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THE PERCEIVED SATISFIERS AND DISSATISFIERS OF WOMEN IN  
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE DEPARTMENT OF  
DEFENSE DEPENDENTS SCHOOLS IN GERMANY

By

Gayle Vaughn-Wiles

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## ABSTRACT

### THE PERCEIVED SATISFIERS AND DISSATISFIERS OF WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE DEPENDENTS SCHOOLS IN GERMANY

By

Gayle Vaughn-Wiles

The number of women in educational administration declined steadily from 1950 until 1978. Concern for the lack of women educational administrators has been expressed by many persons, and the contributing factors have been addressed by several researchers.

Women and men have two sets of needs, those that are physically related and those that enable them to grow psychologically. There are intrinsic factors that relate to the job itself, and there are extrinsic factors associated with the environmental context of the job.

In the Department of Defense Dependents Schools (DoDDS) in Germany, the number of women in school-level administration has more than doubled since 1979. This study was undertaken to investigate the job satisfiers and dissatisfiers as they are perceived by women administrators employed in those schools from 1979 to 1986. The women administrators were identified in two groups that correspond to major reorganizations within DoDDS. The first group comprised women who

were employed by DoDDS as school-level administrators during 1979-1982. The second group of women was employed during 1983-1986.

A questionnaire was sent to all 113 women school administrators, asking questions about 12 job satisfiers as identified by Frederick Herzberg. Demographic data were also gathered to assist in identifying the characteristics of the two groups. A chi-square test was applied to determine the significance of the growth in numbers of women administrators over the period studied. The Student's t-test was used to analyze data related to job satisfiers. An alpha level of .10 was used in testing the hypotheses, and all p-values were reported.

The DoDDS-Germany women administrators ranked achievement, possibility of growth, peer relationships, and supervisor relationships as the most positive job satisfiers before entering administration. The women while employed as administrators placed work itself, responsibility, possibility of growth, supervisor relationships, and peer relationships as factors contributing to job satisfaction. Salary, status, and personal life were ranked as the factors contributing least to job satisfaction.

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1987

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother,  
Gloria Vaughn, whose prayers I needed constantly,  
and to my husband, who provided  
endless support.

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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

The Skin Horse in The Velveteen Rabbit explains the concept of what is real by saying that "It doesn't happen all at once. . . . It takes a long time." So it is with women in educational administration. Males have traditionally dominated the administrative roles in the American educational system (McCarthy & Webb, 1977; Pallante & Hilton, 1977; Picker, 1980; Taylor, 1973). Women have historically played an important part in the instruction of the young, yet their role in administration has been severely limited.

Women in educational administration have lost ground steadily since 1950 (Bach, 1976). At that time the profession expected that the number of women in such occupations would steadily increase. That did not happen. Nationally, the number of women elementary school principals has declined from 41 percent in 1948 to 38 percent in 1958, 22 percent in 1968, and finally to 18 percent in 1978 (Haven et al., 1980; Pharis & Zachariya, 1979). In secondary schools, the percentage of women in principal positions dropped from 10 percent in 1965 to 7 percent in 1977 (Byrne, Hines, & McCleary, 1978; Haven et al., 1980).

There has been social turbulence for more than two decades which has brought attention to the issues of women in school

administration. This turbulence has included the women's liberation movement, cultural changes, federal legislation prohibiting discrimination in employment practices, and a substantial increase of women in the world of work (Bass, 1981).

Legislation regarding equal employment opportunities for women in the public education system has developed bit by bit over a decade. To comprehend the letter and spirit of the laws, one must attempt to relate parts of the Equal Pay Act of 1963, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Executive Order 11246 (1965), and its 1967 sequel Title I of the Civil Rights Act of 1968, Order No. 4 on Affirmative Action Program (1970)/Title IX of the Education Amendment Act of 1972 (Michigan Higher Education Act), and the Equal Employment Act of 1972. Only when the pertinent parts of these acts and of other legislation are placed in the context of equal employment opportunities for women in public school districts can the weight of the legislation be felt (Pallante & Hilton, 1977).

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) data on public school systems and selected groups of administrators indicated in 1978 that 13.3 percent of the principals in public schools were women and that only 2.8 percent were minority women. Women were less well represented in principalships than in central office executive positions, 17.5 percent; in nonteaching assistant principalships, 22.2 percent; and as consultants and supervisors of instruction, 54.6 percent (EEOC, 1977).

The lack of women in administrative roles affects the education provided for boys and girls within the classroom. A powerful form of teaching is role modeling. Students need to move beyond traditional stereotypes, and this is difficult unless they see women in leadership positions (McQuigg & Carlton, 1980).

The physiological, psychological, sociological, and economic barriers classify the myths or dissatisfiers that women face in upward mobility (Robinson, 1975). Women's potential employment as principals varies according to the geographic location. Various factors have caused the imbalance of women in educational administration (Haven, 1980).

According to Mertz (1980), the reasons for the exclusion of women from educational administration are myths such as:

- there is a lack of qualified women applicants,
- they don't apply,
- men have always been the principal,
- women are not effective as educational administrators,
- women are transient members of the workforce,
- women often leave the job to raise a family,
- women can't discipline,
- women are too emotional,
- nobody wants to work for a woman, and
- the male principal is the role model for authority.

In spite of such beliefs generally held by the public as well as the profession, women and men have two sets of needs: the need as

an animal to avoid pain and the need as a human to grow psychologically (Herzberg, 1959). Factors related to the job itself, which are considered intrinsic, content, or psychological factors, tend to lead to job satisfaction. The intrinsic factors related to job satisfaction are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. These job satisfiers are referred to as motivators and usually fulfill the need for psychological growth. Factors associated with the environment surrounding the job, which are considered extrinsic, context, or physical factors, tend to lead to job dissatisfaction. The dissatisfiers are referred to as hygienes because they merely prevent women and men from getting sick of work (Hamner & Organ, 1978).

Consequently, the factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of women in educational administration are deemed to be worthy of exploration.

. . . There are differences in the ways male and female administrators spend their time, in the ways they interact day to day, in priorities that guide their actions, in the perceptions of them by others, and in the satisfaction they derive from their work. (Shakeshaft, 1986)

#### Need for the Study

Although the number of women in educational administration is limited, there are definite characteristics that describe women in the field, as well as satisfying and dissatisfying factors that relate to their present positions. It is hoped that the present research will characterize commonalities of the women in administration as well as identify their motivating factors. There is a substantial

literature base in which the decline of women administrators in public administration is recognized. On the other hand, research in the area purports effective attributes of many women administrators. The catalysts of their effectiveness are needs and motives.

One should therefore be cognizant of the variation among motives. There is a difference between the motives maintained for getting the job as an entry-level position and commanding the job as a terminal career position (Hennig & Jardim, 1977).

Men numerically dominate the field of educational administration as principals and superintendents, as well as in the federal departments of education (Tibbetts, 1979). The greater number of men is often justified to the questioner on the grounds that men function better as educational leaders than do women. Conversely, research indicates that women administrators are not only every bit as capable as men, they are frequently better (Barnes, 1976; Cirincione-Coles, 1975; Fishel & Pottker, 1975; Grambs, 1976; Hulett, 1977; Tibbetts, 1980).

A bright woman is caught in a double bind. In testing and other achievement-oriented situations she worries not only about failure but also about success. If she fails, she is not living up to her own standards of performance; if she succeeds she is not living up to societal expectations about the female role. . . . For women, the desire to achieve is often contaminated by what I call "the motive to avoid success." I define it as the fear that success in competitive achievement situations will lead to negative consequences, such as unpopularity and loss of femininity. (Horner, 1969)

Robinson (1975) stated that Horner reached her conclusions after administering standard Thematic Apperception Tests, measuring

achievement motivation, to 90 female and 88 male students, asking each to tell a story based on a sex-specific clue. After reviewing the data, Tresemer (1974) expressed another opinion:

Generalized statements about women's ambivalence about ambition, based on findings such as the above, become part of a myth system when they are used to make predictions and decisions about individual women. It is always necessary to allow for individual differences no matter how true the generalization. Nearly ten percent of the boys in Horner's study did show a tendency to avoid success, and nearly thirty-five percent of the girls did not. (Suelxle, 1973)

I discount this thesis for the kind of women who aspire to management. The fear of sameness may plague women, but, I suspect, not many career-oriented women. Nor is it the case still, as it used to be, that women tend to equate achievement with loss of femininity. (Kreps, 1973)

Achievement at this point may be related to administrative growth and may be recognized as one of the motives that contribute to job satisfaction. Achievement is one of the intrinsic factors associated with job satisfaction. Conversely, there are extrinsic factors associated with the environment surrounding the job that tend to lead to dissatisfaction (Hackman et al., 1983). Therefore, it would seem to be important to know the types of satisfaction and dissatisfaction women administrators obtain from their work.

#### Statement of the Problem

The researcher investigated the job satisfiers and dissatisfiers that are perceived by women in educational administration from 1979 to 1986 in the Department of Defense Dependents Schools (DoDDS) in the Germany Region.



The number of women in educational administration is limited, and there are numerous myths to account for their absence in administration (Dale, 1973; Mertz, 1980). Although the population examined has grown in numbers significantly during the period of the study, it is felt that the data are reflective of the nation in general.

There are factors within the DoDDS Germany Region that affect the pursuit of women in educational administration other than the conscientious support given to upward mobility and the Affirmative Action program. In recent years, there has been an increase in the number of women entering administration. The perceived satisfiers of women upon entry into administration, as well as dissatisfiers perceived, were identified over a seven-year period.

#### Significance of the Study

Based on the concept that women perform as effectively as men in educational administration, the limited number of women in administration has an effect on the educational process.

Students who have never seen women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes. It seems reasonable to argue that education has traditionally been characterized by a dual career-development model. One track has been for administrators--usually male--and the other has been for instructors--usually female--with modest connections between the two. It seems appropriate to integrate the tracks. We should seek competent personnel of both sexes who will assume administrative roles that can provide leadership necessary for the improvement of educational services. (McQuigg & Carlton, 1980)

As found by Wakefield (1983), the number of women administrators doubled between 1978 and 1983; the same has occurred in DoDDS Germany between 1979 and 1986. Being cognizant of these trends

emphasizes the need for organizations to consider how they can use the talents of women administrators (School Directory, 1986; Winsor, 1984).

Before talents are used, consideration must be given to the causes of job satisfaction. An element of job satisfaction explored by the researcher is intrinsic rewards. This necessitates the use of knowledge and skill. They provide for continual growth, learning, and self-development. Managers have a great need for achievement and self-actualization (Hamner & Organ, 1978).

It is hoped that studies like this one may be significant if data are gathered concerning the satisfiers in the environment in which women are working as administrators and the dissatisfiers they encounter.

#### Assumptions

This dissertation was based on the following assumptions:

1. Women educators as well as men have a need to achieve in the role of school administrators.
2. There are job characteristics that are considered dissatisfiers that should be examined or refined to promote the optimal success of women administrators.

#### Definition of Terms

Satisfiers are intrinsic factors that motivate individuals to superior performance and effort (Herzberg, 1966).

Achievement is completing an important task successfully (Dunnette, 1975).

Work itself is the perception about the meaningfulness, challenge, and rewards of the job (Herzberg, 1966).

Responsibility is the freedom to use judgment and the accountability for actions (Dunnette, 1976).

Recognition is being singled out for praise (Dunnette, 1976).

Advancement is changing positions through promotions or laterally to gain additional experience (Dunnette, 1976).

Possibility of growth is the increase in task assignments (Herzberg, 1966).

Dissatisfiers are extrinsic factors that describe man's relationship to the context or environment in which he does his job (Herzberg, 1966).

Status is the high standing and prestige usually accompanied by appurtenances (i.e., name on the door, signature block, etc.) (Herzberg, 1966).

Salary is the monetary compensation for tasks performed (Herzberg, 1966).

Peer relationships are the interactions with individuals on the same level in an organization (Dunnette, 1976).

Supervisor relationships are the interactions with an individual(s) who evaluates performance (Dunnette, 1976).

Personal life is the individual involvement not related to the job, which may be affected by professional attitudes or feelings (Herzberg, 1966).

