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Factors Which Affect Satisfaction And Dissatisfaction Of Teachers In Rural Schools (Nevada; Arizona; Utah)

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FACTORS WHICH AFFECT SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION OF TEACHERS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

By

Tommy R. Leavitt

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

in

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Approval Sheet

The dissertation of Tommy R. Leavitt for the degree of Doctor of Education is approved.

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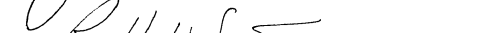

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Abstract

Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers in Rural Schools

Tommy R. Leavitt

Sergiovanni, replicating a design developed and used by Herzberg, found that teaching had its own unique set of job satisfiers and dissatisfiers. This study investigated teachers in rural schools for congruency with the job satisfiers and dissatisfiers identified by Sergiovanni.

It was hypothesized that when rural school teachers responded to the Sergiovanni factors, there was no significant difference between the proportion of times a given factor was reported as a satisfier and the proportion of times the same factor was reported as a dissatisfier.

It was also hypothesized that based on the frequency of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction incidents, teachers in rural schools were no more satisfied nor dissatisfied than teachers in general.

This study (replicating the Sergiovanni Study) used the interview method to investigate factors, attitudes, and effects of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of teachers in rural schools. Sixty-six

schools with a teaching staff ranging from one to thirty teachers, selected from sixteen school districts in Nevada, Utah, and Northwestern Arizona, were used to identify a sample of 60 teachers from a 750 teacher population. Statistical analyses were made to determine if significant correlation existed between the research data and job satisfiers or job dissatisfiers as identified by Sergiovanni.

The investigation supported the reliability of the Herzberg method in that the results were in general agreement with Herzberg's study. The Sergiovanni study concluded that some satisfaction factors identified by Herzberg were not applicable to teachers. This study identified not only the same non-applicable factors, but additional factors not applicable to teachers in rural schools.

It was concluded that as long as a teacher experienced personal success, and was recognized for the success, he/she derived satisfaction from work. It was also concluded that the interpersonal relationship with students allowed for such feelings of personal success. Interpersonal relationship with students remained as a low attitude factor but tended to indicate a strong possibility of being a 'swing' factor, showing a tendency to be bi-polar.

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INTRODUCTION

A good deal has been said about education's tarnished image and the public's lack of satisfaction with schools. Educators counter with reports of a rising incidence of teacher "burnout", the classroom equivalent of shell-shock; beset by administrative busywork, and a perceptible lack of spirit in the classroom. Literature tells us there was much job dissatisfaction among teachers.

In his annual review of job satisfaction research, Robinson (1963, p. 361) noted that education continues to be the area of concentration for job satisfaction studies. He stated that over forty percent of the educational studies reviewed related to teachers and their job satisfaction or morale. Job satisfaction has attracted the interest of social scientists for several decades. Since Hoppeck's (1935) early study of job satisfaction approximately 3,300 similar studies have been conducted (Locke, 1976).

Studies related to teacher "burnout", teacher motivation, teacher attitudes, teacher morale, and teacher job satisfaction or dissatisfaction are in great abundance. A computer search for studies listed under these descriptors identified an excess of 70,000 studies since 1966. It may be that, in some manner, all of these descriptors related to job satisfaction/ dissatisfaction.

II. PURPOSE OF THE PROJECT

Frederick Herzberg (1966) developed a theory which stipulated that people at work had two distinct sets of needs. One set of needs was best met by hygienic factors. In exchange for these factors, one was prepared to make the participatory investment--to give a fair day's work. If hygienic factors were neglected, dissatisfaction occurred, and one's performance on the job decreased to a level below the acceptable. Another set of needs was best met by the motivational factors which were not automatically part of the job but which could be built into most jobs. In return for the motivational factors, one was prepared to make the performance investment to exceed the limits of the traditional legal work relationship. However, if the motivational factors were neglected, one did not exceed

what was typically described as a fair day's work for a fair day's pay.

Thomas Sergiovanni (1967) replicated Herzberg's study with teachers. He postulated that:

1. When teachers respond to the Herzberg factors, there is no significant difference between the proportion of times a given factor is reported as a satisfier and the proportion of times the same factor is reported as a dissatisfier.

2. There is no significant difference between sub-groups of teachers in the proportion of times each factor is reported as a dissatisfier. (Sub-groups include: male teachers v. female teachers, tenure teacher v. non-tenure teachers, and elementary school teachers v. secondary school teachers.)

The hypothesis related to, no difference in the proportion of times teachers reported a given factor as a satisfier and, the same factor as a dissatisfier was rejected for eight out of sixteen first-level factors, and for three out of twelve second-level factors.

The hypothesis related to no difference in responses of sub-groups of teachers for the proportion of times each factor was reported as a dissatisfier was accepted with few exceptions.

The study concluded that some factors, reported by teachers as contributing to their job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, were polar in a positive direction and other factors were polar in a negative direction. The polarity of factors was generally consistent with the findings of Herzberg in that satisfaction factors

were related to the work itself and dissatisfaction factors were related to the environment of work.

In 1979 there were 2.2 million teachers in U.S. public schools (Divoky, 1979, p. 115), half of them in small towns or rural areas, the other half divided about equally between suburb and city. A review of educational research to May, 1980 by the New Mexico Research and Study Council (1980) identified 220 books, monographs, and articles pertained to small schools and small school districts. Eight of the bibliographies addressed a relationship of teachers with the rural school environment. No direct studies of the relationship of teacher job satisfaction/ dissatisfaction and rural schools were found. According to Haughey and Murphy (1984) a review of professional literature on job satisfaction revealed that rural teachers in Canadian provinces had similarly not been provided with opportunities to discuss their conditions of employment.

Although there were a great many studies relating to teacher "burnout", motivation, attitudes, morale, and job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in other-than rural school settings, none had attempted to follow Herzberg's method since Sergiovanni replicated it twenty years ago. A deficiency in job satisfaction research in education was noted by Robinson as follows:

Almost fifty percent of the (educational) studies focused on the construction and/or administration of questionnaire-type inventories and surveys. No interview studies were reported even though Herzberg "frowns" upon questionnaires and suggested depth interviews as the best approach. (1964, p. 361)

Sergiovanni's over-all study design followed, with some additions and modifications, the design developed and used by Herzberg. The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers of rural schools as related to job satisfactions and job dissatisfactions identified by Sergiovanni, and determine if they experienced less dissatisfaction and more satisfaction from their jobs than their peers in the overall teaching profession.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teachers in rural schools, like teachers anywhere, occasionally become dissatisfied with their teaching career. The few investigations which had studied rural teachers had shown them to be the most mobile group in the teaching profession. A number of factors had been identified as contributors to the high mobility of rural teachers. The principal ones, according to Cross, Bandy and Gleadow (1980), were lack of privacy and geographic isolation. However, no empirical evidence existed regarding the items of a

rural teacher's work life which caused his/her dissatisfaction. Sergiovanni (1967) found that teaching had its own unique set of job satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Do the factors reported by rural school teachers distribute themselves into mutually exclusive satisfaction and dissatisfaction categories? If the satisfaction/ dissatisfaction phenomenon existed for rural school teachers, were the factors resulting in satisfaction concerned with the work itself, and were the factors resulting in dissatisfaction be concerned with the environment of work?

Emerging from the problem were the following questions:

1. Was there one set of factors which tended to satisfy teachers and another set of factors which tended to dissatisfy teachers? Or, were there factors better described as arranged on a continuum with each as a potential satisfier and/or dissatisfier?

2. Did teachers of small rural schools tend to enjoy a higher frequency of job satisfaction incidents and a lower frequency of job dissatisfaction incidents than teachers in general?

It was hypothesized that when rural school teachers responded to the Sergiovanni factors, there was no significant difference between the proportion of times a given factor was reported as a satisfier and the

proportion of times the same factor was reported as a dissatisfier.

It was also hypothesized that based on the frequency of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction incidents, teachers in rural schools were no more satisfied nor dissatisfied than teachers in general.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROJECT

Samuel Halperin, in a report of the Council of Chief School Officers' 10th Annual Summer Institute, addressed the subject of how the U.S. elementary and secondary educational system can best be improved, states:

> A brief comment on the relevance of this shortage of young persons for improving the quality of education with vigorous competition from the private sector for the most talented of tomorrow's young workers, education and the public sector generally will be staffed mostly with the "leftovers". Any chance to improve educational standards must rest primarily with retaining and improving our aging teaching and administrative staffs. Waiting for "fresh blood" to do the job seems statistically and logically unwarranted. It will take extra-ordinary incentives, not now in existance, to get America's best young talent to enter the field of education in the face of far better offers elsewhere. (Halperin, 1981, p. 79)

According to Diane Divoky(1979) Americans continued to rate teachers highly in public opinion polls--and in the voting booth: of the 55,000 teachers who ran for local office in 1978, eighty percent were elected. State and local education officials, however, were

burdened by imcompetent teachers who occasionally attracted considerable publicity--and were almost impossible to fire.

The loss of experienced teachers may have been more serious than the presence of bad ones. According to Divoky (1969), teachers' median age and number of "years in teaching" were declining, indicating a higher dropout rate. When the National Education Association asked its members in 1981 would they choose teaching as a career if they could do it all over again (Levitov and Wangberg, 1983), only 22 percent said they "certainly would", down from 52 percent a decade earlier. It was also reported by Levitov and Wangberg that NEA found that 36% of U.S. teachers would not choose teaching again as a career. In a survey of suburban schools, Saville (1981) reported that 58% of the teachers responding to his questionnaire had indicated they were considering a career change.

The majority of studies in job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of teachers appeared to provide only incidental differentiation between factors which tended to satisfy teachers and factors which tended to dissatisfy teachers. The basic assumption was that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were conceptualized on a continuum. If the Sergiovanni findings were acceptable for teachers, much of the research in job

satisfaction of teachers and much of the practice based on such research may have been of doubtful value. If the Sergiovanni findings were also acceptable for rural school teachers and if the study indicated that teachers in rural schools were more satisfied with their jobs than teachers in general, it may be concluded that small schools promoted job satisfiers that could help attract young effective teachers and help decrease the experienced teacher dropout rate.

V. ASSUMPTIONS

The factor and effect categories developed, defined, and used by Sergiovanni (1967) in his study were used for the purposes of this investigation. Inherent in their use was the assumption that the stories and incidents solicited from teachers did indeed fit the existing categories. This assumption appeared to be supported by existing studies on job attitudes of teachers, which produced empirical and a priori lists essentially similar to the Sergiovanni factors.

A further assumption was that teachers could place their feelings about their jobs on a continuum and report extremes of this continuum to the interviewer. It was also assumed that teachers would be able to

recall, without difficulty, most recent high and most recent low feelings.

VI. LIMITATIONS

The study was limited by the conscious self understandings of participants and the frankness with which they responded to the interview. Assured anonymity of respondents and calculated probing by the interviewer was used in an attempt to control this limitation.

