or that which God wishes. In other words, it is that which God has determined shall be done or that which God would desire to be done by others" (Anonymous, n.d.). According to Peshkin (1999), God's will is a concept which helps serve to shape a believer's life "since there is no separation between matters of doctrine and matters of job satisfaction." The researcher added that for a believer there does not exist a separation between work and belief since "all of one's life takes place within the context of belief."

Peshkin (1986) conducted an 18-month ethnographic study of a fundamental Baptist church and a private church-related school [identified as the pseudonymous Bethany Baptist Church and Bethany Baptist Academy (BBA) in his book *God's Choice: The Total World of a Fundamentalist Christian School*] affiliated with the church in a midwestern town. Utilizing observations, interviews, and questionnaires, the researcher investigated the daily lives of Bethany students and educators to gain a richer understanding of Christian education. One event that the

researcher described in his book was the calling of BBA teachers into Christian education. According to Peshkin:

Each BBA teacher had a story to tell which fits the special way that Christian educators view themselves, their work, and their institutions. It derives from the exceptional fact that all Bethany teachers have surrendered their lives to the Lord and declared their unqualified readiness to be guided by His plan for them. [Readiness to be guided by God's plan implies one's willingness to follow God's plan or will for their lives.] Indeed, all of BBA's teachers believe that God has called them to be Christian school teachers (1986, p. 64).

Peshkin (1986) illustrated God's calling by quoting a BBA math teacher who believed that God called him into Christian education.

I remember during my freshman year at college I was praying a lot about what I should do I felt the Lord was calling me to full-time service in Christian education. During the next summer I was visiting churches and giving my testimony and I received peace about my decision to teach. I decided the Lord was showing me the way. [In other words, this individual believed that it was God's will for him to be a teacher in a Christian school.] (p. 65).

Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) categorized behavior into five levels of affective learning. The highest level, characterization by a value or value complex, describes individuals who have internalized their beliefs, ideas, values, and attitudes into a total philosophy or world view. Krathwohl, et al. stated that the behavior exhibited by a person at this level "is

clearly discernable among all the social roles he is required to assume and between the public and private domains of life" (p. 171). According to Krathwohl, et al.:

The great humanitarian figures of history--Socrates, Christ, Lincoln, Gandhi, Einstein--have achieved the characterization we refer to at this level. Each is universally held in high esteem precisely because his philosophy of life characterizes and pervades all of his behavior (p. 171).

In assessing behavior at the characterization level, Krathwohl, et al. (1964) referenced an objective measurement instrument produced by the American Council on Education. This survey instrument, *General Goals of Life: H-A1b* (1942), lists 20 life goals for the college student. The student is presented with 190 pairs of statements and is asked to select the statement of the pair that most adequately represents his/her main life goal. Each life goal is paired once with the other 19 goals. The first life goal listed in this survey was "Serving God, doing God's will" (p. 174). Whereas this survey was written almost 60 years ago, it appears that the authors of the survey expected the participant to understand the meaning of the statement "Serving God, doing God's will" (p. 174). Likewise, Christian school educators, devoted as Peshkin (1986) alluded to as following God's plan or will for their

lives, apply biblical teachings to all domains of their lives, i.e., they endeavor to give Christ preeminence in all things (Colossians 1:18, King James Version) because serving Christ is the central focus of their lives. Teaching in a Christian school gives these teachers an opportunity to incorporate their Christian beliefs and values into their vocation, which is to them, fulfilling God's will for their lives in much the same way a missionary finds self-fulfillment serving God on a mission field.

This is what Maslow (1970) refers to as a desire for self-fulfillment, namely, "to become everything that a person is capable of becoming" (p. 46). The longing that Christian school teachers have for fulfilling God's will gives them peace because they can freely express their beliefs and values in their work domain, something they feel compelled to do. The nature of a person surrendered to a Christian ministry, e.g., teaching in a Christian school, serving on a mission field, or pastoring a church, is to put God first in all things, and in doing so, finding self-fulfillment.

Expression of Biblical Beliefs and Job Satisfaction

Ciriello (1990) found in her study of full-time elementary teachers in the Archdiocese of Washington, D.C., that teachers who indicated high levels of commitment to the mission of Catholic schools (organizational commitment) and to the teaching profession itself (professional commitment) experienced greater satisfaction than teachers who indicated high professional commitment but low organizational commitment. The faith dimension was regarded by the organizationally committed teachers as the most important work aspect of a job. This dimension included factors such as: "Desire to help children develop faith" and "Desire to create Christian community" (p. 11).

Tarr (1992) also examined the relationship of teacher commitment and job satisfaction in her study of elementary and secondary teachers in the Archdiocese of Boston but expanded Ciriello's (1987/1988) study "by constructing a theoretical model to elucidate the bi-directional nature of the relationship between commitment and satisfaction" (p. 22). This involved investigating the variables (prior involvement with Catholic schools, significance of religion, perceived support, and efficacy) which both influence and are influenced by satisfaction and

commitment. The researcher reported that teachers who indicated a high level of commitment to Catholic schools (organizational commitment) were significantly more satisfied with their work than teachers who were committed to their jobs (job commitment). Tarr also found that organizationally committed teachers were more satisfied with the religious aspects of teaching, i.e., "Teaching religion to non-Catholics," "Helping my students grow spiritually," "Recognition of my ministerial role," "My ability to teach religion," and "My comfort with my religion" (p. 316), than teachers whose sources of commitment were professional or job oriented.

Rationale for Inclusion of Variables in Literature Review

This researcher's focus in the beginning stages of the literature review was to identify variables in the job satisfaction and motivational literature that predicted job satisfaction of school teachers (public and private) in grades 1-12. Three classifications of job satisfaction predictors emerged from the literature: demographic, extrinsic, and intrinsic. Since the researcher's survey population consisted of private religious school teachers

in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS), job satisfaction studies involving private religious teachers were also investigated in order to determine if religious variables predict teacher job satisfaction.

During the literature review this researcher investigated several job satisfaction surveys in order to determine which one to use for his study of job satisfaction of TACS teachers. The short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction (MSQ) was selected as the survey questionnaire for the following reasons. First, the short form of the MSQ addresses intrinsic and extrinsic variables found by researchers to predict teacher job satisfaction and believed by this researcher to be important to the job satisfaction of the teachers in the TACS. Second, the short-form MSQ incorporates motivation components (addressed in the first section of the literature review) found by prominent motivation theorists (especially Herzberg) to increase work motivation and ultimately increase job satisfaction. Third, the short form of the MSQ not only measures overall or general employee satisfaction but also addresses intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of job satisfaction. According to Kuhn (1981),

"the MSQ provides a more individualized picture of worker satisfaction than general measures of satisfaction which consider the job as a whole" (p. 39). Fourth, the short-form MSQ contains twenty items written in a Likert-type format; consequently, the questionnaire takes little time to complete.

Though this researcher found the short-form MSQ to contain items which address key components of teacher job satisfaction, one aspect of teacher job satisfaction not addressed on this questionnaire, participative decision making, has been found by researchers (Knoop, 1981; Belasco & Alutto, 1972; Mohrman, et al., 1978; Duttweiler, 1986; Rathmann, 1998; Henry, 1989) to impact job satisfaction. The short form of the MSQ addresses two of the dimensions of leadership, i.e., technical supervision and human relations supervision; however, it does not specifically address teacher participative decision making.

Based on the research pertaining to the positive effects of participative decision making on teacher job satisfaction and the "expert" committee's suggestions to include questions on teacher involvement in decision making, this researcher added two questions to the short-form MSQ which address the inclusion of teachers in the

decision making process (see Appendix A: Questions 23-24). Question 23 pertains to making decisions that impact one's work: "On my present job, this is how I feel about the input into decisions that affect my job" On the other hand, question 24 entails a broader scope of decision making: "On my present job, this is how I feel about the input into how our school operates"

The short form of the MSQ also did not address the religious aspects of job satisfaction; however, researchers (Cates, 1984; Peshkin, 1986; Ciriello, 1990; Tarr, 1992) indicate the effects of religious factors, i.e., God's will (Cates, 1984; Peshkin, 1986) and expression of biblical beliefs (Ciriello, 1990; Tarr, 1992), on teacher job satisfaction in private religious schools. In order to assess the impact of these two religious variables on the job satisfaction of TACS teachers, questions 21-22 were added to this researcher's survey (see Appendix A). Question 21 pertains to one's divine calling to teach at a particular school: "On my present job, this is how I feel about being in God's will (following God's plan for my life) in this teaching position" Question 22 deals with sharing one's religious faith at school: "On my

present job, this is how I feel about the freedom to express my biblical beliefs in the classroom"

The motivation and job satisfaction literature revealed three classifications of variables that predict teacher job satisfaction: demographic, intrinsic, and extrinsic. Research studies addressing variables of job satisfaction were examined to determine if they should be included in the literature review. As a result of the literature review, two aspects of job satisfaction, i.e., participative decision making and religion, were added to the short form of the MSQ since these components of job satisfaction were found by researchers to impact job satisfaction.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Short Form)

The following section depicts the instrumentation of the MSQ and contains several major divisions. The major divisions are comprised of work adjustment theory, development of the long-form MSQ, description of the short-form MSQ, description of the scales of the short-form MSQ, norms of the short-form MSQ, reliability of the short-form MSQ, and validity of the short-form MSQ.

Work Adjustment Theory

The development of the long and short forms of the MSQ resulted from a series of continuing studies (Work Adjustment Project) that began in 1957 at the University of Minnesota to address the general problem of employee work adjustment. The theory of work adjustment serves as the conceptual framework for both the long and short forms of the MSQ (Weiss, et al., 1967). "This theory uses the correspondence (or lack of it) between the work personality and the work environment as the principal reason or explanation for observed work adjustment outcomes (satisfactoriness, satisfaction, and tenure)" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. v). Correspondence is the dynamic in which the individual meets the requirements of the work environment, and the work environment meets the requirements of the individual (Dawis & Lofquist, 1990). Work adjustment refers to "the dynamic and continuous process by which the individual seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with the work environment" (Dawis & Lofquist, 1990, p. 55).

The observable work outcomes are integral components of the theory of work adjustment. Dawis and Lofquist (1990) indicated that satisfaction is "an internal

indicator of correspondence" (p. 55). This "internal indicator" represents a person's perception of the degree to which the work environment meets one's requirements, i.e., satisfaction depicts an individual's satisfaction with the work environment. Satisfactoriness, on the other hand, is "an external indicator of correspondence" (p. 55). It is derived from sources other than the individual, i.e., satisfactoriness indicates the "satisfaction of the work environment with the individual" (p. 56). "Tenure [the time an individual remains at one job] is the most basic indicator of correspondence" (p. 55). It represents a "function of correspondence between the individual and the work environment" (p. 55).

The work adjustment theory further states "that vocational abilities and vocational needs are the significant aspects of the work personality, while ability requirements and reinforcer systems are the significant aspects of the work environment" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. v). The prediction of work adjustment is accomplished through matching an individual's work personality with work environments (Weiss, et al.). Work adjustment, therefore, "depends on how well an individual's abilities correspond to the ability requirements in work, and how [this

person's] needs correspond to the reinforcers available in the work environment" (p. v).

Development of the MSQ (Long Form)

The first measures of job satisfaction utilized in the Work Adjustment Project were the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank (short form), the Employee Attitude Scale, and 22 experimental items. The Hoppock instrument consisted of four items designed to determine the general satisfaction of a worker, while the Employee Attitude Scale was a 54-item, Likert-type questionnaire which measured attitudinal factors such as attitudes toward working conditions, pay, and supervision (Weiss, et al., 1967). The experimental items were also written in Likert-type format and addressed employee attitudes "toward supervision, co-workers, pay and promotion, and general job satisfaction" (p. 12). The 80 items were combined "to develop multi-scale satisfaction measures for different occupational groups, and for disabled and non-disabled groups separately" (p. 12). The reliability of the measures was adequate, but the scoring was tedious, and "the scales that were developed measured predominately satisfaction with environmental or extrinsic reinforcement factors (e.g., working conditions,

supervision, co-workers, company) and almost totally excluded intrinsic reinforcement factors (e.g., type of work, achievement, ability utilization)" (p. 12).

The long form of the MSQ was developed from the multi-scale satisfaction measures described above and contained 20 scales of five Likert-type items per scale. This instrument was "constructed to sample both intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcement dimensions" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 12). The instructions were simplified, and the items were shortened. According to Weiss, et al., "an attempt was made, through item wording, to make scale content more homogeneous. At the same time, items were worded to maximize readability" (pp. 12-13). The long-form MSQ was written on a fifth-grade reading level (Weiss, et al.).

The long-form MSQ was written as a parallel instrument to the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ). Both questionnaires addressed the same set of reinforcers in the work environment, but their purposes were different. The long-form MSQ measured a worker's satisfaction with reinforcers in the work environment, while the MIQ measured the importance that a reinforcer had to the potential satisfaction of a worker (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Description of the MSQ (Short Form)

The short form of the MSQ contains 20 representative items from the long form of the MSQ (Weiss, et al., 1967). According to Weiss, et al., "the items chosen [for inclusion on the short form] were those which correlated the highest with their respective scales [on the long form]" (p. 13). Waskiewicz's (1999, pp. 56-57) depiction of the items on the short-form MSQ used to measure the scales on the long-form MSQ is contained in Table 1. The administration time of the short-form MSQ is approximately five to ten minutes (Weiss, et al., 1967).

The response section of the MSQ (short and long forms) was written in a Likert-type format. Response choices delineate the degree of satisfaction of an individual with a particular aspect of a job. "The response choices for both forms of the MSQ are weighted in the following manner" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 3): Very Dissatisfied=1, Dissatisfied=2, Neither=3, Satisfied=4, Very Satisfied=5.

The short form of the MSQ was administered to a group of 1,460 men with disparate occupations. The data results were factor analyzed; two factors emerged--intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. In addition, all 20 items on the short-form MSQ were scored as one scale. The short-form

TABLE 1

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (SHORT FORM):

ITEMS ON THE SHORT FORM USED TO MEASURE SCALES

FROM THE LONG FORM

Scales from the long form	Items on the short form used to measure the scales
Ability Utilization	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
Achievement	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.
Activity	Being able to keep busy all the time.
Advancement	The chances for advancement on this job.
Authority	The chance to tell other people what to do.
Company policies and practices	The way company policies are put into practice.
Compensation	My pay and the amount of work I do.
Co-workers	The way my co-workers get along with each other.
Creativity	The chance to try my own method of doing the job.
Independence	The chance to work alone on the job.
Moral values	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.
Recognition	The praise I get for doing a good job.
Responsibility	The freedom to use my own judgment.
Security	The way my job provides for steady employment.
Social service	The chance to do things for other people.
Social status	The chance to be "somebody" in the community.
Supervision, human relations	The way my boss handles his/her workers.
Supervision, technical	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
Variety of responsibilities	The chance to do different things from time to time.
Working Conditions	The working conditions.

MSQ contains three job satisfaction scales: intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction (Weiss, et al., 1967). Waskiewicz (1999) provided a useful description of the three job satisfaction scales of the short-form MSQ by identifying each scale and paraphrasing the wording of the items on the short form of the MSQ which corresponds to the scales. The description of the three scales contained below is similar to Waskiewicz's; however, the original short-form MSQ items have been included.

Description of the Scales of the MSQ (Short Form)

The intrinsic scale contains the following items:

1. Being able to keep busy all the time.
 2. The chance to work alone on the job.
 3. The chance to do different things from time to time.
 4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.
 5. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.
 6. The way my job provides for steady employment.
 7. The chance to do things for other people.
 8. The chance to tell other people what to do.
 9. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
 10. The freedom to use my own judgment.
 11. The chance to try my own method of doing the job.
 12. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job
- (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 4).

The extrinsic scale items include the following:

1. The way my boss handles his/her employees.
2. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
3. The way company policies are put into practice.
4. My pay and the amount of work that I do.
5. The chances for advancement on this job.
6. The praise I get for doing a good job (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 4).