Policy and administration is the method by which organizational policies and procedures are implemented (Dunnette, 1976).

Administrators are school principals, assistant principals, and Educational Program Managers (EPMs).

Educational Program Manager is an entry-level administrative position that serves as the first step to assistant principal and then to principal.

DoDDS is the Department of Defense Dependent Schools.

#### Background of the Study

During the early 1800s, General Winfield Scott, leader of the U.S. troops in the War of 1812, recognized the need for schools to educate dependents of military personnel, and in 1821 Congress enacted a law to support schools for career Army personnel on various posts throughout America's isolated frontier. Following World War I, the post school system gained more recognition and financial support. After World War II, the international commitment of the United States military required troops to remain abroad in different parts of the world. The necessity of an educational system overseas was recognized. In 1946, an educational system of elementary and secondary schools was initiated for dependents of overseas military and civilian personnel (Summary of Programs, 1980).

Measures have been taken throughout the years to standardize the system of dependents schools. The standardization process has advanced through many stages. On November 1, 1978, H.R. 15 was enacted into law and became Public Law 95-561, Education Amendments of 1978. Title XIV of the Act, Defense Dependents Education Act of 1978, established the Department of Defense Dependents Schools (DoDDS) and mandated that certain programs be implemented with the mission of providing educational opportunities comparable to those in school systems in the United States (Summary of Programs, 1980).

The DoDDS system is divided into five regions: Atlantic, Germany, Mediterranean, Pacific, and Panama. There are approximately 11,500 employees, 270 schools, and 152,000 dependents receiving instruction from kindergarten through the twelfth grade in more than 20 countries. DoDDS Germany has 6,781 staff members, 139 schools, and 86,000 students (Tillman, 1986).

It should be noted that in 1979 there existed two separate regions in Germany, DoDDS North and DoDDS South. In 1979 there were 248 school-level administrative positions in the two regions, of which 45 were held by women. In 1983, the schools in DoDDS North and DoDDS South were consolidated in a move to centralize the Germany school operations. In September of that year, there existed 253 administrative positions, 58 of which were occupied by women.

By fall 1986 there were 113 women school administrators. This growth can be attributed in part to two factors: (a) selecting officials (the regional director, district superintendent, or

principal, as appropriate) intentionally searched for women applicants with high potential, and (b) as more women successfully entered the administrative ranks, they encouraged and supported others to seek administrative positions.

The number of women in school-level administrative positions has continued to increase over the years. In this study the multiple factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of women in school-level administrative positions from 1979 to 1986 was explored.

### Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What has been the level of participation of women in school administration in DoDDS Germany in each of the years from September 1979 until September 1986?
2. What have been the motivators/satisfiers for women in DoDDS Germany to enter school administration during the research period: 1979-1982 and 1983-1986?
3. What factors have been perceived by women school administrators in DoDDS Germany as satisfiers and dissatisfiers to careers in administration?
4. What factors have characterized the background of women in administration in DoDDS Germany?

### Design of the Study

#### Population

The population of the study comprised all the women in school-level administrative positions employed by the DoDDS in the Germany Region during the 1986-87 school year (DoDDS, 1986).

#### Procedures

A questionnaire was designed, based on literature related to job satisfiers and dissatisfiers. The design was refined after consultation with women currently employed as educational administrators within DoDDS-Germany and with the advice of regional office personnel experienced in the upward-mobility program of the school system. The questionnaire was designed to determine the perceived motivators and dissatisfiers of women in educational administration. The instrument was mailed to all women school-level administrators in Germany.

The women administrators for each year between 1979 and 1986 were identified by reviewing directories and personnel rosters. The administrators were divided into two groups. The first group comprised principals and assistant principals between 1979 and 1982. The second comprised new principals and assistants during the 1983 and 1986 school years. The new administrators were those who had not worked in administration during the 1979-1982 period.

### Limitations of the Study

1. The data gathered were based on the women administrators in DoDDS Germany.
2. The validity of the study was affected by the degree of sincerity and frankness of responses to the instrument administered.
3. The study was limited to those administrators who chose to complete and return the questionnaire, for the results may not reflect perceptions of those administrators who chose not to participate in the study.
4. The descriptive nature of the study was limited to how accurately women administrators described their perceptions.
5. The study was based only on the perceptions of women in the organization.

### Summary and Overview

Chapter I gave the fundamental reasons for and basic procedures of the study. The concepts were introduced and are developed in later chapters. The effect of this investigation of satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women in educational administration, which is developed later, is to determine components for upward-mobility training and to maximize the success rate of women administrators. Research questions were proposed related to the satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women in educational administration. The assumptions were stated, the design of the study outlined, and the problem explained.



In Chapter II the literature and theoretical background are explored. In Chapter III the design of the study is explained, including a description of the population, instrumentation, and data-collection procedures. Chapter IV contains an analysis of the data collected and a description of the findings. Chapter V includes the summary of the study, appropriate conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further study.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RELATED MATERIAL

#### Introduction

In this chapter literature and related materials that provide relevancy to the circumstances of women in administration are reviewed. The literature prefaces the research and conclusions related to the satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women in administration. The literature was categorized by the following topics: (a) relationships between needs theories and women in administration and (b) factors of the educational environment as they relate to women in administration

#### Needs Theories and Women in Administration

Herzberg (1966) stated that there has been a revolution in which man has protested not only treatment society accords him but the idea of his nature as it has been promoted by institutions. He seems to request a more realistic appraisal of his nature than the myths about him that have so conveniently been provided. Man has shifted from a mystical rational point of view of his physical universality; he now demands an equally rational view of his total needs. And the same applies to women. The primary function of any organization should be to implement the needs for man to enjoy a meaningful existence.

Particular needs must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with a job. Locke (1976) stated that

Needs are objective requirements of an organism's survival and well being. The concept of need develops from the fact that the existence of living organisms is conditional and life depends upon a definite course of goal-directed action. The concept of need refers to those conditions which are required to sustain life and well being of living organisms.

In 1935, Maslow developed a motivation theory based on five needs designed in a hierarchical structure delineating the most basic to the highest order. The classification of needs starts with the physiological being the foundation of the pyramid arrangement, followed by safety, love and belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization (Figure 2.1). In defining the levels of needs, the physiological represent bodily requirements for food and water. Safety needs deal with the individual's desire for security and protection. Belongingness and love cover a person's compulsion for affectionate relationships with others. Esteem needs encompass mastery, competence, reputation, and prestige. Finally, self-actualization needs represent the individual striving to reach his/her fullest potential (Gordon, 1983; Maslow, 1954). A person's needs may vary from the order of hierarchy, depending on the environment and situation.

Higher-order needs may vary in situations over lower-order ones. The motivating value of higher-order needs is developed later; they depend more on the environment for their existence, and are less tangible and observable. However, higher-order needs such as

self-actualization and esteem were judged more important by managers everywhere (Maslow, 1954).

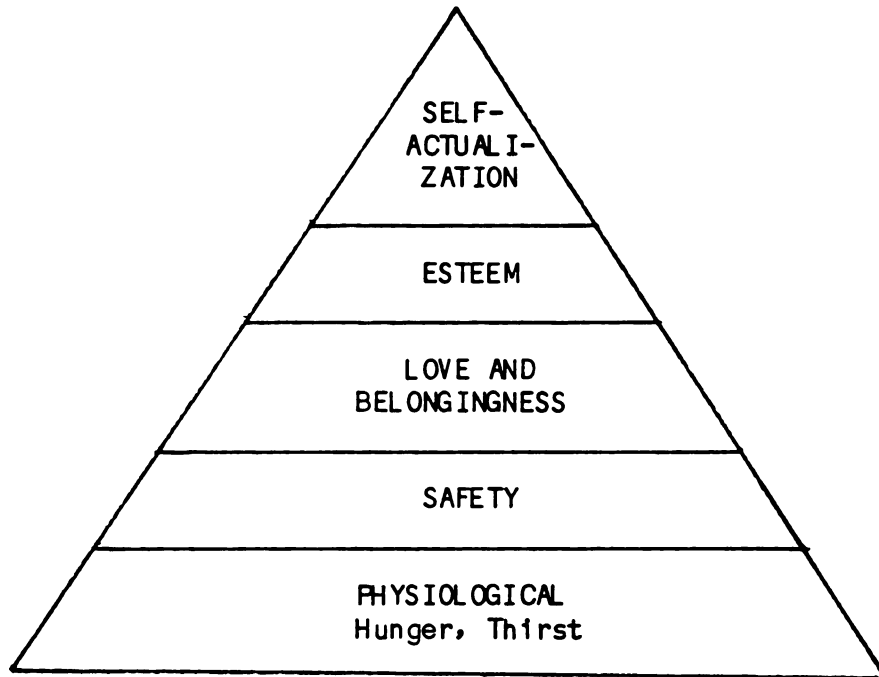


Figure 2.1.--Hierarchy of needs. (From Maslow, 1968.)

Although physiological barriers have been identified by some individuals as factors in the exclusion of women from educational administration, the physiological differences have not been a significant factor in keeping women out of management positions. The barrier encompasses the sex-typing of jobs and beliefs about the physiological characteristics of sexes (Robinson, 1975).

At one time, employers could recruit either male or female labor exclusively to obtain workers with traits that were considered

attributes of one sex or the other. Women supposedly were thought to have greater manual dexterity than men. The validity of this belief has not been determined; its relevance is the extent to which employers let this belief guide hiring policies (Oppenheimer, 1968). In 1972, the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) issued guidelines on discrimination because of sex, which have severely restricted the overt use of physiological characteristics in employment. Musculature and other physical characteristics have little relationship to the essential task performed in educational administration (Robinson, 1975).

Sex is not a bona fide occupational qualification (BFOQ). It has been determined that there is no significant difference between male and female principals (Pallante & Hilton, 1977).

The safety needs are considered when women are primarily perceived in a traditional mode and secondarily as career oriented. In this respect, education becomes a measure of safety which permits them to maintain themselves financially in the event that life should require independence or to contribute adequately to the family income (Antonucci, 1980; Fishel & Pottker, 1973; Haven et al., 1980; Hoyle, 1969; Robinson, 1975).

Although Maslow's levels will vary in situations, sponsorship in educational administration can be equated to the level of belongingness. While climbing the career ladder, sponsorship is assistance in a career by a nonparental career role model. The sponsor, or mentor, offers a critical service in helping to initiate and enhance a

professional's career. The sponsor provides encouragement to enter administration or to assist with the upward mobility on the career ladder. The sponsor may also provide job-related opportunities to aspiring individuals, as well as information to which the aspirant does not have access (Benton, 1980; Harragan, 1977; La Rouché & Ryan, 1984; Picker, 1980; Sheehy, 1976).

The esteem needs include mastery, competence, reputation, and prestige. The socialization of women has led vicariously to the experience of achievement and satisfaction through a supportive capacity rather than by attaining their personal career goals. The early socialization process is opposed when women assume traits in pursuing higher education or careers. The absence or repression of independence has been equated to the female sex role in the United States. Women are perceived as opposing sex-appropriate behavior when they seek independence and intellectual achievement. Top-level administrative leadership includes the qualities of intellectual achievement, competence, independence, and competition, which oppose the concept of femininity and are aligned with masculinity (Haven, 1980; Tibbetts, 1979).

Women face dissatisfiers associated with competence and talent and the perceived violations of sex-role norms when they strive for success in a field dominated by men. Women, to cope successfully in careers in administration, confront the psychological stress of internal ambivalence. They examine their career goals to determine their level of aspirations and develop strategies to handle traditional

career pressures and struggles with cultural norms and values (Biklen, 1980; Picker, 1980).

Fear of success is the weakest point for women. Motivational problems for women in administration are due to a need to prove their success continuously. Women have existed in a state of ambiguity in both formative years and careers. Males have learned in spite of differences to tolerate each other. Conversely, women are intolerant of each other and place emphasis on quality of relationships in the work setting. These factors become the means to an end and are elements of success (Gordon, 1983; Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Horner, 1969; Moore, 1981; Terborg, 1977).

