A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND ITS AFFILIATES

By

Jacqueline G. Goodwin

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the

College of Human Resources and Education

at

West Virginia University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Education

Department of Educational Leadership

Morgantown, West Virginia

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Committee Chair: Paul A. Leary, Ed.D.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Women continue to be underrepresented in leadership positions in all segments of society (Dardaine-Ragguet, Russo & Harris, 1994; Heid, 1989; Whitaker & Lane, 1990) even though studies show female administrators to have strong leadership qualities (Koll, 1996; Schmidt, 1992; Swiderski, 1988). Researchers have examined discrimination and socialization and their effect upon women in attaining administrative positions (Albino, 1992; Hicks, 1996; Hutchens, 1990; Moore, 1981). There appears to be a disparity between female representation in education administration and female representation among the ranks of educators (Albino, 1992; Hardman, 1996; National Center for Education Statistics, 1994; Schmidt, 1992; Shakeshaft & Palmieri, 1976). Similarly, women continued to be seriously underrepresented at the top levels of union administration despite an increase in the proportion of unionized employees who are women (Baden, 1986; Berquist, 1974; Gray, 1981; Heery & Kelly, 1988; Melcher, Eichstedt, Eriksen & Clawson, 1992; National Education Association, 1996; Nelson, 1989). Likewise, whereas some progress has been made in recruiting, hiring, and promoting females to higher positions in education union administration, the percentage of women administrators is smaller than the number of females they

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represent in the national membership population (National Education Association, 1996; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990).

Background

Women in Education Union Administration

Women in administrative positions similar to those held by men are remarkably similar to men in their abilities to lead, to influence, to motivate, to analyze problems to accomplish tasks, and to communicate verbally (Andrews & Basom, 1990; Edson, 1981; Fauth, 1984; Gross & Trask, 1976; Marshall, 1984; Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987; Shakeshaft, 1987). Despite growing awareness of the need for more women in union administration, the increase over the past two decades in the number of women who have attained such positions has been far from dramatic (Baden, 1986; Berquist, 1974; Gray, 1981; Heery & Kelly, 1988; Melcher, et al., 1992; Nelson, 1989). Berquist (1974) analyzed Bureau of Labor Statistics for the years 1952-72 and concluded that although the number of women members in unions had significantly increased, female representation in union administrative positions had not. A study of 15 national unions and two national education associations found little significant change in female representation in administration between 1979 and 1985 (Baden, 1986). Melcher and associates (1992) surveyed Massachusetts AFL-CIO-affiliated union locals and found that although women were adequately represented in membership numbers, they were underrepresented in the most influential positions. Recent statistics from The National Education Association have shown a deficiency in the under representation of women in administrative positions within the

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Association (National Education Association, 1996). Specifically, the number of women employed in administration at the National Education Association did not meet the 50% female staff representation objective established by the National Education Association Board of Directors (National Education Association, 1996). In 1995-96, 29% of executives and 43% of managers at the National Education Association were women (National Education Association, 1996). Similarly, during this same period, 21% of executives and 49% of managers at National Education Association affiliates were women (National Education Association, 1996).

Job Satisfaction

The parameters of job satisfaction are specified in the literature on work motivation (Bandura, 1990; Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Kanfer, 1990; Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Maslow, 1970; McClelland, 1961, 1965, 1975; Miner, 1980; Pinder, 1984; Steers & Porter, 1991; Vroom, 1964). Pinder (1984) defined work motivation as

a set of energetic forces that originate both

within as well as beyond an individual's being,

to initiate work-related behavior, and to

determine its form, direction, intensity,

and duration.(p.8)

These work-related behaviors have played a major role in providing for the needs of the individual and determining a sense of satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Pinder, 1984; Shakeshaft, 1987). Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (1970) has become a

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model in the study of human motivation as it relates to an individual's psychological needs. Five basic categories of needs, arranged in hierarchical levels, constituted the foundation of Maslow's model (Maslow, 1970). Maslow's theory proposed that lower-level needs such as physiological, safety and security must be largely satisfied before higher-level needs such as socialization, esteem, and self-actualization could be met (Maslow, 1970). Maslow's theory supports the argument that human behavior in organizations is determined by the satisfaction of needs (Argyris, 1957, 1971; Kanfer, 1990; Locke & Latham, 1990; McGregor, 1957; Pinder, 1984; Steers & Porter, 1991).

Conceptual roots of job satisfaction have also been traced to Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (1966), a two-factor theory of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg's theory proposed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were not opposite ends of the same continuum but rather, were separate dimensions that must be dealt with in different ways (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959). Under this approach, several work motivators, or intrinsic features of work, such as responsibility, achievement, advancement, recognition, personal growth, and the content of the work itself, are presumed to enhance satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959). In contrast, work hygiene factors, or extrinsic features of work, including working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relationships, status, security, and salary are presumed to minimize satisfaction (Blauner, 1963; Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959; Landy, 1985; Locke, 1983; McClelland, 1975; Siegel & Lane, 1987). In studies based

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on this theory, researchers have found that removing negative hygiene factors does not automatically heighten motivation (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959). Removal of the negative factors, however, seems to clear the way for one or more motivators to have a positive effect (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959). Herzberg's theory maintains that job satisfaction is a function of work features alone (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959). Whereas the theories that relate job satisfaction to work elements have been widely accepted for many years, later studies view job satisfaction as contingent on the interaction between work experiences, work environment, and personal characteristics (Frost & Wilson, 1983; Gruneberg, 1979; Kasperson, 1982; Mortimer & Lorence, 1979).

Vroom (1964) elaborated two models of a need fulfillment theory. In his subtractive model, Vroom argued that job satisfaction is negatively related to the degree of discrepancy between what the individual needs and the extent to which the job supplies these needs (Vroom, 1960, 1964). In the second-- the multiplicative model--Vroom incorporated into the model the importance of the need to the individual. He did this by multiplying the perceived amount of need fulfillment that a job offers by the importance to the individual of that need (Vroom, 1960, 1964). The products for each need were then added together to give a total measure of job satisfaction (Vroom, 1960, 1964).

Job Satisfaction and Age. Age has an influence on how the extent to which an individual perceives a job as satisfying

(Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1984; Martin & Shehan, 1989; Schonwetter, Bond & Perry, 1993; Shaw, 1986). Herzberg (1966) found that job satisfaction among men started high in early adulthood, declined, and then improved again with increasing age. The job satisfaction of women also increased with age (Gruneberg, 1979). Some researchers have shown lower job satisfaction after age 60, but others have found positive association between age and job satisfaction across the continuum of the age spectrum (Chronister & Baldwin, 1996; Johnson & Weiss, 1971; Myers, 1982; Rhodes, 1983; Saleh & Otis, 1964).

Job Satisfaction and Tenure of Employment. Job satisfaction is also related to tenure of employment (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Gruneberg, 1979; Morrow & McElroy, 1987). New employees tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction initially (Gruneberg, 1979). Job satisfaction declines as employees approach retirement (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Chronister & Baldwin, 1996; Saleh & Otis, 1964; Schott, 1986).

Job Satisfaction and Level of Administrative Position. Researchers have found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and level of administrative position (Andrisani, 1978; Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Chruden & Sherman, 1984; Grady, Ourada-Sieb & Wesson, 1994; Gruneberg, 1979; Olson & Frieze, 1987; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Siegel & Lane, 1982). Olson and Frieze (1987), for example, found that job satisfaction increased with attainments of higher level administrative and management positions.

Job Satisfaction and Educational Level. Studies have

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shown that educational level plays a major role in an individual's perception of job satisfaction (Bistocchi, 1986; Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman 1980; Herzberg, 1966; Klein & Maher, 1966; Schonwetter, et al., 1993). Administrators who have attained a higher level of education were more satisfied with their positions than those who have not (Schonwetter, et al., 1993).

Job Satisfaction and Personality Type. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1966) in their classic Western Electric studies argued that an individual's personality was an important predictor of job satisfaction. Research by Vroom (1960, 1964) supported this conclusion. Variables related to personality were the single most important predictor of job satisfaction (Frost & Wilson, 1983). Kasperson (1982) argued that there were psychological constructs outside of the job design that are the primary determiners of job satisfaction. Organ and Bateman (1986) and Landy (1985) found that individual variables resulting from beliefs, feelings, and behavior directly influenced job satisfaction. Specifically, these variables included an individual's physiological make up, generalized perceptions, and prior socialization (Landy, 1985; Locke, 1976; Organ & Bateman, 1986). Personality traits such as enthusiasm, dominance, self-confidence, and goal motivation characterized administrators (Gibb, 1954; Keirsey & Bates, 1984; Smith & Cook, 1973; Sorrentino, 1973; Zigon & Cannon, 1974). Self-perceived levels of autonomy and control also play a role in determining job satisfaction in administrative and managerial occupations (Frost & Wilson, 1983).

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Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to determine the relation-
ship between age, tenure of employment, level of administra-
tive position, educational level, and personality types and
the degree of self-expressed job satisfaction among female
administrators in the National Education Association and af-
filiate organizations. The relationship between age, tenure of
employment, level of administrative position, and educational
level will be established by a demographics sheet, the Survey
of National Education Association and Affiliate Female Admin-
istrators, adapted from previous surveys (Hardman, 1996;
Hawthorne, 1985; Hutchens, 1990; Mauter, 1980). Personality
types will be measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form
G Self-Scorable, (1977), and self-expressed job satisfaction
will be determined by the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfac-
tion Scales (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan & Zaltman, 1977).
This study will determine if the independent variables of gen-
der, demographics, and personality type can be used to predict
job satisfaction at specific administrative levels.

Definition of Terms

1. Female administrators will be defined as all women who are
employed as assistant executive directors and program managers
employed in August, 1997 at the National Education Association
Headquarters, Washington D.C.

2. Female affiliate level administrators will be defined as
all women who are employed as executive directors, assistant
executive directors, and program managers in August, 1997 at
the National Education Association's state affiliates.

3. Affiliates will be defined as professional associations in every state, commonwealth, the District of Columbia, and the Federal Education Association with National Education Association members in the following membership classes: active (includes educational support personnel), life, retired, student, staff, and substitutes.

4. The following characteristics will provide the definition of demographics:

   (a) Age-the age in years of the respondent as reported on the survey.

   (b) Tenure-the number of years the respondent has served in her current administrative position as reported on the survey.

   (c) Level of administrative experience-the respondent's current administrative position as reported on the survey; e.g. executive or managerial level.

   (d) Educational level-the reported highest level of education completed by the respondent on the survey; e.g. high school diploma; Bachelor's degree; Master's degree, or Doctorate.

5. Personality Type will be defined as the respondent's categorized score on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G Self-Scorable, (1977).

6. Job Satisfaction will be defined as the respondent's scores of the extrinsic, intrinsic, and overall sections of the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (Mohrman, et al., 1977).

Significance of the Study

Although there have been a number of studies of men in education administration, understanding of the nature and scope of women's participation in education administration, especially in education unions, is still far from complete. Because so few women are typically included in research samples of administrators, researchers caution against generalizing findings from such studies to the population of female administrators. Studies that focus on the characteristics and experiences of female administrators only are justified by this lack of generalizability (Hardman, 1996; Hoffman & Betkouski, 1981; Hutchens, 1990). This study will increase the data base relative to female administrator job satisfaction.

Researchers have indicated that demographic characteristics are strong predictors of who among females will become leaders (Frasher & Frasher, 1979; Helgesen, 1990; Hutchens, 1990; Mauter, 1980; Morrison, et al., 1987; Porat, 1991). Given this information, if a relationship can be found to predict job satisfaction at a specific administrative level, rank-and-file female union members who aspire to become union administrators may use this information to decide if they would like to proceed with the steps necessary to train and apply for positions at a specific administrative level. Likewise, female employees already employed by the union who aspire to become administrators within the organization could also use this information to help them decide if they would like to train and then apply for positions at a specific administrative level.

Graduate departments of educational administration should

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provide aspiring and practicing female administrators with information to let them know that there are nontraditional administrative career paths and positions within education unions. Graduate departments of educational administration could inform female graduates of job openings in education unions by verbal affirmation and posting job announcements and assist them with career decisions. If a link between personal characteristics and job satisfaction at various administrative levels can be established then aspiring and practicing female administrators who desire to become union administrators can use this information to decide which level they would prefer.

Women need opportunities to have mentoring relationships with practicing administrators. If a link between personal characteristics and job satisfaction at various levels can be established, then graduate departments of educational administration in partnership with education unions could implement mentor programs designed to meet the career development needs of women by matching characteristics of female students who aspire to become union administrators with those already practicing. Graduate departments of educational administration could also encourage female students to participate in administrative internships with practicing administrators with like or similar characteristics employed in education unions who have been identified. Mentors could provide assistance by sharing information, advice, and career strategies with aspirants and practicing female administrators. Mentors could also assist by providing coaching, exposure, visibility, and professional sponsorship.

In addition, if a link between personal characteristics

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and satisfaction at various levels can be established then administrators who are puzzled as to why they are dissatisfied may find solutions as to the source of their dissatisfaction. In turn, these same administrators can use this information to help them decide to either remain in the position, transfer to another position, or leave the position for employment elsewhere.

Research and education regarding the importance of predicting job satisfaction is important for practicing administrators, aspiring administrators, graduate departments of educational administration, and education unions. The results of this study can be useful to these groups by providing additional insight into the determinants of job satisfaction as they apply to categories of female union administrators. The results of this study may also help education unions with strategic planning efforts to enhance the job satisfaction of their female administrators. Education unions could also use information from this study to review and study their practices in recruiting, hiring, promoting, and retaining female administrators.

Objectives

The overall objective of this study is to determine the relationship between both demographic characteristics and the personality types of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and the degree to which these administrators express satisfaction in their current positions. Specific objectives include the following:

1. To determine if there is a significant relationship between the age of female National Education Association and

affiliate administrators (as a group and at each administrative level) and the extent of their job satisfaction.

2. To determine if there is a significant relationship between tenure of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators (as a group and at each administrative level) and the extent of their job satisfaction.

3. To determine if there is a significant relationship between the level of administrative position of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and the degree of their job satisfaction.

4. To determine if there is a significant relationship between the educational level of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators (as a group and at each administrative level) and the extent of their job satisfaction.