Subjects were asked to identify extremes of feelings about their jobs and report the circumstances that accounted for these feelings. The limitation of this technique was whether factors reported were representative of the individual's general storage of feelings and factors. The introduction of most recent high feelings and most recent low feelings were added to Herzberg's design by Sergiovanni in an attempt to balance this limitation.

Delimitation

The study was concerned with the specification of attitude extremes. No attempt was made to discriminate finer than unusually high or unusually low feelings and most recent high and most recent low feelings.

VII. METHOD, PLAN, DESIGN OF RESEARCH

This study used the interview method to investigate factors, attitudes and effects of job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction of teacher in rural schools. Sixty-six schools with a teaching staff ranging from one to thirty teachers, selected from sixteen school districts in Nevada, Utah, and Northwestern Arizona, were used to identify a sample of 60 teachers from over a 750 teacher population. Statistical analyses were made to determine if significent correlation existed between the research data and job satisfiers or job dissatisfiers as identified by Sergiovanni.

VIII. DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purposes of the study, terms are defined as follows:

Sequence of events. One description or story as told by respondents. The sequence included factors, attitudes, and effects. "High sequence" refered to stories based on high respondent feelings. "Low sequence" refered to stories based on low respondent feelings.

Attitudes. The subject's expression of high feelings about his/her job or low feelings about his/her job constitute his/her attitudes.

First level factors. "An objective element of the situation in which the respondent finds a source for his/her good or bad (high or low) feelings about his/her job." (Herzberg, 1966, p. 44)

Second level factors. "These categorize the reasons given by respondents for their feelings; they were used as a basis for inferences about the drives or needs which were met or which failed to be met during the sequence of events." (Herzberg, 1966, p. 28)

Effects. The changes reported in respondents' behavior and respondents' work as a result of factors and attitudes reported in the sequence of events.

Satisfier. A factor which operates in a positive direction to alter an individual's job satisfaction. Absence of this positive factor tended not to result in dissatisfaction.

Dissatisfier. A factor which operates in a negative direction to alter an individual's job dissatisfaction. Absence of this negative factor tended not to result in satisfaction.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Since this study was essentially a replication of Sergiovanni's and an application of his method and findings to a population of teachers in rural schools, the point of departure was the Sergiovanni study. Presented in this chapter is a brief background for Sergiovanni's study, an abstract of the Herzberg study, upon which this research is based, and a review of related non-educational studies. This review served as a reference through which selected educational studies were examined.

BACKGROUND

According to Herzberg (1976, pp. 5-6) measurements of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction were usually approached in one of three ways. The first method, illustrated by Hoppock (1935) in his investigation of demographic variables, required the worker to express his/her feelings (job satisfaction) by answering direct questions regarding his/her attitude toward his job. The second method, illustrated by the Science Research Associates Employee Inventory (SRA, 1951), utilized scaled inventories or morale or attitude. In the third

method, observation of the behavior of workers was substituted for specific morale measures. From observation, the investigator infered attitudes, feelings, and motives. This approach was exemplified by the Hawthorne study (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1974) which essentially dealt with the observation of the effects of group pressures and supervisory practices on workers.

Herzberg also cited three common methods for determining the factors that affect job attitudes:

> An a priori list of factors can be presented to workers, who are then asked to rank or rate these factors as to desirability.
>
> Workers can be asked to indicate spontaneously what they like or dislike about their jobs.
>
> Multiple-item inventories or questionnaires may be administered. (Herzberg, 1976, p.7)

The Herzberg investigators chose to reject both scaled measures of attitudes and effects and observational techniques. Being cautious of the "Hawthorne effect", and fearing the fragmentary nature of scaled inventories, the investigators chose a course which attempted to investigate factors, attitudes, and effects simultaneously. It was felt the interview method would best fit those needs.

The inquiry into job attitudes included the interview questions, the method of analysis and the job factors into which the responses were coded.

According to Herzberg (1967), the rationale of the "sequence of events method" was to assure the investigator that a real attitude existed by studying the change in attitudes. Selecting periods of time when the respondent felt exceptionally good or bad suggested that he was feeling different from the way he had felt before. If he was feeling different, there was more likelihood that an attitude or feeling was being tapped. Focusing on specific events also gave greater assurance that the respondent was personally involved. In this way the investigator, by analyzing the nature of the events themselves, avoided much of the rationalizations and other "beclouders" of respondent explanations. These events were the basic information for the research. They were coded into factors that were essentially shorthand notations of what was going on during the period of these exceptional feelings.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

March and Simon (1958) suggested that job satisfaction influences an individual's decision to participate in a given organization, but does not affect very directly his/her decision to produce. In other words, factors that provided a level of happiness

(satisfaction) for a given individual do not necessarily motivate him/her to work harder.

Extensive reviews of the literature on job satisfaction by Brayfield and Crockett (1955, pp. 396-424), Herzberg et al.,(1957), and Robinson (1963), indicated rather clearly that job satisfaction itself did not necessarily induce increased production.

Collins (1963) maintains that no intrinsic relationship existed between satisfaction and productivity. He suggested that both may be a function of a third variable, such as ambition or level of aspiration. His research seemed to indicate that satisfaction and productivity were correlated only when caused by a third variable.

Lodahl (1964) made a rather clear distinction between job satisfaction and job motivation. He equated job satisfaction with the factors and conditions Herzberg identified as dissatisfiers. Both agree that job satisfaction was present when job dissatisfaction was eliminated. Lodahl, however, described job motivation as:

> Goal directed in character in that it refers to factors that pull people toward performing well in order to achieve self esteem, recognition, and enjoyment of work itself. (Lodahl, 1964, p. 487)

Lodahl preferred to label the Herzberg satisfiers as job motivators and the Herzberg dissatisfiers as job

Satisfiers. Despite the apparent confusion in wording, the basic intent and meaning of Herzberg and Lodahl were similar. The distinction between job satisfaction and job motivation as Herzberg saw it was as follows:

> Man tends to actualize himself in every area of life, and his job is one of the most important areas. The conditions that surround the doing of the job cannot give him this basic satisfaction, they do not have the potentiality. It is only from the performance of the task that the individual can get the rewards that will reinforce his aspirations. (Herzberg et al., 1957, p. 114)

Herzberg clearly equates the satisfiers identified in his study with job motivation:

> Since it is in the approach sense that the term motivation is commonly used, we designate the job factors as the motivators as opposed to the extra-job factors, which we have labeled the factors of hygiene.
> It should be understood that both kinds of factors meet the needs of the employee; but it is primarily the motivators that serve to bring about the kind of improvement that industry is seeking from its work force. (Herzberg et al., 1957, p. 114)

Much of the job satisfaction-job dissataisfaction research, particularly in education, had failed to consider the strong possibility that some factors were indeed motivators while other factors contributed little to job motivation. In commenting on motivational study techniques, Lodahl cited a basic research flaw: "studies of motivation of workers have largely been limited to sources of job satisfaction, which is a relatively shallow level in the motivational hierarchy." (Lodahl, 1964, p. 483)

An examination of Maslow's (1954) theory of human motivation served to place the Herzberg and Lodahl studies in perspective. Maslow proposed a theory of human motivation which was characterized by five basic needs. These are physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self actualization. The five basic needs were related to each other and were arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency. Essentially, the most prepotent need occupied, and to some extent monopolized, an individual's attention while less prepotent needs were minimized. When a need was fairly well satisfied the next prepotent need emerged and tended to dominate the individual's conscious life. Gratified needs, according to this theory, were not active motivators of behavior.

Porter (1962, p. 375), in adapting the Maslow hierarchy of needs for his research, has eliminated physiological needs from the list. Presumably, the rationale for this was simply that in our society this category lacks the prepotency to motivate behavior for most people.

The assumption that lower order needs were well met and seldom motivated behavior appeared to be supported by the research of Herzberg (1957), Lodahl (1964), and Anderson (1961). Essentially, the lower order needs and perhaps even social needs approached the job

satisfaction concept, while the higher order needs approached the job motivation concept.

In attempting to summarize the studies of job satisfaction, Locke (1976) identified three different schools of thought: (a)the physical-economic school; (b)the human relations school; and (c)the work itself school.

Advocates of the physical-economic school accentuated physical arrangement of work, physical conditions of work, and renumeration as potent factors affecting an individual's job satisfaction. Adherents of the human relations school emphasized supervisory practices, co-worker relations and employee-management relations as the important variables affecting job satisfaction. Supporters of the work itself school stressed the attainment of job satisfaction through growth in skill, efficacy, and responsibility by mentally challenging work. Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction was an outgrowth of the work itself school.

STUDIES IN EDUCATION

Research on job attitudes in education had tended not to differentiate between factors which satisfy teachers and factors which dissatisfy teachers. The terms satisfaction and dissatisfaction indeed were used

but were conceptualized on a continuum. The basic assumption of this premise was that if a dissatisfier was identified, providing for the elimination of the dissatisfier will result in teacher satisfaction. Or, if a satisfier was identified, failure to maintain the satisfaction condition would result in dissatisfaction.

The Thorndike and Hagen study (1960) was a major example of the "continuum" assumption in studying job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in education. Thorndike and Hagen presented an a priori list of satisfiers and dissatisfiers to a sample of teachers. The checklist was supplemented by a free response situation whereby subjects were permitted to volunteer factors that would be important in bringing into and keeping young men in teaching. The factor volunteered and checked by subjects were categorized into sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In commenting on the distribution of factors, the authors stated that "only about one-third mentioned respect by the people of the community as a source of satisfaction." (p. 72). This was consistent with a subsequent finding that lack of respect was frequently mentioned as one source of dissatisfaction with work in teaching.

A summary of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction studies in education, conducted by Thorndike (1960), Rettig (1959, p.113), McLaughlin (1960, p.216),

and Rudd (1962, p.275), was presented in Table I. The table indicated an inconsistency in the factors that appeared as satisfiers and the factors that appeared as dissatisfiers. Salary, for example, appeared on two occasions as a satisfier and on three occasions as a dissatisfier.

A careful study of the table suggested two important implications. Factors that were concerned with the inherent value of work itself do not appear in dissatisfaction catetories, but only in satisfaction categories. Factors that were concerned with the conditions and environment of work appeared more frequently in dissatisfaction categories than in satisfaction categories. This observation was similar to the observation made by Herzberg in a review of industrial studies.