The researcher Frederick Herzberg identified motivators or satisfiers and dissatisfiers for employees. The dissatisfiers, as identified by Herzberg, are named hygiene factors; they correspond with the lower-order needs as outlined by Maslow. The higher-order needs, self-esteem and self-actualization, are classified as motivators (Gordon, 1983).

Herzberg (1966) referred to Maslow's lower-order needs, physiological, safety, and love, as the Adam view of man. It is centered on the avoidance of loss of life, hunger, pain, sexual deprivation, and other primary drives, in addition to the endless varieties of learned fears that are affiliated with the basic drives. In contrast with the Adam view is the Abraham concept, which incorporates the higher-order needs. The Abraham concept deals with man's compelling urge to realize his own potentiality by continuous

psychological growth. Herzberg delineated this growth process with six points:

1. Growth is seeing more relationships in what we know. Most job experiences consist of familiar and unfamiliar tasks; therefore, some jobs can be performed without a person's having to acquire additional knowledge. On the other hand, some jobs require learning of new facts and principles. Individuals vary in what they retain from an experience, first with respect to quantity and second along a dimension of quality, relevancy, or importance.

2. Growth is creativity. The creative assignment is one that does not have a built-in solution or response. Growth in this state requires use of potentiality. In this case, some individuals are determined; others are determiners. The determiners use their brains for dynamic, creative activity, whereas the determined are unable to do so.

3. Growth is more relationships to knowledge. Isolated bits of knowledge are acquired; a growing individual places new information in context by relating other information. The higher-level cognitive development is determined when an individual can take the isolated bits and formulate the global picture, whereas another may only see the trees.

4. Growth is effectiveness in ambiguity. The experience of living is pervaded by challenges of ambiguous and probabilistic situations. Adults must deal with these aspects of life effectively.



5. Growth is individuation. One of the highest levels of psychological growth is becoming an individual--desocializing and separating the individual from his environment. In addition to societal demands, one develops feelings, beliefs, values, judgments, ideas, and behaviors.

6. Growth is real growth. An individual differentiates between illusion and reality and achieves based on one's own abilities, not claiming part of someone else's growth or achievements.

The concept of motivation explains performance of work and the level on which work is done. Performance is assumed to be a function of motivation and ability; if an individual fails to perform, this is attributed to a lack of motivation (Hamner & Organ, 1978).

In a study of job satisfaction of engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh, various criteria were used to record the sequence of events in the interview (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg et al., 1959). First, there was an objective happening, or a series of events. Second, the event was bound by time. Third, the events took place during a period in which feelings about the job could be classified as either exceptionally good or exceptionally bad. Fourth, the events occurred during a time when the respondent was considered a part of the sample. The last criterion dealt with a situation that directly affected the respondent's job and feelings. From the interviews conducted by Herzberg and his associates, five factors were determined as strong factors of job motivation--achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The last three were

identified as having greater importance in the permanent change of attitudes. The dissatisfiers that produced short-term change in job attitudes were company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. The satisfiers, which are referred to as motivators, describe what an individual does, whereas dissatisfiers or hygiene factors describe the relationship in the context or environment in which the job is performed. The hygiene events led to job dissatisfaction due to a need to avoid unpleasantness; the motivator events led to job satisfaction due to a need for growth or self-actualization (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Elizabeth Walt from American University replicated Herzberg's study using women employed at United States Government installations. These women were involved in analytical work and research in a variety of areas on high professional levels. The women were interviewed, and a sequence of events was elicited. Four motivators--achievement, work itself, responsibility, and recognition--were characterized as being significant job satisfiers. The two motivators that failed to discriminate were advancement and possibility of growth. The frequent sources of job unhappiness were company policy and administration. Three additional hygiene factors operated negatively: working conditions, status, and factors in their personal lives. Job security and salary were mentioned minimally, and supervision did not show a significant difference. While not occurring with great frequency, the hygiene factors of interpersonal relationships with subordinates and

with peers were found significantly more often in high-job-attitude sequences than in low sequences (Herzberg, 1966).

Beginning in the 1950s, McClelland and his associates studied needs similar to the higher-order needs identified by Maslow. They stated that each person has needs for (a) achievement, (b) affiliation, and (c) power (Gordon, 1983; Tewari, 1980). In striving to reach one's fullest potential, women, not having female role models, take on male traits of dominance, aggression, and achievement. In a male-dominated field, some women feel that they must be better than their male counterparts in the same or similar positions. Therefore, they intensify male traits and become overly dominant, aggressive, and intellectual (Horner, 1969).

The effectiveness of leadership style with different levels of need for achievement was investigated by Misumi and Seki (1971). They found that individuals with a high need for achievement performed better with leaders who were task as well as people oriented. Conversely, individuals with a low need for achievement performed better with task-oriented leaders.

The various patterns of administrative style, career development, and instructional supervisory roles have indicated differences in educational leadership. The differences are related to expectation of the sexes, stereotypical behavior, and to one another. This type of behavior for women can label them as not being able to assume leadership roles or not having the appropriate characteristics that would enable them to succeed in management positions. Women must

learn to behave effectively through adaptive behavior due to their difficulty functioning in a work environment dominated by the male experience. To develop into contributing members of an organization, women must become socialized to the male culture (Fasher & Fasher, 1979; Moore, 1981). Self-motivation and the determination to succeed have been significant factors in the selection of women for top-level administrative positions (Benton, 1980).

Achievement differs from affiliation motivation in that people motivated to affiliate are concerned with the organization and maintenance of affectionate relationships with others. The need for achievement is an individualized need, and the need for affiliation governs interpersonal relationships (Tewari, 1980).

A person motivated mainly by achievement motivation may make important contributions to society, but may not be the most comfortable person to live with. . . . He works hard when he gets involved in a problem, whereas a person motivated primarily by affiliation may not be so involved in getting the job done, because people mean more to him than the task. (Murray, 1964)

The need for affiliation is demonstrated in individuals who want to be liked by others. Getting along with co-workers is more important than how much the group accomplishes. Individuals with a high need for affiliation are sensitive to the feelings of others; they avoid task situations that engender social and emotional conflict (Hamner & Organ, 1978).

The idea of desiring and seeking social approval is taught to women. Their lives are directed by this force. On the basis of others' opinions, women tend to change their estimations of their own competence, and despite objective data to the contrary, they are more

likely to denigrate their abilities and accomplishments (Nielsen, 1979).

A woman has two options in the closely ordered and male-defined structure of the academy: her womanliness can be exhibited or depressed. In depressing it, a woman tries to neutralize or neuterize her gender to gain professional approval. In exhibiting gender, a woman attempts to emphasize or integrate her gender to obtain collegial acceptance. The purpose of each method is to compensate for collegial disapproval. Every woman in administration is faced with the mutually exclusive responses to the dilemma of to fit or not to fit (Swoboda & Vanderbosch, 1983).

Some women use visibility and emphasize differences as approaches to become accepted. These approaches tend to have limited effectiveness due to peer rejection of individuals who behave differently. Others downplay their visibility by moving behind the scenes, being quiet at meetings and not requesting acknowledgment for their work or ideas. These techniques give credence to male stereotypes and will not increase the number of women in administrative positions (Kanter, 1977).

Women are being encouraged and persuaded to seek administrative positions that would not have been sought initially (Fasher, 1982). The encouragement given by a sponsor or mentor cannot be underestimated. Prerequisites for sponsorships are peer recognition and support of a candidate for administration. The candidate has a limited chance of success without the peer approval; a successful

protege produces additional prestige for the sponsor. The sponsor, through various training opportunities that have been created, helps the candidate avoid unsuccessful situations and to learn techniques. These opportunities are provided if a candidate has talent and can perform well (Tibbetts, 1979). When the merit of the candidate is questionable, the candidate is subjected to a series of tests to determine whether he/she will obtain group approval (Valverde, 1980). To overcome psychological and social barriers that are encountered during the career-escalation process, support from others is a vital element.

As an individual supports, influences, or exerts control over another, the motive of power is either unsocialized personal power or socialized institutional power. The latter is related to the positive climate for the work environment. In such a climate, subordinates have a sense of responsibility and a clear knowledge of the organization (Gordon, 1983; Hamner & Organ, 1978; McClelland & Burnham, 1975). Relevant elements in combining organizational effectiveness and power-oriented behavior are values, moral beliefs, and personality characteristics of the administrator. Effective administrators possessing a strong need for power are motivated toward organizational goals rather than self-aggrandizement (McClelland & Burnham, 1976).

Women are as interested in power as men; when interested in power or motivated for power, women are as instrumental about getting formal social power as are men; and power motivated women do not view sex as a form of power, unlike their male counterparts, therefore, they have no special problems dealing with the opposite sex. (Winter, 1975)

In considering the socialized power, women have been found to be better principals than men.

In schools headed by women, children and teachers perform better and morale is higher. Women principals demonstrate a greater ability to work with others and maintain discipline; they are more democratic leaders and display superior teaching expertise. Reasons for the superiority of women principals may be found in their greater teaching experience and higher qualifications for the principalship. (Tibbetts, 1980)

The invigorated participation of teachers is due to the democratic leadership style exhibited by women principals. These administrators value the total school process by establishing a good relationship with students, teachers, and superiors (Fasher & Fasher, 1979).

With respect to attitudes toward the leadership skill of women administrators, attitude surveys of employing officials indicate preferential hiring of males. This practice is based on the belief that men are more effective administrators for a number of social and psychological reasons. However, when parents were invited to rate school effectiveness and the principal's qualities, those schools with female principals tended to rank higher than those administered by men. (McQuigg & Carlton, 1980)

The pertinent assets of combining power-oriented behavior and organizational effectiveness are demonstrated by the personality characteristics, moral values, and beliefs of women in educational administration. Women bring a meritorious background to their positions. They obtain during their careers a variety of experiences in public education, which endows their escalation to administrative heights (Tibbetts, 1980).

### Educational Environment of Women in Administration

The differences in job satisfaction reflect differences in the nature of the jobs or work situations of individuals. Job satisfaction must be the result of the integration of both situational and personality variables. Satisfaction is directly related to the extent to which the job provides a rewarding outcome (Vroom, 1964).

Job satisfaction is related to conditions in the individual and the job environment. Together they provide a variety of consequences. These consequences may affect attitudes, as well as physical and mental health (Locke, 1976).

The job environment in which an administrator perceives satisfaction or dissatisfaction was considered a social system by Getzels and Guba (1957).

Administration is conceived of structurally as the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system. (Getzels, 1958)

Interpersonal or social behavior is observed in the context of this concept; the social system is considered conceptual rather than descriptive. Educational administration may be considered a social system. Figure 2.2 is applicable to the administrative unit.

In the nomothetic or normative dimension of activity in a social system, the institution is defined by certain roles and expectations that will accomplish the goals of the social system. The idiographic or personal dimension of the social system is affected by personalities and need-dispositions of individuals. The classes of



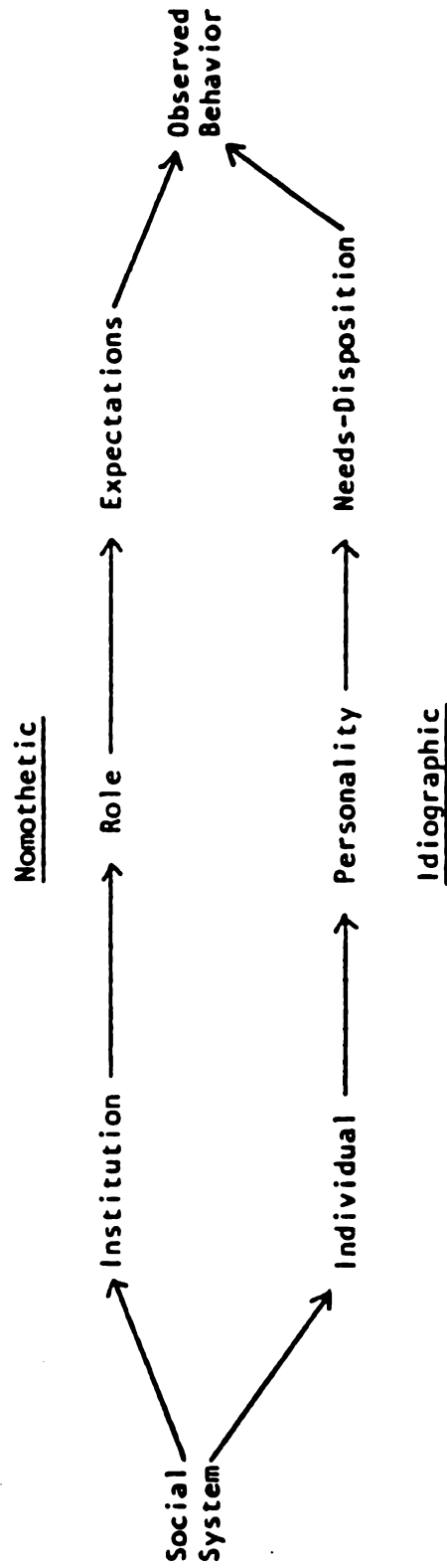


Figure 2.--Nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of social behavior. (From Getzels, 1957.)

the social system are considered independent, but in an actual situation they are interactive (Getzels & Guba, 1957).