The general satisfaction scale contains the 18 intrinsic and extrinsic items identified above and the following two items:

- (1) The working conditions.
- (2) The way my co-workers get along with each other (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 4).

Norms of the MSQ (Short Form)

The norms of the short-form MSQ were based upon data collected from assemblers, clerks, engineers, janitors and maintenancemen, machinists, and salesmen. These six occupational groups were formed by selecting individuals in the Minneapolis and St. Paul city directories who were identified as belonging to one of these groups. Members of the Work Adjustment Project staff telephoned the individuals to verify their job titles and obtain their phone numbers and full addresses. Once this information

was obtained, letters were sent to the individuals requesting their cooperation in the study as well as describing the Work Adjustment Project and its goals (Weiss, et al., 1967).

The individuals were telephoned again after the mailing for the purpose of arranging interviews with members of the Work Adjustment Project staff. Of the 4,191 individuals that were contacted, 3,074 (approximately 75 percent) agreed to be interviewed. A total of 2,825 interviews were conducted. At the completion of each interview, the individuals were asked to take a full test battery at the University of Minnesota. Of the 2,825 individuals interviewed, 1,460 completed the battery (Weiss, et al., 1967). The battery "included measures of abilities, needs, and satisfaction" (p. 112).

The normative data (mean, standard deviation, Hoyt reliability coefficient, standard error of measurements, and percentile) of the short-form MSQ revealed the closeness of the scores for the six occupational groups on the three levels of satisfaction. A description of the reliability and validity of the short form of the MSQ is contained below.

Reliability of the MSQ (Short Form)

The Hoyt reliability coefficients for the six occupational groups on each level of satisfaction were generally high. For intrinsic satisfaction, the coefficients ranged from .84 (assemblers and electrical assemblers) to .91 (engineers). For extrinsic satisfaction, the range of the coefficients was .77 (electrical assemblers) to .82 (engineers and machinists). For general satisfaction, the range of the coefficients was .87 (assemblers) to .92 (engineers). The median reliability coefficients were .86 for intrinsic satisfaction, .80 for extrinsic satisfaction, and .90 for general satisfaction (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Weiss, et al. (1967) indicated there were no data to indicate the stability of the short-form MSQ. However, the stability of the short-form MSQ can be inferred from the data on the stability of the general satisfaction scale for the long-term MSQ since both scales use the same 20 items. The data for the stability of the scores on the 21 scales of the long-form MSQ were based upon two time periods--one week and one year. The stability of the MSQ for the one-week period was based upon scores from a test-retest correlation of 75 employed students attending night school

in courses for psychology and industrial relations. The stability of the MSQ for the one year period were based upon scores from a test-retest correlation of 115 employed individuals. The stability coefficients (test-retest correlations) for the general satisfaction scales of the one-week period and the one-year period were .89 and .70 respectively (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Validity of the MSQ (Short Form)

The validity of the short-form MSQ may partly be inferred from the validity of the long-form MSQ since the short form uses 20 representative questions from the long form (Weiss, et al., 1967). According to Guion (1978), "the MSQ [long form] gives reasonably reliable, valid, well-normed indications of general satisfaction at work and of 20 aspects of that satisfaction, collapsible into intrinsic and extrinsic components" (p. 1052).

The primary evidence of the validity of the long-form MSQ is derived from the instrument "performing according to theoretical expectations" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 16), i.e., construct validity. "Much of the evidence supporting construct validity for the MSQ is derived indirectly from construct validation studies of the Minnesota Importance

Questionnaire (MIQ), based on the Theory of Work Adjustment" (p. 16). Based on one group of studies, the individual scales of the long-form MSQ "were the dependent variables to be predicted from the relationship between vocational needs (measured by the MIQ) and (estimated) levels of occupational reinforcement" (pp. 16-17). The hypothesis tested in this group of studies stated that "satisfaction was a function of the correspondence between the individual's needs and the reinforcer system of the job" (p. 17). The results of the data produced good support for the construct validity of three MIQ scales (and indirectly for the same MSQ scales): Ability Utilization, Advancement, and Variety. Some evidence of construct validity existed for the four scales consisting of Authority, Achievement, Creativity, and Responsibility. Little evidence was provided for the construct validity of nine additional scales: Activity, Compensation, Independence, Moral Values, Recognition, Security, Social Service, Social Status, and Working Conditions. Of the 16 MSQ scales investigated, seven "were related to need-reinforcement correspondence" (p. 17).

Evidence of the construct validity of the long-form MSQ as a measure of general job satisfaction derives from

construct validation studies predicted upon the Theory of Work Adjustment. "The results of these studies, indicated that the [long form] MSQ measure satisfaction in accordance with expectations from the Theory of Work Adjustment" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 18).

Summary

This researcher began the review of the literature with a discussion of four motivation theories [Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory; Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory; Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory; Hackman and Odom's (1980) job characteristics model] whose theoretical frameworks foster greater clarity of employee work motivation. A number of the motivation components inherent in the theories facilitate a greater understanding of job satisfaction since these components have been commonly investigated as intrinsic or extrinsic variables in numerous job satisfaction studies. Three approaches to studying job satisfaction since the 1960s consist of the general relations model, the discrepancy model, and the integrated model (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988).

Two of the personal variables (age and total number of years of teaching experience) and their impact on overall teacher job satisfaction produced inconclusive results. On the other hand, evidence (Rathmann, 1998) was presented which indicated that an increase in the number of years of teaching experience in the same school resulted in significantly greater teacher job satisfaction.

Particular attention was allotted to the relationship between individual extrinsic and intrinsic variables and job satisfaction. The equity or fairness of monetary compensation was shown to be the vital component of satisfaction with salary (Vroom, 1964; Rooney, 1989). Administrative behaviors, namely support for teachers (Littrell, et al., 1994; Litt & Turk, 1985; Rathmann, 1998), participative decision making (Knoop, 1981; Belasco & Alutto, 1972; Mohrman, et al., 1978; Duttweiler, 1986; Rathmann, 1998; Henry, 1989; Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Schneider, 1984), and recognition of teachers (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1967; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Anderman, et al., 1991) were important components of teacher job satisfaction. This researcher suggested that the isolating nature of the teacher profession may produce teacher dissatisfaction with collegial relationships.

Teachers generally find intrinsic rewards more rewarding than extrinsic ones (Mitchell, Ortiz, & Mitchell, 1987). Researchers (Sergiovanni, 1967; Lortie, 1975; Holdaway, 1978) indicated that achievement (teachers reaching or impacting their students in a positive way) is an important source of teacher job satisfaction. Motivation theorists (Vroom, 1964; Herzberg, 1966; Maslow, 1970; Hackman & Odom, 1980) emphasized that employee satisfaction is increased when one's skills or abilities are utilized at work. Teacher job security (Sergiovanni, 1967) and responsibility (Cates, 1984) were found to be sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, i.e., bi-polar factors.

The interrelationship of religious factors and teacher job satisfaction was also investigated in the literature. Teachers in fundamentalist Christian schools in North and South Carolina perceived God's will as the most important aspect of job satisfaction (Cates, 1984). Teachers in the Archdiocese of Washington, D.C., who indicated high levels of organizational and professional commitment experienced greater satisfaction than teachers who expressed high professional commitment but low organizational commitment. The faith dimension, including teachers' expressions of

biblical beliefs at school, was viewed by organizationally committed teachers as the most important work component (Ciriello, 1990).

The short form of the MSQ was selected as the survey instrument in this researcher's study. This questionnaire, which was formulated during a series of continuing studies known as the Work Adjustment Project, contains 20 representative items from the long-form MSQ and includes three job satisfaction scales: intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction. According to Guion (1978), "the MSQ gives reasonably reliable, valid, well-normed indications of general satisfaction at work and of 20 aspects of that satisfaction, collapsible into intrinsic and extrinsic components" (p. 1052).

The job satisfaction literature contains a plethora of information concerning studies conducted in public schools that utilize components of key motivation theories to facilitate a greater understanding of job satisfaction in these settings. However, few job satisfaction studies have been conducted in private church-related schools. Henry (1989) addressed the job satisfaction of TACS teachers, but this study was limited to principal leadership styles and

teacher job satisfaction. To broaden the understanding of TACS teacher job satisfaction, it is essential to study additional components of motivation theory which may impact the job satisfaction of this group of teachers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter delineates the procedures used for the study. The major sections include population, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis.

Population

The population of the survey study consisted of 369 full-time teachers (grades 1-12) in 34 traditional schools in TACS. Part-time teachers and teachers in nontraditional educational schools (schools in which teachers function as "overseers" of individual student's progression in subject areas; students work at their own pace in private study booths) were excluded from the study. The teachers were identified from rosters submitted by the principals of TACS schools. The study was delimited to include the total population of teachers.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire containing the modified short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Appendix A: Questions 1-28) and demographic questions (Appendix A: Questions 29-39) was utilized as the data collection instrument in this study. A description of the questionnaire is contained below.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The development of the long and short forms of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) resulted from a series of continuing studies (Work Adjustment Project) that began in 1957 at the University of Minnesota to address the general problem of employee work adjustment.

The Development of the MSQ (Long Form)

The long form of the MSQ contains 20 scales of five Likert-type items per scale. This instrument was "constructed to sample both intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcement dimensions" (Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 12). The long-form MSQ was written on a fifth-grade reading level (Weiss, et al., 1967).

The long form of the MSQ was written as a parallel instrument to the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ). Both questionnaires addressed the same set of reinforcers in the work environment, but their purposes were different. The long-form MSQ measured a worker's satisfaction with reinforcers in the work environment, while the MIQ measured the importance that a reinforcer had to the potential satisfaction of a worker (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Description of the MSQ (Short Form)

The short form of the MSQ contains 20 representative items from the long form of the MSQ (Weiss, et al., 1967). According to Weiss, et al., "the items chosen [for inclusion on the short form] were those which correlated the highest with their respective scales [on the long form]" (1967, p. 13). The administration time of the short-form MSQ is approximately five to ten minutes (Weiss, et al., 1967).

The response section of the MSQ (short and long forms) was written in a Likert-type format. Response choices delineate the degree of satisfaction of an individual with a particular aspect of a job. "The response choices for both forms of the MSQ are weighted in the following manner"

(Weiss, et al., 1967, p. 3): Very Dissatisfied=1; Dissatisfied=2; Neither=3; Satisfied=4; Very Satisfied=5.

The short form of the MSQ was administered to a group of 1,460 men with disparate occupations. The data results were factor analyzed; two factors emerged--intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. In addition, all 20 items on the short-form MSQ were scored as one scale. The short-form MSQ contains three job satisfaction scales: intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Modification of the MSQ (Short Form) for the Proposed Study

The short form of the MSQ was modified by this researcher for two reasons: (1) to make selected questions on the short-form MSQ (Appendix A: Questions 2-6, 9-12, 14, 16, 18) clearer and/or more applicable to an educational setting, and (2) to add job-related factors (Questions 21-25) to the short-form MSQ that may impact the job satisfaction of TACS teachers. Permission to make these modifications to the short form of the MSQ was obtained from Dr. David Weiss, one of the creators of the MSQ and Director of the Vocational Psychology Research Department

at the University of Minnesota, the designer and publisher of the short-form MSQ.

Norms of the MSQ (Short Form)

The norms of the short-form MSQ were based upon data collected from assemblers, clerks, engineers, janitors and maintenancemen, machinists, and salesmen. A description of the reliability and validity of the short-form MSQ is contained below.

Reliability of the MSQ (Short Form)

The Hoyt reliability coefficients for the six occupational groups on each level of satisfaction were generally high. For intrinsic satisfaction, the coefficients ranged from .84 (assemblers and electrical assemblers) to .91 (engineers). For extrinsic satisfaction, the range of the coefficients was .77 (electrical assemblers) to .82 (engineers and machinists). For general satisfaction, the range of the coefficients was .87 (assemblers) to .92 (engineers). The median reliability coefficients were .86 for intrinsic

satisfaction, .80 for extrinsic satisfaction, and .90 for general satisfaction (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Validity of the MSQ (Short Form)

The validity of the short-form MSQ may partly be inferred from the validity of the long-form MSQ since the short form uses 20 representative questions from the long form (Weiss, et al., 1967). According to Guion (1978), "the MSQ [long form] gives reasonably reliable, valid, well-normed indications of general satisfaction at work and of 20 aspects of that satisfaction, collapsible into intrinsic and extrinsic components" (p. 1052).

Validity and Reliability of the Modified MSQ (Short Form)

The short form of the MSQ has been used over time in a number of occupational settings, and there was no reason to believe that the validity (concurrent and construct) and reliability of this researcher's modified short form of the MSQ was different from the validity of studies conducted in other settings.

Predictive Validity of the Modified MSQ (Short Form)

Of particular interest to this researcher was the predictive validity of the modified short-form MSQ. Gay (1996) defined predictive validity as "the degree to which a test can predict how well an individual will do in a future situation" (p. 142). The primary purpose of this study was to identify work-related dimensions which could be predictors of job satisfaction for teachers in TACS, to identify groups of work-related variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) which could be predictors of TACS teachers' satisfaction with work-related dimensions, and to identify demographic variables which could account for differences of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS. In essence, this researcher investigated predictive validity.

Supplemental Questions

The demographic section of the short-form MSQ was not used in this study. This researcher developed a demographic section that addressed personal (teacher) and organizational (school) characteristics. The personal

characteristics included age, gender, total years of teaching experience, total years of teaching experience in present school, total years of teaching experience in non-Christian schools, and highest degree earned. The organizational characteristics consisted of grade level(s) presently teaching, teaching in an accredited or non-accredited school, teaching combined or non-combined class(es), teaching primarily in subject area endorsement(s) that one majored and/or minored in in college, and location of school. These variables were analyzed to determine which ones accounted for differences in overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS.

Researchers in private religious schools cite religious factors which impact overall teacher job satisfaction (Cates, 1984; Ciriello, 1990; Tarr, 1992). Ciriello (1990) reported in her study of elementary teachers in the Archdiocese of Washington, D.C., that teachers who indicated high levels of organizational and professional commitment experienced greater satisfaction than teachers who expressed high professional commitment but low organizational commitment. Tarr (1992) studied the relationship of commitment and job satisfaction and reported in her study of elementary and secondary teachers

in the Archdiocese of Boston that organizationally committed teachers were more satisfied with the religious aspects of teaching than teachers whose primary source of commitment was professional or job oriented. The religious aspects of teaching included: "My comfort with my religion," "My ability to teach religion," "Helping my students grow spiritually," "Recognition of my ministerial role," and "Teaching religion to non-Catholics" (Tarr, 1992, p. 120). Tarr found that teachers who reported high levels of organizational and professional commitment had high levels of work-related (job) satisfaction. Cates (1984) reported in his study of fundamental Christian school teachers in North and South Carolina that this group of educators perceived "being in God's will" (p. 142) as the most important factor of job satisfaction. When asked in Cate's survey, "How satisfied are you with being in God's will in this teaching position?" (p. 142) the teachers indicated that it was very important to them to teach in schools that they perceived were God's will for them. The findings in these three research studies indicated the impact that religious factors had upon the satisfaction of teachers in private religious schools.

Two questions (Appendix A: Questions 21-22) were added to the short-form MSQ which address TACS teachers' degree of satisfaction with specific religious aspects in their schools. The first question was similar to the question that Cates (1984) asked in his study: "On my present job, this is how I feel about being in God's will (following God's plan for my life) in this teaching position. . . ."

The second question was formulated from the religious aspects of Tarr's (1992) study: "On my present job, this is how I feel about the freedom to express my biblical beliefs in the classroom. . . ."

Procedures

Expert Review

The researcher's questionnaire is comprised of the following pages: (a) page one consists of the purpose of the modified short-form MSQ and instructions on completing the 20 questions on the MSQ, (b) page two contains 28 questions (questions 1-20 consist of the twenty questions on the modified short-form MSQ, questions 21-22 contain the religious questions, questions 23-25 were added to this researcher's questionnaire as a result of the expert

review, and questions 26-28 were attached to the questionnaire as recommended by the researcher's dissertation committee), and (c) page three consists of 11 supplemental questions (questions 29-39). This researcher's questionnaire, also identified as the modified short-form MSQ in Chapter 1 and Chapter 3, is henceforth called the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools Questionnaire (TACSQ).