5. To determine if there is a significant relationship between the personality types of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators (as a group and at each administrative level) and the extent of their job satisfaction.

6. To determine if there is a significant relationship between the total years of experience in administration of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators (as a group and at each administrative level) and the extent of their job satisfaction.

Hypotheses

The study proposes to test the following hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant relationship between the age of

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female National Education Association and affiliate adminis-
trators and their degree of job satisfaction.

2. There will be a significant relationship between the num-
ber of years of experience in the current administrative posi-
tion of female National Education Association and affiliate
administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

3. There will be no significant relationship between the
level of administrative position of female National Education
Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of
job satisfaction.

4. There will be no significant relationship between the edu-
cational level of female National Education Association and
affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

5. There will be no significant relationship between person-
ality types of female National Education Association and af-
filiate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

6. There will be a significant relationship between the total
years of experience in administration of female National Edu-
cation Association and affiliate administrators and their de-
gree of job satisfaction.

Limitations

1. The collection of data will be limited to females in
defined administrative positions within the National Educa-
tion Association and its affiliates. The generalization of the
results of this study to other groups should be made cau-
tiously (Kerlinger, 1986).

2. The extent of job satisfaction is measured as self-percep-
tions. Accuracy is a limiting factor (Kerlinger, 1986).

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3. The reliability and validity of the personality measuring instrument, the <u>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G Self-Scorable</u>, (1977), imposes a limitation of the findings of the study (Kerlinger, 1986).

4. The reliability and validity of the instrument to measure job satisfaction, the <u>Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales</u> (Mohrman, et al., 1977),imposes a limitation of the findings of the study (Kerlinger, 1986).

5. This study is limited by the use of only one measure of each variable: the <u>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G Self-Scorable</u>, (1977) of personality, the <u>Survey of National Education Association and Affiliate Female Administrators</u> for demographics, and the <u>Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales</u> (Mohrman, et al., 1977).

6. Reduced return rates may limit generaliziability of the findings.

7. This study is limited by respondent biases, in that the responses can vary by respondent based upon prior experiences or training.

8. This study is limited by the fact that WVEA is not indicative of traditional labor unions. The generalization of the results of this study to other groups should be made cautiously (Kerlinger, 1986).

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

A review of the literature related to job satisfaction of female administrators in education union settings and the degree to which they perceive satisfaction in their current positions is sparse and suggests that there is need for additional investigation. However, a search of the literature has also revealed that there is an an abundance of literature available related to each of the primary variables in this study. Specifically, these variables are job satisfaction, gender, age, tenure of employment, level of administrative position, educational level, and personality type. While there is a plethora of literature relative to the concepts individually, the relationship between the seven is not as plentiful. However, the studies that have been made suggest the possibility that there is a link between the variables.

This chapter will consist of literature related to:

1. Women in education union administration

2. Job satisfaction

3. Selected demographic characteristics of female administrators including age, tenure of employment, level of administrative position, and educational level

4. Personality type

This study will attempt to demonstrate the connection between these four items.

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Women in Education Union Administration

Societal changes and declines in real income and status in the 1960s led teachers to organize in large numbers. The National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO (AFT) grew from a combined membership of 1.2 million in 1968 to over 3 million in 1996 (Directory of U.S. Labor Organizations, 1995-96).

While some progress has been made in recruiting, hiring and promoting females to higher positions, women continue to be underrepresented in leadership positions in all segments of society including education unions even though studies show female administrators to have strong leadership qualities (Koll, Robertson, Lampe, & Hegedus, 1996; Schmidt, 1992; Swiderski, 1988). There are historical records of women who were activists and exceptional leaders, but education unions have traditionally been led by men (Gray, 1981). Full-time staff positions in education unions have always been filled from the ranks of the membership by those who first demonstrated their abilities and loyalty as volunteers and almost all of them were men (Gray, 1981). However, many unions now recruit on campuses, following the corporate practice, and several offer internships to aspiring female administrators (Gray, 1981).

Despite the growing awareness of the need for more women in union administration, the increase over the past two decades in the number of women who have attained such positions has been far from dramatic (Baden, 1986; Berquist, 1974; Gray, 1981; Heery & Kelly, 1988; Melcher, Eichstedt, Ericksen, & Clawson, 1992; Needleman & Tanner, 1984; Nelson, 1989).

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Berquist (1974) analyzed Bureau of Labor Statistics for the years 1952-72 and concluded that although the number of women members in unions had significantly increased, female representation in union administrative positions had not. A study of 15 national unions and two national education associations found little significant change in female representation in administration between 1979 and 1985 (Baden, 1986). Needleman and Tanner (1981) reported the relative representation of women in education union administrative positions doubled between the years 1970-1980. Melcher and associates (1992) surveyed Massachusetts AFL-CIO-affiliated union locals and found that although women were adequately represented in membership numbers, they were underrepresented in the most influential positions. However, over the years, career opportunities for women have started to improve and those females who have specialized training have an advantage over those who do not (Gray, 1986). Almost all women administrators employed in a "union" setting report a college education, ranging from B.A. to Ph.D. (Industrial Relations Research Association, 1984). Female administrators employed by national unions are most often found in research, training, publications and public relations divisions (Gray, 1986). Gray (1986) found that the number of women directing specialized departments of the AFT had increased slightly in recent years. In 1979, no women were employed as AFL-CIO department directors or executive staff members (Rosier, 1996). In 1996, nine females were employed as AFL-CIO department directors (Rosier, 1996). However, the number of female division managers employed at the National Education Association has not grown during the recent decade

(National Education Association, 1996). In 1996, women directed only two NEA divisions: governmental relations and human resources (National Education Association, 1996). Observation revealed a similar pattern at state affiliate levels (National Education Association, 1996).

Whereas some progress has been made in recruiting, hiring, and promoting females to administrative positions in education unions, the percentage of women administrators is smaller than the number of females they represent in the national membership population (National Education Association, 1996; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). Specifically, the number of women employed in administration at the National Education Association did not meet the 50% female staff representation objective established by the National Education Association Board of Directors (National Education Association, 1996). In 1995-96, 29% of executives and 43% of managers at the National Education Association were women (National Education Association, 1996). Similarly, during this same period, 21% of executives and 49% of managers at National Education Association affiliates were women (National Education Association, 1996).

Job Satisfaction

During the early part of the century, studies on job satisfaction were intended to examine the consequences of employees' feelings on the job to the organization they work for. Gruneberg (1979) pointed out that the initial concern then was with improvements in productivity as a result of changes in the physical environment.

A prominent work in this tradition was Taylor's (1911) discourse on scientific management philosophy. Taylor assumed that a well-paid worker who was not subject to stressful working conditions would be satisfied and productive.

In the late 1920s, the Hawthorne studies by Mayo and associates looked further into the relationships between incentives, changes in the environment, and productivity (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1966). These studies did not, however, conclusively establish which factors had caused the increase in productivity. The thrust of Mayo's research was on the influence of social relationships and informal work groups in affecting employee attitudes and performance. This human relations approach made the assumption that job satisfaction leads to increased productivity and that human relationships in organizations are the key to job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979).

In 1935, Hoppock published his famous study on job satisfaction. Hoppock's approach assumed that job satisfaction was a function of many variables, and that the controlling aspects of job satisfaction might vary from one individual to another (Hoppock, 1935).

From the 1920s until the early 1960s, many studies that had made significant contribution toward the understanding of job satisfaction had been conducted in the tradition of the human relations philosophy. This period witnessed the proliferation of literature that investigated the working of organization by scrutinizing the quality of relationships that existed among the organization members, and by taking into consideration the problem of human attitudes in group process

(Brogue, 1971; Locke, 1976). Studies that dealt on the problems of leadership (Barnard, 1938; Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939; Likert, 1961), supervision (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1966), group functioning (Homans, 1950, 1961; Sayles, 1958; Whyte, 1951), and social psychological issues (Allport, 1924; Bogardus, 1924; Gillespie, 1948; Schein, 1970; Whyte, 1951) had all aimed at promoting the social needs of man.

It was the contention of the human relations movement that healthy interpersonal relationships had a considerable effect on individual satisfaction. The work setting represented "the potential for social rewards in terms of affiliations yielding recognition and participation" (Hollander, 1971, p. 614). The social rewards were regarded to have greater motivation than financial remuneration that the scientific management theorists had advocated as the sole stimulating factor.

By the late 1950s, the human relations school of thought was beginning to lose its influence and to be superseded by the behavioral science school (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). One of the most dominant conceptualizations on motivation and job satisfaction had been advanced by Maslow (1970) who suggested that job satisfaction involved fulfilling the individual's needs. These needs were arranged in a hierarchy of less or greater priorities (Maslow, 1970). Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (1970) began with the basic physiological needs and culminated in the higher social and ego needs such as the needs for self-actualization. Maslow's theory proposed that the individual would strive to satisfy the lower-level needs first, and once this was achieved he would be motivated to fulfill the next

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higher need in the hierarchy. A satisfied need ceased to be a motivator of behavior (Maslow, 1970). This theory supported the argument that human behavior in organizations is determined by the satisfaction of needs (Kanfer, 1990; Locke & Lantham, 1990; Pinder, 1984; Steers & Porter, 1991).

McGregor (1957) was among the early researchers who relied heavily on Maslow's concept of hierarchy of needs. McGregor (1957) dichotomized management practice into his classic "Theory X" and "Theory Y" divisions. The former was the more orthodox, job-centered, autocratic style (McGregor, 1957). The latter was the more nondirective, group-centered procedure (McGregor, 1957). McGregor urged the application of the "Theory Y" management for it was "a process primarily of creating opportunities, releasing potential, removing obstacles, encouraging growth, and providing guidance" (p. 89). McGregor (1957) also theorized that under proper conditions, participatory and consultative management practices provide encouragement to people by directing their creative energies toward organizational objectives, giving them some voice in decisions that affect them and providing significant opportunities for the satisfaction of social and egoistic needs.

The emphasis of the higher actualizing needs of man was also discussed by Argyris (1957, 1971) when he pointed out that an organization was comprised of two major components—the individual and the formal structure of the organization itself. He argued that "many of the 'human problems' in organizations originally are caused by the basic incongruence between the nature of relatively mature individuals and healthy formal organizations" (p. 211). Argyris advanced the

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possibility that a congruency between the needs of healthy individuals and the demands of the formal organization could be met. This point was further discussed by Argyris (1957) when he submitted the propositions for integrating the individual and the organization. Several other studies have also been conducted which explore the relationship between the individual and the organization (Chruden & Sherman, 1980; Friesen & Williams, 1981; Frost & Wilson, 1983; Kasperson, 1982; Landy, 1985; Locke, 1976; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975; Organ & Bateman, 1986; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1966; Siegal & Lane, 1987).

Another study in this area was conducted by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). The researchers interviewed engineers and accountants on incidents they had experienced on jobs that resulted in a marked improvement in their job satisfaction. The respondents were also asked to note the duration when they were feeling exceptionally good, or the duration when they were feeling exceptionally bad because of each of those incidents. The responses to the interview questions were tabulated as frequency data. The researchers compared the relative frequency with which the various factors were mentioned as sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. A factor was said to have caused satisfaction if it was mentioned more frequently in good than in bad incidents, and vice versa. This study and another follow-up work by Herzberg (1966) had substantiated that job satisfaction was caused by the motivation or job content factors, namely, achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and possibility of growth. In contrast, job dissatisfaction was caused by the

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hygiene or job contest factors of company policy and adminis-
tration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations with su-
periors, interpersonal relations with peers, interpersonal re-
lations with subordinates, status, job security, and effect of
job on personal life (Bandura, 1990; Campbell & Pritchard,
1976; Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Hoy
& Miskel, 1996; Kanfer, 1990; Landy, 1985; Lawler, 1973; Locke,
1976; Siegal & Lane, 1987). Thus, Herzberg's theory proposed
that job satisfaction was not the opposite of job dissatisfac-
tion. Rather, they were unipolar concepts on two entirely dif-
ferent continua and caused by different sets of factors
(Herzberg, 1966).

Herzberg's motivation or job content factors, or
"satisfiers" were characterized as being conducive to positive
attitudes, having long lasting attitude effects, contributing
to mental health, creating contentment, providing a sense of
personal growth, and fulfilling Maslow's higher actualizing
needs (Herzberg, 1966, pp. 71-91). Herzberg (1966) theorized
that these were effective in motivating the individual to supe-
rior performance and effort.

The hygiene, or job context factors, or "dissatisfiers"
were supposed to cause or prevent negative job attitudes, pro-
vide or avoid short-term changes in job attitudes, cause or
prevent mental illness, create or stop unhappiness, cause or
prevent pain and unpleasantness, and fulfill the lower-level
human needs (Herzberg, 1966, pp. 71-91). In analogy with the
medical term, the hygiene factors were preventative and envi-
ronmental. While these factors could prevent dissatisfaction
they were incapable of fulfilling satisfaction (Herzberg,

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1966). They represented a need system for avoidance or tension reduction (Herzberg, 1966).

This concept of satisfaction/dissatisfaction is also apparent in the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan & Zaltman, 1977; Mohrman, Cooke & Mohrman, 1978). The questions on this measuring instrument are divided into two areas which determine the motivators and hygienes as discussed by Herzberg (1966). The scales also examine the two dimensional aspect of job satisfaction as outlined by Herzberg (Hardman, 1996; McKee, 1988).

The process theories attempt to examine the multifaceted causes of job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Theorists in the field generally agree that feelings of job satisfaction as an individual's affective reactions are dependent upon an interaction between the individual and his environment (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). However, opinion varies as to which mental processes determine these reactions (Locke, 1976).

Theorists have identified at least three classes of process theories which attempt to specify the classes of variables considered causally relevant, as well as how these variables combine to determine overall job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). The three classes of process theories include: (a) expectations and equity theory, (b) reference group theory, and (c) needs/value fulfillment theory (Gruneberg, 1979).

Several variations of the expectations and equity theory have been proposed. In their work on the achievement motive, McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953) presented a finding that the associational processes were significantly influenced by events. An individual's preponderance of a

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positive or negative affect depended upon the discrepancy between what the environmental conditions had to offer and what he had anticipated or attained (McClelland et al., 1953). Thus, according to McClelland (1975), motivation involved the anticipation of pleasure, or achievement. Motivation could also be described as the avoidance of pain, or discomfort (McClelland, 1975).