The majority of studies in job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of teachers appeared to provide only an incidental differentiation between factors which tended to satisfy teachers and factors which tended to dissatisfy teachers. The basic assumption was that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were conceptualized on a continuum. May (1978) placed elements as job dissatisfiers which Herzberg identified as job satisfiers e.g., lack of achievement and lack of recognition. Wahba (1973) conducted a study to provide

TABLE 1

SELECTED SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION STUDIES IN EDUCATION

Thorndike Satisfiers	Rettig Satisfiers	Thorndike Dissatisfiers	McLaughlin Dissatisfiers	Rudd Dissatisfiers
1. Contact with young teachers	1. Intellectual stimulation	1. Low salary	1. Clerical work	1. Low salary
2. Working with books and ideas	2. Freedom	2. Non-teaching duties	2. Low salary	2. Poor human relationships with staff
3. Salary-benefits	3. Respect of students	3. Large classes	3. Uninterested students	3. Lack of materials and equipment
4. Respected by community	4. Salary	4. Uninterested students	4. Supervisory duties	4. Low status
	5. Security	5. Lack of materials and equipment	5. Lack of materials and equipment	5. Lack of time for professional work
	6. Status and prestige	6. No promotion opportunities		
	7. Type of student	7. School board or community interference		
	8. Regular hours			

an empirical test of the applicablity of Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's dual-factor theory to librarians. The data were collected by means of standardized scales. Measuring instruments such as the Job Description Index, the Need Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Willingness-to-Leave Scale, Patchen's Work Motivation Scale, and Porter & Lawler's Self-Reporting of Performance Scale were used. The study, like May (1978), failed to allow for testing job satisfiers and job dissatisfiers as two separate factors.

According to Young and Davis (1983), empirical research conducted in the private sector, which employed methods of data collection other than Herzberg's interview technique, typically have not supported his theory. Schmidt (1976) reviewed the criticisms of Herzberg's theory and listed the most common ones as follows:

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

Results from the investigations of Herzberg's theory in education had been inconclusive and often contradictory. Several studies offered strong support

for the dual factor theory (Burr,1980; Groseth,1978; Sergiovanni,1969; Swierenga,1970; Wozniak,1973). Still other studies had provided only partial support for the dual factor theory (Cohen,1974; Hammer,1970; Morgan, 1974; Schmidt,1976). Finally, some investigations had failed to reveal any support for Herzberg's theory (Lyons,1970; Oswalt,1967; McGreal,1968; Medwed,1971).

Sergiovanni (1967, pp. 66-82) tested the Herzberg hypothesis with teachers. The findings showed that some factors, reported by teachers as contributing to their job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, were polar in a positive direction and other factors were polar in a negative direction. The polarity of factors was generally consistent with the findings of Herzberg in that satisfaction factors were related to the work itself and dissatisfaction factors were related to the environment of work.

The result of the study indicated that achievement, recognition, and responsibility were factors which contributed predominantly to teacher job satisfaction. Interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), supervision technical, school policy and administration, personal life, and fairness/ unfairness were factors which contributed predominantly

to teacher job dissatisfaction. The remaining factors appeared to be bi-polar, possessing the potential to contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction (many of the factors did not appear with sufficient frequency to adequately test for polarity).

The most interesting finding of the study was that sub groups of teachers--tenured and non tenured, male and female, elementary and secondary--tended not to differ in their responses to sources of job sataisfaction and dissatisfaction. There were only three exceptions, out of 168 possibilities, to this tendency. All three involved tenured and non tenured teachers.

Non tenure teachers responded to interpersonal relations with fellow teachers and parents, and feelings of insecurity as sources of low job attitudes more frequently than did tenure teachers.

Sergiovanni (1969) observed that tenured teachers appeared to have the ability to ignore or overcome perceived distastful commentary by parents. Non tenured teachers, however, were undoubtedly more threatened by parents.

He stated that non tenured teachers were acutely aware of their non tenured status. This seemed to be reflected in their apparent insecurity in interacting with supervisors, parents, fellow teachers, and

students. Further, it appeared that non tenured teachers were searching for some indication of their present acceptance and their subsequent appointment as tenured teachers.

Tenured teachers, however, responded more frequently to interpersonal relations with superiors as a source of low job feelings. Sergiovanni suggested that as teachers gain in competence and confidence and are afforded the security of tenure, they tend to display independence which could have resulted in interpersonal conflict with superiors.

Elementary school and secondary school teachers tended not to differ in their responses to sources of high and low job attitudes. No significant exception to this tendency was found.

SUMMARY

The assumption that factors which tended to satisfy teachers and factors which tended to dissatisfy teachers were arranged on a conceptual continuum tended not to be supported by the Sergiovanni study. Factors which appeared as sources of high job feelings for teachers tended to differ from factors which appeared as sources of low job feelings.

Further, the satisfaction factors tended to focus on the work itself, and the dissatisfaction factors tended to focus on the conditions of work.

It was concluded that the elimination of the dissatisfiers inclined in job satisfaction. However, it did not appear likely that one can experience work satisfaction without the elimination or tempering of the dissatisfiers. The point was not whether sataisfiers were more crucial than dissatisfiers, or vice versa, but rather the dependence of the satisfiers on the elimination or tempering of the dissatisfiers. Deriving satisfaction from work-centered activity assumed that one's energies and efforts were not taxed or depleted by unsatisfactory conditions of work.

The sparse differences noted in this section strongly suggested that the satisfaction factors and dissatisfaction factors identified in the study applied to teachers irrespective of their sex, teaching level, or tenure status.

Chapter 3

PROJECT DESIGN

I. INTRODUCTION

The over-all design of this study followed the design developed and used by Sergiovanni. Sergiovanni, with some additions and modifications, used the design developed and used by Herzberg. Basic to the design was the collection of incidents judged by respondents to be representative of their job feelings. Each incident or sequence consisted of three phases: (1) the respondents' attitudes expressed in terms of high job feelings and low job feelings, (2) the first-level and second-level factors which accounted for these attitudes, (3) the effects of these attitudes and factors as reported by the respondents. Through content analysis the factors which accounted for the expressed attitudes were sorted into categories developed, defined, and used by Sergiovanni in his study. The effects were sorted and categorized in the same manner.

In addition to the most unusual high and most unusual low attitude sequences, subjects were asked to relate most recent high and most recent low attitude

sequences. The four sequences were classified as follows: (1) unusual high attitude sequence, (2) unusual low attitude sequence, (3) recent high attitude sequence, (4) recent low attitude sequence. The addition, by Sergiovanni of most recent high and most recent low attitude sequences was an attempt to modify the potential dramatic nature of extreme feelings and hopefully served to improve the representativeness of responses from an individual's general storage of feelings and factors. In the statictical analysis, no differentiation was made between unusual attitude sequences and recent attitude sequences.

II. IMPLEMENTATION

The following steps were taken to implement this study:

1. A comprehensive review of literature related to Herzberg's theory and Education.

2. A comprehensive review of literature related to Sergiovanni's findings and rural school teachers.

3. Identification of the population studied and selection of the population sample.

4. Interviewed respondents following Sergiovanni's interview outline.

5. Selected and trained a panel of judges. Coded the respondent sequences.

6. Made an analysis of the study; coded results relating to the mutual exclusiveness of factors for the total sample.

III. PROCEDURES

A review of the literature indicated a need for this study. Of the 66,212 studies of teachers (with general discriptors of motivation, attitude, burnout, and job satisfaction/dissatisfaction) since 1966, only 1081 were directed at teachers in rural schools. Only five of these studies addressed the specific issue of teacher job satisfaction/ dissatisfaction in rural schools. There have been no studies of job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction of teachers in rural schools relating to Herzberg's theory or Sergiovanni's findings. A study was made by Young and Davis (1983) to investigate the applicability of Herzberg's dual factor theory for public school superintendents. The sample for this study consisted of 100 public school superintendents randomly selected. Of the 100 superintendents selected 72 actually participated in the study.

The instrument used to assess superintendents' job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction was a semantic differential (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957). The semantic differential consisted of a number of rating scales.

The study did not replicate Herzberg's method of assessing the sample population. Like so many other studies that tested the Herzberg dual factor theory without following his interview method, the findings cast doubt on the theory. Likewise, the findings of this study while not supportive of the dual factor approach did not rebut Herzberg's work.

A limitation concerned the use of public school superintendents as respondents. These educators represented a select group of individuals who had reached the top of a school districts administrative hierarchy. As such, their responses may well have been quite different from those obtained if a teacher group had been surveyed.

The Young and Davis study was cited as a sample of recent studies testing the Herzberg dual factor theory in an educational setting, illustrating the need for studies replicating Herzberg's method (Young and Davis, 1983).

Sampling Procedure

The population for this study consisted of teachers (K-12) in sixteen school districts of Southern Nevada, Southern Utah, and Northwestern Arizona. Sixty-six schools with a staff ranging from 1 to 30 teachers were used to indentify a sample from the 750+ teacher population. (See Table II)

TABLE 2

RURAL SCHOOL'S POPULATIONS

STATE	SCHOOL DISTRICT	SCHOOL	FACULTY
Arizona	Fredonia	Fredonia El	13 *
		Fredonia Jr/Sr	11 *
	Littlefield	Littlefield	2 *
Nevada	Clark	Blue Diamond	3
		Goodsprings	1
		G. Bowler	28 *
		Indian Springs	25 *
		Moapa Valley	29 *
		Mt. Charleston	2
		Sandy Valley	3
		Searchlight	1
		Virgin Valley	28 *
	Esmeralda	Dyer	2
		Goldfield	4 *
		Silver Peak	3
	Lincoln	Caliente	6 *
		Lincoln Co.	17 *
		Pahranagat	16 *
		Panaca	7 *
		Pioche	7 *
	Lyon	Dayton El	17 *
		Dayton Jr/Sr	17 *
		Fernley El	19 *
		Fernley Jr/Sr	14 *
		Silver Springs	8 *
		Yerington El	18
		Yerington Jr/Sr	15
	Nye	Amargosa Valley	8 *
		Beatty	18 *
		Gabbs	8
		Pahrump El	17 *
		Pahrump Jr/Sr	22 *
		Round Mt.	6
		Tonopah El	19 *
		Tonopah Jr/Sr	22 *
	Storey	Hugh Gallagher	8 *
		Virginia City	10 *
Utah	Garfield	Bryce Valley El	5 *
		Bryce Valley Jr/Sr	10
		Escalante El	5
		Escalante Jr/Sr	7 *

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

STATE	SCHOOL DISTRICT	SCHOOL	FACULTY
		Panguitch El	8 *
		Panguitch Middle	5 *
		Panguitch High	10 *
		Ticaboo	4
	Iron	Beryl	6 *
		Enoch	15 *
		Parowan El	17 *
		Parowan Jr/Sr	15 *
	Kane	Kanab El	14 *
		Kanab Jr/Sr	16 *
		Orderville El	10 *
		Orderville Jr/Sr	14 *
	Piute	Junction	7 *
	Sevier	Richfield El	15 *
	So. Sanpete	Manti Jr/Sr	12 *
	So. Sevier	Monroe Jr/Sr	15 *
	Washington	Enterprise El	11 *
		Enterprise Jr/Sr	9 *
		Hurricane El	14 *
		Hurricane Middle	14 *
		Hurricane High	20 *
		LaVerkin	10 *
		Leeds	3
		Springdale	2
	Wayne	Loa/Bicknell	10 *
Totals	17	66	770

*Indicates that one or more teachers were randomly selected as a sample population from the faculty of that school.

Two hundred respondents were selected at random from the teachers who comprised the study population. The sample was drawn from lists furnished by each of the participating school districts. Administrators, guidance counselors, librarians, and other non-teaching personnel were not included in the sample.