Prior to the construction of the final form of this researcher's questionnaire, the TACSQ was submitted to a group of ten expert educational practitioners who have taught or been affiliated with private church-related schools and/or institutions for at least ten years and have a philosophical approach to education that is similar to teachers in TACS. The educators critiqued the survey for format, instruction clarity, and question construction. The two questions addressing religious aspects of teaching (questions 21-22) were evaluated for clarity and universal meaning, i.e., these items were examined to determine whether the meanings of these questions would be understood by religious and secular educators. The expert educators were encouraged to identify intrinsic, extrinsic, and/or demographic characteristics pertaining to the satisfaction

of TACS teachers that were not addressed on this researcher's preliminary survey.

Once the researcher received the expert practitioners' critiques, their revisions and suggestions were analyzed. As a result of the expert review, ambiguous questions were reworded, one demographic question was omitted, and three questions (questions 23-25) were added to the TACSQ.

Three questions (questions 26-28) were added to this researcher's survey as recommended by this researcher's dissertation committee in order to assess TACS teachers' satisfaction with three work-related dimensions: intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious. Question 26 addresses TACS teachers' overall intrinsic satisfaction, while question 27 pertains to this group of teachers' overall extrinsic satisfaction. Question 28 involves the teachers' overall religious satisfaction. See Appendix A for the final form of the TACSQ.

Human Subjects Committee Approval of Proposal

This study was conducted during the fall semester of the 2000/2001 school year. Prior to the data collection process, this researcher requested permission from the

Human Subjects Review Committee at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville to conduct the study.

Data Collection Process

Once permission was granted to conduct the study, this researcher telephoned the TACS principals to briefly explain the purpose of the study, to request permission to allow their teachers (full-time teachers in grades 1-12) to participate in the study, and to request permission for teacher rosters (each roster includes the name of the school and the school teachers' names, home addresses, and home phone numbers). Once permission was granted, this researcher obtained teacher rosters from the TACS schools.

Once the rosters were obtained, this researcher mailed survey packets to the principals in TACS. Each packet contained the following items:

(1) A letter to the principal which addressed the purpose of the TACSQ and dissemination instructions (Appendix B).

(2) Individual teacher packets which included a cover letter that explained the purpose and nature of the study (Appendix C); the TACSQ; and a stamped, self-addressed envelope for the return of the questionnaire.

Each teacher was asked to mail the questionnaire to this researcher.

Each TACSQ was assigned a code number. Once this researcher received the questionnaire from a teacher, the teacher's name was marked off the master roster. This procedure facilitated up-to-date record keeping of teachers who participated in the study and also helped eliminate unnecessary follow-up correspondence. All code numbers were destroyed once the desired response rate (at least 70 percent) was obtained. Only the principal investigator and his advisor had access to the research data and the code numbers.

As recommended by Babbie (1983), follow-up correspondence began two weeks following the initial mailings. Nonrespondents were sent a new cover letter (Appendix D), a second copy of the TACSQ, and a stamped, self-addressed envelope to return the questionnaire.

Nonresponse

Although the desired response rate (70 percent) was exceeded, this researcher was prepared to implement the following steps in addressing nonresponse to the TASCQ.

If the desired response rate of at least 70 percent was not obtained after initial and follow-up correspondence, then this researcher would take the following steps, as recommended by Gay (1996). First, this researcher would randomly select a subsample of nonrespondents to interview by phone. Second, this researcher would interview the nonrespondents via phone to obtain the answers to the questions on the TACSQ. If the interviewees' responses were similar to the teachers who initially responded to the survey, then "it may be assumed that the response group is representative and the results generalizable" (p. 261). On the other hand, if the interviewee's responses were significantly different, then limitations to generalizability existed and would thus be noted in this researcher's report.

Data Analysis

This study contained six research questions. The method of analysis for each question is described below. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the statistical treatment of the data in this study.

Question 1. What is the overall job satisfaction level of teachers in TACS? The overall satisfaction level of teachers in TACS was determined from teachers' responses to questions 26-28 on the TACSQ. This process was accomplished in the following manner. First, the overall satisfaction score for each teacher in TACS was determined by calculating the sum of the numerical weights (1-5, low to high satisfaction) for each selected response in questions 26-28. This process produced an overall scaled satisfaction score (ranging from 3 to 15) for each teacher. (The response scale and the weight assigned to each response on the non-demographic section of the TACSQ were identical to the ones used on the long and short forms of the MSQ).

Second, the overall satisfaction level of teachers in TACS was obtained by calculating the sum of the overall scaled satisfaction scores for the teachers and dividing the sum by the total number of teachers participating in the study.

Question 2. What amount of variance of overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers is accounted for when using intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales to predict job satisfaction for this group of teachers? The

intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales represented three independent variables, and overall job satisfaction represented the dependent variable. The intrinsic dimension scale consisted of the twelve intrinsic items on the TACSQ (questions 1-4, 7-11, 15-16, 20), and the extrinsic dimension scale was comprised of the 11 extrinsic items (questions 5-6, 12-14, 17-19, 23-25). The religious dimension scale contained the two religious items (questions 21-22). A teacher's response to these items on the questionnaire produced a sum of scores, ranging from 12 to 60 for the intrinsic dimension scale, 11 to 55 for the extrinsic dimension scale, and 2 to 10 for the religious dimension scale. Multiple linear regression was utilized to determine the amount of variance of overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers that is accounted for when using the three dimension scales to predict overall job satisfaction for TACS teachers.

Question 3. Do the summed intrinsic variables predict stated intrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS? The sum of questions 1-4, 7-11, 15-16, 20 (intrinsic questions on the TACSQ) represented the independent variable, and intrinsic satisfaction (satisfaction with the intrinsic dimension, as represented by question 26) represented the

dependent variable. A teacher's response to the intrinsic items on the questionnaire produced a summed score for the intrinsic items. Simple linear regression was utilized to determine whether the summed intrinsic variables predict intrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS.

Question 4. Do the summed extrinsic variables predict stated extrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS? The sum of questions 5-6, 12-14, 17-19, 23-25 (extrinsic items on the TACSQ) represented the independent variable, and extrinsic satisfaction (satisfaction with the extrinsic dimension, as measured by question 27) represented the dependent variable. A teacher's response to the extrinsic items on the questionnaire yielded a summed score for the extrinsic variables. Simple linear regression was used to determine whether the summed extrinsic variables predict extrinsic satisfaction for TACS teachers.

Question 5. Do the summed religious variables predict stated religious satisfaction for teachers in TACS? The sum of questions 21-22 (religious items on the TACSQ) represented the independent variable, and religious satisfaction, i.e., satisfaction with the religious dimension (question 28), represented the dependent variable. A teacher's response to the religious items on

the TACSQ produced a summed score for the religious items. Simple linear regression was utilized to determine whether the summed religious variables predict religious satisfaction for TACS teachers.

Question 6. Are there selected demographic variables (age, gender, grade level of teaching position, total years of teaching experience, total years of teaching experience in present school, total years of teaching experience in non-Christian schools, highest degree earned, teaching in an accredited or nonaccredited school, teaching a combined or non-combined class(es), teaching primarily in the subject area endorsement(s) of one's major and/or minor in college, and location of school) which account for differences in overall job satisfaction of teachers in TACS? Independent *t*-tests were used to determine which demographic variables (gender, teaching in an accredited or nonaccredited school, teaching primarily in subject area(s) of one's major and/or minor in college, and location of school) account for differences in overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS. One-way ANOVAs were utilized to determine which demographic variables (age, grade level of current teaching position, total years of teaching experience, total years of teaching experience in

present school, total years of teaching experience in non-Christian schools, highest degree held, and teaching combined or non-combined classes) account for differences in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers. The Newman-Keuls method was utilized to locate any group differences in overall job satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter four contains five sections. Section one includes the purpose of the research study. Section two consists of a description of the survey (TACSQ) response rate. Section three is comprised of a demographic and nondemographic description of the TACS teachers who responded to the TACSQ. Section four involves the statistical treatment of the survey data and addresses the findings and analysis of the data within the framework of the six research questions. Section five presents a summary of the major research findings pertaining to the research questions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was (a) to determine the relationship between the faculty members' perceptions of their overall level of job satisfaction and satisfaction

with work-related dimensions (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious), (b) to determine the relationship between faculty members' perceptions of satisfaction with each work-related dimension and the variables which collectively formulate each dimension, and (c) to determine the relationship between faculty members' perceptions of their overall level of job satisfaction and selected demographic (organizational and personal) variables.

The TACSQ was used to determine (a) faculty members' perceptions of their overall level of job satisfaction, (b) faculty members' perceptions of the degree of satisfaction with each work-related dimension, (c) faculty members' perceptions of the degree of satisfaction with variables that collectively formulate each work-related dimension, and (d) the demographic characteristics of the faculty members and the relationship these factors have with their overall level of job satisfaction. Specifically, the purpose of the study was to identify work-related dimensions which could be predictors of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS, to identify groups of work-related variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) which could be predictors of TACS teachers' satisfaction with work-related dimensions, and to identify

demographic variables which could account for differences of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS.

TACSQ Response Rate

The population of the survey consisted of full-time teachers (grades 1-12) in 34 traditional TACS schools. A total of 369 surveys were mailed in mid-October to the teachers; follow-up surveys were mailed at the beginning of November. A total of 296 surveys were returned, resulting in a response rate of 80.2 percent. Eleven questionnaires were eliminated from the total number of surveys returned, resulting in a usable response rate of 77.2 percent. An examination of the surveys not utilized for data analysis revealed that six of the teachers were full-time kindergarten teachers, two were full-time learning disability teachers, one was a full-time supervisor, one was a part-time teacher, and one indicated that they had resigned from their teaching position.

Description of the Population

Based upon the TACS teachers' responses to the questions on the TACSQ, demographic and nondemographic descriptions of the teachers were formulated in order to facilitate a greater understanding of this group of educators. A description of the demographic variables is presented first, followed by a description of the teachers' perceptions regarding intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious variables prevalent in their present jobs.

Demographic Description of TACS Teachers

The demographic characteristics (referred to hereafter as variables) of the teachers are contained in Tables 2 through 12. The total number of responses to the demographic questions on the TACSQ fluctuates on disparate questions, depending upon the number of teachers who did not respond to the questions. The respondents for each question were divided into two or more groups for analysis purposes. For example, the teachers responding to the question on classification of gender were divided into the groups *male* and *female*. The number and percentage of

TABLE 2
AGE OF TACS TEACHERS

Age	Number	Percent
Under 25	38	13.4
25-34	65	23.0
35-44	91	32.2
45-54	63	22.3
55-64	22	7.8
65 or over	4	1.4
TOTAL	283	100.1

TABLE 3
GENDER OF TACS TEACHERS

Gender	Number	Percent
Male	64	22.8
Female	217	77.2
TOTAL	281	100.0

TABLE 4
GRADE LEVEL OF TEACHING POSITION OF TACS TEACHERS

Grade Level	Number	Percent
Elementary	131	46.3
Secondary	96	33.9
Both	56	19.8
TOTAL	283	100.0

TABLE 5
YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF TACS TEACHERS

Years Teaching Experience	Number	Percent
0-5	118	42.3
6-10	62	22.2
11-15	35	12.5
16-20	25	9.0
21-25	22	7.9
26-30	10	3.6
31-35	4	1.4
36-40	3	1.1
TOTAL	279	100.0

TABLE 6

TACS TEACHERS' YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AT PRESENT
SCHOOL

Years of Teaching Experience At Present School	Number	Percent
0-5	180	63.8
6-10	53	18.8
11-15	22	7.8
16-20	14	5.0
21-25	9	3.2
26 or more	4	1.4
TOTAL	282	100.0

TABLE 7

TACS TEACHERS' TOTAL YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN NON-
CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS

Years of Teaching Experience In Non-Christian Schools	Number	Percent
0-5	250	92.9
6-10	14	5.2
11-15	5	1.9
TOTAL	269	100.0

TABLE 8

HIGHEST EDUCATION DEGREE OF TACS TEACHERS

Degree	Number	Percent
Doctorate	3	1.1
Master	49	17.3
Bachelor	209	73.9
Associate	5	1.8
No Degree	17	6.0
TOTAL	283	100.1

TABLE 9
ACCREDITATION STATUS OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH TACS TEACHERS ARE
CURRENTLY EMPLOYED

Accreditation Status	Number	Percent
Accredited	216	77.4
Nonaccredited	63	22.6
TOTAL	279	100.0

TABLE 10
TEACHING ASSIGNMENT [TEACHING COMBINED OR NON-COMBINED
CLASS(ES)] OF TACS TEACHERS

Teaching Assignment	Number	Percent
Combined	64	22.6
Non-combined	188	66.4
Both	31	11.0
TOTAL	283	100.0

TABLE 11

TACS TEACHERS.

A) INDICATION OF TACS TEACHERS TEACHING PRIMARILY IN
SUBJECT AREA ENDORSEMENT(S) OF MAJOR
AND/OR MINOR IN COLLEGE

Teaching in Subject Area Endorsement(s)	Number	Percent
Yes	218	80.1
No	54	19.9
TOTAL	272	100.0

B) NUMBER OF CLASSES THAT TACS TEACHERS ARE TEACHING
OUTSIDE OF SUBJECT AREA ENDORSEMENT(S)

Number of Classes	Number	Percent
1-3	22	48.9
4-6	23	51.1
TOTAL	45	100.0

TABLE 12
SCHOOL LOCATION OF TACS TEACHERS

Location	Number	Percent
Urban	106	38.3
Suburban/Rural	171	61.7
TOTAL	277	100.0

teachers in each group are presented in the tables. The terms, *respondents*, *teachers*, and *faculty members*, are used interchangeably in this section, and the demographic variables are presented in the same order as they appear in the sixth research question.

The first variable consists of the age groups of TACS teachers (see Table 2, page 136). Approximately one-third of the teachers belonged to the 35 to 44 age group. Two of the age groups, 25-34 and 45-54, collectively accounted for 45.3 percent of the total respondents. Only four teachers fell in the 65 or over age group, thus accounting for 1.4 percent of the total respondents.

The second variable pertains to gender (see Table 3, page 137). The majority of the respondents consisted of females ($n = 217$ or 77.2 percent). The males, which numbered 64, accounted for 22.8 percent of the respondents.

The grade levels at which the faculty members instruct comprise the third variable. According to Table 4 (page 137), the number of teachers in the elementary, secondary, and both levels were 131 (46.3 percent), 96 (33.9 percent), and 56 (19.8 percent), respectively. The preponderance of teachers (80.2 percent) had taught on either elementary or secondary levels.

The total number of years of teaching experience, the fourth variable, was divided into groups of five-year intervals (see Table 5, page 138). One hundred eighteen teachers (42.3 percent) had accumulated 0 to 5 years of teaching experience, while 62 teachers (22.2 percent) had amassed 6 to 10 years of experience. As the table indicates, there is an inverse relationship of total years taught and number of teachers, i.e., as the groups increase in total years of teaching experience, the number of teachers contained within the groups decrease.

Approximately two-thirds of the teachers classified themselves as having 0 to 10 years of teaching experience.

Table 6 (page 139) indicates the total number of years that the respondents have been teaching at their present schools (fifth variable). The number of years was divided into six groups. Over three-fifths of the teachers (63.8 percent) had taught at their present schools from 0 to 5 years. Eighteen point eight percent of the teachers indicated that they had been teaching at their present schools from 6 to 10 years, while the remaining four groups of teachers collectively accounted for the remaining 17.4 percent of the respondents. Once again, there exists an inverse relationship of total years taught and number of

teachers. As the groups increase in total years of teaching experience at present school, the number of teachers contained within the groups decrease. The majority of TACS teachers (82.6 percent) identified themselves as having 10 years or less of teaching experience at their present schools.