This finding by McClelland et al. had found strong expression in the expectations theory (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Greenhaus, Seidel, and Marinis (1983) stated that "job experiences that confirm expectations tend to be satisfying, whereas job experiences that deviate from expectations produce dissatisfaction" (p. 395).

Ilgen (1971) observed that there were two aspects of this theory: (a) the concept of expectations as derived from cognitive dissonance theory (Aronson & Carlsmith, 1962), and (b) the general concept of expectations. The first theory proposed that the individual is most satisfied when events in his environment are very similar to or equal to what he expects (Ilgen, 1971). The individual would become less satisfied if the environmental return fell short of or exceeded his expectations than if he received environmental return which equaled his expectations. Thus, Ilgen (1971) argued that satisfaction should be lowest when the individual perceives the events in the environment as very discrepant from his standard, either very much below or very much above, and should be highest when the events concur with his standard. Ilgen's general expectations theory asserted that the individual would be less satisfied if he received environmental return below his

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standard of comparison than if his return was similar to his
expectations. Likewise, if the individual's environmental re-
turn exceeded his expectations, he should be more satisfied
than if he derived the same (Ilgen, 1971).

The reference group theory was an extension of the
espectations theory but related an individual's attitide de-
velopment to reference groups or points (Porter & Lawler,
1968). In essence, the reference group theory explained that
an individual might be a member of a group, yet might not be
motivated to accept the group's norms and values. Hollander
(1971) contended that even where an individual did not liter-
ally belong to a group he might be affected by it. Aspirations
for achievement tend to encourage this identification process,
and reference groups represent those aspirations which masy
have high values (Hollander, 1971). An individual's assessment
of the equity of reward he received was based upon his frame
of reference and possible alternatives (Hollander, 1971; Klein
& Maher, 1966). Thus, Hollander's (1971) concept of
affiliative motives formed the substructure of the reference
group theory. However, this theory was limited by the fact
that it did not relate the personality variables to the psy-
chological processes, e.g. when the individual made his or her
judgments (Korman, 1977).

Locke (1976) clarified that the concepts of needs and
values were acquired. Locke (1976) found that while needs con-
front the individual with the requirement of action, his or
her values determine actual choices and emotional reactions
(Locke, 1976).

Many theorists have taken the position to treat

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separately the concepts of need fulfillment and value fulfillment as they relate to job satisfaction. Some theorists have argued that it was the fulfillment of the individual's needs that determined his job satisfaction (e.g., Alderfer, 1972; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969; Porter, 1962; Wofford, 1971). Other theorists claimed that the individual's value fulfillment was the essential determinant of job satisfaction (e.g., Katzell, 1964; Likert, 1961; Locke, 1969; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969).

Vroom (1964) examined two models of a need fulfillment theory—the subtractive model and the multiplicative model. In his subtractive model, Vroom assumed that need satisfaction was a function of the difference between the extent to which a need was met in a work situation and the extent to which the individual expected the job to supply this need (Vroom, 1964). In this model, Vroom argued that the determination of the individual's dissatisfaction was done by subtracting his perceived conditions in his work role from what he felt the conditions should be (Vroom, 1960, 1964). One weak point with the subtractive model was that it did not take into account the relative importance of a particular need (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Vroom (1960, 1964) also pointed out that ignoring the relative importance of needs could be misleading because in reality the individual did experience that some needs were more important than others. This led to the formulation of Vroom's second model—the multiplicative model—where need importance was taken into consideration by multiplying the perceived amount of need fulfillment offered by the job by the importance to the individual of that need (Vroom, 1960, 1964). The products for

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each need were then summed up to give an overall measure of job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964).

The importance of need value fulfillment in influencing job satisfaction was also examined by Kalleberg (1975, 1977). Kalleberg's work values and job rewards theory of job satisfaction was a sociological orientation which started with the premise that there were certain types of values individuals sought to fulfill through work, and there were certain types of rewards their jobs provided (Kallberg, 1975, 1977). In this theory, Kalleberg (1975, 1977) identified six work dimensions—intrinsic, convenience, financial, relations with co-workers, career, and resource adequacy dimensions—as being differentially valued and rewarded. In investigating the manner work values and job rewards combined to influence job satisfaction, Kalleberg (1975, 1977) found that both values and rewards had independent but unequal effects on job satisfaction. Rewards had a large and positive effect on job satisfaction, while values had a smaller effect (Kalleberg, 1975, 1977).

Locke (1984) elaborated that many theorists believed the individual's degree of job satisfaction was determined by the degree to which the job fulfilled his physical and psychological needs. Locke (1984) grouped these aspects as events and conditions (e.g., the work itself, pay, promotion, verbal recognition, and working conditions), and agents (such as the self—the individual's view of himself—supervisors, co-workers, subordinates, and company and management). Locke (1984) defined "job satisfaction" as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Locke (1984) theorized that job satisfaction

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resulted from the perception that one's job fulfills his or her important values to the degree that these values are congruent with one's needs (Locke, 1984). More specifically, individuals who believe that their actions are under the dictates of their own control should derive strong feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction from their employment (Locke, 1984).

Hoy and Miskel (1987) stated that the levels of job satisfaction were related to the perceived difference between individual motivation (i.e., what was expected as a fair, reasonable return) and organizational incentives (i.e., what was actually experienced in the work setting). They concluded that one of the most common approaches for studying job satisfaction was determining personal characteristics, investigating the satisfaction level, and then relating the two concepts (Hoy & Miskel, 1987).

For more than three quarters of a century, the worlds of business and industry have demonstrated overriding obligations to analyze and understand employee job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Many researchers have examined job satisfaction as related to subordinate employee satisfaction (Hardman, 1996; Proffitt, 1990). In contrast, studies on administrator job satisfaction are relatively few in number (Friesen, Holdaway, & Rice, 1984; Hardman, 1996; Proffit, 1990). This is also true for studies which examine female administrator job satisfaction in the union setting (Hopkins, 1982). However, Herzberg's dichotomous theory has proved valuable in the research of job satisfaction in education administration (Frase, Hetzel, & Grant, 1982; Wesson & Grady, 1994). In one study, a high

correlation between Herzberg's motivators and job satisfaction of secondary school administrators was discovered (Schmidt, 1976). Likewise, Miskel & Ogawa (1988) utilized a similar dichotomy as they studied the satisfaction of elementary teachers who aspired to become administrators (Hardman, 1996).

There are a number of studies which tested the applicity of Herzberg's dual-factor theory to higher education (Adams, 1974 Avakian, 1971; Bachman & Slesigner, 1966; Edmundson, 1969; Openshaw, 1980; Tesar, 1974; Wittenauer, 1980). In 1970, Buxton conducted a study of job satisfaction among faculty members and administrators in education in eight state universities and discovered a significant relationship between motivators and job satisfaction. In a study conducted by Aebi (1972) to test Herzberg's dual-factor theory, there were significant differences between subgroups of faculty members when differentiated by sex, age, salary, and degree held. Wittenauer's (1980) study attempted to relate demographic variables to feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of faculty administrators. Significant differences were observed for variables including years of work experience, earned degree, tenure status, and present rank (Wittenauer, 1980).

Job satisfaction has been the focus of an enormous amount of previous research. The parameters of job satisfaction are specified in the literature on work motivation (Bandura, 1990; Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Herzberg, et al., 1959; Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Kanfer, 1990; Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Maslow, 1970; McClelland, 1961, 1965, 1975; Miner, 1980; Pinder, 1984; Steers & Porter, 1991; Vroom, 1964). These work-related behaviors have played a major role

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in providing for the needs of the individual and determining a sense of satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Pinder, 1984; Shakeshaft, 1987). For the most part, the study of job satisfaction is dependent upon a theory of human needs (Hopkins, 1982). Job satisfaction can be defined as the state of mind that results from an individual's needs or values being met by the job (Hopkins, 1982). Individuals bring different values and needs with them to the work setting. Individuals' personality structures differ, as do their perceptual abilities.

Personal or Demographic Characteristics of Female Administrators

Prior research has indicated that job satisfaction is the result of a number of factors which are interrelated (Blocker & Richardson, 1983; Schein, 1985). Researchers have identified a number of personal characteristics which have an effect on job satisfaction in addition to the elements specified in Herzberg's theory (Kasperson, 1982; Oliver, 1983; Organ & Bateman, 1986).

Job Satisfaction and Age. The research on job satisfaction has involved many references to the demographic variable of age. Age has an influence on the extent to which an individual perceives a job as satisfying (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1984; Friesen, et al., 1984; Gruneberg, 1979; Martin & Shehan, 1989; Schonwetter, et al., 1993; Shaw, 1986). Most reviews of the job satisfaction literature have concluded that there is a statistically significant correlation between age and job satisfaction (Chronister &

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Baldwin, 1996; Friesen, et al., 1984; Johnson & Weiss, 1971; Myers, 1982; Rhodes, 1983; Saleh & Otis, 1964; Weaver, 1980).

A number of studies have found differences between various age groups with respect to job satisfaction. The results of these studies generally show an increase in the level of job satisfaction with age (Hopkins, 1982; Hoppock, 1960; Super, 1960). Hopkins (1982) concluded that as an individual ages, the likelihood of being satisfied is greater than at a younger age. Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) found that older workers also tend to be more satisfied, more involved, and more committed to their work. This is consistent with the findings of Morris and Steers (1979) who found organizational commitment positively associated with age. Herzberg, et al. (1957) concluded that a curvilinear relationship exists between age and job satisfaction. Other researchers repudiated the conclusion that age was found to serve as a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Chronister & Baldwin, 1996; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Saleh & Otis, 1964; Schotte, 1986). Bruce and Blackburn (1992) found that older workers (age 50 and above) tend to be more satisfied than younger colleagues. Other researchers also support this conclusion (Katzell & Yankelovich, 1975; Schonwetter, et al., 1993).

Saleh and Otis (1964) found that pre-retirees who ranked the five periods of their working experience according to their relative feelings of job satisfaction indicated that the level of job satisfaction increases in the first four periods (up to age 60) and then declines in the terminal period (age 60 to 65). Saleh and Otis (1964) theorized that the decline is

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due to the actual blocking or anticipated blocking of the channels for self-actualization and psychological growth. Saleh and Otis (1964) also theorized that a decline in job satisfaction in pre-retirees can be attributed to little chance for advancement and a decline in physical health.

Herzberg et al. (1957) supported this position when they indicated the factors relating to actualization and growth as achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility and growth in skill were the true sources of satisfaction. Increased job satisfaction as an individual increases in age has been explained by the upward trend in adjustment and satisfaction with life (Herzberg, et al., 1957). The older worker has adapted to unpleasant working conditions and due to seniority has achieved a higher status or better position (Gruneberg, 1979).

With respect to gender, Hopkins found females slightly more satisfied with their jobs than males (Hopkins, 1982). The job satisfaction of women also increased with age (Gruneberg, 1979).

Job Satisfaction and Tenure of Employment. Job satisfaction and tenure of employment tend to be positively related (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Gruneberg, 1979; Hopkins, 1982; Hulin & Smith, 1965). Herzberg (1959) found that as job tenure increased job satisfaction also increased. Herzberg (1959) also concluded that individuals who have been in a job for a while are more satisfied than those who do not have much tenure in their job. Morrow & McElroy (1987) found job satisfaction to increase with the number of years the employee has been in a

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particular job, regardless of gender. However, a number of researchers found that job satisfaction declines as employees approach retirement (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Chronister & Baldwin, 1996; Gould & Hawkins, 1978; Saleh & Otis, 1964; Schott, 1986; Waters, et al., 1976).

Other studies have found that new employees have higher job satisfaction levels; those in the middle period exhibited low satisfaction; and those in the long-service category display high levels of satisfaction (Hopkins, 1982). New employees tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction initially (Gruneberg, 1979). Kilpatrick, Cummings and Jennings (1964) suggest that job security, which has long been viewed as an important benefit of governmental jobs and those in a union setting, decreases in importance to the employee as tenure increases. As job security becomes less important to the long-term employee because of attainment, there is an erosion of the perceived benefit and subsequently job satisfaction (Kilpatrick, et al., 1964). Satisfaction may also be greater among long-term employees as they adjust their expectations downward to meet that which is possible for them (Hopkins, 1982).

Hulin and Smith (1965) reported that tenure is a significant predictor of satisfaction with the work itself and satisfaction with pay. Individual variables, such as supervision and promotions, may influence the overall job satisfaction outcomes when combining with career stages (Mount, 1984).

Job Satisfaction and Level of Administrative Position.
Researchers have found a positive relationship between job

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satisfaction and level of administrative position (Andrisani, 1978; Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1984; Grady, Ourada-Seib & Wesson, 1994; Gruneberg, 1979; Olson & Frieze, 1987; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Siegel & Lane, 1982). Carroll (1973) stated that the research on job satisfaction has consistently shown that the level of an employee's job within the hierarchical organization or the status of his or her occupation held a direct and strong relation with the degree of job satisfaction. Vroom (1964) stated that job level was really a complex variable and included a number of empirically related but conceptually different properties, such as increased pay, more freedom, and less physical effort. This is in harmony with literature (Friesen, et al., 1984) that suggests job satisfaction in administrators is influenced by autonomy, relationships, communication and task functions. To further understand this phenomenon, Bacharach and Mitchell (1983) found that incompletion of tasks and lack of decision making power enhanced job dissatisfaction.

It is generally accepted that upper levels of management have higher levels of job satisfaction (James & Jones, 1980; Leigh & Futrell, 1985; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975; Singh & Strivastva, 1975). Cox and Harquail (1991) suggested that administrators at the highest level generally report the greatest levels of job satisfaction. Middle managers and vice presidents are similar with regard to job satisfaction as compared to presidents (Cox & Harquail, 1991). Olson and Frieze (1987), for example, found that job satisfaction increased with attainments of higher level administrative and management positions. Porter and Lawler (1968) used middle management

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personnel in an investigation of job level and job satisfaction. They found that job satisfaction was significantly increased in higher management positions than in lower level management positions (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

With regard to gender issues associated with job satisfaction a variety of studies have been conducted. Summers and DeCotiis (1988) suggested that females receive higher job satisfaction from promotion and compensation compared to males. Cox and Harquail (1991) studied administrators and found that female managers did not differ from males on job satisfaction. Gable and Topol (1989) reported that no significant differences relating to job satisfaction exist between men and women managers. Bruce and Blackburn (1992) also stated that the job satisfaction of female administrators is at least as high as male administrators.