Respondents were to have been notified by mail of their selection and invited to participate in the study. This initial communication with respondents was to include a description of the general nature of the study but not include specifically the nature or content of the interview. A target of respondents to participate in the study was set at 60 teachers. The respondents were then to be contacted by phone and interview arrangements made. The project design of a random selection of teachers for the population sampling experienced difficulties early in the process. The Nevada State Dept. of Education published an annual directory of administrators, teachers, and support staff for each school in the state. Schools with teacher staff and student population that fit the rural school criteria were identified. All administrators, librarians, counselors, and non-classroom teachers were eliminated from the list. The population of teachers from the identified rural schools were numbered sequencially totaling 473 teachers. The computer was

programed to randomly select 40 teachers from the 473 total.

The selection of a sample population from Utah and Arizona was not as easilly accomplished. Neither state published a state directory of teachers. Their annual publications listed schools and administrators only. It was soon discovered that school district superintendents were unwilling to release a list of teachers within their district to someone they did not know, based on a request via a telephone conversation.

As a result a visit to the superintendents offices' of three districts in Arizona and seven districts in Utah was made. After introducing myself and my mission, each superintendent (except one) willingly shared a list of their teachers. The one exception asked how many teachers I wanted to interview from his district. Upon hearing the number, he produced the randomlly selected names from his desktop computer.

At this point I deviated from the project design, rather than sending the introductory letter I met each of the selected teachers at his/her home or classroom. After introducing myself and explaining my purpose of visiting with them and also explaining how I had selected their name, I conducted the interview. Of the 60 teachers approached, I was not refused one interview.

Interviewing Procedure

At the beginning of the interview, the nature of the study was explained to the respondent. The interview outline was shown to the respondents for their inspection (see Appendix A). Respondents who were judged to be somewhat apprehensive about the interview were told that if, upon completion of the interview, they had misgivings about participating in the study they were welcome to withdraw and keep the interview tape. All respondents were assured of complete anonymity.

Respondents were told that they could start with either a time they had felt unusually high or good about their job or a time when they felt unusually low or bad about their job. After the first unusual sequence each respondent was asked to give the other. If he/she had previously given a high story, he/she was then be asked for a low. The same procedure was followed for most recent high feelings and most recent low feelings.

Coding Procedure

The next step was the identification and coding of the factors contained in the high and low attitude stories of the respondents. Since several factors could appear in a given story, the factor which

contributed most to the expressed feeling was isolated for subsequent analysis.

Each sequence was coded, independently, by three of five judges. Judges included the investigator and four graduate students in educational administration. One of the five judges was a female.

A training period for the judges consisted of two phases. Phase one required the judges to become thoroughly familiar with the categorical scheme and the factors as defined by Herzberg. Judges were then brought together to listen to five sequences gathered in a pilot study. The judges coded the five sequences independently and discussed choices and disagreements.

Coding decisions were classified as unanimous choice, a result of three judges agreeing in coding; majority choice, a result of two judges agreeing and one disagreeing (the factor coded by the majority was accepted); and a consensus choice, a three-way disagreement among coders. When a three-way disagreement occured the coders were required to listen to the sequence as a team and arrive at a consensus decision.

The coding choices of judges for each of the 120 sequences are reported in Appendix D. For the first-level factors, there were 56 unanimous decisions,

49 majority decisions, and 15 consensus decisions. For the second-level factors, there were 53 unanimous decisions and 47 majority decisions.

Analysis of the Interviews

The technique of content analysis was used in coding each sequence. Herzberg (1959, p.37) suggests two basic approaches to content analysis. The first is an a priori approach in which the analysis is based upon predetermined categories from the raw data itself. Herzberg chose the a posteriori approach which produced catergories specifically related to the data collected in his study. Herzberg noted, however, that the resulting categorical scheme developed through the a posteriori approach was not very different from that which could have been derived from an analysis of the literature (Herzberg, 1959, p.38). The schema used for content analysis in Sergiovanni's study was a direct adoption of the catergories developed and used by Herzberg and so represents an a priori approach, not one based on empirical evidence.

The First Level Factors

The objective events, the actual stories, which were reported by respondents as being the source of

.igh or low feelings about their jobs were coded as first-level factors. The factors, as defined by Herzberg, are as follows:

1. Recognition. The major criterion for this category was some act of recognition to the person speaking to us. The source could be almost anyone: supervisor, some other individual in management, management as an impersonal force, a client, a peer, a professional colleague, or the general public. Some act of notice, praise, or blame was involved. We felt that this category should include what we call "negative recognition," that is, acts of criticism or blame. In our subcategories we differentiated between situations in which rewards were given along with the acts of recognition and those in which there were no concrete rewards. Note that we had many sequences in which the central event was some act, such as a promotion or a wage increase, which was perceived by the respondent as a source of feelings or recognition. These sequences were coded under "recognition second-level." One might ask, since we had a separate category for interpersonal relations, where we coded recognition and where we coded interpersonal relations? The defining characteristic was the emphasis on the act of recognition or on statements characterizing the nature of the interaction between the respondent and the supervisor, peer, or subordinate, we coded the sequence as a story involving interpersonal relations. When the emphasis was merely on the act of recognition, this was not done.

2. Achievement. Our definition of achievement also included its opposite, failure, and the absence of achievement. Stories involving some specifically mentioned success were put into this category and these included the following: successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of one's work.

3. Possibility of Growth. The inclusion of a possibility of growth as an objective factor in the situation may sound paradoxical, but there were some sequences in which the respondent told

us of changes in his situation involving objective evidences that the possibilities for his growth were not increased or decreased. An example of this is a change in status that officially included a likelihood that the respondent would be able to rise in a company, or the converse. For example, if a man moves from a craftsman's position to that of a draftsman, the new status opens up a previously closed door; he may eventually rise to the position of design engineer or perhaps even project engineer. When the respondent told us that this had beenclearly presented to him as part of his change, then possibility of growth was certainly considered as a first-level factor. Similarly, when an individual was told that his lack of formal education made it impossible for him ever to advance in the company, "negative" possibility for growth was coded. Possibility for growth, however, has another connotation. It includes not only the likelihood that the individual would be able to move onward and upward within his organization but also a situation in which he is able to advance in his own skills and in his profession. Thus, included in this category were stories in which a new element in the situation made it possible for the respondent to learn new skills or to acquire a new professional outlook.

4. Advancement. This category was used only when there was an actual change in the status or position of the person in the company. In situations in which an individual transferred from one part of the company to another without any change in status but with increased opportunities for responsible work, the change was considered an increased responsibility (for which we have a category) but not formally an advancement.

5. Salary. This category included all sequences of events in which compensation plays a role. Suprisingly enough, virtually all of these involve wage or salary increases, or unfulfilled expectation of salary increases.

6. Interpersonal Relations. One might expect that interpersonal relations would pervade almost all of the sequences. They do play a role, necessarily, in situations involving recognition or changes in status within the company or company

and management policies; however, we restricted our coding of interpersonal relations to those stories in which there was some actual verbalization about the characteristics of the interaction between the person speaking and some other individual. We set this up in terms of three major categories:

Interpersonal relations-superior
Interpersonal relations-subordinate
Interpersonal relations-peer

[For the purpose of this study, subordinates included students directly responsible to the teacher or in contact in any capacity with the teacher. Peers included fellow teachers of equal rank and parents of students in the school or school district. The inclusion of both parents and teachers in the same category may have caused some pollution of the data relating interpersonal relations (peers). However, teachers responded infrequently to interaction with fellow teachers as sources of high and low job feelings.]

7. Supervision-technical. Although it is difficult to divorce the characteristics of interpersonal relationships with one's supervisor from his behavior in carrying out his job, it seemed to us that it was not an impossible task. We were able, with a high degree of reliability among independent coders, to identify those sequences of events that revolved around the characteristics of interpersonal relationships and those, classified under the category supervision-technical, in which the competence or incomopetence, fairness or unfairness of the supervisor were the critical characteristics. Statements about the supervisor's willingness or unwillingness to delegate the responsibility or his willingness or unwillingness to teach would be classified under this category. A supervisor who kept things humming smoothly and efficiently might both be reported as factors in a sequence of events that led to exceptional feelings about the job.

8. Responsibility. Factors relating to responsibility and authority are covered in this category, which includes those sequences of events in which the person speaking reported that he derived satisfaction from being given

responsibility for his own work or for the work of others or being given new responsibility. It also includes stories in which there was a loss of satisfaction or a negative attitude towards the job stemming from a lack of responsibility. In cases, however, in which the story revolved around a wide gap between a person's authority and the authority he needed to carry out his job responsibilities the factor indentified was "company policy and administration." The rationale for this was that such a discrepancy between authority and job responsibilities would be considered evidence of poor management.

9. Company [School] policy and administration. This category describes those components of a sequence of events in which some over-all aspect of the company was a factor. We identified two kinds of over-all company policy and administration characteristics. One involved the adequacy or inadequacy of company organization and management. Thus, there can exist a situation in which a man has lines of communication crossing in such a way that he does not really know for whom he is working, in which he has inadequate authority for satisfactory comopletion of his task, or in which a company policy is not carried out because of inadequate organization of the work.

The second kind of over-all characteristic of the company involved not inadequacy but the harmfulness of beneficial effects of the company's policies. These are primarily personnel policies. These policies, when viewed negatively, are not described as ineffective, but rather as "malevolent."

10. Working conditions. This category was used for stories in which the physical conditions of work, the amount of work, or the facilities available for doing the work were mentioned in the sequence of events. Adequacy or inadequacy of ventilation, lighting, tools, space, and other such environmental characteristics would be included here.

11. Work itself. Work itself was used when the respondent mentioned the actual doing of the job or the tasks of the job as a source of good or bad feelings about it. Thus, jobs can be routine

or varied, creative or stultifying, overly easy or overly difficult. The duties of a position can include an opportunity to carry through an entire operation or they can be restricted to one minute aspect of it.

12. Factors in personal life. As previously indicated, we did not accept sequences in which a factor in the personal life of an individual having nothing to do with his job was responsible for a period of good or bad feelings, even if these feelings affected the job. We did accept situations in which some aspect of the job affected personal life in such a way that the effect was a factor in the respondent's feelings about his job....

13. Status. It would have been easy to slip into the trap of inferring status consideration from other factors. For example, it might be considered that any advancement would involve a change in status and ought to be thus coded. This was not done. "Status" was coded only when the respondent actually mentioned some sign or appurtenance of status as being a factor in his feelings about the job.

14. Job security. Here again we were not dealing with feelings of security, since these were coded as second-level factors, but with objective signs of presence or absence of job security. Thus, we included such considerations as tenure and company stability or instability, which reflected in some objective way on a person's job security.

The Second-Level Factors

The second-level factors were categories which constituted respondents' feelings as a result of the objective stories they had related and the attitudes they had identified. The analysis of second-level factors came primarily from respondents' answers to two questions: "Can you tell me more precisely why you felt the way you did?" and "What did these events mean

to you?" One respondent related a story that involved a denial of a merit salary increase as a source of bad feelings about her job. When asked why she felt the way she did, she replied, "It meant that the administration or who ever was responsible for the increase felt that I was not doing a good job." The first-level factors in this sequence was coded as salary. This was the objective occurrence. The second-level factor in this sequence, however, was coded as recognition. The respondent perceived the merit increase as a source of recognition.