Herzberg focused on two fundamental laws of interaction among variables: (a) there is an inverse relationship between the levels of an individual's dissatisfaction and the perceived adequacy of the extrinsic factors of his situation of behavior, and (b) there is a positive relationship between the individual's satisfaction and the perceived adequacy in the intrinsic factors of a behavioral situation (Dubin, 1976).

The term "institution" is defined as imperative functions that are executed in certain routinized methods. Agencies have been established to carry out the institutionalized functions. The role is the most important subunit of the institution (Getzels, 1958; Getzels & Guba, 1957; Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968). Roles are the "dynamic aspects" of offices, positions, and statuses within an institution (Linton, 1936). The behavior of the role incumbent or actors is defined by their role. Therefore, role expectations further define the term "role." A role has certain normative obligations and responsibilities, which may be termed "role expectations," and when the role incumbent puts these obligations and responsibilities into effect, he/she is said to be performing his/her role. Roles are complementary and interdependent, whereas each role derives its meaning from other related roles in the institution. The role becomes a prescription not only for the given role incumbent but also for the incumbent of other roles within the organization. In the hierarchical setting of

expectations, one role may to some extent form sanctions for a second interlocking role. At this level of analysis, the role incumbents are considered actors devoid of personalistic or other individualizing characteristics--as if all incumbents were exactly alike and as if they implemented a given role in exactly the same way. This permits understanding and prediction of behavior in an organization (Campbell, Bridges, Corbau, Nystrand, & Ramseyer, 1971; Getzels, 1968).

For the purpose of this research, administration is considered the institution. The definition of administration here is a social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling, and unifying formally and informally organized human and material energies within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined objectives (Knezevich, 1962). Structurally, administration is perceived as a hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system.

The socialization of women once they have gained entry into management usually involves adjustment to the demands of the male workplace. Women accept but can become too dependent on the rationale of belief in the effectiveness of the formal structure. They can become victims of the Cinderella Syndrome and the way things should be because they develop no sense of an organizational environment. Women almost consistently fail to recognize and work with the dynamics of their work environment and consequently fail to build it into career aspirations over the long term. They must become aware of and use the informal system of relationships and information sharing, the ties of loyalty and dependence of favors granted and owed, of mutual benefit of protection into behavior and response. They must take advantage of advantageous situations. (Moore, 1981)

The role and expectations of the administrator are integrated and can be defined in a dual classification of the administrative

process. The activities of the administrative role are the first-order abstractions and include planning, decision making, executing or operating, and appraising. These abstractions represent the common base of thinking. The administrative expectations are represented by the second-order abstractions, which incorporate goal orienting, organizing, assembling and allocating resources, leadership, coordinating, controlling, and performing ceremonial functions. The second-order abstractions demand action (Knezevich, 1962).

Men dominate the field of educational administration, and frequently this is justified on the grounds that women do not perform as well as men in educational leadership positions (Fishel & Pottker, 1975). Conversely, women have been found to be similar to men in leadership style and behavior (Bartol & Wortman, 1975; Chapman & Luthans, 1975; Day & Stogdill, 1972; Lee & Alvares, 1977), potential managerial capability (Bass, Kursell, & Alexander, 1971), subordinate satisfaction (Bartol, 1974), performance (Bowman, Worthy, & Greyser, 1965; Day & Stogdill, 1972), cooperation and competition (Lirtzmann & Wahba, 1972), and problem solving (Matthews, 1972). The personal dimension of Getzels and Guba's model of social behavior deals with the individual personality and need disposition. It is not enough to know the role and expectations of the administrators performing the functions of educational administration. The individual inhabiting the roles and reacting to the expectations must be considered.

A work role conducive to job satisfaction appears to be one that provides varied responsibilities, considerate and participative

supervision, promotional opportunities, peer interaction, and control over work methods and pace (Vroom, 1964).

Personality has been defined as the dynamic organization within the individual of those need dispositions that govern his/her unique reaction to the environment and expectations in the environment (Getzels, 1958). The central analytic elements of personality are the need dispositions, which have been defined as individual tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners and to expect certain consequences from these actions (Parsons & Shils, 1951).

When two role incumbents--subordinate and a superordinate--understand each other, their perceptions and their own organization of the prescribed complementary expectations are congruent. When they misunderstand one another, the relationship between perceptions and their organizational expectations is incongruent. The social system is dependent on a clear statement of public expectation, the degree of overlap in the perception, and individual organization of the expectations by the role incumbents (Campbell et al., 1971).

Environmental factors such as the organizational structure affect women. Power differences between sexes and sex-role stereotypes in the outside world are reflected by organizations. The natural or learned abilities of women in administration are inhibited by these influences (Amodeo & Emslie, 1985). Nevertheless, women surpass the ability of men in working with teachers and the community (Hemphill et al., 1962). Women principals have better and closer

communications with teachers in their schools, show greater respect for the dignity of teachers, maintain a close-knit organization, and are more effective in resolving staff conflicts. The schools with women principals are regarded in a more positive attitude by parents. These same parents are more involved in school affairs and approve more often of learning activities and outcomes (Cirinione-Coles, 1975; Fishel & Pottker, 1975; Lupini, 1975).

Many of the superiority aspects of women as educational administrators are due to the fact that women have far more teaching experience than do male administrators (Collins, 1977; Fishel & Pottker, 1973; Hoyle, 1969; Hullett, 1977; Rometo, 1983; Van Meir, 1975). Women in many cases have "learned the ropes better . . . adopted to the system over a longer period of time . . . and internalized values of the schools more deeply" (Grambs, 1976; Shakeshaft, 1986).

In a given situation, the female administrator is able to detect the behaviors that are most appropriate. According to her own value system, she is able to differentiate which battles to pick and which behavioral strategies to try--accommodation or confrontation. She is able to depersonalize her situation and deromanticize available alternatives. The female in various situations must react according to her own personality or need disposition and not according to those of others. Her sense of the situation provides her with the ability to understand that the experiences are shared, political, and unnecessary (Swoboda & Vanderbosch, 1983).

Most women experience internal conflict as school managers. The characteristics of a principal's role are considered masculine: strength, assertiveness, independence, and the ability to remain cool and to control one's emotions. Women are required to make more personality shifts than men in order to be successful (Erickson, 1985).

The female administrator struggles with internal and external conflicts. The former relate to roots in the process of socialization. Young girls are taught to please and nurture. By the time they reach adulthood, facing a conflict assertively is considered unfeminine. They want to have positive relationships in which they are liked and no one is upset with them. The external conflict is experienced at home and on the job by female administrators who are married. There are different behavioral expectations for the two situations (Erickson, 1985). Conflict exists between self-perceptions of roles and role demands of relevant others. The emotional conflict and physical exhaustion are experienced when women assume additional roles. Role overload may exist when a career is added to the job of being a mother, which is added to the job of being a wife (Palmtieri & Shakeshaft, 1976; Terborg, 1977).

Successful women in administration communicate effectively and evaluate situations perceptively. They are knowledgeable, self-confident, composed, assertive, and sensitive. They continually strive to appear aware, capable, and efficient (Erickson, 1985). Some women attribute their success to personal strength, determination to have careers, and the encouragement and support they received. These

women were motivated to pursue careers in order to have an influence on the organization and to develop new skills. Secondary factors were money and security. The least important was power (Woo, 1986). These motivators are directly related to the job attitudes of women in high-level administrative positions. The basis for satisfaction lay in the individual's accomplishment, while the basis of her dissatisfaction stemmed from her perception of the inequity within the environment (Herzberg, 1966).

As the women in administration are driven to achieve, Erickson (1985) stated that the awareness of the forces that affect the professional climb grows slowly. They learn when to lead and when to follow. The journey is more difficult, frustration is increased, and the path to the goal is indirect. In spite of the perceived dissatisfiers, satisfaction is derived from the work in educational administration.

### Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to verify from educational literature the propositions in Chapter I, as well as to integrate factors of motivational needs with the educational social system as they relate to women in administration.

The premise of needs being attained for an individual to be satisfied with a job was stated and developed through theory. The basic need theories of Herzberg, Maslow, and McClelland were discussed and integrated with current literature about the needs of women. A relationship was established with the higher-order needs. Maslow's



lower-order needs correspond with Herzberg's hygiene factors, and both produce short-term change in job attitudes. Maslow and McClelland assessed belongingness and affiliation, respectively. The two areas gave credence to interpersonal relationships as factors of job satisfaction. It was noted that the higher-order needs produce satisfaction in various stages of growth in the work environment. Satisfaction was identified through leadership styles, positive work environment, achievement, and recognition.

In viewing administration as a social system as defined by Getzels and Guba, the interacting factors in the institution, role expectations, individual, personality, and needs-disposition were examined. The observed behavior of women within this framework indicated personal and professional role conflict. The attitude of women in the social system is the sum of the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN OF THE STUDY

#### Introduction

The survey procedures and research methods are described in this chapter. The following areas are discussed: (a) type of study, (b) population, (c) instrumentation, (d) collection of data, (e) treatment of data, (f) testable hypotheses, and (g) statistical procedures.

#### Type of Study

The researcher's purpose in this study was to investigate the satisfiers and dissatisfiers perceived by women in educational administration. The areas of concern were the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of women administrators. Herzberg (1966) identified the intrinsic factors as achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, and the possibility of growth. The extrinsic factors are status, salary, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, personal life, and policy and administration.

The descriptive method of research was used in this study. Best (1981) stated that descriptive research describes what is. It involves the analysis, recording, description, and interpretation of

conditions that exist. It involves a contrast or comparison and attempts to discover relationships between variables.

The information related to women in administration was described, recorded, analyzed, and interpreted. Comparisons were made between the women who commenced their administrative careers in 1979-1982 and 1983-1986. Each group responded to a questionnaire developed to identify the intrinsic and extrinsic factors in their administrative positions.

### Population

The population used in the study comprised all women school-level administrators in DoDDS Germany in 1986. There were 89 elementary, 7 middle, 2 elementary-middle, 5 junior high, 8 elementary junior high, 5 unit (K-12), and 23 high schools (School Directory, 1986). The student population ranged from 16 students at Berchtesgaden Elementary to 2,100 at Ramstein Elementary (DoDDS, 1986). There were 299 administrators, 186 men and 113 women. Women were represented in each classification of schools (School Directory, 1986).

### Instrumentation

The researcher developed a questionnaire to gather data related to job satisfiers and dissatisfiers to fulfill the purpose of the study. The criteria used for the questionnaire were those described by Borg and Gall (1983) as follows: (a) attractiveness of the questionnaire; (b) ease with which the questionnaire can be

completed; (c) number of items and pages; (d) sequence, coding, and print; and (e) explanation of the relevance of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire stressed the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of Herzberg (1966). The first draft of the questionnaire was sent to a small group of nine women administrators, who offered suggestions and revisions. The 38-item questionnaire was given to the program evaluators in DoDDS Germany to determine if the items were, in their opinion, attending to the indicated satisfiers. Their recommendations were incorporated into the second draft containing 55 items.

To establish reliability and validity, a group of women outside the studied population who had related experiences in the DoDDS program were identified. The second draft of the questionnaire was mailed to this group and the doctoral committee. Their input, responses, and comments were reviewed. As a result, questions were added, deleted, and rephrased to eliminate ambiguity. A copy of the instrument is in the appendix.