Job Satisfaction and Educational Level. Studies have shown that educational level plays a major role in an individual's perception of job satisfaction (Bistocchi, 1986; Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1980; Herzberg, 1966; Klein & Maher, 1966; Schonwetter, et al., 1993). Although Herzberg (1959) reported mixed findings on the relationship between education and job satisfaction, there is some tendency for education levels to be inversely related to job satisfaction (Hopkins, 1983). Higher education levels tend to decrease the likelihood of job satisfaction (Hopkins, 1992). Some contrary evidence comes from a study of over 4,000 employees by Weaver (1980) who found a positive relationship between education and satisfaction. Better educated

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individuals are likely to have more intrinsically and extrinsically rewarding jobs, have more status in the organization, and higher levels of job satisfaction (Strivastva, et. al., 1977).

Women administrators who have attained a higher level of education were more satisfied with their positions than those who have not (Schonwetter, et al., 1993).

Job Satisfaction and Personality Type

Roethlisberger and Dickson (1966) in their classic Western Electric studies argued that an individual's personality was an important predictor of job satisfaction. They were among the early researchers to suggest that additional studies were needed to substantiate the possibility that sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction lie within the worker, rather than the job. They concluded that "if the analysis has been correct so far, it is evident that all the factors determining satisfaction or dissatisfaction at work do not arise within the walls of the factory" (Roethlisberger & Dickson, p. 372). Research by Vroom (1960, 1964) also supported this conclusion. Vroom (1964) found that individuals who are satisfied with their jobs may be assumed to differ systematically in their personalities from those who are dissatisfied. Additional research was conducted by Gruneberg (1979) who suggested that the kind of a person one is will determine the extent to which different job characteristics will affect one's job satisfaction.

Frost & Wilson (1983) found that variables related to personality were the single most important predictor of job

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satisfaction. Kasperson (1982) argued that there were psycho-
logical constructs outside of the job design that are the pri-
mary determiners of job satisfaction.

Landy (1985) hypothesized that job satisfaction is inher-
ent within the individual. Organ (1986) concurred that indi-
viduals themselves, rather than the environment, determine job
satisfaction. Landy (1985) also argued that job satisfaction is
a product of individual differences rather than something to be
discovered within the work situation. Subsequently, both Landy
(1985) and Organ and Bateman (1986) found that individual vari-
ables resulting from beliefs, feelings, and behavior directly
influenced job satisfaction. Specifically, these variables in-
cluded an individual's physiological make up, generalized per-
ceptions, and prior socialization (Landy, 1985; Organ &
Bateman, 1986).

Argyris (1957, 1971) suggested that frustration results
when an individual's needs differ from the demands of the orga-
nization. Argyris (1971) found that an individual's personality
type determines his or her reaction to frustration or feelings
of failure.

Personality traits such as enthusiasm, dominance, self-
confidence, and goal motivation characterized administrators
(Gibb, 1954; Keirsey & Bates, 1984; Smith & Cook, 1973;
Sorrentino, 1973; Zigon & Cannon, 1974). Self-perceived levels
of autonomy and control also play a role in determining job
satisfaction in administrative and managerial occupations
(Frost & Wilson, 1983). Gmelch (1994) and associates related
personality and job satisfaction to administrator burnout.
Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) found that individuals with

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negative affectivity tend to emphasize the negative side of experiences, while those individuals with positive affectivity tend to deny negative aspects of the work situation.

The theory of A-B personality postulates that individuals are characterized by their approach to the management of their lives (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Individuals with A personality are action oriented, aggressive and achievement oriented (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). B personalities are more contemplative and less competitive (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Frost and Wilson (1983) found no significant difference in the perception of job satisfaction between these personality types. Schonwetter, et al. (1993) found A personalities to be more adaptive to their job environments, and thus more satisfied.

Carl G. Jung (1921) was one of the first researchers to propose the existence of inherent differences in the way people perceive and make judgments (Hardman, 1996; Hutchens, 1990). Jung theorized that seemingly random behavior is actually quite consistent, because people are consistent in the way they use their perception and judgment (Lawrence, 1979).

In 1962, Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine Briggs published the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), which is based on the assumption that individuals possess all the facets of personality as defined by Jung, but they tend to favor certain personality type (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The four dimensions consist of perception, judgment, life orientation attitudes and orientation to the outer world (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Perception, as defined by Jung (1921/1971), must be examined from the categories of sensing and intuition. The

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attitude of perception as derived from Jung (1921/1971) has the "sensing" (S) individual using one or more of the five senses to report observable facts and happenings. The "sensing" individual tends to be realistic, practical and observant. The "intuitive" (N) individual uses the process of intuition, perceiving what is happening without relying on one or more of the five senses, and going beyond what is immediately obvious. The "intuitive" individual tends to value imagination and innovation (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

The dimension of judgment is described as the way an individual comes to a conclusion about what has been perceived. Individuals differ about what they have perceived and how they draw conclusions. Thus, they differ in their reactions motivations and interests (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Jung (1921/ 1971) described judgment types as either thinking or feeling. The "thinking" (T) individual predicts the logical result of an action on the basis of cause and effect. The "thinking" individual is logical, objective and consistent. The "feeling" (F) individual relies on personal or social values when making decisions. The "feeling" individual is sympathetic, appreciative and tactful (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The "feeling" individual is more subjective in approach than the "thinking" individual (Keirsey & Bates, 1984).

The orientation toward life or attitude was described by Jung (1921/1971) as extroversion or introversion. Myers and McCaulley (1985) described these attitudes as interest in the inner and outer worlds. Jung characterized the extroverted (E) individual as more interested and more at ease when working actively with people or objects (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

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Jung regarded introverts (I) as more oriented toward focusing their perception and judgment upon concepts and ideas (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Myers and Briggs (1962) expanded and clarified Jung's work by identifying two attitudes made by individuals to the outer world (Hardman, 1996; Hutchens, 1990). Myers and Briggs (1962) labeled the two attitudes judgment (J) and perception (P). The "judging" individual prefers either a thinking or feeling process and is dogmatic and organized. The "perceptive" individual relies on sensing or intuition, and is impressible and impulsive (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Jung (1921/1971) believed that individuals use both facets of each index, but they are born with a predisposition for one or the other. Sixteen potential personality types are the result of preferences in each dichotomy (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). Four-letter type formulas represent a relationship between the functions S, N, T, and F, the attitudes E and I, and the orientation to the outer world, J and P. Sixteen possible combinations of the letters of the individual preferences are formed and represent potential type: ENTJ, ESTJ, INFP, ISTP, ESTP, ESFP, ISTJ, ISFJ, ISFP, ESFJ, ENFJ, INFJ, INTP, INTJ, ENFP, ENTP (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). While individuals possess all eight qualities, they show preference for one aspect in each pair (Lawrence, 1979). A brief description of the sixteen personality types follows:

> ISTJ: serious quiet, earn success by concentration
> and thoroughness; practical, orderly, matter-of-fact,
> logical, realistic and dependable; see to it that every
> thing is well organized; take responsibility; make up

their own minds as to what should be accomplished and
work toward it steadily, regardless of or protests or
distractions; live their outer life more with thinking,
inner life more with sensing.

ISTP: cool onlookers, quiet, reserved, observing and
analyzing life with detached curiosity and unexpected
flashes of original humor; usually interested in imper-
sonal principles, cause and effect, or how and why me-
chanical things work; exert themselves no more than they
think necessary, because any waste of energy would be
inefficient; live their outer life more with sensing,
inner life more with thinking.

ESTP: matter-of-fact, do not worry or hurry, enjoy what-
ever comes along; tend to like mechanical things and
sports, with friends on the side; may be a bit blunt or
insensitive; can do math or science when they see the
need; dislike long explanations; are best with real
things that can be worked, handled, taken apart or put
back together; live their outer life more with sensing,
inner life more with thinking.

ESTJ: practical realists, matter-of-fact, with a natural
head for business or mechanics; not interested in sub-
jects they see no use for, but can apply themselves when
necessary; like to organize and run activities; tend to
run things well, especially if they remember to consider
other people's feelings; live their outer life more with
thinking, inner life with sensing.

ISFJ: quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious;
work devotedly to meet their obligations and serve their

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friends and school; thorough, painstaking, accurate; may
need time to master technical subjects as their interests
are not often technical; patient with detail and routine;
loyal, considerate, concerned with how other people feel;
live their outer life more with feeling, inner life more
with sensing.

ISFP: retiring, quietly friendly, sensitive, modest about
their abilities, shun disagreements, do not force their
opinions or values on others; usually do not care to lead
but are often loyal followers; may be rather relaxed
about assignments or getting things done, because they
enjoy the present moment and do not want to spoil it by
undue haste or exertion; live their outer life more with
sensing, inner life more with feeling.

ESFP: outgoing, easygoing, accepting, friendly, fond of a
good time; like sports and making things; know what is
going on and join in eagerly; find remembering facts
easier than mastering theories; are best in situations
that need sound common sense and practical ability with
people as well as with things; live their outer life more
with sensing, inner more with feeling.

ESFJ: warm-hearted, talkative, popular, conscientious,
born cooperators, active committee members, always doing
something nice for someone; work best with plenty of
encouragement and praise; little interest in abstract
thinking or technical subjects; main interest is in
things that directly and visibly affect people's lives;
live their outer life more with feeling, inner life more
with sensing.

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INFJ: succeed by perseverance, originality and desire to
do whatever is needed or wanted; put their best efforts
into their work; quietly forceful, conscientious, con-
cerned for
others; respected for their firm principles; likely to
be honored and followed for their clear convictions as to
how best to serve the common good; live their outer life
with more feeling, inner life with intuition.
INFP: full of enthusiasm and loyalties, but seldom
talk of these until they know you well; care about learn-
ing, ideas, language, and independent projects of their
own; apt to be on yearbook staff, perhaps as editor; tend
to undertake too much, then somehow get it done;
friendly, but often too absorbed in what they are doing
to be sociable or noticed; live their outer life more
with intuition, inner life more with feeling.
ENFP: warmly enthusiastic, high-spirited, ingenious,
imaginative; able to do almost anything that interests
them;quick with a solution for any difficulty and ready
to helpanyone with a problem; often rely on their ability
toimprovise instead of preparing in advance; can always
findcompelling reasons for whatever they want; live their
outer life more with intuition, inner life more with
feeling.
ENFJ: responsive and responsible; feel real concern for
what others think and want, and try to handle things with
due regard for other people's feelings; can present a
proposal or lead a group discussion with ease and tact;
sociable, popular, active in school affairs, but put time

enough on their studies to do good work; live their outer
life more with feeling, inner life more with intuition.
INTJ: have original minds and great drive which they
useonly for their own purposes; in fields that appeal to
them they have a fine power to organize a job and carry
it through with or without help; skeptical, critical,
independent, determined, often stubborn; must learn to
yieldless important points in order to win the most
important;live their outer life more with thinking, inner
life more with intuition.
INTP: quiet, reserved, brilliant in exams, especially in
theoretical or scientific subjects; logical to the point
of hair-splitting; interested mainly in ideas, with
little liking for parties or small talk; tend to have
very sharply defined interests; need to choose careers
where some strong interest of theirs can be used and use-
ful; live their outer life more with intuition, inner
life more with thinking.
ENTP: quick, ingenious, good at many things; stimulating
company, alert and outspoken, argue for fun on either
side of a question; resourceful in solving new and chal-
lenging problems, but may neglect routine assignments;
turn to one new interest after another; can always find
logical reasons for more; live their outer life more with
intuition, inner life more with thinking.
ENTJ: hearty, frank, able in studies, leaders in activi-
ties; usually good in anything that requires reasoning
and intelligent talk, such as public speaking; are
well-informed and keep adding to their fund of knowledge;

may sometimes be more positive and confident than their experience in an area warrants; live their outer life more with thinking, inner life more with intuition.

Lawrence (1979)

All sixteen types exist in the general population (Lawrence, 1979). However, they do not exist in equal proportions (Lawrence, 1979). Lawrence (1979) found that extroverts outnumber introverts by roughly three to one. Sensing individuals outnumber intuitive individuals also three to one (Lawrence, 1979). Sixty percent of women are classified as feeling while 60% of men fall into the thinking category (Lawrence, 1979). Fifty-five percent of the population possess a judging attitude, while the remaining 45% fall into the perceptive category (Lawrence, 1979).

A review of the literature shows that researchers have relied on the MBTI to define personality. Hardman (1996) used the MBTI to determine the personality types of female public school administrators in a job satisfaction study. Hutchens (1990) noted research related to choice of educational materials, learning styles, communication styles, study habits, and burnout (Hardman, 1996). Harrison (1983) and Glenn (1982) relied on personality types as defined by Jung (1921/1971) when conducting research on job satisfaction. In addition, the MBTI has been used by educators extensively for career counseling (Hutchens, 1990; Lawrence, 19979; Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Vocational choice is a function of personality (Holland, 1973). Holland (1973) found that individuals with different personality types have different interests, thus, they tend to

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surround themselves with people of similar disposition. In addition, Holland (1973) found that individuals seek environments that allow them to exercise their skills and abilities in a comfortable situation. Jung (1921/1971) proposed that differentiation of personality types could be made. The following is a list of types and the typical occupational choices of each:

ISTJ: steelworkers, dentists, accountants, managers, administrators

ISTP: farmers, mechanics, engineers

ESTP: marketing personnel, police, carpenters

ESTJ: bank officers, financial managers, school administrators

ISFJ: nurses, clerical supervisors, librarians

ISFP: store clerks, store keepers

ESFP: child care workers, receptionists

ESFJ: medical secretaries, teachers, cosmetologists

INFJ: priests, education consultants

INFP: psychiatrists, editors, reporters

ENFP: journalists, rehabilitation counselors

ENFJ: clergy, home economists

INTJ: lawyers, scientists

INTP: writers, artists, computer programmers

ENTP: photographers, marketing personnel

ENTJ: systems researchers, analysts

(Myers and McCaulley, 1985)

Relationships have also been explored between personality type and administrators. Studies of school administrators reveal the predominant type as ESTJ (Keirsey & Bates, 1984; von Fange, 1962).