The second-level factors were defined in terms of their literal or common usage. The list of second-level factors, as used by Herzberg, were as follows:

1. Feelings of recognition
2. Feelings of achievement
3. Feelings of possible growth, blocks to growth, first-level factors perceived as evidence of actual growth
4. Feelings of responsibility, lack of responsibility or diminished responsibility
5. Group feelings: feelings of belonging or isolation, socio-technical or purely social
6. Feelings of interest or lack of interest in the performance of the job
7. Feelings of increased or decreased status
8. Feelings of increased or decreased security
9. Feelings of fairness or unfairness
10. Feelings of pride or or inadequacy or guilt
11. Feelings about salary*

*This factor was included to cover those situations in which the first-level factor was viewed primarily as

a source of the things that money can bring. If an answer to the question, "Why did this promotion make you feel good?" was, "I like the idea of being able to make more money," then the second-level factor was coded "salary."

The Effects

The analysis of effects was generally dependent upon the procedure and effects categories developed by Herzberg. Five categories of effects were used, (1) performance, (2) turnover, (3) mental-health, (4) interpersonal relations, and (5) attitudinal.

The analysis of effects came primarily from respondents' answers to the following questions:

1. Did these feelings affect the way you did your job? How? How long did this go on?

2. Can you give me a specific example of the way in which your performance on the job was affected?

3. Did what happened affect you personally in any way?

4. Did what happened affect the way you felt about working in that school or that school district?

5. Did the consequences of what happened affect your career?

6. Did what happened change the way you felt about the teaching profession?

This study replicated Sergiovanni's schema for content analysis.

IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA

Sergiovanni's hypothesis relating to the no difference in the proportion of times teachers reported a given factor as a satisfier and the same factor as a dissatisfier was rejected for eight of the sixteen first-level factors and for three of the twelve second-level factors.

The first-level factors which appeared significantly as highs (as contrasted with lows) were recognition, achievement, and responsibility. The first-level factors which appeared significantly as lows (as contrasted with highs) were interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), supervision technical, school policy and administration, and personal life.

Achievement and recognition were the second-level factors which appeared significantly as highs. Feelings of unfairness was the only second-level factor which appeared significantly as a low.

Percentages and values of chi square for the frequency with which each first-level factor appeared in high attitude sequences as contrasted with low attitude sequences was measured. Chi square value required for significance was at the .Ø5 level. The same criteria of measure was used for second-level factors which appeared in high attitude sequences as

contrasted with low attitude sequences.

Relationships between high attitude factors and low attitude factors of this study and Sergiovanni's findings were identified and conclusions of acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis were drawn.

CHAPTER 4

THE ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The results of the study were presented in two sections. The first section reported the results relating to the mutual exclusiveness of factors for the total sample. This section included an analysis of the first-level and second-level factors which appeared in high attitude sequences and an analysis of the first-level and second-level factors which appeared in low attitude sequences.

The second section contained the results of the effects analysis.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HIGH ATTITUDE FACTORS AND LOW ATTITUDE FACTORS

High Attitude Sequences

Table 6 included the percentage of each first-level factor which appeared in the 134 high attitude sequences for the total sample. Eighty percent of the sequences which accounted for high job attitudes included the first-level factors achievement and recognition. Work itself appeared in one percent of the high attitude sequences. Responsibility and advancement did not appear in the 134 high attitude stories.

First-level factors six through sixteen appeared in nineteen percent of the high attitude sequences. The major contributors to the nineteen percent were interpersonal relations with subordinates (13.5%), interpersonal relations

TABLE 3

JUDGE'S DETERMINATION OF FIRST-LEVEL FACTORS PRESENT IN THE DESCRIBED HIGH ATTITUDE SEQUENCES

High Attitude Sequences

Factor	NS=134	Percent
1. Recognition	61	45.5
2. Achievement	46	34.5
3. Work Itself	1	1.0
4. Responsibility		
5. Advancement		
6. Salary		
7. Possibility of Growth		
8. Interpersonal Relations (subordinates)	18	13.5
9. Interpersonal Relations (superiors)	5	3.5
10. Interpersonal Relations (peers)		
11. Supervision Technical	3	2.0
12. School Policy and Administration		
13. Working Conditions		
14. Personal Life		
15. Status		
16. Security		

*NS in this table and in subsequent tables refers to number of sequences.

Percentages in this table and in subsequent tables are rounded to the nearest one-half percent.

with superiors (3.5%), and supervision technical (2%).

Salary, school policy and administration, working conditions,

personal life, status, interpersonal relations with peers, and security did not appear in the high attitude sequences.

Percentages of second-level factors which appeared in high attitude sequences are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4

JUDGE'S INTERPRETATION OF SECOND-LEVEL FACTORS FROM THE DESCRIBED HIGH ATTITUDE SEQUENCES

High Attitude Sequences

Factor	NS=128	Percent
1. Recognition	37	29.0
2. Achievement	66	51.5
3. Growth		
4. Advancement		
5. Responsibility	2	1.5
6. Group Feelings	13	10.0
7. Work Itself	2	1.5
8. Status	1	1.0
9. Security		
10. Fair/Unfair	2	1.5
11. Pride	5	4.0
12. Salary		

Achievement, which appeared in fifty-one and one-half percent of the sequences, was the dominant second-level factor for the highs. Recognition appeared in twenty-nine percent of the sequences involving high job feelings. The remaining nineteen and one-half percent of high attitude sequences appeared in group feelings (10%), responsibility (1.5%),

work itself (1.5%), status (1%), fair/unfair (1.5%), and pride (4%). The second-level factors of growth, advancement, security, and salary did not appear in high attitude sequences.

The 134 high attitude sequences for the total sample were dominated by the appearance of three first-level factors achievement, recognition, and interpersonal relations with subordinates. The analysis of second-level factors (with 128 high attitude sequences) revealed two dominant factors, achievement and recognition.

Low Attitude Sequences

The percentage of each first-level factor which appeared in the 138 low attitude sequences for the total group is reported in Table 5. Interpersonal relations (superiors), interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), and salary appeared in sixty-eight and one-half percent of the low attitude sequences achievement, recognition, work itself, supervision technical, school policy and administration, working conditions, personal life, and status accounted for thirty-one and one-half percent of the incidence of factors which appeared in the lows. Responsibility, advancement, and possibility of growth did not appear in low attitude sequences.

Table 6 presents the percentages of each second-level factor which appeared in the 139 low attitude sequences for the total group. Feelings of unfairness, at forty-nine percent, was the dominant factor. Feelings for lack of

TABLE 5

JUDGE'S DETERMINATION OF FIRST-LEVEL FACTORS PRESENT IN THE DESCRIBED LOW ATTITUDE SEQUENCES

Low Attitude Sequences

Factor	NS=138	Percent
1. Recognition	5	3.0
2. Achievement	6	4.5
3. Work Itself	4	3.0
4. Responsibility		
5. Advancement		
6. Salary	15	11.0
7. Possibility of Growth		
8. Interpersonal Relations (Superiors)	39	28.5
9. Interpersonal Relations (Subordinates)	24	17.5
10. Interpersonal Relations (Peers)	16	11.5
11. Supervision Technical	9	6.5
12. School Policy and Administration	10	7.0
13. Working Conditions	2	1.5
14. Personal Life	4	3.0
15. Status	4	3.0
16. Security		

achievement appeared in twenty percent of the low sequences. Recognition with eight and one-half percent and work itself with nine percent were other contributors to low job feelings. The remaining eight factors appeared in thirteen and one-half percent of the low sequences. The factors

advancement and security did not appear in the lows or elsewhere.

TABLE 6

JUDGE'S INTERPRETATION OF SECOND-LEVEL FACTORS FROM THE DESCRIBED LOW ATTITUDE SEQUENCES

Low Attitude Sequences

	Factor	NS=139	Percent
1.	Recognition	12	8.5
2.	Achievement	28	20.0
3.	Growth	3	2.0
4.	Advancement		
5.	Responsibility	2	1.5
6.	Group Feelings	5	3.5
7.	Work Itself	12	9.0
8.	Status	4	3.0
9.	Security		
10.	Fair/Unfair	68	49.0
11.	Pride/Inadequate	2	1.5
12.	Salary	3	2.0

The dominant first-level factors which appeared in the 138 low attitude sequences for the total group were interpersonal relations (superiors), interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), and salary. The dominant second-level factors for the 139 low attitude sequences were feelings of unfairness and lack of achievement.

High Attitude Sequences Contrasted With Low Attitude Sequences

Table 7 included the percentages and chi-square values for the frequency with which first-level factors appeared in high attitude sequences and low attitude sequences for the total group.

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGES AND VALUES OF CHI SQUARE FOR THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH EACH FIRST-LEVEL FACTOR APPEARED IN HIGH ATTITUDE SEQUENCES AS CONTRASTED WITH LOW ATTITUDE SEQUENCES FOR THE TOTAL GROUP

	Factor	High NS=134	Low NS=138	Chi Square	P
1.	Recognition	45.5	3.0	15.346*	.001
2.	Achievement	34.5	4.5	4.000*	.001
3.	Work Itself	1.0	3.0	16.495*	
4.	Responsibility	0	0		
5.	Advancement	0	0		
6.	Salary	0	11.0	32.120*	
7.	Possibility of Growth	0	0		
8.	Interpersonal relations (superiors)	3.5	28.5	207.198*	.001
9.	Interpersonal relations (subordinates)	13.5	17.5	8.519*	
10.	Interpersonal relations (peers)	0	11.5	2.467	
11.	Supervision technical	2.0	6.5	3.031	
12.	School policy and Administration	0	7.0	6.502*	
13.	Working Conditions	0	1.5	7.338*	.001
14.	Personal Life	0	3.0	1.104	
15.	Status	0	3.0		
16.	Security	0			

*Difference between highs and lows is significant. Chi-square value required for significance at the .05 level is 3.841.

The first-level factors which appeared more often in high attitude sequences were achievement and recognition. The first-level factors which appeared more often in low attitude sequences were work itself, salary, interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (superiors), school policy and administration, and working conditions.

The percentages and values of chi-square for the frequency with which second-level factors appeared in high attitude and low attitude sequences were reported in Table 8.