A cover letter was composed to accompany the questionnaire. These items were mailed to all 113 women administrators in DoDDS Germany during the week of December 29, 1986.

The questionnaire was developed in four parts:

Part I contained questions related to the year the respondent entered administration and her position at that time. Only one of the four questions was answered. The answer was used to categorize the respondent in one of two periods: either 1979-1982 or 1983-1986. The groups were divided according to the stated time frames because of

major organizational changes. From 1972 to 1982, there were two separate regions in Germany, North and South. In 1983 the two Germany regions were merged to form DoDDS-Germany. The researcher suspected that the women administrators who entered administration during 1979-1982 would perceive job satisfaction differently from those women administrators who entered administration during 1983-1986. The response also indicated the applicable position of assisting administrator or building principal.

Part II contained ten questions related to perceptions before entering administration. Questions were developed in the following five areas associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction:

<u>Area</u>	<u>Question</u>
1. Achievement	5-6
2. Recognition	7-8
3. Possibility of growth	9-10
4. Peer relationships	11-12
5. Supervisor relationships	13-14

The response codes were designed in a Likert-type scale as follows:

- 1 = Often
- 2 = Sometimes
- 3 = Rarely

Part III contained 31 questions related to the current administrative position and those factors associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. There were 12 areas, with questions for each as follows:

<u>Area</u>	<u>Question</u>
1. Achievement	15-16
2. Work itself	17-18
3. Responsibility	19-21
4. Recognition	22-23
5. Advancement	24-26
6. Possibility of growth	27-29
7. Status	30-32
8. Salary	33-35
9. Peer relationships	36-38
10. Supervisor relationships	39-40
11. Personal life	41-43
12. Policy and administration	44-45

The response codes were developed in a Likert-type scale using the following:

Describes me		A strong reason
Somewhat describes me	or	A reason, but weak
Not true of me		Not a reason

Part IV contained 13 demographic questions related to the background of the respondent.

#### Collection of the Data

The questionnaires were mailed to all 113 members of the population on December 29, 1986, with an introductory letter and self-addressed return envelope. (See Appendix.) Table 3.1 indicates the responses of the group.

#### Treatment of the Data

For Part I only, the chi-square test was used to determine the significance of differences between the populations involved. Number values were assigned to the items in Parts II, III, and IV of the questionnaire. The responses were coded, and a computer program was written. Data analysis for Hypotheses 4 through 31 was done using the

Student's t-test statistic. Upon the advice of the research consultant, the hypothesis test of significance was performed using an alpha level of .10. Within the interest of this research, all p-values were reported.

Table 3.1.--Responses to the questionnaire.

Group	Number Sent	Number Returned	Percent Returned
Principals	48	42	88
Assistant principals	31	27	87
Educational program managers	34	30	88
Total	113	99	87.6

### Testable Hypotheses

In determining whether a significant difference existed between Group A, 1979-1982, and Group B, 1983-1986, regarding the satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women administrators, the following null hypotheses were developed for Parts I, II, III, and IV of the questionnaire:

#### Part I: Grouping Administrators Based on Position and Time Period

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant difference in the number of women and men administrators during 1979-1982 and 1983-1986.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant difference in the number of women administrators in Groups A and B.

Part II: Factors Before  
Entering Administration

There is no significant difference in perceptions between Groups A and B in the following:

Hypothesis 3: Achievement before entering administration.

Hypothesis 4: Recognition before entering administration.

Hypothesis 5: Possibility of growth before entering administration.

Hypothesis 6: Peer relationships before entering administration.

Hypothesis 7: Supervisor relationships before entering administration.

Part III: Factors Related to Current  
Positions in Administration

There is no significant difference in perceptions between Groups A and B in the following:

Hypothesis 8: Achievement as an administrator.

Hypothesis 9: Work itself as an administrator.

Hypothesis 10: Responsibility as an administrator.

Hypothesis 11: Recognition as an administrator.

Hypothesis 12: Advancement as an administrator.

Hypothesis 13: Possibility of growth as an administrator.

Hypothesis 14: Status as an administrator.

Hypothesis 15: Salary as an administrator.

Hypothesis 16: Peer relationships as an administrator.

Hypothesis 17: Supervisor relationships as an administrator.



Hypothesis 18: Personal life as an administrator.

Hypothesis 19: Policy and administration as an administrator.  
in Groups A and B.

#### Part IV: Demographic Data

Hypothesis 20: There is no significant difference in the years of employment in education of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 21: There is no significant difference in the years of employment with DoDDS of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 22: There is no significant difference in the number of years employed as administrators or above-school-level staff positions of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 23: There is no significant difference in the number of years employed as a teacher or school specialist of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 24: There is no significant difference in the entrance ages to administration of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 25: There is no significant difference in the current ages of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 26: There is no significant difference in the educational degrees of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 27: There is no significant difference in the administrative aspirations of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 28: There is no significant difference in the school-level administrative assignments of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 29: There is no significant difference in the administrative level assignments of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 30: There is no significant difference in the marital status of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Hypothesis 31: There is no significant difference in the number of children or dependents of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

### Statistical Procedures

The research consultant service in the College of Education at Michigan State University assisted in recommending appropriate statistical techniques for the analysis of data. The Evaluation Branch of the DoDDS Germany Regional Office assisted in analysis of the data.

The statistical procedures used in the analysis of data were the chi-square test and "Student's t," random variable t. The hypothesis test of significance was performed using an alpha level of .10. Within the interest of this research, all p-values were reported.

### Summary

In this chapter the planning and implementation of the study were described. A description of the type of study and the population was given. The development and testing of the instrument were presented. The data-collection and treatment procedures were discussed. The testable hypotheses were stated, and the statistical procedures used in analyzing the data were presented.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

#### Introduction

This study was undertaken to explore the perceptions of satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women in educational administration in DoDDS Germany from 1979 to 1986. This was accomplished by identifying two groups of women administrators, Group A and Group B. The groups were divided according to two time frames because of major organizational changes. From 1979 to 1982 there were two separate regions in Germany, North and South. In 1983 the two Germany regions were merged to form DoDDS-Germany. The researcher suspected that the women administrators who entered administration during 1979-1982 would perceive job satisfaction differently from those women administrators who entered administration during 1983-1986. With these groups, the factors of achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, status, salary, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, and policy and administration were examined and compared.

The data analysis is presented as follows: The hypothesis is restated. The data are analyzed sequentially according to Parts I, II, III, and IV of the questionnaire. A summary of the findings concludes this chapter.

Grouping Women Administrators Based on Position and Entry  
Into Administration: Part I of the Questionnaire

In this part of the questionnaire, the women administrators were divided into groups according to their years of entry into administration--either 1979-1982, which is referred to as Group A, or 1983-1986, which is Group B. The hypotheses in this part were tested by using the chi-square statistical test. To portray the comparative statistics for men in DoDDS-Germany during the research period of 1979-1982, the hypotheses included data for both sexes, as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1.--Division of school administrators.

	1979-1982		1983-1986	
	N	%	N	%
Men	196	78	190	67
Women	56	22	93	33
Total	252	100	283	100

Summary statistics:

	Women-Men	Women A & B
Total chi-square	7.51	2.442
Chi-square with continuity correction	6.99	2.068
Probability value	.001	.01
	$<p \leq .01$	$<p \leq .20$

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant difference in the number of women and men administrators during 1979-1982 and 1983-1986.

The number of men compared to women was significant at the .01 level. The decrease from 78 percent to 67 percent had little effect on the preponderance of men administrators. The hypothesis was not retained.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant difference in the number of women administrators in Groups A and B.

Although the average number of women administrators during the two periods increased from 56 to 93, the total number of administrators also increased, from 252 to 283. The 11 percent gain for the women was significant at a probability level of .10 to .20. The hypothesis was retained.

### Post-Hoc Analyses

Based on the finding of significant changes as indicated by the results of the chi-square test, a further analysis was conducted using the z-test for equality of proportions. The formula for this test is follows:

$$z = \frac{PF_{time2} - PF_{time1}}{\sqrt{(F_{time2} + F_{time1}) \cdot (1 - \frac{F_{time2} + F_{time1}}{N}) \cdot (\frac{1}{T_{time1}} + \frac{1}{T_{time2}})}}$$

where:

PF = Proportion of females (or males)

F = Frequency of females (or males)

N = Total number of administrators

T = Total number administrators in specific time period

The first phase of this analysis was designed to compare the change among females across the two time periods. The value of  $z$ , 2.675, exceeded the critical value, 1.65. Thus it can be concluded that there was a significant shift in the female population across the two time periods. A similar  $z$ -test was conducted to determine whether the shift in the male population was significant. The value of  $z$  for this second test was 2.663, again exceeding the tabled value. Thus the shift in the male population was also significant.

Perceived Factors of Respondents Before Entering  
Administration: Part II of the Questionnaire

In this part of the questionnaire, the respondent groups' perceptions of achievement, recognition, possibility of growth, peer relationships, and supervisor relationships were examined as they existed before entering administration.

Two questions were given to test each hypothesis. There were three possible responses: often, sometimes, and rarely. The responses were given the values of 1, 3, and 5, respectively, with 1 being the most desirable. The possible scores ranged from 2 to 10, with a midpoint of 6. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

To establish consistency in the range of scores, two-thirds of each mean in Table 4.2 was computed, after which the motivators or satisfiers were rank ordered for Groups A and B, as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.2.--Perceived satisfiers before entering administration.

Hypothesis	Topic	Mean Group A	Mean Group B	t- Score	Decision
3	Achievement	2.791	2.431	1.359	NR
4	Recognition	4.833	3.882	2.235*	R
5	Possibility of growth	3.750	3.215	1.217	NR
6	Peer relationships	3.875	2.980	3.050**	R
7	Supervisor rela- tionships	4.458	3.294	2.112*	R

Note: R = The hypothesis was retained.  
 NR = The hypothesis was not retained.

\*.01 < p ≤ .05.

\*\*0.001 < p ≤ .01.

Table 4.3.--Satisfiers rank ordered by mean scores.

Group A			Group B		
Rank	Topic	Mean	Rank	Topic	Mean
1	Achievement	2.791	1	Achievement	2.431
2	Possibility of growth	3.750	2	Peer relationships	2.980
3	Peer relationships	3.875	3	Possibility of growth	3.215
4	Supervisor rela- tionships	4.458	4	Supervisor rela- tionships	3.294
5	Recognition	4.833	5	Recognition	3.882

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of achievement before entering administration between Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. Parents stated to my supervisor that I was a positive influence on their child's learning.
2. I felt that I could help students to succeed and maintain a balance with teachers.

The mean for Group A was 2.791, and the mean for Group B was 2.431. The obtained t-score of 1.359 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no significant differences were found in the responses of Groups A and B. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of recognition before entering administration between Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I received formal recognition for my teaching performance from my supervisor.
2. I had been nominated for membership or had been asked to run for an office in a professional organization, union, association, or fraternity/sorority.

The mean for Group A was 4.833, and the mean for Group B was 3.882. The obtained t-score of 2.235 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. Recognition was perceived as a stronger motivator in Group B than in Group A.



Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of the possibility of growth before entering administration between Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I felt that I could grow professionally by becoming an administrator.
2. I felt that more opportunities would be available to me by becoming an administrator.

The mean for Group A was 3.750, and the mean for Group B was 3.215. The obtained t-score of 1.217 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of peer relationships before entering administration between Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. My peers had told me personally that they thought I should become a school administrator.
2. Whenever I served in a leadership position, my colleagues were supportive.

The mean for Group A was 3.875, and the mean for Group B was 2.980. The obtained t-score of 3.050 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The significantly higher mean for Group B would indicate that the later-entering group of women experienced greater encouragement and support as they entered administration. Peer relationships appeared to be a stronger motivator for them than for the women in Group A. Peer relationships was a stronger motivator in Group B than in Group A.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of supervisor relationships before entering administration between Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. My supervisor encouraged me to consider school administration.
2. My supervisor provided me with information about career advancement and upward mobility.