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Summary

This review of the literature has explored job satisfaction, selected demographic characteristics and personality and the connection between the three variables.

A review of the literature reveals extensive theories on job satisfaction. One of the most famous is Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. This theory proposed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were not opposite ends of the same continuum, but were separate dimensions that must be dealt with in different ways. Herzberg's work is significant because it let students of job satisfaction to begin to view satisfaction not as something that leads to greater productivity, but as an effect of the same factors that result in increased production. Thus, job satisfaction can be viewed as a by-product of the motivators: achievement, recognition, challenge, and responsibility.

Numerous studies have also found relationships between personal characteristics and job satisfaction. A review of the literature shows that the demographic variables of gender, age, tenure of employment, level of administrative position and educational level have an effect on job satisfaction.

A search of the literature also supports a relationship between personality and job satisfaction. Myers and Briggs based their work on the theory of Jung (1921/1971), who was one of the first researchers to propose the existence of inherent differences in the way people perceive and make judgments. The <u>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator</u> has been used in many job satisfaction studies. It is also widely used by researchers examining career choice.

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This study mimics others in the literature which have examined the relationship between personality type, demographic characteristics, and job satisfaction. Although numerous studies have dealt with the same variables used in this study, given the obvious lack of research relative to female education union administrators, it appears logical that such research be conducted. This study's uniqueness lies in its examination of perceived job satisfaction of female education union administrators at specific administrative levels.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a description
of the research design including the population sampled, the
sampling procedure, the data collection methods, and the meth-
ods of data analysis. This study examined the relationship
between age, tenure of employment, level of administrative
position, and educational level of female National Education
Association and state affiliate administrators using a demo-
graphics sheet, the Survey of National Education Association
and Affiliate Female Administrators, which is adapted from
previous surveys. Personality types were measured by the
Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Job satisfaction were measured by
the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales.

Population and Sampling Procedure

The population of this study consisted of female adminis-
trators (N =181) employed in August, 1997 at the National Edu-
cation Association and its affiliates as identified by the
National Education Association. The entire population of fe-
male administrators was surveyed to ensure the
generalizability of results to all female administrators em-
ployed by the National Education Association and its affili-
ates.   Previous research suggests an association of gender
with an administrator's perception of job satisfaction
(Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Herzberg, et al., 1959;   Reitman,
1995; Schuler, 1975; Shaw, 1986; Strober, 1982).

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Instrumentation

This study utilized three instruments to collect the necessary data. The <u>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator</u> (MBTI) Form G (1977) was used to identify personality types of female administrators employed at the National Education Association and its state affiliates. An adaptation of a questionnaire designed by Mauter (1980) and refined by Hutchens (1990) and Hardman (1996), <u>the Survey of National Education Association Affiliate Female Administrators</u>, was employed to collect demographic data (Appendix A). Job satisfaction was measured using the <u>Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales</u> (MCMJSS) (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan & Zaltman, 1977) (Appendix B).

Personality data on female administrators employed at the National Education Association and its affiliates was be collected using Form G-Self Scorable of the MBTI. This instrument, based on the perception and judgment theories of C.G. Jung (1921/1971), consists of 96 questions in a paper and pencil format and measures four distinct differences in individuals that result in the way they tend to perceive and the way they tend to judge in situations and how they draw conclusions about what they perceive.

The Extrovert/Introvert (EI) index included in the MBTI is designed to reflect whether an individual is an extrovert (E) or an introvert (I) using the research conducted by Jung (1921/1971). Jung characterized the extroverted individual as more interested and more at ease when working actively with people or objects (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Jung regarded

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introverts as more oriented toward focusing their perception
and judgment upon concepts and ideas (Myers & McCaulley,
1985).

The attitude of perception as derived from Jung (1921/
1971) has the "sensing" (S) individual using one or more of
the five senses to report observable facts and happenings. The
"sensing" individual tends to be realistic, practical and ob-
servant. The "intuitive" (N) individual uses the process of
intuition, perceiving what is happening without relying on one
or more of the five senses, and going beyond what is immedi-
ately obvious. The "intuitive" individual tends to value
imagination and innovation.

Jung (1921/1971) described judgment types as either
thinking or feeling. The "thinking" (T) individual predicts
the logical result of an action on the basis of cause and ef-
fect. The "thinking" individual is logical, objective and con-
sistent. The "feeling" (F) individual relies on personal or
social values when making decisions. The "feeling" individual
is sympathetic, appreciative and tactful.

Judgment (J) and perception (P) relate to the process an
individual uses primarily in dealing with the outer world. The
"judging" individual prefers either a thinking or feeling pro-
cess and is decisive and organized. The "perceptive" indi-
vidual relies on sensing or intuition, and is flexible and
spontaneous (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

The MBTI was designed to test Jung's theory of psycho-
logical types (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Jung believed that
everyone uses both facets of each index, but individuals are
born with a predisposition for one or the other. Sixteen

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potential types are the result of preferences in each di-
chotomy. Four-letter type formulas represent a relationship
between the functions S, N, T, and F, the attitudes E and I,
and the orientation to the outer world, J and P. Sixteen pos-
sible combinations of the letters of the individual prefer-
ences are formed and represent potential type: ENTJ, ESTJ,
INFP, ISTP, ESTP, ESFP, ISTJ, ISFJ, ISFP, ESFJ, ENFJ, INFJ,
INTP, INTJ, ENFP, ENTP (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Researchers have debated reliability coefficients for the
MBTI (Hardman, 1996; Hutchens, 1990). The reliability esti-
mates for the MBTI are varied and are summarized in the fol-
lowing categories: (a) E-I .55 to .83, (b) S-N .57 to .89, (c)
T-F .43 to .90, and (d) J-P .58 to .90 (Hardman, 1996;
Hutchens, 1990). Construct validity of the MBTI is addressed
by its ability to demonstrate relationships and outcomes pre-
dicted by Jung's type theory (Hardman, 1996).

Demographic characteristics of female National Education
Association and affiliate administrators were determined by an
adapted version of a questionnaire first designed by Mauter in
1980 (Appendix A). This questionnaire was also adapted and
employed by others including Hawthorne (1985), Hutchens
(1990), and Hardman (1996). Specifically, the Survey of Na-
tional Education Association and Affiliate Female Administra-
tors included seven questions designed to obtain forced
choice, open-ended, single responses to determine the follow-
ing from each respondent: (a) present administrative assign-
ment, (b) personal characteristics, (c) educational level, and
(d) tenure of employment.

To measure the job satisfaction of female National

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Education Association and affiliate administrators the MCMJSS was distributed (Appendix B). Designed to measure eight facets of self-perceived job satisfaction, the MCMJSS is divided into two sections. Each section contains four items on a six point Likert scale, with six as the highest response and one as the lowest. Four facets measure self-perceived intrinsic job satisfaction, and the other four measure self-perceived extrinsic job satisfaction. The instrument is designed to be self-administered and is very brief, taking a short time to complete (Hardman, 1996; Proffit, 1990).

Intrinsic and extrinsic perceptions of job satisfaction are related to the Motivation-Hygiene theory of Herzberg (Hardman, 1996; Herzberg, 1966, 1976; Herzberg, et al., 1959; McKee, 1988; Proffit, 1990). Intrinsic motivators of work, such as responsibility, achievement, advancement, recognition, personal growth, and work itself are purported to enhance job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959). Work hygiene factors, or extrinsic features of work, such as working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relationships, status, security, and salary are purported to minimize satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, et al., 1959).

Researchers have concluded that the Motivation-Hygiene theory of Herzberg can be applied to the field of education (Hardman, 1996; Proffit, 1990). Reliability coefficients for the scales using educators have been established by Mohrman (Hardman, 1996; McKee, 1988; Mohrman, et al., 1977; Proffit, 1990). Alpha reliability coefficients for intrinsic job satisfaction among educators ranged from .81 to .87. For extrinsic job satisfaction the alpha reliability coefficients for

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educators ranged from .77 to .82 (Hardman, 1996; McKee, 1988; Mohrman, et al., 1977; Proffit, 1990).

Methods

This study is a one shot case study (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). It was designed to determine the relationship between age, tenure of employment, level of administrative experience, and educational level of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of self-expressed job satisfaction (as established by the Survey of National Education Association and Affiliate Female Administrators), personality types (as measured by the MBTI) and job satisfaction (as measured by the MCMJSS) expressed by females in administrative positions employed by the National Education Association and its affiliates.

The study was be limited to female administrators employed in August, 1997 at the National Education Association and its affiliates. Each of the female administrators was mailed a packet of materials compiled by the researcher. The packet included a cover letter, the Survey of National Education Association and Affiliate Female Administrators, the MCMJSS, the MBTI-G and a self-scorable answer sheet, and a self-addressed stamped return envelope. The cover letter explained the purpose of the survey and assured anonymity. Subjects were asked and encouraged to respond to the instruments and return them to the researcher within two weeks. Responses were numbered upon receipt. Another set of questionnaires were sent within one week from the original request deadline. A reminder postcard was sent to participants four weeks after

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the initial mailing. A return rate of 50% plus one was sought
prior to the analysis of the data.

Data Analysis

This section discusses methods that were used in deter-
mining the relationship between age, tenure of employment,
level of administrative experience, and educational level (as
established by the Survey of National Education Association
and Affiliate Female Administrators), personality types (as
measured by the MBTI-G) and the degree of job satisfaction (as
measured by the MCMJSS) expressed by female National Education
Association and affiliate administrators. Once the respondents
returned the instruments the data was analyzed to determine an
internal and external satisfaction score, as well as an indi-
vidual overall mean score. An overall mean score will be de-
termined for each score. Frequency distributions and descrip-
tive analyses of the self-perceived psychological types were
used to determine confirmation or rejection of the study's
stated hypotheses.

The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used to analyze
data. An alpha level of 0.05 was established for the level of
significance and an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to
examine the significance of individual factors. Post hoc
analyses were conducted where appropriate.

Chapter 4

Presentation and Analysis of Data

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship
between age, tenure of employment, level of administrative
position, educational level, and personality type and the de-
gree of self-expressed job satisfaction among female adminis-
trators in the National Education Association (NEA) and af-
filiate organizations. Chapter four provides a description and
analyses of the data collected in the study.

The chapter is divided into the following sections: (a)
descriptive data, (b) statistical analyses of the data, (c)
major findings, and (d) a summary of the chapter. The data are
organized and presented in accordance with the hypotheses of
the study.

Descriptive Data

The population for this study consisted of all female
administrators employed in August, 1997 at the National Educa-
tion Association and its affiliates. This included executive
directors, assistant or associate executive directors, divi-
sion directors or managers, program directors or managers, and
legal counsels (N=181) as identified by the NEA in August,
1997. The entire population was surveyed. Overall, 121 (67%)
of the female administrators responded.

Within the sample (N=181), eight of the 11 executive

directors responded and 22 of the 27 assistant or associate executive directors responded. Division director or manager responses totaled 54 out of 78 and program director or manager responses totaled 37 out of 59. No legal counsels responded. These data are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

<u>**Frequency Distribution of Responses by Level of Position**</u>

Level	Return	Sent	% Returned
Executive Director	8	11	73
Assistant Executive Director	22	27	82
Division Director	54	78	69
Program Director	37	59	63
Legal Counsel	--	6	--
Total	121	181	67

Demographic data relative to the hypotheses of the study were collected from the female administrators employed at the NEA and its affiliates. These data included the following: (a) position title, (b) where employed, (c) number of years in administration, (d) number of years in current administrative position, (e) number of years employed at the NEA and its affiliates, (f) educational level, (g) age, and (h) the personality type of the administrator. These demographics were selected in accordance with their support in the literature as related to job satisfaction.