TABLE 8

PERCENTAGES AND VALUES OF CHI SQUARE FOR THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH EACH SECOND-LEVEL FACTOR APPEARED IN HIGH ATTITUDE SEQUENCES AS CONTRASTED WITH LOW ATTITUDE SEQUENCES FOR THE TOTAL GROUP

	Factor	High NS=128	Low NS=139	Chi Square	P
1.	Recognition	29.0	8.5	4.350*	.01
2.	Achievement	51.5	20.0	5.298*	.05
3.	Growth	0	2.0	8.143	
4.	Advancement	0	0		
5.	Responsibility	1.5	1.5		
6.	Group Feelings	10.0	3.5	21.025*	
7.	Work Itself	1.5	9.0	4.32*	
8.	Status	1.0	3.0	1.112	
9.	Security	1.5	0	18.426*	
10.	Fair/Unfair	0	49.0	12.553*	.05
11.	Pride/Inadequate	4.0	1.5	11.652	
12.	Salary	0	2.0		

*Difference between Highs and Lows is significant. Chi-square value required for significance at the .05 level is 3.841.

The second-level factors which appeared more often in high attitude sequences were recognition, achievement, group feelings, security, and feeling of pride. The second-level factors which appeared more often in low attitude sequences were lack of achievement, work itself, and feelings of unfairness.

Summary

The results presented in the first section demonstrated that many of the factors which accounted for high job feelings of teachers and many of the factors which accounted for low job feelings of teachers were mutually exclusive.

The hypothesis relating to the no difference in the proportion of times teachers reported a given factor as a satisfier and the same factor as a dissatisfier was rejected for ten of the sixteen first-level factors and for eight of the twelve second-level factors.

The first-level factors which appeared significantly as highs (as contrasted with lows) were recognition and achievement. The first-level factors which appeared significantly as lows (as contrasted with highs) were interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (superiors), salary, school policy and administration, work itself, and working conditions.

Achievement, recognition, group feelings, security, and a feeling of pride were the second-level factors which appeared significantly as highs. Feelings of unfairness,

work itself, and the possibility of growth were the second-level factors which appeared significantly as a low.

ANALYSIS OF EFFECTS

The analysis of effects was seriously limited by the apparent immunity, expressed by respondents, to penetration of feelings. With the exception of positive performance effects, teachers tended to respond infrequently to effects of job attitudes. This opaqueness on the part of teachers was manifested by the frequent remark, "I don't let my feelings about my job affect me personally." Because of the apparent lack of success in this effort, no tests of significance were performed in the effects analysis.

Each of the effects categories--performance, mental health, turnover, interpersonal relationships, and attitudinal--discussed below included the frequency of teachers that did not mention the category and the frequency and type of positive and negative effects reported by teachers.

Performance Effects

Performance effects were mentioned in 99 of the 360 sequences. No change in performance was reported in twenty-one of the high sequences and in twelve of the low sequences. The incidence of positive performance effects as a result of high job feelings was thirty-four. The incidence of negative performance effects as a result of low job feelings was fourteen. Five respondents reported improved performance as a result of low job feelings. (Table 9).

TABLE 9

PERFORMANCE EFFECTS

	High	Low
Not mentioned	21	12
No change	0	1
	Positive	Negative
Frequency of response	49	14

*Positive effects were reported on five occasions in low sequences.

Turnover Effects

Thought of quitting as a result of low job feelings appeared in 19 of the 180 low attitude sequences. Three respondents actually quit their jobs. Four respondents reported that as a result of high feelings they would not quit now. Turnover effects were not mentioned in 180 of the 322 sequences. (Table 10).

Mental Health Effects

Increased tension was reported in 18 of the 165 low attitude sequences. Psychological improvement as a result of high job feelings was reported in 6 of the 157 high attitude sequences. Two hundred ninety sequences did not contain mental health effects. (Table 11)

TABLE 10

TURNOVER EFFECTS

	High		Low
Not mentioned	153		132
	Would not quit now	Quit	Thought of quitting
Frequence of responses	4	3	19

TABLE 11

MENTAL HEALTH EFFECTS

	High	Low
Not mentioned	151	139
	Psychosomatic Tension	Psychosomatic Tension
Frequency of Response	2	0	4

Interpersonal Relationship Effects

One hundred seventy-four sequences did not contain interpersonal relationship effects. Positive effects as a result of high job feelings appeared on seventy-seven occasions. The incidence of negative effects as a result of

low job feelings was forty-eight. Five respondents reported positive effects as a result of low job attitudes. (Table 12)

TABLE 12

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP EFFECTS

	High	Low
Not mentioned	80	107
	Positive	Negative
Frequency of Response	77	48

*Five low attitude sequences contained positive effects.

Summary

Interpersonal Relations Effects were most frequently cited as being vulnerable to job attitudes. Eighty of the 157 high attitude sequences resulted in improved positive effects. Sixty-eight of the 165 low attitude sequences contained reports of negative effects on interpersonal relations.

Although turnover effects were infrequently reported in the 322 sequences, 6 percent of the low attitude sequences contained thought of quitting as an effect. About two percent of the teachers actually quit their jobs.

Tension appeared as the dominant mental health effect of the job feelings. Psychosomatic effects of tension were reported in fifty-five percent of the low attitude sequences. All of the six reported high attitude sequences were on improvement of tension symptoms.

There was a great difference in the appearance of performance effects regarding a positive change in quality or output of work in high attitude and negative changes in quality or output of work in low attitude sequences. General statements regarding positive effects were reported in sixty-nine percent of the performance effects mentioned.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Frederick Herzberg (1957), as a result of an intensive review of job satisfaction research in industry, observed that studies dealing with job satisfaction revealed factors which were different from studies dealing with job dissatisfaction. This observation led to a study which specifically investigated the mutual exclusiveness of satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors.

Herzberg (1959) found that achievement, work itself, recognition, responsibility, and advancement were factors which primarily led to job satisfaction for accountants and engineers from his sample. These were the factors which accounted for high job attitudes reported by his respondents. Interpersonal relations (superiors), supervision technical, company policy and administration, and working conditions were factors which primarily accounted for low job attitudes. These were factors which appeared predominantly in low sequences.

The remaining factors, salary, possibility of growth, interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), personal life, and job

security were primarily bi-polar in nature. They did not predominantly appear as high or low attitude sequences in his study.

Herzberg concluded that not all job factors contributed to satisfaction if met and to dissatisfaction if not met. Indeed, he found that many of the factors were mutually exclusive, some contributed to satisfaction if present but not to dissatisfaction if not present, and others contributed to dissatisfaction but not satisfaction.

Sergiovanni's study (1967) tested the Herzberg hypothesis with teachers. The findings indicated that some factors, reported by teachers as contributing to their job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, were polar in a positive direction while other factors were polar in a negative direction. The polarity of factors was generally consistent with the findings of Herzberg in that satisfaction factors were related to the work itself and dissatisfaction factors were related to the environment of work.

The results of the Sergiovanni study indicated that achievement, recognition, and responsibility were factors which contributed predominantly to teacher job satisfaction. Interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (peers), supervision technical, school policy and administration, personal life, and

fairness/unfairness were factors which contributed predominantly to teacher job dissatisfaction. The remaining factors appeared to be bi-polar, possessing the potential to contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction (many of the factors did not appear with sufficient frequency to adequately test for polarity).

Chapter 5 is divided into three sections. The first two sections discuss the findings relating to hypotheses tested in this study. The analysis of the effects is found in section three.

THE POLARITY OF FACTORS

This study tested the Sergiovanni hypothesis with teachers working in rural schools. The results indicated that achievement and recognition were factors which contributed predominantly to teacher job satisfaction. Responsibility was a factor not identified by rural teachers as a predominant contributor to teacher job satisfaction. Interpersonal relations (superiors), interpersonal relations (subordinates), salary, school policy and administration, work itself, working conditions, and fairness/unfairness were factors which contributed predominantly

to teacher job dissatisfaction. The remaining factors, especially interpersonal relations (peers) and supervision technical, appeared to be bi-polar, exhibiting the potential to contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction feelings of attitude toward work.

The Satisfaction Factors

The two dominant factors which appeared in high attitude sequences were achievement and recognition. Achievement and recognition appeared as first-level factors in eighty percent of the 134 high attitude sequences. This is compared with their appearance in only seven and one-half percent of the low attitude sequences.

Achievement appeared as a second-level factor in more than one out of two (51.5%) high attitude sequences. Recognition appeared over three times as often in high sequences than in low sequences.

The dominant need, expressed by teachers as being most important in contributing to their job satisfaction, was recognition. Teachers talked about feedback from principals, superintendants, parents, students, and fellow teachers. Recognition took the form of letters, oral statements, gifts, incentives, and committee appointments.

The need for recognition appeared to be important to teachers. The absence of recognition tended not to affect low job attitudes of teachers.

A dominant need, expressed by teachers as being an important contributor to their job satisfaction, was achievement. The finding that much of the reward for teaching comes from a feeling of personal success was not suprising. The strong domination of high sequences by the factor achievement, however, was most interesting.

One interpretation of this finding was that teachers in the study sample appeared to possess a need for high achievement. It was generally felt that individuals displaying high achievement needs equated societal rewards (salary, prestige, and power) as sources of achievement. Such rewards were, in general, not perceived by teachers as being abundant. Thus, teachers tended to focus on psychic gratification as a primary source of reward in their work. The interaction that the teacher had with individual students and classes where the teacher perceived that something had happened may have been one of the sources of psychic gratification. The teacher may have sensed or believed that, as a result of his/her activity, a change had taken place in the student or class.

Most of the teacher achievement centered stories involved less concrete evidence of actual success and more sensing and feeling, on the part of the teacher, that the student had been reached and presumably was affected in some positive way. Teachers appeared to be content with rather vague indications of the long-range effects of their professional decisions exercised within their classroom.

When teachers had an opportunity to experience tangible success, their expressed elation was overwhelming. Such was the case with a music teacher who reported that she derived tremendous personal satisfaction from successful music programs offered to the community. Teachers cited terms "I reached them," "They were with me," "They came back from college and looked-me-up," "They sent me a letter," and "They brought their spouse to meet me," to describe their source of psychic gratification.

It may be that rural teachers identified achievement at a significantly higher frequency than teachers in general because of the smallness of the school. It appeared that a rural teacher remained in contact with his/her students for a much longer period of time after graduation.

Perhaps even more interesting than the appearance of achievement and recognition as positive polar factors was the absence of responsibility, advancement, and work itself. These factors did appear as satisfiers in Herzberg's study (1959) and one of the factors, responsibility, appeared as a satisfier in Sergiovanni's study (1967).

Responsibility, although found by Sergiovanni to be a significant high level factor, did not appear in the high attitude sequences by rural teachers. This apparent lack was interesting when one considered that teachers did assume a considerable amount of responsibility. As the classroom door closed behind the teacher, it implied that he/she assumed responsibility for his/her own work. The responsibility was limited, however, and fell within the framework of the rules and regulations of the school, school district, and school board. Further limits were imposed by the state legislature and society-at-large. Whatever responsibility a teacher assumed, in terms of what to teach, fell within the framework of the prescribed curriculum.

The factor advancement was not mentioned by teachers in high attitude stories in this study nor in the Sergiovanni study (1967). Teaching offered little opportunity for concrete advancement (change in status

or position) and in fact could be considered as a terminal position. Whatever potential the factor advancement had as a satisfier appeared to be lost for teachers under our present system.