The data pertaining to the sixth variable, the total number of years taught in a non-Christian school, are displayed in Table 7 (page 140). The total number of years of teaching experience was divided into three groups consisting of five-year intervals each: 0 to 5, 6 to 10, and 11 to 15. Most of the respondents (92.9 percent) fell in the group 0 to 5 years of teaching experience. The groups 6 to 10 and 11 to 15 years of teaching experience collectively accounted for only 7.1 percent of the respondents.

The highest degree earned represents the seventh variable (see Table 8, page 140). Most of the teachers (209 or 73.9 percent) indicated that the highest degree earned was a bachelor's degree. Forty-nine (17.3 percent) of the teachers had earned a master's degree, while 17 (6 percent) of the teachers had not earned a degree.

Table 9 (page 141) reveals that a majority of the respondents had taught in an accredited school (eighth variable). Over three-fourths (77.4 percent) of the respondents had taught in an accredited school, while 22.6 percent had taught in a non-accredited school.

Teaching a combined or non-combined class(es) constitutes the ninth variable (see Table 10, page 141). The response groups consisted of combined, non-combined, and both. The table reveals that approximately two-thirds (66.4 percent) of the teachers had taught a non-combined class(es), while 22.6 percent had taught a combined class(es). Eleven percent of the teachers had taught both a combined and non-combined class(es).

The tenth variable pertaining to the teachers consists of teaching primarily (4 or more classes per day) in the subject area endorsement(s) of one's major and/or minor in college (see Table 11A, page 142). The data indicated that a preponderance of teachers (80.1 percent) had taught in their major and/or minor endorsement areas. On the other hand, 19.9 percent or 54 of the teachers had not taught in their endorsement areas. According to Table 11B (page 142), of the 54 teachers that had not taught in their endorsement areas, 22 of them had taught one to three

classes outside their endorsement areas, while 23 had taught four to six classes outside their endorsement areas.

The location of the school represents the eleventh variable (see Table 12, page 143). The data revealed that 61.7 percent of the teachers had taught in suburban/rural schools, while 38.3 percent had taught in urban schools.

Nondemographic Description of TACS Teachers

The means and standard deviations of the TACS teachers' satisfaction with workplace variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) are presented in rank order (see Table 13). The following five-point Likert scale indicated the teachers' degree of satisfaction with a workplace variable: 1 = *very dissatisfied*, 2 = *dissatisfied*, 3 = *can't decide if satisfied or not*, 4 = *satisfied*, and 5 = *very satisfied*.

When considering the first 25 variables in Table 13, teachers in TACS indicated a satisfaction level between *satisfied* and *very satisfied* for 16 of the variables while expressing a satisfaction level between *can't decide if satisfied or not* and *satisfied* for 9 of them. The two highest mean satisfaction scores consisted of expression of biblical beliefs (4.81) and God's will (4.79), indicating

TABLE 13

TACS TEACHER MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES ON THE WORKPLACE
VARIABLES (INTRINSIC, EXTRINSIC, AND RELIGIOUS)
CONTAINED ON THE TACSQ

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Expression of biblical beliefs	4.81	.52
God's will	4.79	.49
Moral values	4.65	.65
Social service	4.56	.61
Ability utilization	4.54	.63
Security	4.39	.76
Achievement	4.38	.68
Activity	4.38	.74
Creativity	4.37	.81
Variety	4.33	.78
Co-workers	4.32	.80
Independence	4.23	.69
Responsibility	4.20	.86
Working conditions	4.17	.81
Supervision--technical	4.12	1.02
Supervision--human relations	4.07	1.07
Social status	3.97	.83
Recognition	3.82	1.00
Decision input--job	3.81	1.01
Authority	3.75	.73
School policies	3.72	1.02
Decision input--school operation	3.59	1.04
Record keeping	3.59	1.01
Advancement	3.52	.90
Compensation	3.32	1.14
Religious satisfaction	4.71	.53
Intrinsic satisfaction	4.47	.61
Extrinsic satisfaction	3.69	.97

that TACS teachers were highly satisfied with these aspects of teaching. Moral values (4.65), social service (4.56), and ability utilization (4.54), which are intrinsic variables, rounded out the five highest mean scores. In other words, the teachers were highly satisfied with the aspect of doing things at work that did not violate their consciences (moral values) and quite satisfied with the aspect of doing things for other people, i.e., the opportunity for social service. Furthermore, they were moderately satisfied with the opportunity to utilize their abilities at work. The five lowest mean scores represented in the table were the following: compensation (3.32), advancement (3.52), decision input--school operation (3.59), record keeping (3.59), and school policies (3.72). In essence, the teachers were marginally satisfied with three of these five extrinsic variables: the way that school policies are enforced, the amount of record keeping required for the job, and the opportunity to participate in making decisions involving the operation of the school. They were less than marginally satisfied with two workplace variables: the opportunity to advance on the job and the monetary compensation received for the amount of work done. The difference between the highest (expression of biblical

beliefs--4.81) and lowest (compensation--3.32) mean scores was 1.49.

It can be seen above that TACS teachers expressed the greatest satisfaction with religious and intrinsic aspects (variables) of the work environment and the least satisfaction with the extrinsic aspects. Of the twelve intrinsic variables in the table, the teachers' mean satisfaction with eleven of these twelve workplace variables ranged from 4.65 (highly satisfied) for moral values to 4.20 (moderately satisfied) for responsibility. Authority, the lone intrinsic variable falling below the *satisfaction* level, received an overall mean satisfaction score of 3.75 (marginally satisfied). The teachers expressed a satisfaction level between *satisfied* and *very satisfied* for four of the eleven extrinsic variables, ranging from 4.32 (moderately satisfied) for co-workers to 4.07 (more than satisfied but less than moderately satisfied) for supervision--human relations. The remaining seven extrinsic variables received mean scores between *can't decide if satisfied or not* and *satisfied*.

Questions 26 through 28 pertain to overall measures of intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious satisfaction. The top mean satisfaction score for this group of variables was

religious satisfaction (4.71), indicating that the TACS teachers were highly satisfied in this area. The intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction mean scores were 4.47 (moderately satisfied) and 3.69 (marginally satisfied), respectively. As can be seen, the teachers' greatest source of satisfaction in their present jobs was religious, while their least source of satisfaction was extrinsic. This finding indicates that the TACS respondents are highly satisfied with teaching in schools where they feel called by God to teach and where they can share their biblical beliefs. Moreover, they are also moderately satisfied with the overall intrinsic aspects of their teaching positions. Although the teachers expressed marginal extrinsic satisfaction, it is important to note that they did not express dissatisfaction with any of the extrinsic variables. This researcher received verification from Dr. David Weiss, one of the creators of the MSQ, that the words *marginally satisfied*, *moderately satisfied*, and *highly satisfied* were appropriate in depicting particular mean satisfaction levels of TACS teachers (personal communication, January 30, 2001). Permission for this researcher to use additional descriptors of job satisfaction levels of TACS teachers was granted by Ms.

Patricia Hanson, Dr. Weiss' secretary. Ms. Hanson received notification from Dr. Weiss that the depiction of job satisfaction levels is left to the discretion of the researcher (personal communications, February 1, 2001).

Presentation and Analysis of Survey Data

Statistical Treatment of Data Pertaining to the Research Questions

Six research questions were formulated to address the purpose of this research study. In order to answer these questions, disparate statistical tests were performed using SPSS, the software package used for the statistical treatment of all survey data in this study. Prior to data entry, a coding scheme was developed and survey items were coded accordingly. A significance level alpha of .05 ($p < .05$) was maintained throughout the study.

Descriptive statistics were utilized in the first research question to ascertain the mean job satisfaction level of TACS teachers. Multiple linear regression was the statistical procedure used for the second research question to determine the amount of variance of overall job satisfaction that is accounted for when using the three

dimension scales (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) to predict overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers (see Table 14). Simple linear regression served as the statistical procedure for research questions three through five to determine if: (1) the summed intrinsic variables predict intrinsic satisfaction, (2) the summed extrinsic variables predict extrinsic satisfaction, and (3) the summed religious variables predict religious satisfaction (see Tables 15 through 17). Since simple linear regression and multiple linear regression tests are run the same way on SPSS, a forward multiple regression procedure was selected to determine the impact of the predictor variables on their respective criterion variables in research questions three through five. Independent *t* tests, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the Newman-Keuls post hoc test served as the statistical tests for the sixth research question to determine if selected demographic variables account for differences in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers (see Tables 18 through 28).

TABLE 14

FORWARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION OF
TACS TEACHERS ON INTRINSIC, EXTRINSIC, AND RELIGIOUS
DIMENSION SCALES

Independent Variables	R	B	<u>t</u>
Constant		.483	.684
Extrinsic Dimension	.704*	.09947*	8.604
Religious Dimension	.789*	.583*	6.895
Intrinsic Dimension	.796*	.04969*	2.799

*p < .05

TABLE 15

FORWARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF INTRINSIC SATISFACTION OF
TACS TEACHERS ON SUMMED INTRINSIC VARIABLES

Independent Variables	R	B	<u>t</u>
Constant		1.231*	4.164
Summed Intrinsic Variables	.558*	.06260*	11.000

*p < .05

TABLE 16

FORWARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF EXTRINSIC SATISFACTION OF
TACS TEACHERS ON SUMMED EXTRINSIC VARIABLES

Independent Variables	R	B	<u>t</u>
Constant		-.259	-1.134
Summed Extrinsic Variables	.731*	.09402*	17.582

*P < .05

TABLE 17

FORWARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELIGIOUS SATISFACTION OF
TACS TEACHERS ON SUMMED RELIGIOUS VARIABLES

Independent Variables	R	B	<u>t</u>
Constant		.940*	3.504
Summed Religious Variables	.645*	.392*	14.082

* p < .05

TABLE 18

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
AGE USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Age Groups	Mean	Standard Deviation
Under 25	13.42b	1.29
25-34	12.26b	1.94
35-44	12.90b	1.54
45-54	12.97b	1.33
55-64	12.91b	1.63
65 and over	14.75a	.50
Total	12.87	1.61

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	50.47	5	10.09	4.11*
Within	680.43	277	2.46	
Total	730.90	282		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't Decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

Note: The mean with subscript *a* differs significantly from the means with subscript *b* at $p < .05$ according to Newman-Keuls multiple comparison procedure.

* $p < .05$

TABLE 19

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
GENDER USING INDEPENDENT *T* TEST

Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u>
Male	12.77	1.90	
			-.67
Female	12.92	1.49	

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

Note: According to Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, equal variances are assumed.

TABLE 20

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
GRADE LEVEL OF TEACHING POSITION USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS
OF VARIANCE

Grade Level	Mean	Standard Deviation
Elementary	13.15a	1.53
Secondary	12.64b	1.35
Both	12.59b	2.06
Total	12.87	1.61

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	20.16	2	10.08	3.97*
Within	710.74	280	2.54	
Total	730.90	282		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = Very Dissatisfied, 6 = Dissatisfied, 9 = Can't decide if Satisfied or Not, 12 = Satisfied, 15 = Very Satisfied.

Note: The mean with subscript a differs significantly from the means with subscript b at $p < .05$ according to the Duncan's new multiple range test.

* $p < .05$

TABLE 21

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
TOTAL YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS
OF VARIANCE

Years of Teaching Experience	Mean	Standard Deviation
0-5	12.93	1.49
6-10	12.52	2.01
11-15	12.83	1.81
16-20	12.80	1.35
21-25	13.23	1.23
26-30	13.00	1.25
31-35	13.00	.00
36-40	14.67	.58
Total	12.86	1.62

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	21.11	7	3.02	1.16
Within	706.44	271	2.61	
Total	727.55	278		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*,
6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*,
15 = *Very Satisfied*.

TABLE 22

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
TOTAL YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN PRESENT SCHOOL
USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Years of Teaching Experience At Present School	Mean	Standard Deviation
0-5	12.89	1.54
6-10	12.68	1.99
11-15	12.77	1.60
16-20	12.86	1.35
21-25	13.11	1.27
26+	13.75	.96
Total	12.86	1.61

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	5.85	5	1.17	.45
Within	723.76	276	2.62	
Total	729.61	281		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = Very Dissatisfied, 6 = Dissatisfied, 9 = Can't decide if Satisfied or Not, 12 = Satisfied, 15 = Very Satisfied.

TABLE 23

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
TOTAL YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN NON-CHRISTIAN
SCHOOLS USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Years of Teaching Experience In Non-Christian Schools	Mean	Standard Deviation
0-5	12.90	1.63
6-10	12.36	1.45
11-15	13.40	1.52
Total	12.88	1.62

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	5.28	2	2.64	1.01
Within	698.91	266	2.63	
Total	704.19	268		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

TABLE 24

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Degree	Mean	Standard Deviation
Doctorate	13.67	1.53
Master	12.69	1.61
Bachelor	12.84	1.63
Associate	14.00	1.22
No Degree	13.18	1.33
Total	12.87	1.61

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	11.56	4	2.89	1.12
Within	719.34	278	2.59	
Total	730.90	282		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = Very Dissatisfied, 6 = Dissatisfied, 9 = Can't decide if Satisfied or Not, 12 = Satisfied, 15 = Very Satisfied.

TABLE 25

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
ACCREDITATION STATUS OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH TEACHERS ARE
CURRENTLY EMPLOYED USING INDEPENDENT *T* TEST

Accreditation Status	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u>
Accredited	12.75	1.65	
Nonaccredited	13.19	1.42	-1.94

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

Note: According to Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, equal variances assumed.

TABLE 26

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
TEACHING ASSIGNMENT [TEACHING COMBINED OR NON-COMBINED
CLASS(ES)] USING ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Teaching Assignment	Mean	Standard Deviation
Combined	12.84	1.72
Non-Combined	12.95	1.59
Both	12.42	1.43
Total	12.87	1.61

Analysis of Variance Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	7.44	2	3.72	1.44
Within	723.45	280	2.58	
Total	730.90	282		

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

TABLE 27

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS.

A) BASED ON TEACHER INDICATION OF TEACHING PRIMARILY WITHIN
 SUBJECT AREA ENDORSEMENT(S) OF MAJOR AND/OR MINOR IN
 COLLEGE USING INDEPENDENT T TEST

Teaching in Subject Area Endorsement(s)	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u>
Yes	12.86	1.61	
No	12.70	1.61	.65

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

Note: According to Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, equal variances assumed.

TABLE 27

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS, CONT.

B) BASED ON NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT OUTSIDE OF SUBJECT
 ENDORSEMENT AREA(S) USING INDEPENDENT T TEST

Number of Classes	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u>
1-3	12.91	1.54	.67
4-6	12.61	1.47	

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

Note: According to Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, equal variances assumed.

TABLE 28

A COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TACS TEACHERS BASED ON
SCHOOL LOCATION USING INDEPENDENT *T* TEST

Location	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u>
Urban	12.71	1.45	-1.18
Suburban/Rural	12.94	1.70	

Note: Interpretation of job satisfaction means: 3 = *Very Dissatisfied*, 6 = *Dissatisfied*, 9 = *Can't decide if Satisfied or Not*, 12 = *Satisfied*, 15 = *Very Satisfied*.

Note: According to Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, equal variances assumed.

Research Questions

The primary focus of this chapter is the presentation and analysis of the survey data within the framework of the six research questions. Each research question will be restated and addressed accordingly.

Question 1

What is the overall job satisfaction level of teachers in TACS?

The overall job satisfaction level of TACS teachers was obtained by calculating the sum of the overall scaled satisfaction scores for the teachers (each teacher had an overall satisfaction score ranging from 3 to 15) and dividing the sum by the total number of teachers, producing a scaled mean satisfaction score. The overall mean satisfaction score for this group of teachers was 12.87, with a standard deviation of 1.61 (see Table 18, page 157). The overall median and mode satisfaction scores were 13.00 and 14.00, respectively. The mean score indicated that the teachers' mean overall satisfaction level fell between the satisfaction levels of *satisfied* and *very satisfied*. Although the teachers' expressed marginal extrinsic

satisfaction, they are nevertheless moderately satisfied with their present jobs. This finding suggests that intrinsic and religious satisfaction play an important role in the overall satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Question 2

What amount of variance of overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers is accounted for when using intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales to predict job satisfaction for this group of teachers?