Participants in the study were asked to clarify their position title. Eight respondents classified themselves as executive directors and 22 were assistant executive directors. Fifty-four respondents classified themselves as division directors or managers and 37 were program directors or managers. No legal counsels responded. These figures are represented in Table 2. In addition to these classifications, respondents were asked to specify where they were employed at the NEA and its affiliates. Nineteen of the respondents indicated that they were employed at NEA Headquarters and 6 respondents reported they worked at NEA regional offices. The majority of respondents, 96, were employed at NEA affiliates. Table 3 contains these data.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution by Position Title

Position	Frequency	Percentage
Executive Director	8	7
Assistant Executive Director	22	18
Division Director	54	45
Program Director	37	30
Legal Counsel	--	--

Table 3

Frequency Distribution by Where Employed

Location	Frequency	Percentage
NEA Headquarters	19	16
NEA Regional Office	6	5
NEA Affiliate	96	79

Respondents were asked to supply a numerical value repre-
senting the total number of years they have been profession-
ally been involved in administration. These data, ranging from
1 to 30 years, were partitioned into approximately equivalent
cells for the purpose of data analysis. Of the administrators
responding, 28 had served as an administrator for six or less
years, 34 had served between 7 and 10 years, 28 had served
between 11 and 16 years, and 31 had served between 17 and
30 years in administration. Table 4 contains these data.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution by Total Years in Administration

Number of Years	Frequency	Percentage
1-6	28	23
7-10	34	28
11-16	28	23
17-30	31	26

Each respondent was asked to indicate the number of years

employed in administration at the NEA. The data were categorized into appropriate cell widths. Of the data returned, 28 administrators had been employed between 1 and 8 years, 32 had been employed between 9 and 13 years, 28 had been employed between 14 and 19, and 33 had been employed between 20 and 30 years. These data are presented in table 5.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution by Total Years Employed in Administration at the National Education Association

Number of Years	Frequency	Percentage
1-8	28	23
9-13	32	27
14-19	28	23
20-30	33	27

To further clarify their experience, administrators were asked to specify the number of years they had served in their current position. The range of responses spanned from 0.5 year to 30 years. The data were categorized into appropriate cell widths. Of the those responding, 34 had served in their current position less than 4 years, 26 had served between 4 and 6 years, 35 had served between 7 and 10 years, and 26 had held their current position for 11 to 26 years. Table 6 represents these data.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution by Total Years in Current Position

Number of Years	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 4	34	28
4-6	26	22
7-10	35	29
11-26	26	21

Participating administrators were asked to indicate their highest level of education. Four respondents held a high school diploma, 48 indicated a Bachelor's degree, 60 reported having a Master's degree and 8 indicated attainment of a Doctorate. These data are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution by Educational Level

Highest Degree	Frequency	Percentage
High School Diploma	4	3
Bachelor's	48	40
Master's	60	50
Doctorate	8	7

Respondents supplied a numerical value representing their age. These data, ranging from 31 to 64 years, were categorized for the purpose of the study into four roughly equal cells. Of the respondents, 30 reported they were between 31 and 45

years. Twenty-nine reported that they were between 46 and 49 years, 29 reported they were between 50 and 52 years. Thirty-three respondents reported their ages between 53 and 64. These data are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution by Age

Age Category	Frequency	Percentage
31-45	30	25
46-49	29	24
50-52	29	24
53-64	33	27

Responding to the personality instrument, the <u>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator</u>, each participant's score was classified as one of the sixteen personality types. The frequencies for each category are specified in Table 9. See also Figure 1.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution by Personality Types

Type	Frequency	Percentage
ENFJ	6	5
ENFP	9	7
ENTJ	11	9
ENTP	6	5
ESFJ	1	1
ESFP	1	1
ESTJ	15	12
ESTP	4	3
INFJ	13	11
INFP	11	9
INTJ	12	10
INTP	7	6
ISFJ	6	5
ISFP	2	2
ISTJ	10	8
ISTP	7	6

These personality types were consolidated into four cat-
egories by grouping responses according to the dimensions of
Sensing/Intuition, and Thinking/Feeling. This consolidation
formed more manageable categories, as seen in Table 10. Using
this representation of the personality types, 39 were

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considered intuitive-feeling (NF), 36 were considered intuitive-thinking (NT), 10 were considered sensing-feeling (SF), and 36 were considered sensing-thinking (ST).

Table 10

<u>**Frequency Distribution by Four Personality Categories**</u>

Type	Frequency	Percentage
Intuitive-Feeling (NF)	39	32
Intuitive-Thinking (NT)	36	30
Sensing-Feeling (SF)	10	8
Sensing-Thinking (ST)	36	30

Data were also collected from the respondents concerning the degree to which they experienced satisfaction in their job. Considering job satisfaction in three categories, responses were tallied for intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and overall satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction, usually related to feelings of accomplishment and self-worth, was expressed by 110 of the respondents. Extrinsic satisfaction, typically a product of relationships on the job, was expressed by 83 of the respondents. From an overall perspective, 103 of the respondents expressed a feeling of satisfaction with their jobs. These data are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Frequency Distribution by Perceived Job Satisfaction

Categorized Mean	Frequency	Percentage
Intrinsic Scale		
2.75-3.5	8	7
3.75-6.0 (Satisfied)	110	93
Extrinsic Scale		
1.00-3.5	35	30
3.75-6.0 (Satisfied)	83	70
Overall Scale		
2.75-3.5	15	13
3.75-6.0 (Satisfied)	103	87

Statistical Analysis of Data

The data for this study were collected by the use of three questionnaires. The first instrument measured the respondents' self-expressed job satisfaction, the second instrument measured the respondents' personality type, and the third was used to collect demographic characteristics.

Job satisfaction was measured by the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan & Zaltman, 1977). The Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales consists of eight items placed on a six point Likert-type scale with six being the highest response and one

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being the lowest. The instrument is divided into two sections of four items each. Respondents were asked to respond to each item. On any of the questions, a score of four or greater indicates satisfaction. A score of greater than 3.5 indicates satisfaction, while a mean score of less than 3.5 indicates dissatisfaction.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) Form G (1977) was used to identify personality types. The MBTI consists of 96 questions in a paper and pencil format and measures four distinct differences in individuals that result in the way they tend to perceive and the way they tend to judge in situations and how they draw conclusions about what they perceive. The Extrovert/Introvert (EI) index included in the MBTI is designed to reflect whether an individual is an extrovert (E) or an introvert (I). The attitudes of perception and judgment are determined by an individual's predisposition for one or the other. Sixteen potential types are the result of preferences in each dichotomy. Four-letter type formulas represent a relationship between the functions "sensing" (S), "intuition" (N), "thinking" (T), and "feeling" (F), the attitudes (E) and (I), and the orientation to the outer world, "judging" (J) and "perception" (P). Sixteen possible combinations of the letters of the individual preferences are formed and represent potential type: ENTJ, ESTJ, INFP, ISTP, ESTP, ESFP, ISTJ, ISFJ, ISFP, ESFJ, ENFJ, INFJ, INTP, INTJ, ENFP and ENTP.

These personality types were consolidated into categories by grouping responses according to the dimension of Sensing/ Intuition and Thinking/Feeling. This consolidation formed more manageable categories and reduced the number of cells in the

analysis from 16 to 4. Using this representation of the per-
sonality types, the four categories included Intuitive/Feeling
(NF), Intuitive/Thinking (NT), Sensing-Feeling (SF), and Sens-
ing/Thinking (ST).

Finally, respondents were asked to complete the Survey of
National Education Association Affiliate Female Administra-
tors. This adapted version of surveys by Mauter (1980),
Hawthorne (1985), Hutchens (1990), and Hardman (1996) is a
seven item questionnaire that collects demographic character-
istics.

The Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) was used to ana-
lyze the data. Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test
the six hypotheses which guided the study. An alpha level of
0.05 was selected as the criterion level of significance for
the study. Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used to pinpoint
significant differences. When appropriate, the use of Tukey's
Studentized Range Test was also employed as a post hoc test to
compare means.

Major Findings

Findings from the study are presented under the hypoth-
esis to which the data pertains. All statistical analyses were
performed using the Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS). An
alpha level of 0.05 was selected as the level of significance.
When appropriate, Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used to
further examine the differences between the means in each cat-
egory. Tukey's Studentized Range Test was also employed as a
post hoc test.

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Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant relationship between the age of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis one was tested and was rejected. The ANOVA represented in Table 12 for age and level of intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction revealed no statistical significance at the 0.05 alpha level established for significance.

Table 12

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for Age and Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Intrinsic Scale					
Age	3	4.40	1.47	2.63	.05ns
Error	114	63.73	0.06		
Total	117	68.13			
Extrinsic Scale					
Age	3	3.47	1.16	1.05	.38ns
Error	114	125.88	1.10		
Total	117	129.34			
Overall Scale					
Age	3	3.75	1.25	2.10	.10ns
Error	114	67.90	0.60		
Total	117	71.65			

ns: Not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant relationship between the number of years of experience in the current administrative position of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

The results of analysis confirmed this hypothesis. Table 13 presents the analysis of variance summary data for hypothesis two. The F-ratio for the differences between the means in intrinsic satisfaction was 2.88 which was statistically significant at 0.04. In the extrinsic satisfaction category, the F-ratio for the differences between the means was 5.33 which was statistically significant at 0.01. In overall job satisfaction, the F-ratio was 5.54 which was statistically significant at 0.01. All three significance levels exceed the criterion of 0.05 that was set to determine statistical significance for this study.

Table 13

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for Years in Current

Administrative Position and Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	M	F	p>F
Intrinsic Scale					
Years in Pos.	3	4.80	1.60	2.88	0.04*
Error	114	63.33	0.56		
Total	117	68.13			
Extrinsic Scale					
Years in Pos.	3	15.90	5.30	5.33	0.01*
Error	114	115.17	1.00		
Total	117	129.34			
Overall Scale					
Years in Pos.	3	9.12	3.04	5.54	0.01*
Error	114	62.53	0.55		
Total	117	71.65			

*Statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

The subsequent use of Duncan's Multiple Range Test, shown in Table 14, also confirmed a significant difference between the means in the category representing 7 to 9 years in current

position and 10 to 26 years. In each of the classifications of satisfaction, the administrator with 10 to 26 years in her current position expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of the administrator with 7 to 9 years in her current position.

Table 14

Duncan's Multiple Range Test Findings for Years in Current Administrative Position and Level of Job Satisfaction

Duncan's Grouping*		Mean	N	Years in Position
Intrinsic Scale				
B	A	4.84	16	1-2
B	A	4.97	41	3-6
	B	4.56	26	7-9
	A	5.11	35	10-26
Extrinsic Scale				
	A	4.20	16	1-2
B	A	4.03	41	3-6
	B	3.59	26	7-9
	A	4.60	35	10-26
Overall Scale				
	A	4.52	16	1-2
	A	4.50	41	3-6
	B	4.07	26	7-9
	A	4.90	35	10-26

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

In testing for significant differences among years in current administrative position as it relates to intrinsic satisfaction, the Tukey's Studentized Range Test disclosed that the difference between the means of administrators with 10 to 26 years in their current position and those with 7 to 9 years was 0.55. The simultaneous lower confidence limit was 0.05 and the simultaneous upper confidence limit was 1.05. These data are shown in Table 15.

Table 15

<u>Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Statistical Significance of</u>
<u>Years in Current Position and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction</u>

Years Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
(10-26)-(03-06)	-0.31	0.14	0.58
(10-26)-(01-02)	-0.32	0.26	0.85
(10-26)-(07-09)	0.05	0.55	1.05*
(03-06)-(10-26)	-0.58	-0.14	0.31
(03-06)-(01-02)	-0.45	0.13	0.70
(03-06)-(07-09)	-0.08	0.41	0.90
(01-02)-(10-26)	-0.85	-0.26	0.32
(01-02)-(03-06)	-0.70	-0.13	0.45
(01-02)-(07-09)	-0.33	0.29	0.90
(07-09)-(10-26)	-1.05	-0.55	-0.05*
(07-09)-(03-06)	-0.90	-0.41	0.08
(07-09)-(01-02)	-0.90	-0.29	0.33

*Statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Additionally, the Tukey's Studentized Range test disclosed that the difference between the means regarding extrinsic satisfaction of those administrators who had 10 to 26 years in their current administrative position and those with 7 to 9 years was 1.01. The simultaneous lower confidence limit was .34 and the simultaneous upper confidence limit was 1.69. These data are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

<u>Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Statistical Significance of</u>
<u>Years in Current Position and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction</u>

Years Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
(10-26)-(01-02)	-0.39	0.40	1.18
(10-26)-(03-06)	-0.03	0.57	1.17
(10-26)-(07-09)	0.34	1.01	1.69*
(01-02)-(10-26)	-1.18	-0.40	0.39
(01-02)-(03-06)	-0.59	0.17	0.94
(01-02)-(07-09)	-0.21	0.62	1.44
(03-06)-(10-26)	-1.17	-0.57	0.03
(03-06)-(01-02)	-0.94	-0.17	0.59
(03-06)-(07-09)	-0.21	0.44	0.10
(07-09)-(10-26)	-1.69	-1.01	-0.34*
(07-09)-(03-06)	-1.44	-0.62	0.21
(07-09)-(01-02)	-1.10	-0.44	0.21

*Statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Further analysis of the data through the use of the
Tukey's Studentized Range Test as it relates to overall satis-
faction revealed that there was a statistical difference be-
tween administrators having 10 to 26 years in their current
position and those with 7 to 9 years. The difference between
their means was 0.78 with a simultaneous lower confidence
limit of 0.28 and an upper confidence limit of 1.28. These
data are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Statistical Significance of
Years in Current Position and Overall Job Satisfaction

Years Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
(10-26)-(01-02)	-0.25	0.33	0.91
(10-26)-(03-06)	-0.09	0.35	0.80
(10-26)-(07-09)	0.28	0.78	1.28*
(01-02)-(10-26)	-0.91	-0.33	0.25
(01-02)-(03-06)	-0.55	0.02	0.59
(01-02)-(07-09)	-0.16	0.45	1.06
(03-06)-(10-26)	-0.80	-0.35	0.09
(03-06)-(01-02)	-0.59	-0.02	0.55
(03-06)-(07-09)	-0.06	0.43	0.91
(07-09)-(10-26)	-1.28	-0.78	-0.28*
(07-09)-(01-02)	-1.06	-0.45	0.16
(07-09)-(03-06)	-0.91	-0.43	0.06

*Statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant relationship between the level of administrative position of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

This hypothesis was rejected. An analysis of ANOVA data showed that a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level existed in the overall satisfaction classification for level of administrative position. The F-ratio for the differences between the means in overall satisfaction was 3.93 which was statistically significant at 0.01. These data are presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for the Level of Administrative Position and Overall Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Overall Scale					
Level	3	6.71	2.40	3.93	0.01*
Error	114	64.94	0.57		
Total	117	71.65			

*Statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

The ANOVA using the extrinsic scale for job satisfaction also resulted in an F-ratio for the differences between the means in extrinsic satisfaction of 4.54 which was statistically significant at 0.01. This exceeds the alpha level of 0.05 that was established to measure significance. These data are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for the Level of Administrative Position and Extrinsic Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Extrinsic Scale					
Level	3	13.81	4.60	4.54	0.01*
Error	114	115.17	1.00		
Total	117	129.34			

*Statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

The postiminary application of Duncan's Multiple Range Test, shown in Table 20, implies a significant difference between the means in the the category representing executive directors, and in the categories representing assistant executive directors, division directors and program directors. In both extrinsic and overall classifications of satisfaction, executive directors expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of assistant executive directors, division directors and program directors.

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Table 20

**Duncan's Multiple Range Test Findings for Level of
Administrative Position and Extrinsic and Overall Levels of
Job Satisfaction**

Duncan's Grouping*		Mean	N	Level of Position
Extrinsic Scale				
	A	5.07	7	Ex. Director
B	A	4.44	21	Asst. Ex. Director
	B	3.74	36	Division Director
	B	4.14	54	Program Director
Overall Scale				
	A	5.30	7	Ex. Director
	B	4.71	21	Asst. Ex. Director
	B	4.32	36	Division Director
	B	4.46	54	Program Director

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant relationship between the educational level of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

The results of the analyses confirmed the acceptance of this hypothesis. The ANOVA represented in Table 21 for intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction revealed no statistical significance at the 0.05 alpha level established as the criterion.