Work itself appeared as a bi-polar factor in the Sergiovanni Study (1967), although the factor appeared more frequently in high attitude teacher stories. The findings of this study placed work itself as a low level attitude with a significant frequency of responses. It appeared that the job of teacher (although potentially able to provide unlimited opportunity for creative and varied work) required considerable attention to maintenance type activities. Routine or maintenance tasks ranged from attendance and scheduling details, study hall assignments, and lunch duty to the many extra hours required of rural teachers for the student's extra curricular activities. Rural schools in the area of this study's sample population were scattered many miles apart, requiring many hours of travel time to and from inter- school activities. The work itself factor, although found to be rich in satisfaction potential, was frequently cited as a source of dissatisfaction for rural teachers.

The Dissatisfaction Factors

The factors which appeared as dissatisfiers for teachers, but tended not to contribute to job

satisfaction, had as their theme interpersonal relations with students, interpersonal relations with superiors, salary, school policy and administration, work itself, and working conditions. Being treated unfairly was perceived by forty-nine percent of the 139 sequences as being the greatest source of dissatisfaction.

Interpersonal relations with superiors (28.5%), Interpersonal relations with subordinates (17.5%), salary (11%), school policy and administration (7%), work itself (3%), and working conditions (1.5%) were factors which appeared in sixty-eight and one-half percent of the low attitude sequences and in eighteen percent of the high attitude sequences. The stories containing these factors focused on considerable disenchantment and disillusionment with supervisory behavior (or lack of behavior) of superiors and the impersonal and frequently inconsistent sting of school policies and administrative directives.

New teachers told about not receiving adequate attention and help with class disciplinary problems. One teacher, who had been a member of a committee of three teachers assigned to evaluate eighth grade students' eligibility for graduation, told about a

principal who failed to support the committee. The committee had drafted a letter to parents outlining the school district's policy for graduation requirements. The principal never responded to the committee's request of mailing the letter to parents. As a result, at graduation time hostilities occured between faculty and parents of non-eligible students. Emotions prevailed and the principal succumbed to parental pressure leaving the committee without support. Another teacher related a story about initial enthusiam for a merit-salary plan which was initiated by the state legislature but within two years (according to this teacher's perceptions) was twisted and distorted by the school district administration to serve its own interests.

It is common of rural school districts to have only one school (K-12) in the district. Because of the smallness of the district, the superintendent's perception of his role overlaps the principal's responsibility. Many teachers related stories about an incident between themselves and the superintendent which contributed to dissatisfied feelings of being treated unfairly. It appparently was a common practice for district superintendants to observe and evaluate teachers, approve or dissapprove field trips, teacher's sick leave, or textbook and equipment purchases.

A teacher related an incident which occurred between he and the superintendent which seemed to be a typical scenario of small district politics. The teacher had suspended two girls from his basketball team for violation of training rules (drinking alcholic beverages). The violation and suspension had occurred just before a state tournament. The parents of the two girls gained support from the superintendent resulting in the superintendent giving a direct order to the coach to reinstate the girls, allowing them to play in the tournament. It should also be noted that the school principal was in complete support of the coach.

Interpersonal relations with students was a factor which appeared in seventeen and one-half percent of the low attitude sequences and in thirteen and one-half percent of the high attitude sequences. The expected difference between the high and low feeling sequences (Sergiovanni's study, p.58) and the observed sequences (this study, Table 10) was significant to the .05 level. However, the t-test score for a measure of difference between the high and low attitudes had to be greater that 1.980 to have been significant to the .05 level. The t-score was 1.768, therefore we must assume that the difference between high and low attitudes could be due to chance.

It seems appropriate to assume that interpersonal relations with students is a "swing" factor. Since students were the crux of a teacher's work, they should account for many of the successes and good feelings as well as the disappointments and low feelings that teachers had. The students were the raw material for the achievement successes and acts of recognition which teachers perceived as sources of great satisfaction. Yet the personal relationship between students and teachers appeared as a troublesome source of teacher job dissatisfaction.

The four remaining factors resulting in significant differences between the expected and the observed frequencies of high and low sequences were salary, schol policy and administration, work itself, and working conditions. These four factors accounted for only one percent of the 134 high level sequences and twenty-two and one-half percent of the 138 low level sequences. However, since their differences were significantly greater than Sergiovanni's findings an evaluation of each was necessary.

Rural teachers agreed with the respondants in Sergiovanni's study that salary was a low attitude factor. None of the 134 sequences identified salary as a high level factor while eleven percent of the 138 sequences identified it as a low attitude factor.

There seemed to be little question of the respondants attitude toward this factor because the three judges had little difficulty agreeing unanimously on the matter. The teachers responding with salary as their low attitude feelings seemed to feel that their performance effects resulted in negative changes in the amount of time spent in work and with thoughts of quiting.

It is surprising that salary scored significantly greater among rural teachers than teachers in Sergiovanni's study. A general assumption has been that teachers generally find themselves in the higher social and economic class within their rural community thus feeling less dissatisfied over their salary.

The school policy and administration factor scored a low percent of the over-all sequences. No respondants of the 134 sequences identified school policy and administration as a high level attitude while seven percent of the 138 low level sequences were identified as such. This difference was also significantly higher than expected.

The three judges reported that the respondants did not mention any of the specific reasons for their low

attitude feelings. Therefore, it may be assumed that the teachers did not feel the organization of work was harmful or ineffective. It could also be assumed they were not in disagreement with the organizations goals.

The work itself factor was a suprise. Fredrick Herzberg (1959) placed work itself as a motivation factor. The results of the Sergiovanni study reaffirmed Herzberg's theory by also placing work itself as a high attitude factor. This study placed work itself as a hygiene factor with three percent of the 138 low attitude sequences compared to one percent of the 134 high attitude sequences. These were rather low percents but were significantly differernt from the results expected. The difference between low and high attitudes was not significantly great enough to rule out the possibility that the results were by chance. An evaluation of the score sheets indicated there was disagreement among the three judges with the work itself factor.

The results were based on 60 interviews. Each interview consisted of two stories about job attitudes, a high attitude feeling and a low attitude feeling. Each of the three judges listened to the 120 incidents

and assigned a first and a second level factor (developed by Fredrick Herzberg) as a causation for the feeling expressed in each incident. Each incident scored by the judge was considered a sequence. Therefore, there was a possibility of 180 high attitude sequences and 180 low attitude sequences if the three judges unanimously agreed on every incident. If the judges agreed unanimously on an incident the identified factor received three points. A majority agreement allowed two points for the factor. A three-way disagreement allowed one point (after the judges listened to the interview a second time as a team and arrived at a consensus agreement).

Sixteen of the 120 incidents received one point each because of the judges' three-way disagreements. Eight of these three-way disagreement incidents were with the work itself factor. Since the low attitude sequences were dominated by single points, it may be inappropriate to state that rural teachers placed work itself as a dissatisfier.

The factor working conditions was identified as a dissatisfaction factor. The difference between the expected and the observed was great enough to be significant at the .05 level and the difference between the high and low was significantly great enough at the

.001 level to be reasonably sure that the difference was not caused by chance.

There were no high attitude sequences reported for working conditions and only one and one-half percent of the 138 low attitude sequences. The low percentage amounts to only one interview incident reporting working conditions as a low attitude factor. The three judges scored that incident two-to-one, a majority agreement. The two judges in agreement indicated that the respondant stated that the causation for the feeling was from being given new responsibility with no formal advancement as the factor. Because the percent numbers were so small it was doubtful that a meaningful conslusion could be reached.

THE EFFECTS OF JOB ATTITUDES

Sergiovanni (1959) found that the responses to the effects of job attitudes on teachers' performance, interpersonal relationships, mental health, and turnover decisions were infrequent. In general, respondants either avoided answering questions pertaining to effects of job attitudes or declared that in essence they were immune to consequences of job feelings. This apparent reluctance on the part of teachers to discuss effects of job attitudes was also

experienced in this study. It may be that the questions asked by the interviewer were perceived as disturbing or threatening to teachers, thus, subjectively ignored. The interviewer may have had the inability to prompt candid and liberal responses. It is not likely, however, that teachers are super humans with the unique ability to exist and function without being affected by their good and bad job feelings.

An incident which occurred during the interview process of this study, while an extreme example, might serve to illustrate the reluctance of teachers to discuss effects of job attitudes. The teacher was trained and certified for secondary level physical education and special education. He taught a special education class at a K-12 school and spent many extra hours each year working with school sponsored basketball and baseball programs as a coach. The interviewer had prior knowledge of the teacher's desire to be reassigned into the physical education department and with this knowledge was unable to get the respondant to answer questions pertaining to effects of job attitude. It was interesting that at the end of the school year the teacher moved to a school district in another state for a physical education assignment. The school he moved from

replaced his position and added another physical education teacher to the staff.

The reported effects which appeared more often as a result of high job feelings were related to improved performance and positive attitudinal changes. Low attitude sequences contributed to larger frequencies for turnover and mental health effects.

The frequency with which each of the effects categories were not mentioned does not permit strong implications based on the reported effects. However, it did appear that turnover effects and poor mental health were functions of low job feelings and improved performance and positive attitudinal changes were functions of high job feelings for teachers.

CONCLUSION

This study provided support for the hypothesis that satisfiers and dissatisfiers tended to be mutually exclusive. Further, it was found that factors which accounted for high attitudes of teachers were related to psychological feelings and factors which accounted for low attitudes of teachers were related to the conditions or environment of work. Teachers in rural schools tended to identify fewer of Herzberg's motivation factors as sources of satisfaction. Those factors not identified tended to remain unidentified and did not account for low attitude

feelings. Interpersonal relationship with students remained as a low attitude factor but tended to indicate a strong possibility of being a 'swing' factor, showing a tendency to be bi-polar. Generally, rural teachers agreed on Herzberg's high and low attitude factors. The differences of frequencies between high and low attitude feelings of urban and rural teachers was significantly great enough to conclude that teachers in rural schools tended to experience a higher amount of satisfaction and a lower amount of dissatisfaction with their jobs than their urban counterparts.

Relative to other activities, teachers derived the most satisfaction from work-centered activities. This finding was reflected in the predominance of achievement and recognition as sources of teacher job satisfaction. The low attitude sequences, however, revealed factors (interpersonal relations with administrators and students, salary, school policy and administration, and feelings of unfairness) which were not in themselves work-centered, rather, they focused on the conditions and people which surrounded the actual work.

Can it be concluded that as long as a teacher experiences personal success, and is recognized for

this success, the conditions of work need not be considered? It may be possible (although unlikely) for a teacher, who is in an unsatisfactory work environment, to experience personal success and thus achieve considerable job satisfaction. An environment relatively free from sources of dissatisfaction, however, will tend to increase or enchance the appearance of factors which are direct contributors to job satisfaction.

A teacher who is relatively content with the behavior of his supervisor and with the quality of his interpersonal relationships, and who does not feel hampered by school policy and administrative actions presumably will have more opportunities for personal and professional success.

The dissatisfaction factors identified for rural teachers tended to focus on conditions and circumstances which teachers expected to be maintained at acceptable levels.