A forward multiple regression procedure was utilized to determine the impact of the three dimension scales (extrinsic, religious, and intrinsic) on overall job satisfaction. Table 14 (page 155) indicates a significant correlation ($R = .796$) between the linear combination of the three predictor variables and overall job satisfaction. Sixty-three percent of the variance in predicting job satisfaction was explained by the combined predictor variables. The extrinsic dimension scale accounted for 50 percent of the variance in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers, while the religious dimension scale and the intrinsic dimension scale accounted for 12 percent and 1

percent of the variance, respectively. A further examination of the table indicates that each one of the predictor variables functioned as a significant contributor to the regression when used in combination with the other two variables, indicating this linear combination is a good predictor of overall job satisfaction. The prediction equation for overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers was significant, i.e., $\text{predicted job satisfaction} = .483 + .09947 * \text{extrinsic dimension scale} + .583 * \text{religious dimension scale} + .04969 * \text{intrinsic dimension scale}$. Thus, knowledge of the teachers' responses to the items in each satisfaction dimension enhances the predictability of overall satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Interestingly, the multiple R (.704) for the extrinsic dimension alone was significant and accounted for the greatest amount of variance (50 percent) in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers. The regression results indicated that the extrinsic dimension was a good predictor ($B = .09947$, $t = 8.60$) of overall job satisfaction.

According to Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jures (1994), "the multiple correlation coefficient (R) is a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the criterion variable (Y) and the predicted score on the criterion

variable (Y), which is a linear combination of the predictor variables . . ." (p. 459). Thus, the multiple R of .796, which revealed a high correlation between the criterion variable (job satisfaction) and the linear combination of the predictor variables (extrinsic dimension, religious dimension, and intrinsic dimension), suggests that extrinsic, religious, and intrinsic variables not addressed in this research study could also contribute to individual differences in job satisfaction of TACS teachers (Hinkle, et al., 1994).

Question 3

Do the summed intrinsic variables predict stated intrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS?

A forward multiple regression procedure was utilized to determine the impact of the summed intrinsic variables on intrinsic satisfaction. The results in Table 15 (page 155) indicated that the summation of intrinsic variables was a good predictor of intrinsic satisfaction. The regression equation yielded a multiple correlation coefficient of .558, which was significant. The regression equation for predicting TACS teacher intrinsic satisfaction

was significant, i.e., predicted intrinsic satisfaction = $1.231^* + .06260^*$ summed intrinsic variables. Consequently, knowledge of the teachers' responses to the intrinsic items on the TACSQ enhances the predictability of intrinsic satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Based on the regression equation above, 31 percent of the variance in predicting intrinsic satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable. Although there existed a significant relationship between summed intrinsic variables and intrinsic satisfaction, the correlation between the criterion and predictor variables was moderate ($R = .558$). According to Hinkle, et al. (1994), a correlation size of .50 to .70 indicates a moderate correlation. It must be noted that the multiple R of .558 suggests that intrinsic variables not addressed in this research study could also contribute to individual differences in intrinsic satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Question 4

Do the summed extrinsic variables predict stated extrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS?

The results in Table 16 (page 156) revealed that the summation of extrinsic variables was a good predictor of extrinsic satisfaction. The regression equation yielded a multiple R of .731, which was significant. The regression equation for predicting extrinsic satisfaction of TACS teachers was significant, i.e., predicted extrinsic satisfaction = $-.259 + .09402 \times \text{summed extrinsic variables}$. Therefore, knowledge of the teachers' responses to the extrinsic items on the TACSQ enhances the predictability of extrinsic satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Based on the regression equation above, 53 percent of the variance in predicting extrinsic satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable. The multiple R of .731 suggests that extrinsic variables not addressed in this research study could also contribute to individual differences in extrinsic satisfaction of TACS teachers (Hinkle, et al., 1994).

Question 5

Do the summed religious variables predict stated religious satisfaction for teachers in TACS?

Table 17 (page 156) indicates that the summation of religious variables was a good predictor of religious satisfaction. The regression equation yielded a multiple R of .645, which was significant. The regression equation for predicted religious satisfaction was significant, i.e., $\text{predicted religious satisfaction} = .940* + .392* \text{summed religious variables}$. Therefore, knowledge of the teachers' responses to the religious items on the TACSQ enhances the predictability of religious satisfaction of TACS teachers.

Based on the regression equation above, 42 percent of the variance in predicting religious satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable. There existed a significant relationship ($R = .645$) between religious satisfaction and the summed religious variables, even though the correlation between the criterion and predictor variable was moderate. The multiple R of .645 suggests that religious variables not addressed in this research study could also contribute to individual differences in

religious satisfaction of TACS teachers (Hinkle, et al., 1994).

Question 6

Are there selected demographic variables (age, gender, grade level of teaching position, total years of teaching experience, total years of teaching experience in present school, total years of teaching experience in non-Christian schools, highest degree earned, teaching in an accredited or non-accredited school, teaching a combined or non-combined class(es), teaching primarily in the subject area endorsement(s) of one's major and/or minor in college, and location of school) which account for differences in overall job satisfaction of teachers in TACS?

Independent *t* tests (see Tables 19 on page 158, 25 on page 164, 27A on page 166, 27B on page 167, and 28 on page 168) and one-way ANOVAs (see Tables 18 on page 157, 20 through 24 on pages 159-163, and 26 on page 165) were utilized for the statistical treatment of this research question. The demographic variables were analyzed in the same order as they appear in question six above. Each

ANOVA table consists of two selections: means and standard deviations for each group of the demographic variable, and a summary of the ANOVA results. The Newman-Keuls method was employed to locate group mean differences in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers. The results of the multiple comparison procedures were identified in Tables 18 (page 157) and 20 (page 159). Note that the mean satisfaction scores in Tables 18 through 28 (pages 157-168) are based on a 15 point scale, ranging from 3 (*very dissatisfied*) to 15 (*very satisfied*).

Age

Table 18 (page 157) reveals that the mean job satisfaction scores of TACS teachers ranged from 14.75 for teachers in the 65 and older group to 12.26 for teachers in the 25 to 34 group. The ANOVA results indicated that the F value of 4.11 was significant, indicating not all of the age group means were equal.

To determine which age group means were different from each other, the Newman-Keuls method was employed to locate the differences. The results (see Table 18, page 157) indicated that the age group 65 and older reported significantly greater satisfaction in their present jobs

than all the other age groups. There was a notable difference between the teachers that expressed the greatest level of satisfaction (65 and over; mean of 14.75) and those that expressed the least (25 to 34; mean of 12.26). Although there were only four teachers represented in the oldest age group, it must be noted that perhaps the reason the oldest teachers experienced greater satisfaction than their younger counterparts (25 to 34) is because they feel good about the investment of their lives in the teaching profession. It is conceivable that they continue to teach (despite low salaries) because they enjoy teaching and feel a deep commitment to God and their school administration although they are at retirement age. Perhaps the oldest group of teachers are not as concerned about their salaries as the younger group since they are prepared financially for retirement.

Interestingly, the teachers in the 25 to 34 age group reported the lowest degree of satisfaction with their present jobs. Perhaps this group of teachers may not be as satisfied with their jobs as the oldest group because of the financial demands (e.g., house and car payments) and family responsibilities (e.g., raising children). Many beginning teachers are single and often commence their

teaching careers at the age of 21 or 22. They soon meet their life partners and marry. Not long after marriage, they discover that the financial challenges experienced prior to marriage often do not compare to the financial needs after marriage. The acquisition of basic budgetary items (e.g., house, second car) increases the teachers' financial responsibilities. Moreover, they often decide to start a family soon after marriage. The arrival of children increases the teachers' family responsibilities; consequently, they may not be able to devote as much time to their school responsibilities. Due to the financial challenges of raising children and paying for additional or larger budgetary items, some teachers may have to work a second job to provide for their families. In the long run the daily financial and family demands placed upon a number of teachers in the age group of 25 to 34 could contribute to decreased job satisfaction.

Gender

It can be seen from the data in Table 19 (page 158) that the mean satisfaction scores were 12.92 for females and 12.77 for males. The t value of $-.67$ showed that the difference in satisfaction means was not significant,

indicating that for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to the teachers' gender.

Grade Level of Teaching Position

The data in Table 20 (page 159) reveal that the three mean overall job satisfaction scores for the elementary, secondary, and elementary/secondary groups were 13.15, 12.64, and 12.59, respectively. The ANOVA results indicated that the F value of 3.97 was significant, indicating not all of the group means pertaining to grade level were equal.

To determine which grade level means were different from each other, the Newman-Keuls method was utilized to locate the differences. The results of this post-hoc test did not reveal the significant differences of the means. Consequently, the Duncan's new multiple range test was selected as an alternative comparison procedure. This test is appropriate when comparing three means for significant differences; however, it is less powerful than the preferred Newman-Keuls test (Kirk, 1968). The results in Table 20 (page 159) indicated that the mean of 13.15 for the elementary group was significantly higher than the mean

of 12.64 for the secondary group and 12.59 for the combination group (teachers who are teaching on both the elementary and secondary grade levels). Perhaps the elementary teachers are significantly more satisfied than the other two groups of teachers for several reasons. First, it may be that elementary teachers experience fewer classroom discipline problems. Perhaps this can be partly attributed to elementary students showing their teachers more respect and appreciation than secondary students show their teachers. It is possible that the physiological make-up of secondary students contributes to more discipline problems on the secondary level. Second, elementary teachers may have perceived that their students are more excited about learning; whereas secondary students may not be as excited about learning due to divided interests, such as an increasing importance of friendships, athletics, popularity, and relationships with the opposite sex. Third, it is conceivable that elementary teachers enjoy fewer interruptions (e.g., scheduled ballgames, pep rallies) during instructional time than their secondary and elementary/secondary counterparts. Classroom interruptions may become the rule and not the exception in the secondary grades.

Years of Teaching Experience

As indicated in Table 21 (page 160), the overall satisfaction means of TACS teachers based on years of teaching experience indicated that the group of teachers with 36 to 40 years of teaching experience had the highest mean satisfaction score (14.67), while the group of teachers with 21 to 25 years of teaching experience had the second highest mean satisfaction score (13.23). The teachers with the lowest mean satisfaction score (12.52) consisted of the group with 6 to 10 years of teaching experience. The results of the ANOVA ($F = 1.16$) indicated that the group satisfaction means did not differ significantly from one another. Therefore, for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to their total years of teaching experience.

Years of Teaching Experience in Present School

The data displayed in Table 22 (page 161) revealed that the TACS teachers in the group of 26 or more years of teaching experience in their present schools possessed greater job satisfaction (mean of 13.75) than the teachers

in the other five groups of teachers. The teachers with 6 to 10 years of teaching experience possessed the lowest mean satisfaction score (12.68). The ANOVA results revealed the F value of .45, indicating there did not exist a significant difference among the group means being compared. In other words, for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to total years of teaching experience in their present schools.

Years of Teaching Experience in Non-Christian Schools

The data reported in Table 23 (page 162) indicated that the mean satisfaction score (13.40) for the group of teachers with 11 to 15 years of teaching experience was higher than the mean satisfaction scores for the groups of teachers with 0 to 5 (mean of 12.90) and 6 to 10 (mean of 12.36) years of experience. The ANOVA results revealed the F value of 1.01, indicating that the group means being compared were not significantly different. It can be seen for the teachers surveyed that there did not exist a significant difference in job satisfaction according to their total years of teaching experience in non-Christian schools.

Highest Degree Earned

The results in Table 24 (page 163) indicated that the group of teachers with associate's degrees experienced the greatest mean satisfaction score (14.00), while the group with master's degrees experienced the lowest mean satisfaction score (12.69). The F value of 1.12 showed no significant difference among the five group means, indicating that for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to the highest degrees that the teachers had earned.

Teaching in an Accredited or Nonaccredited School

The data resulting from the independent t test (see Table 25, page 164) revealed that the highest mean satisfaction score (13.19) belonged to the group of teachers that were teaching in nonaccredited schools. The t value of -1.94 was not significant, indicating there was not a significant difference in the satisfaction means. In other words, for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction

according to the accreditation status of the schools at which faculty members teach.

Teaching a Combined or Non-Combined Class(es)

The data in Table 26 (page 165) indicated that the mean satisfaction score for teachers who teach non-combined classes was 12.95, followed by the mean satisfaction scores of 12.84 and 12.42 for teachers who teach combined classes and combined/non-combined classes, respectively. The F value of 1.44 in the ANOVA section of the table revealed that the group means do not differ significantly from one another, indicating that for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to the classifications of classes (combined, non-combined, both) that faculty members teach.

Teaching Within Subject Area Endorsement(s)

The results of the independent *t* test (see Table 27A, page 166) indicated that the group mean satisfaction score of TACS teachers who were teaching primarily within their endorsement areas was 12.86, while those not teaching primarily within their endorsement areas was 12.70. The *t* value of .65 indicated that the group means do not differ

significantly from one another. Therefore, for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to whether faculty members teach within their subject area endorsements.

According to the independent t results in Table 27B (page 167), the mean satisfaction score for TACS teachers who are teaching 1 to 3 classes outside their endorsement areas was 12.91, while the mean satisfaction score for their counterparts who are teaching 4 to 6 classes outside their endorsement areas was 12.61. The t value of .67 revealed that there is not a significant difference in the group means, indicating that for the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to the number of classes that the faculty members teach outside their subject area endorsements.

Location of School

The results of the independent t test in Table 28 (page 168) indicated that the mean satisfaction score for the group of TACS teachers who teach in suburban/rural schools (12.94) was higher than the group of teachers who

teach in urban schools (12.71). The t value of -1.18 indicated that the difference of the two group means was not statistically significant. Thus, based upon the teachers surveyed, there did not exist a significant difference in overall job satisfaction according to the location of the teachers' schools.

Summary of Major Research Findings

A review of the major research findings within the context of the research questions indicated that the overall mean job satisfaction score of TACS teachers was 12.87, indicating that the teachers were moderately satisfied with their current jobs. Moreover, 63 percent of the variance in predicting overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers was explained by the combined predictor variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales). The linear combination of the predictor variables served as a good predictor of job satisfaction of TACS teachers. It was also found for this group of teachers that the summed intrinsic variables, summed extrinsic variables, and summed religious variables were good predictors of intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and religious

satisfaction, respectively. Finally, it was determined that two demographic variables, i.e., age and grade level of teaching position, accounted for significant differences in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers. The remaining nine demographic variables did not account for significant differences in job satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Chapter 5 consists of three sections. Section 1 contains a summary of the significant findings of the research study. Section 2 pertains to the conclusions of the study based on the research findings and relevant research in the literature review. Section 3 is comprised of the recommendations for further study.

Summary of the Study

The underlying purpose of the study was to identify work-related dimensions (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) which could be predictors of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS, to identify groups of work-related variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) which could be predictors of TACS teachers' satisfaction with work-related dimensions, and to identify

demographic variables which could account for differences of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS.

The population of the survey study consisted of full-time teachers (grades 1-12) in 34 traditional TACS schools. The TACSQ, the survey questionnaire, consisted of two sections: a 28-item nondemographic section, and an 11-item demographic section. A total of 369 surveys were mailed in mid-October, and follow-up surveys were mailed at the beginning of November. The total usable response rate was 77.2 percent.

At the completion of the survey, the data were entered and disparate tests were performed using SPSS in order to address six research questions. The statistical tests utilized to answer the research questions included descriptive statistics for question one; multiple linear regression for question two; simple linear regression for questions three through five; one-way analysis of variance, Newman-Keuls test, Duncan's new multiple range test, and independent *t* tests for question six. The significant findings of the research study can be summarized accordingly:

(1) The overall mean satisfaction score of TACS teachers was 12.87, indicating the teachers were moderately satisfied with their current teaching positions.