The mean for Group A was 4.458, and the mean for Group B was 3.294. The obtained t-score of 2.112 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The perception of supervisor relationships was more motivating in Group B than in Group A.

Perceived Factors of Respondents Currently Employed  
as School-Level Administrators: Part III of  
the Questionnaire

This part of the questionnaire was related to the current positions of women in administration. The respondent groups' perceptions of achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, status, salary, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, personal life, and policy and administration were investigated. The results are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.--Perceived satisfiers of women currently in administration.

Hypothesis	Topic	Mean Group A	Mean Group B	t- Score	Decision
8	Achievement	6.166	5.137	2.618*	NR
9	Work itself	3.458	3.058	.949	R
10	Responsibility	5.229	4.666	1.174	R
11	Recognition	5.541	6.352	-1.561	R
12	Advancement	8.958	8.882	.146	R
13	Possibility of growth	5.708	4.372	2.937**	NR
14	Status	10.500	9.745	1.317	R
15	Salary	11.958	12.196	-.393	R
16	Peer relationships	8.458	7.156	2.203*	NR
17	Supervisor rela- tionships	3.708	4.058	-.919	R
18	Personal life	11.208	11.705	-.981	R
19	Policy and administration	5.208	5.137	.152	R

Note: R = The hypothesis was retained.

NR = The hypothesis was not retained.

\*.01 < p ≤ .05.

\*\* .001 < p ≤ .01.

Two questions were given to test Hypotheses 8, 9, 11, 17, and 19. There were three possible responses for each question. The responses were given the values of 1, 3, and 5, with 1 being the most desirable. The possible scores ranged from 2 to 10, with a midpoint of 6. The results are shown in Table 4.5.

For Hypotheses 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, and 18, three questions were given to test the hypotheses. There were three possible responses to each question. The responses were given the values of

1, 3, and 5. The possible scores ranged from 3 to 15, with a midpoint of 9. The results are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5.--Hypotheses with two questions and a midpoint score of 6.

Hypothesis	Topic	Mean Group A	Mean Group B	t- Score	Decision
8	Achievement	6.166	5.137	2.618*	NR
9	Work itself	3.458	3.058	.949	R
11	Recognition	5.541	6.352	-1.561	R
17	Supervisor relationships	3.708	4.058	-.919	R
19	Policy and administration	5.208	5.137	.152	R

Note: R = The hypothesis was retained.  
NR = The hypothesis was not retained.

\*.01 < p ≤ .05.

Table 4.6.--Hypotheses with three questions and a midpoint score of 9.

Hypothesis	Topic	Mean Group A	Mean Group B	t- Score	Decision
10	Responsibility	5.229	4.666	1.174	R
12	Advancement	8.958	8.882	.146	R
13	Possibility of growth	5.708	4.372	2.937**	NR
14	Status	10.500	9.745	1.317	R
15	Salary	11.958	12.196	-.393	R
16	Peer relationships	8.458	7.156	2.203*	NR
18	Personal life	11.208	11.705	-.981	R

Note: R = The hypothesis was retained.  
NR = The hypothesis was not retained.

\*.01 < p ≤ .05.

\*.001 < p ≤ .01.

To establish consistency in the range of scores, two-thirds of each mean in Table 4.6 was computed. Then the motivators or satisfiers were rank ordered for Groups A and B, as reflected in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7.--Satisfiers rank ordered by mean scores.

Group A			Group B		
Rank	Topic	Mean	Rank	Topic	Mean
1	Work itself	3.458	1	Possibility of growth	2.914
2	Responsibility	3.486	2	Work itself	3.058
3	Supervisor relationships	3.708	3	Responsibility	3.110
4	Possibility of growth	3.805	4	Supervisor relationships	4.058
5	Policy and administration	5.208	5	Peer relationships	4.770
6	Recognition	5.541	6	Achievement	5.137
7	Peer relationships	5.638	7	Policy and administration	4.137
8	Advancement	5.972	8	Advancement	5.921
9	Achievement	6.166	9	Recognition	6.352
10	Status	7.000	10	Status	6.496
11	Personal life	7.472	11	Personal life	7.803
12	Salary	7.972	12	Salary	8.131

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of achievement of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I entered administration because my success in administration and supervision coursework convinced me that I would be successful on the job.

2. In my current position, I feel I have been able to achieve specific goals.

The mean for Group A was 6.166, and the mean for Group B was 5.137. The obtained t-score of 2.618 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. Group B perceived achievement as a stronger motivator than did Group A.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of work itself of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. The job as an administrator presents a professional challenge that I find rewarding.
2. I have found job satisfaction as an administrator.

The mean for Group A was 3.458, and the mean for Group B was 3.058. The obtained t-score of .949 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. Both groups perceived work itself as a strong motivator.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of responsibility of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I entered school administration because I JOINED TA FE HARE AU a part of the decision-making process.
2. I feel confident in my ability to handle the responsibilities of my job.
3. I entered administration because I felt I needed to assume more responsibility in my professional life.

The mean for Group A was 5.229, and the mean for Group B was 4.666. The obtained t-score of 1.174 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of recognition of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. As an administrator, I have received recognition awards for my performance from my supervisor.
2. I have been asked to run for an office in a professional organization.

The mean for Group A was 5.541, and the mean for Group B was 6.352. The obtained t-score of -1.561 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of advancement of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. Advancement in my school administration career has seemed to parallel that of my colleagues.
2. I have reached my goal in career advancement.
3. I continually seek opportunities that will promote the advancement of my career.

The mean for Group A was 8.958, and the Group B mean was 8.882. The obtained t-score of .146 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of the possibility of growth of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I entered administration because I felt the experience would help me to grow professionally.
2. As I find my responsibilities increasing as an administrator, I also find more opportunities for professional growth.
3. I feel that I am growing as a professional in skills and abilities as an administrator.

The mean for Group A was 5.708, and the Group B mean was 4.372 (3.0 being the lowest possible and most desirable). Group B respondents reported that the possibility of growth was descriptive of them. The low mean indicated a high percentage of women selected the most positive set of responses. The obtained t-score of 2.937 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained.

Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of status of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I entered school administration because I wanted the status that goes with such a position.
2. As an administrator I feel important and vital, not only in the school, but also in the DoDDS organization.
3. I perceive my position in administration as an educational status symbol.



The mean for Group A was 10.500, and the mean for Group B was 9.745. The obtained t-score of 1.317 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 15: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of salary of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I entered school administration for economic reasons.
2. I have become financially comfortable by working as an administrator.
3. By working in administration, a larger financial supplement is available for the family income.

The mean for Group A was 11.958, and the Group B mean was 12.196. The obtained t-score of -.393 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of peer relations of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. I entered administration because I had a mentor who I felt confident would stand with me in the learning stages.
2. My colleagues in administration, peers as well as higher levels, have provided me with positive recognition of my job performance.
3. I have experienced no difficulty with my colleagues because of my sex while serving as a school administrator.

The mean for Group A was 8.458, and the mean for Group B was 7.156. The obtained t-score of 2.203 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The

respondents from Group B indicated significantly more experiences with positive peer relationships and support than did their earlier-entering colleagues.

Hypothesis 17: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of supervisor relationships of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. My supervisors have provided me with adequate feedback on my performance.
2. My supervisor and the region have provided me with the opportunity for positive growth experiences.

The mean for Group A was 3.708, the the Group B mean was 4.058. The obtained t-score of  $-.919$  with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 18: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of personal life of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. Functioning as an authority figure on the job has presented a threat to my social relationship with friends.
2. I have experienced some difficulty as an authority figure due to the fact that I am a woman.
3. Functioning as an authority figure on the job enables me to be more decisive in my personal situations.

The mean for Group A was 11.208, and the mean for Group B was 11.705. The obtained t-score of  $-.981$  with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 19: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of policy and administration of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses to the following statements:

1. Adherence to the policy and regulations has given me the foundation for succeeding in my position.
2. Regional policy and guidance have contributed to my advancement into administration.

The mean for Group A was 4.208, and the Group B mean was 5.137. The obtained t-score of 0.152 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

#### Demographic Data: Part IV of the Questionnaire

In this part of the questionnaire, one question or statement was given to test each hypothesis. There were five possible responses for each question, with three exceptions. The responses were given increasing values of 1 to 9. The results are shown in Table 4.8.

Hypothesis 20: There is no significant difference in the years of employment in education of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.9) to the following question:

How many years have you been employed in education as a teacher, specialist, or administrator?

The mean for Group A was 4.187, and the Group B mean was 3.078. The obtained t-score of 5.632 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The mean for Group B placed their years of employment in education within

the 15 to 19 year bracket, whereas the mean for Group A indicated an employment level of 20 to 24 years.

Table 4.8.--Demographic data of administrators.

Hypothesis	Topic	Mean Group A	Mean Group B	t- Score	Decision
20	Years of experience	4.187	3.078	5.632**	NR
21	Employment w/DoDDS	4.122	3.019	5.506**	NR
22	Employment as admin.	2.604	1.117	9.662**	NR
23	Employment as teacher	3.208	3.196	.054	R
24	Entrance age	3.041	3.549	-2.226*	NR
25	Current age	4.604	3.941	4.113**	NR
26	Educational degrees	1.833	2.098	-2.185**	NR
27	Admin. aspirations	2.895	2.745	.652	R
28	School assignment	1.797	2.137	-1.112	R
29	Admin. assignment	3.937	5.529	-2.576*	NR
30	Marital status	1.812	1.549	2.889**	NR
31	Dependents	1.375	1.450	.537	R

Note: R = The hypothesis was retained.  
NR = The hypothesis was not retained.

\*.01 < p ≤ .05.

\*\* .001 < p ≤ .01.

Table 4.9.--Years of employment in education.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. 5 to 9	--	--	3	5.9
B. 10 to 14	4	8.3	11	21.6
C. 15 to 19	5	10.4	20	39.2
D. 20 to 24	17	35.4	13	25.5
E. 25 or more	22	45.8	4	7.8

Hypothesis 21: There is no significant difference in the years of employment with DoDDS of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.10) to the following question:

How many years have you been employed with DoDDS?

The mean for Group A was 4.122, and the mean for Group B was 3.019. The obtained t-score of 5.506 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The mean number of years employed by DoDDS for Group A was approximately 20, whereas the group entering administration later, with a mean of 3.019, had a length of service just in the 15 to 19 year bracket.

Table 4.10.--Years of employment with DoDDS.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. 1 to 4	--	--	3	5.9
B. 5 to 9	2	4.2	15	29.4
C. 10 to 14	9	18.8	18	35.3
D. 15 to 19	18	37.5	8	15.7
E. 20 or more	19	39.6	7	13.7

Hypothesis 22: There is no significant difference in the number of years employed as administrators or above-school-level staff positions of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.11) to the following question:

How many years have you been employed as a building-level administrator or above-school-level staff member in DoDDS?

The mean for Group A was 2.604, and the Group B mean was 1.117.

The obtained t-score of 9.662 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The high t-score for this question is best illustrated by noting the percentage of respondents shown in Table 4.11. More than 90 percent of Group B responded with employment of 1 to 4 years, whereas the mode for Group A respondents was 54 percent for 5 to 9 years of employment.

Table 4.11.--Employment as administrators or above-school-level staff positions.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. 1 to 4	3	6.3	46	90.2
B. 5 to 9	26	54.2	4	7.8
C. 10 to 14	9	18.8	1	2.0
D. 15 to 19	7	14.6	--	--
E. 20 or more	3	6.3	--	--

Hypothesis 23: There is no significant difference in the number of years employed as a teacher or school specialist of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.12) to the following question:

How many years were you a classroom teacher and/or school-level specialist (i.e., reading specialist, counselor, media, art specialist, etc.)?

Table 4.12.--Number of years employed as a teacher or school specialist.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. 1 to 4	2	4.2	4	7.8
B. 5 to 9	12	25.0	10	19.6
C. 10 to 14	15	31.3	15	29.4
D. 15 to 19	12	25.0	16	31.4
E. 20 or more	7	14.6	6	11.8

The mean for Group A was 3.208, and the Group B mean was 3.196. The obtained t-score of .054 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 24: There is no significant difference in the entrance ages to administration of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.13) to the following question:

At what age did you enter administration in DoDDS?