Table 21

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for Educational Level and
Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Intrinsic Scale					
Ed. Level	3	4.33	1.44	2.61	0.06ns
Error	113	62.58	0.55		
Total	116	66.91			
Extrinsic Scale					
Ed. Level	3	4.35	1.45	1.33	0.27ns
Error	113	115.17	1.00		
Total	116	129.34			
Overall Scale					
Ed. Level	3	4.20	1.40	2.40	0.07ns
Error	113	62.91	0.58		
Total	116	70.11			

ns: Not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Hypothesis 5: There will be no significant relationship between personality types of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

This hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 22 no statistical significance was revealed through the use of the ANOVA. Subesquent use of the Duncan's Multiple Range Test shown in Table 23 also revealed no statistical significance between personality types of affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

Table 22

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for Personality Type and Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Intrinsic Scale					
Personality	3	0.80	0.27	0.45	0.72ns
Error	114	67.33	0.59		
Total	117	68.13			
Extrinsic Scale					
Personality	3	0.35	0.12	0.10	0.96ns
Error	114	129.00	1.13		
Total	117	129.34			
Overall Scale					
Personality	3	0.24	0.08	0.13	0.94ns
Error	114	71.41	0.63		
Total	117	71.65			

ns: Not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Table 23

Duncan's Multiple Range Test Findings for Personality Type and Level of Job Satisfaction

Duncan's Grouping*	Mean	N	Personality
Intrinsic Scale			
A	5.01	34	NT
A	4.91	29	NF
A	4.86	27	ST
A	4.79	28	SF
Extrinsic Scale			
A	4.22	27	ST
A	4.11	34	NT
A	4.10	28	SF
A	4.08	29	NF
Overall Scale			
A	4.56	34	NT
A	4.54	27	ST
A	4.50	29	NF
A	4.45	28	SF

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Figure 1

<u>Percentage Distribution by Personality Type</u>
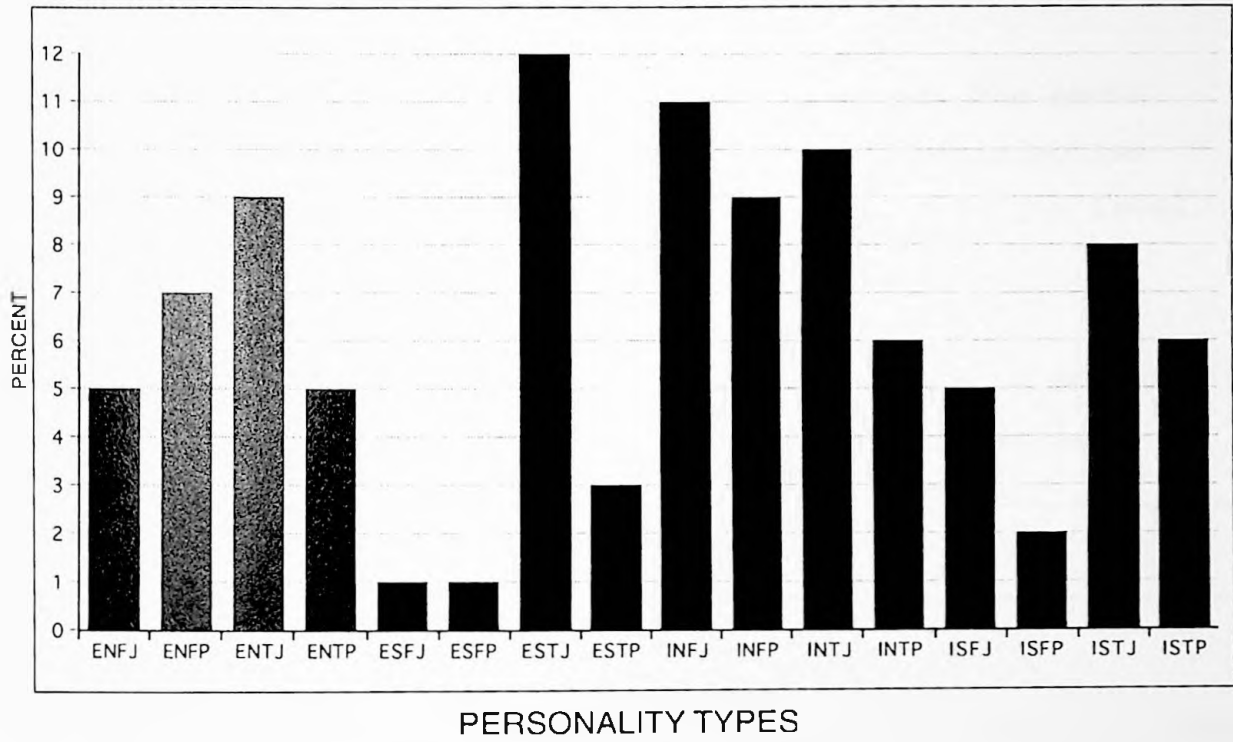
Hypothesis 6: There will be a significant relationship between the total number of years of experience in administration of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis six was tested and was rejected. The ANOVA analysis depicted in Table 24 for overall job satisfaction revealed no statistical significance at the 0.05 alpha level.

Table 24

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for Total Years of Administrative Experience and Overall Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Overall Scale					
Years of Exp.	3	4.22	1.41	2.38	0.07ns
Error	114	67.43	0.59		
Total	117	71.65			

ns: Not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

The ANOVA using the extrinsic scale also did not reveal a statisitcal significance at the 0.05 alpha level which was established to measure significance. Table 25 contain these data.

Table 25

Analysis of Variance Summary Data for Total Years of Adminis-
trative Experience and Extrinsic Level of Job Satisfaction

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p>F
Extrinsic Scale					
Years of Exp.	3	7.00	2.33	2.18	0.09ns
Error	114	122.34	1.07		
Total	117	129.34			

ns: Not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level.

Summary

One hundred twenty-one female administrators employed at
the NEA and its affiliates participated in this study to exam-
ine the relationship between age, tenure of employment, level
of adminsitrative position, educational level, and personality
type and the degree of self-expressed job satisfaction. This
investigation was accomplished through survey research proce-
dures utilizing one instrument to collect demographic data,
one instrument to identify personality type, and one instru-
ment to measure job satisfaction.

The Survey of National Education Association Affiliate
Female Adminsitrators was designed to collect certain demo-
graphic information as indicated in the hypotheses of the
study. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G was used to
identify personality type which was then broken into four

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categories, NF, NT, SF, and ST. Job satisfaction was measured by the <u>Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales</u>. The instrument is divided into two sections of four items each. One scale measures intrinsic job satisfaction while the other measures extrinsic job satisfaction.

Frequency distributions were employed to organize and examine data. Data were then analyzed at the 0.05 alpha level of significance using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test the hypotheses. When appropriate, Duncan's Multiple Range Test and the Tukey Studentized Range Test were utilized to further investigate significance between means. No statistically significant relationships were discovered in job satisfaction between age, educational level, personality types, and number of years of administrative experience. Analyses did result in the discovery of statistically significant relationships in job satisfaction between years of experience in current adminsitrative position and level of administrative position. The results of the six hypotheses are given as major findings.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter contains the summary of purpose, conclusions, and recommendations of the study. The chapter is divided into the following seven sections: (a) summary of purpose, (b) summary of procedures, (c) summary of descriptive data, (d) summary of findings, (e) conclusions, recommendations, and (h) implications.

Summary of Purpose

This study was designed to examine the relationship between age, tenure of employment, level of administrative position, educational level, and personality type and the degree of self-expressed job satisfaction among female administrators in the National Education Association (NEA) and affiliate organizations. Personality type was determined by scores on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G (1977). Demographic information was collected using the Survey of National Education Association Affiliate Female Administrators, which was adapted from surveys previously conducted by Mauter (1980), Hawthorne (1985), Hutchens (1990), and Hardman (1996). Job satisfaction was determined from scores on the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan, & Zaltman, 1977). The following hypotheses formed the parameters for this study:

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1. There will be a significant relationship between the age of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

2. There will be a significant relationship between the number of years of experience in the current administrative position of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

3. There will be no significant relationship between the level of administrative position of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

4. There will be no significant relationship between the education level of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

5. There will be no significant relationship between personality types of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

6. There will be a significant relationship between the total number of years of experience in administration of female National Education Association and affiliate administrators and their degree of job satisfaction.

No statistically significant relationships were discovered in four of the hypotheses between job satisfaction and age, educational level, personality type, and number of years of administrative experience. Analyses did result in the discovery of statistically significant relationships in two of the hypotheses between job satisfaction and years of

experience in current administrative position and level of administrative position.

Summary of Procedures

The total population of female administrators employed at the National Education Association and its affiliates (N=181) as identified by the National Education Association in August 1997 were surveyed for the purpose of this study. The study utilized self-reported questionnaire survey procedures to gather data. A demographic questionnaire, a personality instrument and a job satisfaction instrument were mailed to each participant.

The demographic questionnaire, the Survey of National Education Association Affiliate Female Administrators, was comprised of seven items designed to collect demographic responses (Appendix A). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G (1977) was used to determine personality type through forced choices for 94 items. The Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (Appendix B) requested the participant to respond to eight items on a six point Likert-type scale to measure job satisfaction on separate intrinsic and extrinsic scales.

Survey instruments were mailed in a packet including a cover letter (Appendix C) and a self-addressed stamped envelope. Packets were sent to participants at their professional addresses. Another set of questionnaires were sent within one week from the original request deadline. Four weeks after the initial mailing, reminder postcards (Appendix D) were sent to participants. Additional personal contacts were made to encourage participation. Overall, 121 responses were received

which were usable. This resulted in a return rate of 67% which exceeded the 50% plus requirement for validation (Kerlinger, 1986).

Data generated by the surveys were assigned codes, transferred to a computer file, verified for processing, and statistically analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer software program. An alpha level of 0.05 was established as the criterion to determine significance of the statistical analyses.

Summary of Descriptive Data

Demographic data relative to the hypotheses of the study that were collected from the subjects included the following items: (a) position title, (b) where employed, (c) number of years in administration, (d) number of years in current administrative position, (e) number of years employed at the NEA and its affiliates, (f) educational level, (g) age, and (h) the personality type of the administrator. These questions were selected to provide a general profile of each respondent in accordance with demographics identified by previous researchers as relative to job satisfaction (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1984; Gruneberg, 1979).

Of the 121 respondents, eight (7%) classified themselves as executive directors, 22 (18%) as assistant executive directors, 54 (45%) as division directors, and 37 (30%) as program directors. No respondents identified themselves as legal counsels. Nineteen (16%) of the respondents indicated that they were employed at NEA Headquarters, 6 (5%) reported they were employed at NEA regional offices, and 96 (79%) were employed at NEA affiliates.

When identifying the number of years they had been profes-
sionally involved in administration, 28 (23%) of the respon-
dents indicated six or less years, 34 (28%) had served between
7 and 10 years, 28 (23%) had served between 11 and 16 years,
and 31 (26%) had served between 17 and 30 years. Specifying the
number of years they had been employed in administration at the
NEA, 28 (23%) of the participants had been employed between 1
and 8 years, 32 (27%) had been employed between 9 and 13
years, 28 (23%) had been employed between 14 and 19 years, and
33 (27%) had been employed between 20 and 30 years. Further
clarifying their experience, participants identified the number
of years they had served in their current position. Thirty-four
(28%) had been in their current position less than 4 years, 26
(22%) had served between 4 and 6 years, 35 (29%) had served
between 7 and 10 years, and 26 (21%) had served between 11 and
26 years.

Concerning their level of educational preparation, four
(3%) held a high school diploma, 48 (40%) had a Bachelor's de-
gree, 60 (50%) had a Master's degree, and 8 (7%) had achieved a
doctorate. Of the 121 respondents, 30 (25%) reported ages be-
tween 31 and 45 years, 29 (24%) reported ages between 46 and 49
years, 29 (24%) reported ages between 50 and 52, and 33 (27%)
reported ages between 53 and 64 years.

Responses on the Myers-Briggs-Type Indicator-Form G (1977)
were consolidated into four categories from the initial 16 per-
sonality types according to the dimensions of Sensing/Intuition
and Thinking/Feeling. Using this representation of the person-
ality types, 39 (32%) of the respondents were considered Intui-
tive-Feeling (NF). Individuals in this category tend to be

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enthusiastic and insightful. They prefer intuition to sensing for purposes of perception, and possess personal warmth, tending to rely on feeling for purposes of judgment. Usually they communicate well with others in both the spoken and written word. These individuals focus their attention on possibilities (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Thirty-six of the respondents (30%) were rated as Intuitive-Thinking (NT) individuals. These individuals also tend to be logical and ingenious. They prefer intuition to sensing for purposes of perception and tend to rely on thinking for purposes of judgment. Individuals in this category handle situations with impersonal analysis, tending to pursue possibilities in a technical and theoretical manner (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Sensing-Feeling (SF) scores were attained by 10 (8%) of the respondents. People with this qualification rely on sensing purposes of perception but prefer feeling purposes for judgment. They focus their attention on facts, handling these with personal warmth and subjectivity. These individuals are also sympathetic and friendly, offering practical help and services to others (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Thirty-six of the respondents (30%) fell into the Sensing-Thinking (ST) category. Like (SF) people, these individuals rely on sensing for purposes of perception and thinking for purposes of judgment. They tend to be practical and logical, solving problems through the use of technical skills and facts (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Data were collected from the participants concerning the degree to which they experience satisfaction in their job using the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales. Job

satisfaction was considered in three categories, with responses tallied for intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and overall satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction, usually related to feelings of accomplishment and self-worth, was expressed by 110 (93%) of the respondents. Extrinsic satisfaction, typically a product of relationships on the job, was expressed by 83 (70%) of the respondents. Overall satisfaction was expressed by 103 (87%) of the respondents.