(2) Sixty-three percent of the variance in predicting overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers was explained by the combined predictor variables (intrinsic, religious, and extrinsic dimension scales). Each one of the predictor variables functioned as a significant contributor to the regression when used in combination with the other two variables, indicating this linear combination served as a good predictor of overall job satisfaction. The regression equation for predicting overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers was significant, i.e., predicted job satisfaction = $.483 + .09947 * \text{extrinsic dimension scale} + .583 * \text{religious dimension scale} + .04969 * \text{intrinsic dimension scale}$.

(3) The summation of intrinsic variables was a good predictor of intrinsic satisfaction for teachers in TACS. The significant regression equation, i.e., predicted intrinsic satisfaction = $1.231 * + .06260 * \text{summed intrinsic variables}$, indicated that 31 percent of the variance in predicting intrinsic satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable.

(4) The summation of extrinsic variables was a good predictor of extrinsic satisfaction for TACS teachers. The significant regression equation, i.e., predicted extrinsic satisfaction = $-.259 + .09402 \times \text{summed extrinsic variables}$, revealed that 53 percent of the variance in predicting extrinsic satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable.

(5) The summation of religious variables was a good predictor of religious satisfaction for teachers in TACS. The regression equation for predicted religious satisfaction was significant, i.e., predicted religious satisfaction = $.940 \times + .392 \times \text{summed religious variables}$. The regression equation indicated that 42 percent of the variance in predicting religious satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable.

(6) Two demographic variables, i.e., age and grade level of teaching position, accounted for significant differences in job satisfaction of TACS teachers. The teachers who were 65 and older were significantly more satisfied than teachers under 25 and teachers 25 to 64. Furthermore, elementary teachers were significantly more satisfied than teachers who taught either on the secondary level or the combined (elementary and secondary) levels.

The additional nine demographic variables did not account for significant differences in TACS teacher job satisfaction.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the research study and relevant research in the literature review, the following conclusions were drawn:

(1) It was found that the teachers in TACS were moderately satisfied with their present teaching positions, i.e., their overall mean satisfaction level fell between *satisfied* and *very satisfied*. This result parallels the findings of Henry (1989), Rathmann (1998), and Tarr (1992). Henry (1989) found that a selected group of TACS teachers were extremely satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, Rathmann (1998) reported that the sample of teachers in his study belonging to the Florida/Georgia district of The Lutheran Church--Missouri Synod were highly satisfied with their teaching positions. Furthermore, Tarr (1992) discovered in her study of elementary and secondary teachers in the Archdiocese of Boston that this group of educators experienced substantial extrinsic and intrinsic

satisfaction, which implies that they were highly satisfied with their work. Thus, it is concluded that the job satisfaction of TACS teachers in this researcher's study is similar to the job satisfaction of disparate groups of private religious school teachers. The fact that teachers from different religious groups in the literature review expressed high levels of job satisfaction lends support to this conclusion.

(2) Although the intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious dimension scales investigated in this study collectively accounted for a high degree of variance in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers, the data suggest that job-related variables not addressed on the TACSQ could also have an effect on the job satisfaction of this group of teachers.

(3) The summed intrinsic variables (intrinsic dimension scale) and extrinsic variables (extrinsic dimension scale) were found to be significant predictors of intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction, respectively. Moreover, the TACS teachers were highly satisfied with the religious dimension of teaching. TACS principals who develop and implement strategies for improving workplace variables (intrinsic and extrinsic)

which are perceived by their teachers to be dissatisfying might enhance job aspects that lead to increased intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction.

(4) The behavior of elementary students, the attitude of elementary students toward learning, and fewer classroom interruptions during instructional time in the elementary grades may have contributed to elementary teachers being significantly more satisfied with their teaching positions than their colleagues who teach on either the secondary level or the elementary/secondary levels.

(5) Teachers in the 65 and older age group were significantly more satisfied in their present teaching positions than all the other age groups. This supports Sweeney's (1981) finding that the oldest teachers (45 and older) in his study were more satisfied than their younger colleagues who were 25 to 44. Sweeney explained that the youngest group of teachers' (25 to 34; the most dissatisfied group of teachers) susceptibility to burnout was attributed to a period where they were starting their families and purchasing their first homes. Rathmann (1998) found in his study with Lutheran teachers that the teachers over 35 were significantly more satisfied than their younger colleagues who were 35 and younger. This

researcher's study partially supports Rathmann's study in that the oldest group of teachers in the TACS study were significantly more satisfied than their younger counterparts.

These findings lead to the conclusion that the oldest group of TACS teachers may be more satisfied in their teaching positions than their younger colleagues since they do not experience the financial demands and familial responsibilities of raising children and moreover have invested their lives in a vocation that continues to give them satisfaction even though they are at or beyond retirement age.

(6) The fact that TACS teachers were marginally satisfied with the combined extrinsic variables indicates that a number of TACS principals have not developed and/or implemented strategies for improving particular extrinsic aspects (such as monetary compensation) of the work environment that are provided by schools and exist as part of the teaching position.

(7) The TACS principals reported marginal extrinsic job satisfaction yet moderate overall job satisfaction. Furthermore, the teachers expressed moderate intrinsic satisfaction and high religious satisfaction. This led to

the conclusion that intrinsic and religious satisfaction play a vital role in the overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers. Moreover, it appears that principals who improve the extrinsic conditions of their schools, such as increasing teacher compensation and enforcing school policies consistently, will also increase the overall job satisfaction of their teachers. This is supported by the fact that overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers was partially determined by their responses to question 27 on the TACSQ, which asks the teachers to indicate their level of satisfaction with the rewards that they receive which are part of the teaching position, i.e., overall extrinsic satisfaction.

(8) The lowest mean satisfaction score of TACS teachers, i.e., monetary compensation, parallels the finding of Rathmann (1998). Rathmann's study with Lutheran teachers revealed that the lowest mean score of variables thought to contribute to job satisfaction was the level of salary. Furthermore, Rooney (1989) found that Catholic educators in the Diocese of Wichita were more satisfied with their salaries than their lay counterparts; however, a majority of both groups of educators perceived salary as a major source of dissatisfaction. The results of the TACS

survey study revealed that 30 percent of TACS teachers were *dissatisfied* or *very dissatisfied* with their salaries; however, the mean satisfaction level of monetary compensation fell between *can't decide if satisfied or not* and *satisfied*.

The second lowest mean satisfaction score of TACS teachers was advancement. This finding is not surprising when one considers that advancement opportunities in TACS schools are typically limited to teachers who are promoted to supervisory or administrative positions.

Since monetary compensation is usually low and advancement opportunities are often limited in TACS schools, additional extrinsic variables assume greater importance in the extrinsic job satisfaction of TACS teachers, variables which teachers perceived to be marginally satisfying (e.g. school policies, decision input--job, recognition) and which are under the control of the administrator.

(9) The TACS teachers were highly satisfied with being in God's will (following God's plan for their lives) in their present teaching positions. This reinforces the finding of Cates (1984), who reported that his sample of fundamental teachers from North and South Carolina

considered being in God's will as the most important factor of job satisfaction. Additionally, Peshkin (1986) emphasized the importance of God's will in a Christian school teacher's life when he stated that the teachers in his ethnographic study had submitted to the Lord's calling to the point where they were willing to follow God's plan for their lives. Moreover, Tarr (1992) found that organizationally committed elementary and secondary teachers in the Archdiocese of Boston were more satisfied with the religious aspects of teaching, including teaching religion, than their colleagues whose sources of commitment were professional or job oriented. Thus, it is concluded that the satisfaction that TACS teachers received from the religious aspects of teaching ["being in God's will (following God's plan for my life) in this teaching position" and "the freedom to express my biblical beliefs in the classroom"] in private church-related schools indicates the importance that they place on the spiritual mission of their schools: to train students to lead Christ-honoring lives.

(10) Various components (variables) of well known motivational theories, i.e., Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory, Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene

theory, and Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model, were utilized in this researcher's survey. Since approximately two-thirds of the nondemographic variables on the TACSQ were motivational components of the theories addressed above, it is concluded that motivational theory significantly contributes to the understanding of TACS teacher job satisfaction. Knowledge of the teachers' responses to the TACSQ items pertaining to intrinsic and extrinsic factors that are components of motivation theory, i.e., ability utilization, achievement, advancement, school policies, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, recognition, responsibility, security, supervision--human relations, supervision--technical, variety of responsibilities, and working conditions, supports the conclusion.

(11) Herzberg (1966) advocated in his motivation-hygiene theory that the opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction, and the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, i.e., job satisfaction exists on a dual continua, which means that the factors (motivators) which produce job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors (hygienes) which produce job dissatisfaction. This researcher found that Herzberg's

motivators investigated in this research study (achievement, recognition, responsibility, and advancement) were all found to be satisfying for TACS teachers except advancement, which had a mean satisfaction level (3.52) that fell between *can't decide if satisfied or not* and *satisfied*. This finding supports Herzberg's notion that the gratification of the motivation factors produces job satisfaction. Furthermore, there was no evidence to refute Herzberg's belief that the opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction.

Contrary to the dual continua concept, this researcher found that all but one of Herzberg's hygiene (extrinsic) factors examined in this study were perceived by TACS teachers to be satisfying: supervision--technical, interpersonal relationships with colleagues, working conditions, social status, and job security. Monetary compensation was the lone hygiene variable which had a mean satisfaction level between *can't decide if satisfied or not* and *satisfied*. Therefore, this finding does not support Herzberg's notion that the gratification of hygiene factors produces a state of no job dissatisfaction. Instead, the TACS teachers were satisfied with five of the six hygiene factors that were addressed in this study, which suggests

that the opposite of job dissatisfaction is job satisfaction.

Thus, it is concluded that the findings of this research study partially support the dual continua concept of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. The fact that the TACS teachers were satisfied with the motivators and hygienes addressed above lends support to this conclusion.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were made:

1. It is recommended that intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious variables not investigated in this study be added to the TACSQ in order to determine if the variance in overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers would be increased. The inclusion of additional components of motivation theory would serve as a useful starting point in the selection of variables not included on the TACSQ. Such motivation components could include intrinsic and/or extrinsic variables from Maslow's (1970), Herzberg's (1959), and Hackman and Odom's (1980) motivation theories. The three basic components of Vroom's (1964) two models of

expectancy theory, i.e., valence, expectancy, and instrumentality, could also be considered as motivational variables to be included on the TACSQ. Consideration should also be given to the inclusion of additional variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious), such as school discipline, staff development programs, and church membership.

2. Further research should be conducted with the population of TACS schools participating in this survey study to determine the predictive strength of the individual TACSQ intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious variables. This research might reveal the best predictors of job satisfaction and provide administrators with the requisite knowledge necessary to formulate definitive plans in creating workplace conditions that optimize teacher job satisfaction.

3. This researcher found that a significant difference existed between the grade levels (elementary, secondary, and elementary/secondary) of teaching positions and overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers. Furthermore, it is believed that the behavior and interest level of elementary students as well as fewer interruptions during instructional time in the elementary grades may have

contributed to the difference. Therefore, the following suggestions are recommended for implementation. First, it is suggested that TACS principals designate staff development time for classroom management training. Staff development topics could include "Age Group Characteristics of Students in Grades 1-8 and 9-12" and "Developing and Maintaining Classroom Control." It is also suggested that principals disseminate copies of articles from professional educational journals on classroom management and allot time during selected weekly faculty meetings to discuss these articles. Second, it is recommended that TACS principals schedule time during teacher orientation for inservice workshops on "Motivating Students to Learn" and "Levels of Learning." The six levels of learning (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) should be addressed during this workshop. The teachers should also be given time during inservice training to share ideas with their colleagues concerning strategies used to motivate their students to learn. Third, it is recommended that TACS principals schedule collaborative sessions for the junior and senior high teachers that focus on ways to minimize classroom interruptions and to maximize available class time in the

secondary grades. The feedback from these sessions could produce ideas for minimizing classroom interruptions. Fourth, it is suggested that TACS principals give their teachers an opportunity to suggest teacher inservice ideas for addressing classroom discipline problems and for motivating students to learn in the elementary and secondary grades. This would enable principals to make meaningful selections of inservice topics that address teachers' concerns pertaining to classroom discipline and student motivation.

4. It is suggested that private religious school administrators assess the job satisfaction of their faculty by administering a valid and reliable job satisfaction survey to their teachers in order to assess the impact of selected intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious variables on job satisfaction. Since this researcher's study revealed that three dimensions (intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious) of job satisfaction significantly predicted overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers, it is believed that identification of variables perceived by teachers to be dissatisfying would provide administrators the information needed to develop strategies for improving workplace aspects that can lead to increased job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the variables perceived by the teachers to be satisfying would encourage administrators to maintain practices which enhance aspects that create faculty job satisfaction. Ongoing activities should be developed and implemented in an effort to maintain as well as to increase teacher job satisfaction. Moreover, periodic assessment strategies should be formulated and utilized in order to gauge the effectiveness of the strategies designed to improve workplace aspects.

5. A Likert scale was utilized in this research study to ascertain the teachers' perceptions of selected intrinsic, extrinsic, and religious aspects of their jobs. It is recommended that a free response section be attached to the TACSQ in order to probe deeper into teachers' feelings about their jobs. Open-ended questions such as the following could be asked in this section: "What do you like the most about your job?"; "What do you like the least about your job?"; "If you could improve one aspect of your job, what would it be?".

6. Since the lowest mean satisfaction score of TACS teachers was monetary compensation, it is suggested that TACS principals develop strategies for increasing their teachers' salaries, such as increasing student tuition or

encouraging the churches associated with the schools to subsidize the teachers' salaries.

7. Since salaries remain typically low and teacher advancement opportunities continue to be minimal in TACS schools, it is recommended that TACS principals appoint strategic planning committees to assist them in formulating strategies for improving extrinsic workplace factors which teachers perceived to be marginally satisfying (e.g., school policies, decision input--job, recognition). Suggestions for principals to consider in improving these factors include enforcing school policies consistently, increasing teachers' opportunities to participate in making decisions that impact their work, and frequently praising teachers for doing a good job.

8. It is recommended that a study pertaining to the variables on the TACSQ be conducted in a different geographical region of the United States with groups of religious educators whose schools are affiliated with a Christian school organization that is a member of the American Association of Christian Schools (AACS). One of the primary goals of this research endeavor would be to compare the job satisfaction of TACS teachers with the job satisfaction of teachers in a different geographical

region. Furthermore, it is suggested that a comparative job satisfaction study involving the TACSQ variables be conducted with other groups of religious teachers in Tennessee to determine if job satisfaction varies among the groups.

9. It is recommended that TACS principals exercise caution in assigning younger, inexperienced teachers and teachers with school-aged children excessive school-related responsibilities (e.g., extracurricular assignments, before- and after-school duties). For the younger, inexperienced teachers, the first years of teaching are the most difficult since the teacher is a novice in preparing lessons, developing assessment instruments, evaluating students' work, using effective teaching strategies, disciplining students, motivating students to learn, adjusting to parental pressures, and fulfilling other classroom responsibilities. For the mother with school-aged children, home responsibilities compete with after-school hours' professional responsibilities, such as grading tests, preparing the next day's lessons, communicating with parents, and preparing assessment instruments. The mother must find time for these school preparatory activities as well as attend to family duties

and responsibilities. Consequently, extracurricular and before- and after-school responsibilities add to a schedule that is often already overloaded for younger, inexperienced teachers and teachers with school-aged children. Excessive school responsibilities may not only affect their effectiveness as a teacher but also produce frustration which may culminate in job dissatisfaction, a frustration that can be minimized by perceptive principals.