What then are the implications of the study for administrative behavior? The findings suggest that an emphasis on "teacher-centered" behavior (supportive supervision, interpersonal relations, effective communications, and group effectiveness) is an important prescription for effective administrative behavior.

"Task-oriented" behavior (organizing and planning work, implementing goal achievement) may emerge as an important and direct contributor to teacher job satisfaction. Such behavior, on the part of the administrator, would include increasing the opportunities for teachers to experience personal and professional success.

A corollary to personal success is recognition for such success. Although recognition may not be found to be as potent as actual success, it was perceived by teachers as a measure of success. Capitalizing on recognition, as a satisfier for teachers, implies that dispensing of recognition should be as closely associated with successful teacher task-oriented behavior as possible.

Finally, effective administrative behavior would not exclude or ignore the sources of job dissatisfaction. Supervisory behavior, interpersonal relationships, and other factors relating to the conditions of work are necessary components in promoting an environment which will enchance the job itself satisfaction for teachers.

The satisfaction factors identified for teachers cannot be separated from performance and, in fact, are dependent upon performance. It was successful

performance which accounted for the high attitudes expressed in achievement centered stories. Performance was also the basis for recognition centered sequences. If performance is rewarded in terms of intrinsic personal success and extrinsic recognition for success, it will tend to be repeated.

There appeared to be a great abundance of opportunities for rural teachers to experience personal success. Small schools, by their very nature, involve nearly every teacher in student's lives and activity.

SUMMARY

The assumption that factors which tended to satisfy teachers and factors which tended to dissatisfy teachers are arranged on a conceptual continuum tended not to be supported by this study. Factors which appeared as sources of high job feelings for teachers tended to differ from factors which appeared as sources of low job attitudes.

Further, the satisfaction factors tended to focus on psychological feelings and the dissatisfaction factors tended to focus on the conditions of work.

It was concluded that as long as a teacher experienced personal success, and was recognized for the success, he/she derived satisfaction from work. It was also concluded that the interpersonal relationship

with students allowed for such feelings of personal success. Teachers in small schools were involved with students for longer blocks of time in a student's daily life. Rural teachers were also allowed longer contact with students after graduation.

RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In view of the results of this investigation, two suggestions are offered for future research:

1. Accepting the Herzberg method as a valid vehicle for gathering and discriminating between satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors was a basic assumption of this study. This replication supports the reliability of the Herzberg method in that the results are in general agreement with Herzberg's study. The Sergiovanni study concluded that some satisfaction factors identified by Herzberg were not applicable to teachers. This study in agreement with Sergiovanni identified not only the same nonapplicable factors, but additional factors not applicable to teachers in rural schools. A study utilizing a more objective approach to soliciting and discriminating between satisfiers and dissatisfiers would provide an indication of the validity of the differences.

2. The results of this study provided, at best, a general indication of the need deficiencies for teachers in rural schools. An indepth study should be made which also attempts to investigate need deficiencies of teachers who left rural areas for urban schools, or those who left the teaching profession altogether. The foregoing may provide helpful clues as to the need operation levels of teachers. In addition it may provide a blue print for an administrative prescription.

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Appendix A

INTERVIEW OUTLINE

Developed by Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman and as was adopted for the purpose of this study.

Think of a time when you felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about your job, either your present teaching job or any other teaching job you have had. This can be either the "long-range" or the "short-range" kind of situation, as I have just described it. Tell me what happened.

1. How long ago did this happen?

2. How long did the feeling last? Can you describe specifically what made the change of feelings begin? When did it end?

3. Can you tell me more precisely why you felt the way you did at the time?

4. What did these events mean to you?

5. Did these feelings affect the way you did your job? How? How long did this go on?

6. Can you give me a specific example of the way in which your performance on the job was affected? How long?

7. Did what happen affect you personally in any way? How long? Did it change the way you got along with people in general or your family? Did it affect your sleep, appetite, digestion, or general health?

8. Did what happen basically affect the way you felt about working in that school or school district?

9. Did what happen change the way you felt about the teaching profession? How?

10. How serious were your feelings about your teaching job affected by what happened? Pick a spot on the line below to indicate how strong you think the feelings were. Circle that position on the line.

Least								Average								Greatest				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21

11. Is there anything else you would like to say about the sequence of events you have described:

Repeat for second exceptionally high or low feeling and for most recent high and low feeling.

Now that you have described a time when you felt _____ about your teaching job, please think of another time, one during which you felt exceptionally _____ about your teaching job.

Appendix B

INTERVIEW DATA SHEET

INTERVIEW #_____ SCHOOL DISTRICT _____

Male____ Female____

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Total years taught._____

Years taught in a rural school._____

Total years at present school._____

Subject area(s) presently teaching._____

Are you state certified for subjecs are teaching?

Yes___ No___

Subject area(s) trained for._____

Degree(s) held._____

How many years with your present administrator?_____

How many administrators have you taught under? _____

FINANCIAL DATA

Are you the sole wage earner in your household? Yes___ No__

Do you have outside employment? No___ Summers _____
After
School_____

COMMENTS

_____

_____

_____

_____

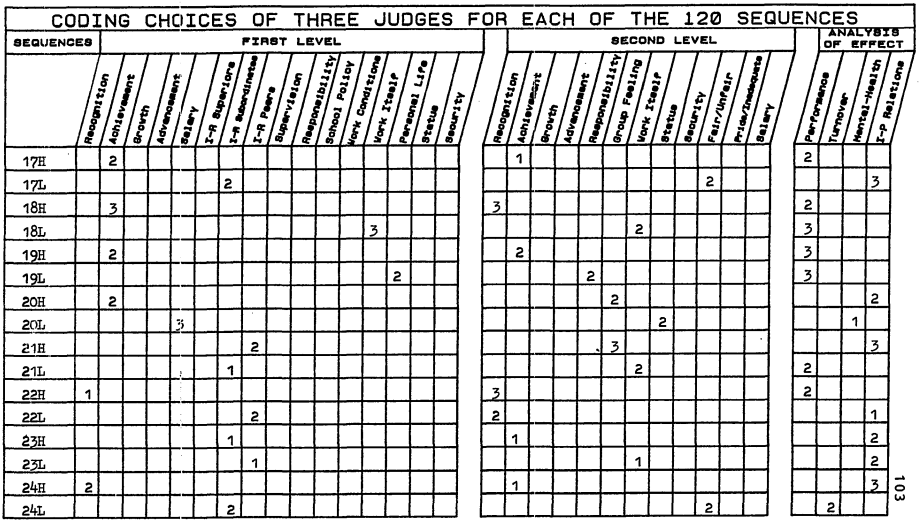
Appendix D

CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL																SECOND LEVEL										ANALYSIS OF EFFECT			
	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Salary	I-R Superiors	I-R Subordinates	I-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Pride/Resentment	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	I-P Relations
1H	3																				2									3
1L	3																								3				3	
2H		3																				2								3	
2L		3																3												3	
3H							1										3														3
3L						3																3									3
4H	2																3												2		
4L										2															3				2		
5H	2																2														2
5L						3																			2					3	
6H		2															1														2
6L						3																			2						2
7H							2															2									2
7L						3																			2				2		
8H	2																1												2		
8L														2											3					2		

CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL																				SECOND LEVEL										ANALYSIS OF EFFECT		
	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Salary	I-R Superiors	I-R Subordinates	I-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Praise/Inadequate	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	I-P Relations
9H	3																3														2	
9L					2																							3			3	
10H	3																3											3				
10L					2																		3								3	
11H		2															2														2	
11L					1																		1						2			
12H	2																2											3				
12L									1														1								2	
13H					1																1										3	
13L					2																		3								2	
14H	1								1								2											2				
14L																	2														2	
15H					1																2										3	
15L					3																		1								2	
16H	2																2															
16L					3												3														2	



CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL																				SECOND LEVEL										ANALYSIS OF EFFECT			
	Recognition	Acknowledgement	Growth	Advancement	Salary	I-R Supervisor	I-R Subordinates	I-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Acknowledgement	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Promotion/Demotion	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	I-P Relations
25H						2												2														3
25L							3																			3						3
26H			2															1														3
26L							2																			2						2
27H		3																2														3
27L						2																				3			3			
28H		2																2											2			
28L								2																		3					1	
29H		3																2														2
29L						2															1											2
30H		2																3														2
30L						3															1											2
31H		2																3											3			
31L								2										3												2		
32H		3																3											3			
32L						3												3														2

CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL															SECOND LEVEL												ANALYSIS OF EFFECT			
	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Salary	I-R Superiors	I-R Subordinates	I-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Friendliness	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	I-P Relations
33H						2												2														3
33L						2											2															2
34H						3												3														3
34L								3																		3				3		
35H	3																	1											2			
35L					3																					3						2
36H	3																	3											3			
36L					3														3										3			
37H		2																2												2		
37L						2																	1						1			
38H						2												2											3			
38L										3																2				2		
39H									3																	2						3
39L						2											3															3
40H	3																										2			2		
40L		2																3												3		

CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL																				SECOND LEVEL										ANALYSIS OF EFFECT		
	Recognition	Admiration	Growth	Adversament	Salary	X-R Superiors	X-R Subordinates	X-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Admiration	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Friendship	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	X-P Relations
1H 1L	2																												2			
2H 2L			3			3																				1				2		
3H 3L							2										3				3											3
4H 4L	2																				2											3
5H 5L		2															2									3			2			
6H 6L				1			1														2									2		
7H 7L	3				3												2									3			2			
8H 8L								1										2													2		
9H 9L									1																		1			3			
10H 10L		2											2										2								2		
11H 11L								3										3												2			3

CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL																SECOND LEVEL												ANALYSIS OF EFFECT			
	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Salary	I-R Superiors	I-R Subordinates	I-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Pride/Resentment	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	I-P Relations
49H		2																			1								2			
49L														2									1							2		
50H		3															3													3		
50L							3										2												2			
51H		2															2												2			
51L								2													1									3		
52H					3															2								2			
52L					3																				2					1		
53H		2															3												2			
53L												1														2			2			
54H		3															2												2			
54L					3																		1							3		
55H	3																	3											3			
55L										3																3				3		
56H	3																	3											3			
56L	3																3												3			

CODING CHOICES OF THREE JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE 120 SEQUENCES

SEQUENCES	FIRST LEVEL																SECOND LEVEL												ANALYSIS OF EFFECT			
	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Salary	I-R Superiors	I-R Subordinates	I-R Peers	Supervision	Responsibility	School Policy	Work Conditions	Work Itself	Personal Life	Status	Security	Recognition	Achievement	Growth	Advancement	Responsibility	Group Feeling	Work Itself	Status	Security	Fair/Unfair	Pride/Inadequate	Salary	Performance	Turnover	Mental-Health	I-P Relations
57H	3																	3											3			
57L								2										3												3		
58H						2																					2		3			
58L															2											3			2			
59H		2															2												2			
59L						2																				3						2
60H		3																2											3			
60L									2																	2				2		