Summary of Findings

An analysis of the data collected in this study indicated several findings. The analyses revealed no statistically significant differences between the categories of age as related to job satisfaction considering intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and overall satisfaction. Similarly, no statistically significant differences were found in the three categories of job satisfaction when considering the total number of years of administrative experience of the administrator. No statistical significance was found to exist in regard to intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction and the personality type of the respondent. Likewise, no statistical significance was found to exist in regard to educational level.

When examining job satisfaction with relation to the number of years administrators had served in their current position, however, statistically significant differences were found in the three categories of job satisfaction. In each of the classifications of job satisfaction, the administrator with 10 to 26 years in her current position expressed a higher

level of satisfaction than that of the administrator with 7 to 9 years of experience in her current position.

Statistical significance was found in the relationship between job satisfaction and level of administrative position. In each of the three classifications of satisfaction, executive directors expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of assistant executive directors, division directors, and program directors.

Conclusions

The findings generated by the analyses of data in this study resulted in the following conclusions:

It may be concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between the three categories of job satisfaction and the number of years administrators had served in their current position. In intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction, the administrator who had served the most years in her current position expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of the administrator fewer years of experience in her current position. Specifically, the administrator with 10 to 26 years in her current position expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of the administrator with 7 to 9 years of experience in her current position. This conclusion substantiates prior research in the literature (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Herzberg, 1959; Hopkins, 1982; Morrow & McElroy, 1987).

It may be concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and level of administrative position. In each of the three categories of satisfaction, executive directors expressed a higher level of

satisfaction than that of assistant executive directors, division directors, and program directors. This conclusion supports previous assertions in the literature that upper levels of administration in an organization have higher levels of job satisfaction (Cox & Harquail, 1991; James & Jones, 1980; Leigh & Futrell, 1985; Olson & Frieze, 1987; Porter & Lawler, 1968).

It may be concluded that there is no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the demographic characteristic of age. While the literature supplies support for a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction, the data collected in this study did not concur with previous assertions (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Chronister & Baldwin, 1996; Chruden & Sherman, 1980; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1984; Gruneberg, 1979; Herzberg, et al., 1959; Hopkins, 1988; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Katzell & Yankelovich, 1975; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991; Martin & Shehan, 1989; Myers, 1982; Rhodes, 1983; Saleh & Otis, 1964; Schonwetter, Bond & Perry, 1993; Schott, 1986; Shaw, 1986; Weaver, 1980).

It may be concluded that there is no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and educational level. Although previous studies demonstrate support for a significant relationship between job satisfaction and educational level (Bistocchi, 1986; Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1980; Herzberg, 1966; Hopkins, 1983; Klein & Maher, 1966; Schonwetter, et al., 1993; Weaver, 1980; Strivastva, Salipante, Cummings, Notz, Bigelow, & Waters, 1977), the data collected in this study did not support previous findings in the literature.

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It may be concluded that there is no statistically sig-
nificant relationship between job satisfaction and number of
years of administrative experience. The literature supplies
support for a relationship between job satisfaction and years
of administrative experience (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Bruce &
Blackburn, 1992; Chronister & Baldwin, 1996; Gould & Hawkins,
1978; Gruneberg, 1979; Herzberg, 1959; Hopkins, 1982; Hulin &
Smith, 1965; Kilpatrick, Cummings & Jennings, 1964; Morrow &
McElroy, 1987; Mount, 1984; Saleh & Otis, 1964; Schotte, 1986;
Waters, Roach & Waters, 1976). The data collected in this
study did not concur with earlier findings in the literature.

The literature also supplies support for a relationship
between job satisfaction and personality (Argyris, 1957, 1971;
Chruden & Sherman, 1980; Friesen & Williams, 1981; O'Reilly &
Roberts, 1975; Organ & Bateman, 1986; Roethlisberger &
Dickson, 1966; Siegel & Lane, 1987; Vroom, 1960, 1964). The
findings in this study of the analysis of the relationship
between job satisfaction and personality did not support pre-
vious asssertions in the literature.

Recommendations

An analysis of the data generated as a result of this
study has formed the basis for the following recommendations:

1. It is recommended that replication of this research be
conducted within other education unions. This approach will
provide for broader generalizing.

2. It is recommended that further studies of job satis-
faction among female administrators in education unions be
conducted using other survey instruments for purposes of

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comparison. A limitation of this study lies in its use of only the MCMJSS. Other instruments, for example, locus of control, could validate or refute the findings of this study.

3. It is recommended that a future study be conducted utilizing an interview approach to help determine the reasons why NEA female executive directors are more satisfied with their work than other NEA and affiliate female administrators.

4. It is recommended that future studies be conducted utilizing an interview approach to help determine the reasons for satisfaction among female administrators in other education unions.

5. It is recommended that future studies be conducted to help determine why the percentage of female administrators in education unions is smaller than the number of females they represent in the national membership population.

6. It is recommended that the results of this study be made available to organizations of female administrators. Such organizations, aware of these results, could further develop mentoring programs.

Implications

Although there have been a number of studies of men in education administration, understanding of the nature and scope of women's participation in education administration, especially in education unions, is still far from complete. Much of the literature relative to education administration has focused on men once they have attained a leadership position. While there have been a number of studies which have dealt with the under representation of women in leadership

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roles (Fauth, 1984; Lange, 1983; Marshall, 1984; Schmidt, 1992), the amount of literature which examines the nature and scope of women's participation in education union administration is quite small. Similarly, there are few, if any, studies that examine job satisfaction experienced by women once they have attained an administrative position within an education union.

Researchers have indicated that demographic characteristics are strong predictors of who among females will become leaders (Frasher & Frasher, 1979; Helgesen, 1990; Hutchens, 1990; Mauter, 1980; Morrison, et al., 1987; Porat, 1991). While the job satisfaction literature identifies a significant relationship between certain demographic characteristics and intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction (Bowditch & Buono, 1982; Chruden & Sherman, 1980; Herzberg, 1959; Hopkins, 1982; Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Siegel & Lane, 1987), this study indicated very little support for previous findings. One indication of significance related intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction to the number of years the administrator had served in her current position. Another showed a significant relationship between the level of administrative position and extrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

Morrow & McElroy (1987) found that job satisfaction increased with the number of years the employee has been in a particular job. This study's findings indicated that there is a statistically significant relationship between the three categories of job satisfaction and the number of years administrators had served in their current position. In intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction, the administrator who

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had served the most years in her current position expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of the administrator with fewer years of experience in her current position.

Olson and Frieze (1987) reported that job satisfaction increased with attainments of higher level administrative and management positions. Findings from this study indicated that in each of the three categories of satisfaction, executive directors expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of assistant executive directors, division directors, and program directors.

This study made it clear that female administrators employed as executive directors who have served in their current position between 10 to 26 years expressed a higher level of job satisfaction than any other female administrator employed at the NEA. These individuals obviously have higher levels of personal control and fewer levels of superiors to whom they are accountable as compared to assistant executive directors, division directors, and program directors. Therefore, it is logical that level of administrative position is indicative of job satisfication, so that those in higher administrative positions such as executive directors, tend to serve in one position for greater amounts of time.

Given the foregoing, it is reasonable that graduate departments of educational administration use the data in this study to encourage aspiring and practicing female administrators who desire to join the ranks of union administrators to become executive directors. In turn, those female administrators already employed at NEA can use this information to help them decide if they should aspire to become executive directors.

The results of this study could also help education
unions with strategic planning efforts to enhance the job sat-
isfaction of their female administrators who are not executive
directors. Education unions could use the data generated as
additional insight into the determinants of job satisfaction
as they apply to level of position of female administrators.
Recognizing the relationship between level of administrative
position and job satisfaction, education unions should insti-
tute mentoring programs to augment the informal support struc-
ture between those female administrators who are already em-
ployed as executive directors and those who aspire to reach
the executive level.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

<u>SURVEY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND</u>
<u>AFFILIATE FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS</u>

SURVEY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

AND AFFILIATE FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS

DIRECTIONS

The following items have been designed to keep response time to a minimum and to facilitate adequate data analysis. All information will be kept confidential. If accurate data are unknown, please give approximations which, in your judgment, represent an appropriate response.

1. Present position title (Check one):
    _____Executive Director
    _____Assistant or Associate Executive Director
    _____Division Director or Manager
    _____Program Director or Manager
    _____Legal Counsel

2. Where employed (Check one):
    _____NEA Headquarters
    _____NEA Regional Office
    _____NEA Affiliate

3. Number of years in administration:_____

4. Number of years in current position:_____

5. Total number of years at NEA Headquarters, NEA Regional Office and/or NEA affiliate:_____

6. Highest educational level completed (check one):
    _____High School
    _____Bachelor's degree
    _____Master's degree
    _____Doctorate

7. Your age:_____

APPENDIX B

MOHRMAN-COOKE-MOHRMAN JOB SATISFACTION SCALES

Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales*

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with various facets of your job by circling a number on the six-point scale after each of the statements.

Intrinsic Satisfaction	Low					High

1. The feeling of self-esteem or self respect you get from being in your job.   1   2   3   4   5   6

2. The opportunity for personal growth and development in your job.   1   2   3   4   5   6

3. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job.   1   2   3   4   5   6

4. Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job.   1   2   3   4   5   6

Extrinsic Satisfaction	Low					High

5. The amount of respect and fair treatment you receive from your superiors.   1   2   3   4   5   6

6. The feeling of being informed in your job. 1   2   3   4   5   6

7. The amount of supervision you receive.   1   2   3   4   5   6

8. The opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures, and goals.   1   2   3   4   5   6

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*Developed by Allan M. Mohrman, Jr., Robert A. Cooke, and Susan Albers Mohrman

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APPENDIX C

<u>**COVER LETTER**</u>

September 1, 1997

Dear colleague,

You have been selected to participate in a research study of female managers, female executive directors, and female assistant executive directors employed by the National Education Association and its affiliates. The intent of this study is to determine the relationship between various personal characteristics and job satisfaction at specific levels of administration. I am conducting this study as part of my Doctoral program in Education Administration at West Virginia University.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to respond to any part of the study. Your responses will remain anonymous and neither you nor your employer will be identified in any subsequent reports.

Please complete the enclosed demographic survey, the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale, and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Just return the green survey sheet and the back page of the Myers-Briggs score sheet in the enclosed, pre-addressed, stamped envelope at your earliest convenience.

As a staff member of an NEA affiliate, I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your participation. Your willingness and sincerity to respond to this survey are much appreciated.

Once again, thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jackie Goodwin

Jackie Goodwin

Encs.

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APPENDIX D

<u>REMINDER POSTCARD</u>

September 24, 1997

Dear Colleague,

Several weeks ago, you received a request for information as a part of my doctoral research.

I would like to graduate in December and need the information to finish my dissertation. If you have already returned the survey instruments, many , many thanks! I cannot express my gratitude for your assistance with this endeavor.

If you have not yet found the time to return the three surveys, I would greatly appreciate your help. I know this is a busy time. . .thank you for taking the time to assist me.

If you have questions or need an additional copy of the materials, please feel free to contact me at WVEA Headquarters: (304)-346-5315, ext. 116 or at my home address: 600 Hillcrest Dr., Ravenswood, WV 26164. You may also contact me at my home: (304) 273-5450.

Thanks for your help and support!

Jackie Goodwin

ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND ITS AFFILIATES

By

Jacqueline G. Goodwin

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between age, tenure of employment, level of administrative position, educational level, and personality type and the degree of self-expressed job satisfaction among female administrators in the National Education Association (NEA) and affiliate organizations. The total population of 181 female administrators employed at the National Education Association and its affiliates were surveyed.

Each participant was mailed a survey packet containing a cover letter, a demographics sheet, and two questionnaires. Personality type was determined by scores on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Form G (1977). Demographic information was collected using the Survey of National Education Association Affiliate Female Administrators, which was adapted from surveys previously conducted by Mauter (1980), Hawthorne (1985), Hutchens (1990), and Hardman (1996). Job satisfaction was determined from scores on the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan, & Zaltman, 1977). The total return rate was 121 responses (67%).

Data generated by the surveys were assigned codes, transferred to a computer file, verified for processing, and statistically analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer software program. Analyses of Variances were

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utilized to test the hypotheses. An alpha level of 0.05 was established as the criterion to determine significance.

An analysis of the data collected in this study indicated several findings. The analyses revealed no statistically significant differences between the categories of age as related to job satisfaction considering intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and overall satisfaction. Similarly, no statistically significant differences were found in the three categories of job satisfaction when considering the total number of years of administrative experience of the administrator. No statistical significance was found to exist in regard to intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction and the personality type of the respondent. Likewise, no statistical significance was found to exist in regard to educational level.

When examining job satisfaction with relation to the number of years administrators had served in their current position, however, statistically significant differences were found in the three categories of job satisfaction. In each of the classifications of job satisfaction, the administrator with 10 to 26 years in her current position expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of the administrator with 7 to 9 years of experience in her current position.

Statistical significance was found in the relationship between job satisfaction and level of administrative position. In each of the three classifications of satisfaction, executive directors expressed a higher level of satisfaction than that of assistant executive directors, division directors, and program directors.

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A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND ITS AFFILIATES
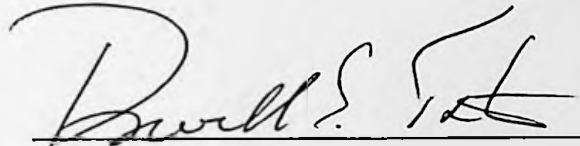
By

Jacqueline G. Goodwin

DISSERTATION

Submitted to
West Virginia University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
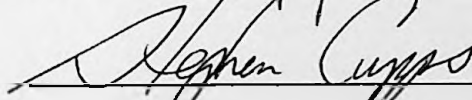for the degree of
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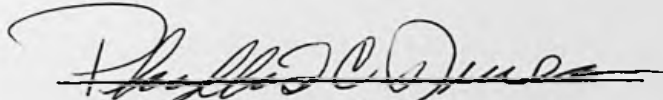
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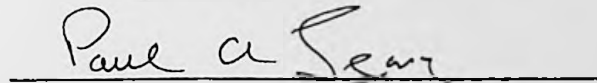
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Jack E. Yeager, Ed.D.

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Stephen D. Cupps, Ph.D.

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Phyllis C. Durden, Ed.D.

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Date

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Paul A. Leary, Ed.D., Chair

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