Furthermore, it is suggested that principals of TACS schools establish reasonable policies of church ministry. Church attendance (Sunday morning, Sunday night, Wednesday night, and weekly visitation) is important for spiritual growth, fellowship with believers of like faith, Christian testimony, as well as for other reasons. However, it becomes difficult for younger, inexperienced teachers and mothers with school-aged children to carry a full load of school responsibilities as well as to assume additional church responsibilities, such as teaching a Sunday school class or working on a bus route (a church program designed for bus workers to visit families from low income neighborhoods on Saturday and to invite parents and their children to attend church on Sunday; the bus workers ride the church bus on Sunday morning when the parents and

children are transported to and from church). Admittedly, some of these teachers work in church ministries like the one's identified above because they feel it is God's will and/or they enjoy this type of Christian service; however, it is recommended that TACS principals use discretion in requiring or allowing teachers with school-aged children and younger, novice teachers to assume excessive church duties. School ministries which place an excessive number of church responsibilities on these teachers face the risk of them becoming disillusioned, burned out, disappointed with Christian education, and/or dissatisfied with their jobs.

10. A final recommendation is that a study be conducted with teachers who have resigned from their teaching positions in private religious schools during the current school year (typically during the second semester), for three to five consecutive years. Since these teachers are not returning and their school administrators know this information, a researcher could ask the administrators in late April or early May for their cooperation in conducting a job satisfaction survey with the teachers who have resigned as well as request the names, home addresses, and home phone numbers of these teachers. Assuming the

administrators consent to help with the study, the surveys would be mailed to the teachers in May, completed surveys returned to the researcher, and teachers' survey responses analyzed to determine the teachers' perceptions toward aspects relating to their teaching positions. The identification of workplace variables contributing to the resignation of teachers would be especially beneficial to private religious school administrators.

LIST OF REFERENCES

REFERENCES

Adams, D. A. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 67, 422-436.

Anderman, E. M., and others. (1991, April 3-7). Teacher commitment and job satisfaction: The role of school culture and principal leadership. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 375 497).

Anonymous. (No Date). What is God's will?
[Available:
<http://hubcap.Clemson.edu/spurgeon/books/WoG/WoG1.html>].

Babbie, E. (1983). The practice of social research (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Belasco, J. A., & Alutto, J. A. (1972). Decisional participation and teacher satisfaction. Educational Administration Quarterly, 8(1), 44-58.

Bible, King James Version. (1611).

Campbell, J. P. & Pritchard, R. D. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology [pp. 63-130]. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally College Pub. Co.

Cates, C. S. (1984). An examination of the applicability of Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory to teachers in fundamental Christian schools in North and South Carolina. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Bob Jones, Greenville, SC.

Chapman, D. W., & Lowther, M. A. (1982). Teachers' satisfaction with teaching. Journal of Educational Research, 175(4), 241-247.

Church-related Schools Act, 9 Tenn. Stat. Ann. §§ 49-50-801 (1990 & Supp. 1995).

Ciriello, M. J. (1988). Teachers in Catholic school: A study of commitment (Doctoral dissertation, The Catholic University of America, 1987). Dissertation Abstracts International, 48, 8514A.

Ciriello, M. J. (1990, April). Catholic school teachers' views of job satisfaction and work circumstances and their relationship to commitment. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 325 951).

Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1990). A psychological theory of work adjustment: An individual-

differences model and its applications. Minneapolis, MN:
Vocational Psychology Research.

Deci, E. L. (1975). Intrinsic motivation. New York:
Plenum Press.

Duttweiler, P. C. (1986). Educational excellence and
motivating teachers. The Clearing House, 59(8), 371-374.

Ewen, R. B., Smith, P. C., Hulin, C. L., & Locke, E.
A. (1966). An empirical test of the Herzberg two-factor
theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 50, 544-550.

Frase, L. E., & Heck, G. (1992, February).
Restructuring in the Fort McMurray Catholic Schools: A
research-based approach. The Canadian School Executive,
11(8), 3-9.

Frataccia, E. V., & Hennington, I. (1982, February).
Satisfaction of hygiene and motivation needs of teachers
who resigned from teaching. Paper presented at the annual
meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association,
Austin, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 212
612).

Gay, L. R. (1996). Educational research:
Competencies for analysis and application (5th ed.). Upper
Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

General goals of life: Inventory H-Alb. (1942).

Cooperative Study in General Education, American Council on Education.

Glisson, C., & Durick, M. (1988). Predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in human service organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 33(1), 61-81.

Guion, R. M. (1978). Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire. In O. K. Buros (Ed.), The eighth mental measurements yearbook [pp. 1052-1053]. Highland Park, NJ: The Gryphon Press.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Henry, W. K. (1989). Leadership styles of principals and teacher job satisfaction in Christian fundamentalist academic schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). Management of organizational behavior (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Herzberg, F. (1966). Work and the nature of man. Cleveland, OH: The World Publishing Company.

Herzberg, F. (1967). One more time: How do you motivate employees? In W. E. Natenmeyer & J. S. Gilberg (Eds.), Classics of organizational behavior [pp. 103-114]. Danville, IL: The Interstate Printers and Publishers.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Peterson, R. O., & Capwell, D. F. (1957). Job attitudes: Review of research and opinion. Pittsburgh, PA: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). The motivation to work (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Hinkle, D. E., Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (1994). Applied statistics for the behavioral sciences (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Holdaway, E. A. (1978). Facet and overall satisfaction of teachers. Educational Administration Quarterly, 14(1), 30-47.

House, R. J., & Wigdor, L. A. (1967). Herzberg's dual-factor theory of job satisfaction and motivation: A review of the evidence and a criticism. Personnel Psychology: A Journal of Applied Research, 20(4), 369-389.

Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1991). Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1996). Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hulin, C. L. (1963). A linear model of job satisfaction. Authorized facsimile of an unpublished doctoral dissertation (Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, 1963) Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms Limited.

Johnson, S. M. (1990). Teachers at work: Achieving success in our schools. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Kanfer, R. (1990). Motivation theory and industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough, Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology [pp. 75-170]. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Kirk, R. E. (1968). Experimental design: Procedures for the behavioral sciences. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Knoop, R. (1981). Leadership styles of principals and teachers' job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, and participation in decision making. Paper

presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration, Halifax, Nova Scotia. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 218 754).

Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, B. S., & Masia, B. B. (1964). Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals: Handbook II: Affective domain. New York: David McKay Company, Inc.

Kreis, K., & Milstein, M. (1985). Satisfying teachers' needs: It's time to get out of the hierarchical needs satisfaction trap. The Clearing House, 59(2), 75-77.

Kuhn, B. J. (1981). Teacher personality type and job satisfaction. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville.

Lawler, E. E., III. (1973). Motivation in work organizations. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Litt, M. D., & Turk, D. C. (1985). Sources of stress and dissatisfaction in experienced high school teachers. Journal of Educational Research, 78(3), 178-185.

Littrell, P. C., Billingsley, B. S., & Cross, L. H. (1994). The effects of principal support on special and general educators' stress, job satisfaction, school

commitment, health, and intent to stay in teaching.

Remedial and Special Education, 15(5), 297-310.

Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction?
Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 4, 309-336.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology [pp. 1297-1349]. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Lortie, D. C. (1975). Schoolteacher. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Malen, B., Murphy, M. J., & Hart, A. W. (1988). Restructuring teacher compensation systems: An analysis of three incentive strategies. In K. Alexander and D. H. Monk (Eds.), Eighth annual yearbook of the American Educational Finance Association [pp. 91-142]. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Maslow, A. H. (1954). Motivation and personality. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). Motivation and personality (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

McCarthy, F. C. (1998). A study of the factors which affect job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in public

school teachers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation,
University of Seattle Pacific, Seattle.

Mills, H. A. (2000, February). Teacher shortage and turnover: The reasons and the solutions. Paper presented at the meeting of Congress 2000, Orlando, FL.

Miskel, C., DeFrain, J., & Wilcox, K. (1980). A test of expectancy work motivation theory in educational organizations. Educational Administration Quarterly, 16(1), 70-92.

Miskel, C., McDonald, D., & Bloom, S. (1983). Structural and expectancy linkages within schools and organizational effectiveness. Educational Administration Quarterly, 19(1), 49-82.

Miskel, C., & Ogawa, R. (1988). Work motivation, job satisfaction, and climate. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), Handbook of research on educational administration [pp. 279-304]. New York: Longman.

Mitchell, D. E., Ortiz, F. I., & Mitchell, T. K. (1987). Work orientation and job performance. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Mitchell, D. E., & Peters, J. P. (1988). A stronger profession through appropriate teacher incentives. Educational Leadership, 46(3), 74-78.

Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Expectancy models of job satisfaction, occupational preference and effort: A theoretical, methodological, and empirical appraisal. Psychological Bulletin, 81(12), 1053-1077.

Mohrman (Jr.), A. M., Cooke, R. A., & Mohrman, S. A. (1978). Participation in decision making: A multidimensional perspective. Educational Administration Quarterly, 14(1), 13-29.

Muchinsky, P. M. (1977). A comparison of within- and across-subjects analysis of the expectancy-valence model for predicting effort. Academy of Management Journal, 20(1), 154-158.

National Center for Education Statistics. (1997, July). Job satisfaction among America's teachers: Effects of workplace conditions, background characteristics, and teacher compensation. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

National Center for Education Statistics). (1998). The condition of education 1998, indicator 59. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Owens, R. G. (1998). Organizational behavior in education. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Pastor, M. C., & Erlandson, D. A. (1982). A study of higher order need strength and job satisfaction in secondary public school teachers. The Journal of Educational Administration, 20(2), 172-183.

Peshkin, A. (1986). God's choice: The total world of a fundamentalist Christian school. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Peshkin, A. (1999, August). Hello again. [Email message to my father-in-law.]

Porter, L. W. (1961). A study of perceived need satisfactions in bottom and middle management jobs. Journal of Applied Psychology, 45, 1-10.

Quick, T. L. (1976). Understanding people at work. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Executive Enterprises Publications Co., Inc.

Rathmann, R. L. (1998). Factors related to job satisfaction among teachers in Lutheran schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, St. Louis.

Rooney, J. M. (1989). Job satisfaction of teachers and administrators in the Catholic schools of the Diocese of Wichita. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma State, Stillwater.

Schmidt, G. L. (1976). Job satisfaction among secondary school administrators. Educational Administration Quarterly, 12(2), 68-86.

Schneider, G. T. (1984). Teacher involvement in decision making: Zones of acceptance, decision conditions, and job satisfaction. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 18(1), 25-32.

Schwab, D. P., Olian-Gottlieb, J. D., & Heneman III, H. G. (1979). Between-subjects expectancy theory research: A statistical review of studies predicting effort and performance. Psychological Bulletin, 86(1), 139-147.

Sergiovanni, T. (1967). Factors which affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction of teachers. The Journal of Educational Administration, 5(1), 66-82.

Sergiovanni, T. (1992). Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Silver, P. F. (1983). Educational administration: Theoretical perspectives on practice and research. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc.

Smith, P. C., Kendall, L. M., & Hulin, C. L. (1969). The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement: A

strategy for the study of attitudes. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally & Company.

Soliman, H. M. (1970). Motivation-hygiene theory of job attitudes: An empirical investigation and an attempt to reconcile both the one- and two-factor theories of job attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 54(5), 452-461.

Sweeney, J. (1981). Professional discretion and teacher satisfaction. The High School Journal, 65(1), 1-6.

Tarr, H. C. (1992). The commitment and satisfaction of Catholic school teachers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Catholic University of America, Washington, DC.

Thompson, D. P., McNamara, J. F., & Hoyle, J. R. (1997). Job satisfaction in educational organizations: A synthesis of research findings. Educational Administration Quarterly, 33(1), 7-37.

Trusty, F. M., & Sergiovanni, T. J. (1966). Perceived need deficiencies of teachers and administrators: A proposal for restructuring teacher roles. Educational Administration Quarterly, 2, 168-180.

Vroom, H. (1964). Work and motivation. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Wahba, M. A., & Bridwell, L. G. (1976). Maslow reconsidered: A review of research on the need hierarchy theory. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 15, 212-240.

Waskiewicz, S. P. (1999). Variables that contribute to job satisfaction of secondary school assistant principals. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg.

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Minnesota studies in vocational rehabilitation: xxii). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, Work Adjustment Project.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (SHORT FORM)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you an opportunity to tell how you feel about your present job, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with.

On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of the things people like and dislike about their jobs.

On the next page you will find statements about your present job.

- Read each statement carefully.
- Decide how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job described by the statement.

Keeping the statement in mind:

- if you feel that your job gives you **more than you expected**, check the box under **"Very Sat."** (Very Satisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **what you expected**, check the box under **"Sat."** (Satisfied);
- if you **cannot make up your mind** whether or not the job gives you what you expected, check the box under **"N"** (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **less than you expected**, check the box under **"Dissat."** (Dissatisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **much less than you expected**, check the box under **"Very Dissat."** (Very Dissatisfied);
- Remember: Keep the statement in mind when deciding how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job.
- Do this for all statements. Please answer every item.

Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your present job.

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

Very Sat. means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat. means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat. means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat. means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The opportunity to work alone on the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The opportunity to do different things from time to time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. The opportunity to be "somebody" in the community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The way my principal handles his/her faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. The competence of my principal in making decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. The opportunity to do things for other people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. The opportunity to tell people what to do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. The opportunity to do something that makes use of my abilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. The way school policies are put into practice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. My pay and the amount of work that I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. The opportunities for advancement on this job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. The opportunity to try my own methods of doing the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. The working conditions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. The way teachers get along with each other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Being in God's will (following God's plan for my life) in this teaching position	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. The freedom to express my biblical beliefs in the classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. The input into decisions that affect my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. The input into how our school operates	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. The record keeping required for the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Teachers receive two types of rewards at school: (1) rewards that are part of the teaching profession, i.e., intrinsic rewards, and (2) rewards that are part of the teaching position, i.e., extrinsic rewards.

Intrinsic rewards extend beyond the teaching position. These rewards include such things as the feeling of accomplishment, the opportunity to use one's abilities, the opportunity to work alone on the job, and the opportunity to do things that do not go against one's conscience.

Based on the preceding description of intrinsic rewards, indicate how satisfied you are on your present job with ...

26. The rewards that you receive which are part of the ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
teaching profession (intrinsic rewards)

Extrinsic rewards are provided by the school and are part of a particular teaching position. These rewards include monetary compensation, the praise received for doing a good job, the way school policies are put into practice, and working conditions.

Based on the preceding description of extrinsic rewards, indicate how satisfied you are on your present job with ...

27. The rewards that you receive which are part of the teaching position ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
(extrinsic rewards)

Religious rewards are intrinsic in nature and extend beyond a person's position of employment. These rewards consist of working in an environment in which the individual feels called by God and where the individual has the opportunity to express personal biblical beliefs.

Based on the preceding description of religious rewards, indicate how satisfied you are on your present job with

28. The rewards that you receive which are part of teaching in a ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
Christian school (religious rewards)

Continued on other side

Supplemental Questions

Directions: Please answer all the following questions. Place an X in the appropriate box.

29. Indicate your age.

☐ Under 25	☐ 35-44	☐ 55-64
☐ 25-34	☐ 45-54	☐ 65 or over
30. Indicate your gender.

☐ Male	☐ Female
-------------------------------	---------------------------------
31. Indicate the grade level in which you currently teach.

☐ Elementary (1-6)
☐ Secondary (7-12)
☐ Elementary and Secondary (Please specify subject(s) and grade(s): _____)
32. Indicate the total number of years that you have been teaching. _____
33. Indicate the total number of years that you have been teaching at your present school. _____
34. Indicate the total number of years that you taught in non-Christian schools. _____
35. Indicate the highest degree that you have earned.

☐ Doctoral Degree
☐ Masters Degree
☐ Bachelors Degree
☐ Associates Degree
☐ No Degree
36. Indicate if you are teaching in a TACS accredited or non-accredited school.

☐ Accredited	☐ Non-accredited
-------------------------------------	---
37. Indicate if you are teaching a combined or non-combined class(es).

☐ Combined (Please specify grade or subject combinations (e.g., 1st/2nd grade, Spanish I/II): _____)
☐ Non-combined
☐ Both (Please specify grade or subject combinations) _____
38. Indicate if you are teaching primarily (4 or more classes per day) in the subject area endorsement(s) that you majored and/or minored in college.