The mean for Group A was 3.041, and the Group B mean was 3.549. The obtained t-score of -2.226 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The earlier-entering group indicated a lower age at entrance into administration than those who had become administrators more recently.

Table 4.13.--Ages of entrance into administration.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. 25 to 29	7	14.6	1	2.0
B. 30 to 34	7	14.6	6	11.8
C. 35 to 39	17	35.4	20	39.2
D. 40 to 44	11	22.9	12	23.5
E. 45 or more	6	12.5	12	23.5

Hypothesis 25: There is no significant difference in the current ages of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.14) to the following statement:

Please indicate your present age group.

The mean for Group A was 4.604, and the mean for Group B was 3.941. The obtained t-score of 4.113 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. The mean age of Group A at the time of the survey was within the age category of 40 to 44 years, whereas the Group B mean age was within the category of 35 to 39 years.



Table 4.14.--Current ages of administrators.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. 25 to 29	--	--	--	--
B. 30 to 34	--	--	3	5.9
C. 35 to 39	4	8.3	14	27.5
D. 40 to 44	11	22.9	17	33.3
E. 45 or more	33	68.8	17	33.3

Hypothesis 26: There is no significant difference in the educational degrees of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.15) to the following question:

What level of education have you completed?

The mean for Group A was 1.833, and the Group B mean was 2.098. The obtained t-score of -2.185 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. As shown in Table 4.15, 95.8 percent of the administrators in Group A had earned a master's plus or a doctoral degree, whereas 78.4 percent of those in Group B had attained the same educational level.

Hypothesis 27: There is no significant difference in the administrative aspirations of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

Table 4.15.--Educational degrees of administrators.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. Doctorate	10	20.8	8	15.7
B. Master's plus	36	75.0	32	62.7
C. Master's	2	4.2	9	17.6
D. Bachelor's plus	--	--	2	3.9
E. Bachelor's	--	--	--	--

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.16) to the following question:

What is your ultimate goal in DoDDS as an administrator?

The mean for Group A was 2.895, and the Group B mean was 2.745. The obtained t-score of .652 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Table 4.16.--Aspirations of administrators.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. Deputy/assistant principal	2	4.2	3	5.9
B. Principal	21	43.8	26	51.0
C. Chief school administrator	13	27.1	8	15.7
D. Regional office branch or division chief	4	8.3	9	17.6
E. Office of the regional director	8	16.7	4	7.8

Hypothesis 28: There is no significant difference in the school-level administrative assignments of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.17) to the following question:

What is your present administrative-level assignment?

The mean for Group A was 1.797, and the Group B mean was 2.137. The obtained t-score of -1.112 with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Table 4.17.--School-level assignments.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. Elementary	34	70.8	28	54.9
B. Elementary/junior high	2	4.2	8	15.7
C. Middle school	4	8.3	3	5.9
D. Junior high school	1	2.1	4	7.8
E. High school	7	14.6	8	15.7

Hypothesis 29: There is no significant difference in the administrative level assignments of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.18) to the following question:

What is your present administrative-level assignment?

The mean for Group A was 3.937, and the mean for Group B was 5.529. The obtained t-score of -2.576 with 97 degrees of freedom was

significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. As shown in Table 4.16, 60.5 percent of Group A administrators were principals, whereas only 25.5 percent of Group B respondents were principals. Nearly 75 percent of respondents in Group B were assisting administrators (EPMs and APs).

Table 4.18.--Administrative-level assignments.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. Principal, elementary	25	52.1	12	23.5
B. Principal, middle	1	2.1	--	--
C. Principal, junior high	--	--	1	2.0
D. Principal, high school	3	6.3	--	--
E. Educ. prog. mgr., elementary	3	6.3	16	31.4
F. Educ., prog. mgr., secondary	2	4.2	9	17.6
G. Asst., elementary	8	16.7	9	17.6
H. Asst., secondary	6	12.5	4	7.8

Hypothesis 30: There is no significant difference in the marital status of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.19) to the following question:

What is your marital status?

The mean for Group A was 1.812, and the Group B mean was 1.549. The obtained t-score of 2.889 with 97 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained. More than 81 percent of the administrators in Group A were single, whereas

55 percent of those in Group B were single. No change of policy in DoDDS-Germany was effected during this period of time to explain such a difference.

Table 4.19.--Marital status of administrators.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. Married	9	18.8	23	45.1
B. Single	39	81.3	28	54.9

Hypothesis 31: There is no significant difference in the number of children or dependents of the women respondents in Groups A and B.

The hypothesis was tested by using the responses (Table 4.20) to the following question:

Do you have children/dependents?

The mean for Group A was 1.375, and the Group B mean was 1.450. The obtained t-score of  $-.537$  with 97 degrees of freedom was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Table 4.20.--Number of children or dependents of administrators.

Possible Response	Group A (1979-1982)		Group B (1983-1986)	
	N	%	N	%
A. None	35	72.9	33	64.7
B. 1 to 2	9	18.8	14	27.5
C. 3 to 4	3	6.3	3	5.9
D. 5 or more	1	2.1	1	2.0

### Summary

All 113 women school administrators in DoDDS Germany received questionnaires, and 99 or 88 percent were returned. The women surveyed were employed in elementary, junior high/middle, and high schools. There were 42 principals, 27 assistant principals, and 30 educational program managers (EPMs).

This chapter was divided into four parts, each related to the questionnaire and corresponding hypotheses. In the first part, women were categorized into groups by years of entry into administration. Group A represented women who entered administration from 1979 to 1982, and Group B represented women who entered administration from 1983 to 1986. These groups were examined and compared according to their perceptions of achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, status, salary, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, personal life, and policy and administration.

In Part II, the writer investigated the perceptions of achievement, recognition, possibility of growth, peer relationships,

and supervisor relationships of the women administrators before entering administration. Results of the data analysis indicated that achievement was perceived as the strongest motivator before entering administration. The mean scores for Groups A and B were 2.791 and 2.431, respectively. For Group A, the possibility of growth was perceived as a strong indicator before entering administration; the mean was 3.750. Similarly, Group B perceived the possibility of growth about the same; the mean for this group was 3.215. Peer relationships, supervisor relationships, and recognition were perceived differently by both groups. Nevertheless, in rank ordering the mean scores from low, designating a strong motivator or satisfier, to high, indicating a dissatisfier, Group A had achievement first, followed by possibility of growth, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, and recognition. The difference for Group B was the position reversal for peer relationships and possibility of growth, as shown in Table 4.3.

In Part III, the researcher examined the women administrators' perceptions of achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, status, salary, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, personal life, and policy and administration. Significant differences were found in the perceptions of achievement, possibility of growth, and peer relationships. However, the perceptions of advancement, status, personal life, and salary were located in the same numerical positions for each group when the satisfiers were rank ordered, as shown in Table 4.7. Their mean

scores were high, indicating that these factors were least motivating or dissatisfying.

When the factors for both groups were combined and analyzed, as shown in Figure 4.1, there were few differences in the significance or positions of the least satisfying items of status, personal life, and salary. Few differences were indicated in the most satisfying factors of work itself, responsibility, growth, supervisor relationships, and peer relationships. Policy and administration has become more reflective of the views of Herzberg due to the lower placement of this factor.

The demographic data for the groups were compared in Part IV. Significant differences were found in each area except for the number of years employed as teachers, administrative aspirations, school assignments, and the number of dependents, as shown in Table 4.8.

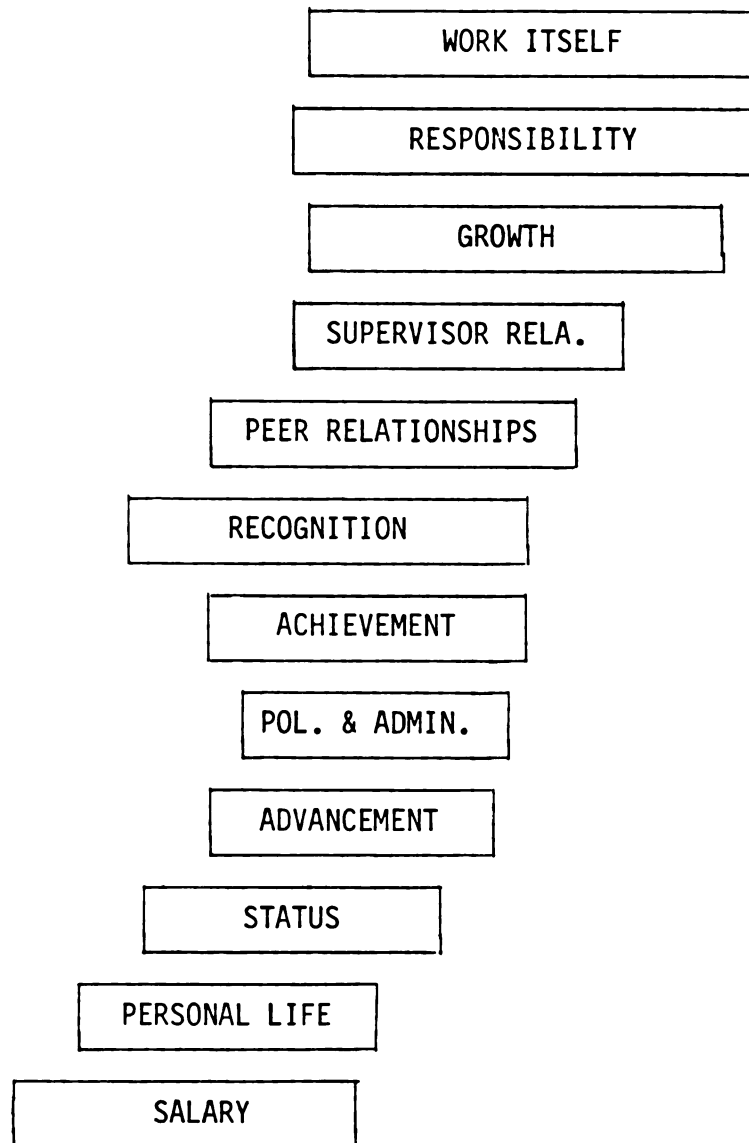


% Frequency

90 75 60 45 30 15 0

% Frequency

15 30 45 60 75 90



FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO  
JOB DISSATISFACTION

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO  
JOB SATISFACTION

Figure 4.1.--Combined factors of Groups A and B that contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction of women administrators.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains a summary of the purposes, limitations, and design of the study. The conclusions based on the data analysis, as well as interpretations and recommendations, complete the chapter.

#### Summary

##### Purposes of the Study

The perceptions of job satisfiers and dissatisfiers of the women school-level administrators in DoDDS-Germany from 1979 to 1986 were investigated. The study was developed to examine the factors of achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, status, salary, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, personal life, and policy and administration as they relate to the women who entered administration either from 1979 to 1982 (Group A) or from 1983 to 1986 (Group B). The perceptions of the two groups were compared.

##### Limitations of the Study

1. The data gathered were based on the women administrators in DoDDS-Germany.

2. The validity of the study was affected by the degree of sincerity and frankness of respondents to the instrument administered.

3. The study was limited to those administrators who chose to complete and return the questionnaire.

4. The descriptive nature of the study was limited to how accurately women administrators described their perceptions.

### Design of the Study

An instrument was developed to test the hypotheses related to the satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women school-level administrators in DoDDS-Germany. The instrument was developed and reviewed by a small group of administrators as well as program evaluators in DoDDS-Germany. Their recommendations were implemented in the final draft.

To establish reliability and validity, the Delphi technique was used with a group of 16 women in leadership positions throughout DoDDS. Questionnaires were mailed to this group in November 1986. They were asked to rank the motivators from 1 to 12, with 1 being the most desirable, to complete the questionnaire, and to provide feedback on ambiguous questions. Fourteen or 88 percent of the women responded. The questionnaire was mailed again in February 1987 to be completed by the responding group, and 12 or 86.5 percent responded. The product-moment coefficient  $r$  was used to correlate the scores and was calculated at .888.