☐ Yes
☐ No (Please specify how many classes you are teaching out of your subject area(s): _____)
39. Indicate the location of your school.

☐ Urban	☐ Suburban/Rural
--------------------------------	---

APPENDIX B
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Date

Name

Address

Dear:

As a doctoral student at The University of Tennessee Knoxville, I am presently working on my dissertation concerning job satisfaction of teachers in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS). I am particularly interested in determining if there are job-related and personal factors which have a significant impact on overall job satisfaction of teachers in TACS.

I would greatly appreciate your assistance in helping me complete this study. You may find the results of this study valuable. This study identifies factors which teachers in TACS perceive as contributing to their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These results may assist you in developing strategies which help you identify and improve factors which lead to teacher satisfaction as well as identify and diminish factors which lead to dissatisfaction.

You will find enclosed packets for each teacher who is employed for a full school day and who is teaching four or more classes on a daily basis. I have also included a teacher's packet for your examination. Each packet contains a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study; a survey questionnaire which consists of the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and supplemental questions; and a stamped, self-addressed envelope to enclose the survey. Please distribute these packets to the teachers as soon as possible. It would be helpful if you would briefly explain the purpose of my study. The teachers will mail the surveys to me. Their participation in the study is strictly on a voluntary basis. They may refuse to participate in the study or may withdraw from the study without penalty.

The teachers' responses to the survey will be kept strictly confidential. Please be assured that the names of your teachers and your school will not be identified on any reports related to this study. My study has been approved by the Human Subjects Review Committee at The University of Tennessee Knoxville.

Please notify my advisor, Dr. Mary Jane Connelly, if you would like a copy of the results of this study. She can be contacted at (865) 974-6147.

Thank you for your assistance in helping make this study a success.

Sincerely,

Brian Walker
Candidate for Ed.D.
Educational Administration and Policy Studies

APPENDIX C
COVER LETTER

Date

Name

Address

Dear:

My name is Brian Walker, and I am a doctoral student at The University of Tennessee Knoxville. I am presently working on my dissertation pertaining to job satisfaction of teachers in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS). I would greatly appreciate your assistance in helping me obtain important information for this study. Your participation in this study, however, is strictly on a voluntary basis.

A number of educational researchers have studied the impact that certain job characteristics (e.g., salary, recognition, achievement) have on job satisfaction. It should come as no surprise that researchers have reported that satisfied teachers remain in their teaching positions longer than dissatisfied teachers. Few studies, however, have been conducted in private, church-related organizations like TACS. Your response will provide valuable information on what teachers in TACS like and dislike about their jobs and may assist principals in developing strategies to improve the satisfaction levels of their teachers.

Your packet contains the following items: A survey which contains the modified short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and supplemental questions, and a stamped, self-addressed envelope to return the survey.

You will notice that your survey contains a code number. This number not only enables me to identify who has responded to the survey but also eliminates unnecessary follow-up correspondence. Upon receipt of your survey, I will mark your name off your school's roster.

It should not take an inordinate amount of time to complete the survey. Be assured that **all your responses will be kept strictly confidential. Your name will not be identified on any reports of this study.** You may refuse to participate in the study or may withdraw from the study without penalty. This study has been approved by the Human Subjects Review Committee at The University of Tennessee Knoxville. Your completion of the survey indicates your informed consent to participate in the study.

Thank you in advance for participating in this study. Your completion of the survey is important to the success of this study. Please return the survey no later than _____. If you have any questions, please contact my advisor, Dr. Mary Connelly, at your earliest convenience. She can be contacted at (865) 974-6147.

Sincerely,

Brian Walker
Candidate for Ed.D.
Educational Administration and Policy Studies

APPENDIX D
FOLLOW-UP LETTER

Date

Name

Address

Dear:

Recently you were sent a survey concerning job satisfaction of teachers in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS). Your completed survey has not been received at this time.

We are pleased with the number of teachers who have responded to the survey. Your response is very important in helping us identify factors that teachers in TACS perceive to impact job satisfaction. **All answers to the survey will remain confidential. Your name and your school's name will remain anonymous on all reports related to this study.**

You will find enclosed a second copy of the survey. Please return the survey no later than _____. Enclosed is a stamped, self-addressed envelope for this purpose.

Thank you for your assistance. Your participation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, please contact my advisor, Dr. Mary Jane Connelly, at your earliest convenience. She can be contacted at (865) 974-6147.

Sincerely,

Brian Walker
Candidate for Ed.D.
Educational Administration and Policy Studies

APPENDIX E

FORM A

FORM A

IRB # _____

Date received in ORA _____

Certification of Exemption from Review by Full Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects

- A. **Principal Investigator (PI) and/or Co-PI(s) (Include Advisor)**
Principal Investigator: Brian Eugene Walker
Advisor: Dr. Mary Jane Connelly
- B. **Department**
Educational Administration and Supervision
- C. **Complete Mailing Address and Phone Number of PI**
Brian Walker
1803-B Bailey Avenue
Chattanooga, Tennessee 37404
E-Mail: bkwalker1@juno.com
(423)624-3258
- D. **Title of Project**
A Study of Job Satisfaction of Teachers in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools
- E. **External Funding Agency and ID Number**
N/A
- F. **Grant Submission Deadline**
N/A
- G. **STARTING DATE**
Upon certification by Coordinator of Compliance
- H. **Estimated Completion Date**
Spring, 2001

I. Objectives of Study

It was found while reviewing the literature from the early 1930s to 1999 that there exists a number of job satisfaction studies which were conducted in public and private schools and several key motivation theories whose theoretical components facilitate a greater understanding of teacher job satisfaction in these settings. Job satisfaction studies revealed three basic categories of predictors of job satisfaction: intrinsic characteristics, extrinsic characteristics, and demographic characteristics. This information is crucial for private church-related school administrators who endeavor to provide a working environment that is conducive to job satisfaction. In order for administrators to better understand the overall job satisfaction levels of their faculty, it becomes necessary for them to determine their faculty's satisfaction with the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of teaching.

The problem is that a number of components inherent to key motivational theories have not been used in schools that are members of the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS) as a means of determining teacher job satisfaction. One study (Henry, 1983) was identified in the review of the

literature which focused on the job satisfaction of TACS teachers; however, this study was limited to principal leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction in TACS schools. To gain a broader understanding of teacher satisfaction in TACS, it is necessary to study a number of theoretical motivational components which may impact teacher job satisfaction.

The objectives of this study are the following:

1. To determine TACS faculty members' overall level of job satisfaction.
2. To determine TACS faculty members' perceptions of the degree of satisfaction with each work-related dimension (intrinsic, extrinsic, religious).
3. To determine the demographic characteristics (personal and organizational) of TACS faculty members and the relationship these factors have with their overall level of job satisfaction. The demographic characteristics include age, gender, total years of teaching experience, total years of teaching experience in nonchurch-related schools, total years of teaching experience at present school, grade level presently teaching, highest degree held, teaching primarily in subject area(s) trained for in college, teaching in an accredited or nonaccredited school, teaching combined or noncombined class(es), and location of school.
4. To determine faculty members' perceptions of the degree of satisfaction with variables that collectively formulate each work-related dimension. The items of the intrinsic scale (questions 1-4, 7-11, 15-16, 20) contain the following intrinsic variables: ability utilization, achievement, activity, creativity, security, moral values, social status, social service, variety of responsibility, independence, authority, and responsibility. The items of the extrinsic dimension scale (questions 5-6, 12-14, 17-19, 23-25) consist of the following extrinsic variables: human relations and technical aspects of supervision, compensation, advancement, recognition, company policies and practices, working conditions, co-workers, decision making, and record keeping. The items of the religious dimension scale (questions 21-22) contain the following religious variables: God's will and religious beliefs.

Specifically, the purpose of the study is to identify work-related dimensions which are predictors of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS; to identify groups of work-related variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, religious) which are predictors of TACS teachers' satisfaction with work-related dimensions; and to identify demographic variables which account for differences of overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS.

II. Description of Subjects

The population of this survey study will include all full-time teachers (grades 1-12) in selected TACS schools. A full-time teacher in TACS is a teacher who is employed for a full school day and who is teaching four or more classes on a daily basis; otherwise, the teacher is classified as part-time. Part-time teachers and teachers in nontraditional educational schools (schools in which teachers function as "overseers" of individual student's progression in subject areas; students work at their own pace in private study booths) were excluded from the study. TACS is a private church-related school organization recognized by the Tennessee State Legislature in TCA 49-50-801 and approved by the Tennessee State Department of Education as a private-school agency approval organization. TACS has a membership of 38 traditional schools. The total population was delimited to include the total population of teachers. The study will be conducted during the fall semester of the 2000-2001 school

year. The duration of teacher participation will be the time involved to complete the questionnaire.

III. Methods or Procedures

The survey used in this study (attached) consists of 28 questions on the modified short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and 11 demographic questions. The questions comprising the modified short form of the MSQ were written in a Likert-type format. Several of the short-form MSQ questions (2-6, 9-12, 14, 16, 18) were changed to make them applicable to an educational setting. Five questions (questions 21-25) were added to the short form of the MSQ as a result of the review of the literature (questions 21-22) and the "expert" educator's (see next paragraph) suggestions (questions 23-25). Questions 26-28 were attached to the questionnaire as recommended by the researcher's dissertation committee.

Prior to the construction of the final form of the researcher's questionnaire, the questionnaire was submitted to ten "expert" educators for review. An "expert" educator is an educator who has taught or been affiliated with private church-related secondary schools and/or institutions for at least ten years and has a philosophical approach to education that is similar to teachers in TACS. These educators critiqued the survey for format, instruction clarity, and question construction. Once this researcher received the "expert" educators' critiques, their revisions and suggestions were analyzed. Corrections were incorporated into the final form of the questionnaire.

This researcher will telephone TACS principals to request permission to allow their teachers to participate in the study and to also request permission for teacher rosters (each roster includes the name of the school and the school teachers' names, home addresses, and home phone numbers). Once permission has been granted and the rosters have been submitted to the principal investigator, the questionnaires will be mailed to all principals in TACS. The principals will distribute the questionnaires to their teachers.

Each principal will receive a packet that contains the following contents: (a) a principal's letter (attached) addressing the purpose of the survey and dissemination instructions; (b) individual teacher packets that include a cover letter (attached), the questionnaire (attached), and a stamped, self-addressed envelope to return the questionnaire.

The cover letter serves five purposes. First, it indicates the purpose of the study. The study investigates what TACS teachers like and dislike about their jobs. It indicates the impact that certain job characteristics (e.g., salary) have on job satisfaction. Second, it assures respondents of complete confidentiality. No information will be reported that would enable a research respondent or a TACS school to be identified. All data will reflect the population as a whole or subgroup differences. Third, it serves as an informed consent form. The return of a completed questionnaire indicates the respondent has agreed to participate in the study. Fourth, it signifies that participation in the study is strictly voluntary. The teachers will not be coerced by their principals or the principal investigator to participate in the study. Also, the respondents may refuse to participate in the study or may withdraw from the study without penalty. Since participation is voluntary, teachers can withdraw or refuse to participate by not returning the questionnaire. Fifth, it requests that a respondent returns the completed questionnaire in two weeks in the stamped, self-addressed envelope.

The principal investigator's study does not impose potential risks on the respondents. The principals will not collect the questionnaires or see their teachers' responses to the questionnaire; therefore, the respondents may feel more at liberty to answer all the questions without worrying about the repercussions of being honest. The respondents' answers are completely confidential, and their

names will not be identified on any reports of the study. One-to-one correspondence will be maintained between the principal investigator and the respondents once the principals disseminate the questionnaires to their teachers. The results may benefit principals, teachers, and ultimately schools, since these results may assist principals in developing strategies which help them identify and improve factors which lead to teacher job satisfaction as well as identify and diminish factors which lead to job dissatisfaction.

Each questionnaire will be assigned a code number, and the code number will be assigned to a TACS teacher. Once the principal investigator receives a questionnaire, the teacher's name will be marked off the master roster. Teachers who are not marked off the roster within two weeks of the initial mailing will be sent a follow-up cover letter (attached), an additional questionnaire, and another return, self-addressed envelope. If the desired response rate is not obtained after the second mailing, then follow-up phone calls will be made to obtain this rate. Since this follow-up procedure will be utilized, teachers names will not remain anonymous; however, their names will be unidentified on any reports of this study. There will also be no distinguishing characteristics of the respondents or their schools on any reports of this study. The master list of names and code numbers will be destroyed after the desired response rate is obtained. Only the principal investigator and his advisor will have access to the research data and code numbers.

The follow-up procedures will begin two weeks after the initial questionnaires are sent to the respondents. The respondents will be told in the initial and follow-up cover letters to call the principal investigator's advisor at work if they have any questions about the study. The completed questionnaires will be kept in a locked, fire-proof safe for three years at the UTK/UTC Graduate Center, at which time they will be destroyed.

The methods that will be used to analyze the data in this survey are (a) descriptive statistics to determine the overall mean job satisfaction score for teachers in TACS, (b) independent t tests and one-way Anovas to determine which demographic variables account for differences in overall job satisfaction for teachers in TACS, (c) multiple regression to determine the amount of variance of overall job satisfaction of TACS teachers that is accounted for when using the three dimension scales to predict overall job satisfaction for TACS teachers, (d) simple linear regression to determine if the summed intrinsic variables predict intrinsic satisfaction for TACS teachers, (e) simple linear regression to determine if the summed extrinsic variables predict extrinsic satisfaction for TACS teachers, and (f) simple linear regression to determine if the summed religious variables predict religious satisfaction for TACS teachers.

**IV. Category(s) for Exempt Research Per 45 CFR 46
Category II (attached)**

Certification: The research described herein is in compliance with 45 CFR 46.101(b) and presents subjects with no more than minimal risk as defined by applicable regulations.
Signatures of the researchers indicate a willingness to uphold the standards of the Belmont Report.

Principal Investigator	_____	_____	_____
	Name	Signature	Date
Advisor	_____	_____	_____
	Name	Signature	Date
Dept. Review Comm. Chair	_____	_____	_____
	Name	Signature	Date
Approved:	Brenda Lawson Coordinator of Compliances Office of Research Administration	_____	_____
		Signature	Date
Department Head	_____	Date: _____	

VITA

Brian E. Walker was born in Hobart, Oklahoma, on November 12, 1962. He is the firstborn of Dr. and Mrs. Charles Walker and is married to the former Kristy A. Carlson. He received his elementary education at Davidson and Temple public schools. In the summer of 1975, he moved to Chattanooga, Tennessee, and subsequently received his secondary education at Trinity Christian School and Tennessee Temple Academy. He graduated from Tennessee Temple in May, 1981.

Mr. Walker received his Bachelor of Science degree in secondary education with a proficiency in English and a minor in math at Tennessee Temple University in Chattanooga, Tennessee, in May, 1986. While serving as a classroom teacher, he began his graduate work in 1987 and earned his Masters in Educational Administration and Supervision at the University of Tennessee, Chattanooga in August, 1990. During his principal/teaching tenure at Calvary Baptist School in Kingston, Tennessee, he began his doctoral program in 1993. He received his Doctor of Education degree in Educational Administration and Policy

Studies from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in 2001.

Mr. Walker began his professional career in 1985 as a secondary math and English teacher and junior/senior high boys' basketball coach at Hamill Road Christian School in Hixson, Tennessee. Afterwards, he continued to teach English and math and to coach basketball at two other Christian schools in Chattanooga from 1987-1992. In the summer of 1992, he assumed the principalship as well as a position teaching secondary math, science, and English at Calvary Baptist School in Kingston, Tennessee, and remained in this position until 1995. In order to devote more attention to his doctoral work, he returned to Chattanooga in 1995 to teach math on a part-time basis at Berean Baptist Academy in Hixson, Tennessee. He remained at Berean until 1999, at which time he became an adjunct professor at Tennessee Temple University. Currently serving in this role, he is teaching both math and education classes.