The population of the study comprised 113 women administrators, 48 principals, 31 assistant principals, and 34 educational program managers, all in DoDDS-Germany. The school system consists of

139 schools, in which there were 64 women administrators in elementary schools, 6 in middle, 4 in elementary/middle, 8 in junior high, 12 in elementary/junior high, 3 in unit or K-12 schools, and 16 in high schools. Thirty-eight percent of the school-level administrators are women.

A letter explaining the purpose of the study, the DoDDS-Germany research-approval letter, and the questionnaire were mailed to all the women school-level administrators. The data were analyzed with assistance from the Evaluation Branch of the DoDDS-Germany Regional Office. The Student t distribution was used in the data analysis. The hypothesis test of significance was based on the .10 level with various degrees of freedom.

### Findings

#### Part I: Grouping Women Administrators Based on Position and Year of Entry Into Administration

1. A difference existed in the number of women who were school-level principals during 1979 to 1982 and 1983 to 1986. Of those sampled, 60 percent were principals in Group A (1979 to 1982) and 25 percent in Group B (1983 to 1986). The number of women administrators and those remaining in positions as principals has gradually increased over the years.

2. A difference existed in the number of women who were assisting principals. In Group A, 40 percent of the sample were assisting, whereas 75 percent were assisting in Group B. As the

number of women in administration increases, most commence their administrative careers at entry-level positions.

Part II: Perceived Satisfiers  
of Respondents Before Entering  
Administration

1. Significant differences existed in the mean scores for recognition for Groups A and B. The lower mean score for Group B, which is more desirable, suggests that the respondents believed they received more recognition for teaching performance and their role in professional organizations than did administrators in Group A.

2. Significant differences existed in the perceptions of peer relationships between the two groups. The significantly lower mean of Group B suggests that their peers were more active in encouraging administrative careers and supporting them once they attained leadership positions than were the peers of Group A. As the number of women in administration grew steadily each year, and as women in the region began to notice such success, it would not be unnatural for the support network also to increase.

3. Significant differences existed in the perceptions of supervisor relationships between Groups A and B. A significantly lower mean for Group B indicates that more supervisors encouraged them to consider administration and provided information concerning career advancement or upward mobility. More women are being encouraged to seek administrative positions.

Part III: Perceived Factors of  
Respondents Currently Employed as  
School-Level Administrators

1. Significant differences existed in the perceptions of achievement for Groups A and B. The lower mean of Group B indicates that women in this group entered administration based on their success with related coursework and achievement of specific goals.

2. Significant differences existed in the perceptions of the possibility of growth between Groups A and B. The mean for Group A was 5.708, and the mean for Group B was 4.372. The mean difference was more than one point. The lower mean for Group B suggests that these women had had more experiences that had helped them grow professionally and that more opportunities had been available to them.

3. Significant differences existed in the perceptions of peer relationships for Groups A and B. The mean for Group A was 8.458, and that for Group B was 7.156. The difference of more than one point suggests that Group B respondents felt that they had mentors and peers who were supportive and that they experienced little difficulty with colleagues due to being women.

Part IV: Demographic Data

1. Significant differences existed in the years of employment in education of the women in Groups A and B. In Group A, 39 or 81 percent of the women had been employed in education more than 20 years, compared to 17 or 32 percent of the women in Group A who had been employed in education the same length of time.

2. Significant differences existed in the years of employment with DoDDS for Groups A and B. In Group A, the majority of the women (77 percent) had been employed by DoDDS for 15 or more years, compared to 15 or 29 percent of the women in Group B. In view of the fact that Group A respondents were those women administrators already employed by DoDDS in the earlier time period studied, longer employment would be expected. The observation that 35.3 percent of the more recently hired women in administration had been employed by DoDDS from 10 to 14 years suggests that DoDDS experience may have been a factor in selection.

3. Significant differences existed in the employment as administrators or above-school-level staff positions between the two groups. In Group A, 45 (94 percent) of the women had been employed as administrators for five or more years, and only 5 (10 percent) of those in Group B had been employed as administrators for that length of time. This would suggest that the more recently hired administrators were new to administration, with little or no administrative experience before their DoDDS experience.

4. Significant differences existed in the ages at which the women in Groups A and B had entered administration. Thirty-four or 71 percent of the women in Group A had entered administration at age 35 or over, whereas 44 or 86 percent of those in Group B had entered during the same time frame. It is important to note that even though the women in Group A had significantly more years of service as administrators and years of employment with DoDDS than those in Group B,

the women in Group B were significantly older at the time they entered administration.

5. Significant differences existed in the current ages of the women administrators in Groups A and B. All of the women in Group A were 35 years of age or older at the time of the survey, whereas 48 or 94 percent of the women in Group B were 35 or older. As might be expected, the difference at the younger age levels was also significant. Only 8.3 percent of women in Group A were under 40 years of age, whereas 33.4 percent of those in Group B were under 40 years of age.

6. Significant differences existed in the educational degrees of the women in Groups A and B. All of the women in Group A had no less than a master's degree, whereas 49 or 96 percent of the women in Group B were in the same category. The difference was most noticeable at the master's-degree level, where 4.2 percent of women in Group A and 17.6 percent of those in Group B had earned a master's degree only. It is important to note that a master's degree is required for principal and assistant principal positions in DoDDS.

7. Significant differences existed in the administrative assignments of the women in Groups A and B. In Group A, 29 or 60 percent of the women were principals. In Group B, 13 or 25 percent of the women were principals. The entry level of administration in DoDDS-Germany is the position of educational program manager, which leads to promotion to assistant principal. It should not be surprising that 10.5 percent of women in Group A were educational



program managers and 49 percent of those in Group B were at the entry level of administration.

8. Significant differences existed in the marital status of the women in Groups A and B. In Group A, 9 or 19 percent of the women were married, compared to 23 or 45 percent of the women in Group B.

### Conclusions

#### Needs Theories and Women in Administration

The primary function of an organization should be to implement the needs of employees to enjoy a meaningful existence (Herzberg, 1966). Particular needs must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with a job (Locke, 1976). As in Herzberg's studies, the following intrinsic factors were found to be strong motivators for both groups of women administrators in DoDDS-Germany, based on the rank order of all factors for Groups A and B:

1. They perceived their work as being meaningful, challenging, and rewarding (work itself).
2. They had the freedom to use judgment and were accountable for their actions (responsibility).
3. As their responsibilities increased, they became more knowledgeable about their profession (possibility of growth).

Herzberg (1966) stated that these motivators are satisfiers, which determine long-term changes and fulfill the need for psychological growth. Responsibility at this point would be Maslow's self-actualization, and McClelland would view this satisfier as power.

Conversely, the following intrinsic factors that Herzberg identified as positively contributing to job satisfaction were not identified as strong motivators for the women surveyed in this study when examining the rank order of all factors by the groups separately or when combined:

1. The ability to complete an important task successfully (achievement).
2. The recognition given by being singled out for praise (recognition).
3. The change of positions through promotions or laterally to gain additional experience (advancement).

#### Educational Environment of the Women in Administration

The satisfaction of the job as an administrator is related to the job environment (Locke, 1976). Administration was defined in terms of the social system, whereby the woman in administration is challenged in nomothetic and idiographic dimensions as outlined by Getzels and Guba (1957). The interaction that takes place in the administrative environment varies due to personalities, perceptions, and internal conflicts. Herzberg (1966) defined the extrinsic factors in relation to the environment in which the job is performed. The following extrinsic factors were not perceived as being important by either group of women administrators, and similar findings emerged in Herzberg's (1966) studies.

1. The high standing and prestige that are accompanied by appurtenances (status).
2. The monetary compensation for task performed (salary).
3. The individual involvement not related to the job, which may be affected by professional attitudes or feelings (personal life).

Unlike Herzberg's studies, several extrinsic factors were perceived as being satisfiers. The following were significant, based on the combined factors, for both groups of women administrators:

1. The interaction with individuals who evaluate their performance (supervisor relationships).
2. The interaction with individuals on the same level within the organization (peer relationships).
3. The methods by which the organizational policies and procedures are implemented (policy and administration).

The women school-level administrators in DoDDS-Germany indicated that they received their job satisfaction from the work itself, responsibility, possibility of growth, peer relationships, supervisor relationships, and policy and administration. Little, if any, job satisfaction was received from achievement, advancement, recognition, status, personal life, and salary. It should be noted that these women administrators did not have a profile of satisfiers and dissatisfiers, similar to related studies.

### Recommendations

The needs theories and the environmental effects on women in administration were investigated in this dissertation. It was

discovered that the lower order of needs as described by Maslow had been obtained by the groups in this study. However, the need for affiliation, as related by McClelland, was significant when the areas of supervisor and peer relationships were examined. Herzberg viewed the need of affiliation as a hygiene factor--that is, a factor that prevents an individual from getting "sick of work." The hygiene factors were referred to as extrinsic due to their association with the environment surrounding the job. Herzberg did not view the supervisor and peer relationships as satisfiers, but the women in this study did.

The environmental aspects of the administrative positions of the groups were investigated in the terms of Getzels and Guba. Work itself, an intrinsic factor that is associated with the job content and psychological aspects, was a significant motivator for the women administrators in this study. The intrinsic factors of achievement, advancement, and recognition were not significant in the rank ordering of motivators. The following recommendations are suggested:

1. DoDDS-Germany should actively pursue ways of establishing networking and mentoring systems for employees who submit applications for entry-level administrative positions or who express such an interest to a supervisor. Based on the current entrance age of women administrators, which tends to be older, the networking and mentoring should be considered for younger applicants, as well.

Supervisor and peer relationships both ranked in the top five of the combined group's rank ordering of satisfiers. The DoDDS

setting and the geographical isolation of many schools may well contribute to the importance of these factors. By using the existing DoDDS-Germany Federal Women's Program (FWP), women administrators could develop a network to assist one another with skill development and effective procedures for upward mobility.

2. The organization should examine those variables that contribute to achievement as being a motivator and strengthen its strategies to give more credence to this factor for women in administration.

With achievement defined as completing an important task successfully, the personnel and education division of the DoDDS-Germany Regional office should look at the task assignments and involvement of the assisting administrators. This group represents 57 percent of the women in school-level administration. It would seem that given the opportunity to be involved in more significant school-level as well as district and regional tasks, the perception of achievement would be enhanced. Supervisors should stress goal-setting and goal-achievement skills with all employees. The regional office personnel should make deliberate attempts to involve assisting administrators with special projects related to training programs, task forces, and upward-mobility workshops.

3. DoDDS-Germany division chiefs should make every effort to increase awareness and train supervisors in employing recognition as a tool for strengthening excellence in performance. Competent administrators should also be encouraged to become involved in professional

organizations in Germany, such as Phi Delta Kappa, Association for Elementary School Principals, Association for Secondary School Principals, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the Federal Women's Program.

4. "Personnelists" should examine the lateral and promotional moves of women to determine the statistics regarding career advancement. The Educator Career Panel and Personnel Division of DoDDS-Germany should maintain information related to numbers, genders, and geographical locations. With these data, priority can be given to training and recruitment.

Advancement was not perceived as a strong motivator in this study. However, the demographic data clearly illustrated that the women in the study had high aspirations. Therefore, further examination appears warranted.

#### Suggestions for Further Research

1. Replicate this study in other DoDDS regions and compare the factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

2. Construct a study to examine the variables that determine the priorities of satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women school-level administrators in DoDDS-Germany.

3. Construct a study to assess women administrators annually over an extended period of time to determine if their perceptions of satisfiers change as they advance in the profession.

4. Construct a study to compare the perceptions of satisfiers and dissatisfiers of men and women school-level administrators.

5. Construct a study to examine each satisfier of women administrators in depth to determine the effect of the variables.

6. Construct a study to compare the perceptions of satisfiers and dissatisfiers of women school-level administrators with women in above-school-level positions.

7. Replicate this study in a comparable stateside school system to determine if the peer and supervisor relationships would receive the same level of recognition.

8. Replicate the study to determine if supervisor relationships would vary or the rank order of satisfiers change, depending on the gender of the supervisor.

## APPENDIX





**DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE  
DEPENDENTS SCHOOLS  
OFFICE OF THE REGIONAL DIRECTOR  
GERMANY REGION  
APO NEW YORK 09633-0005**

REPLY TO  
ATTENTION OF  
DODDS-G

16 SEP 1986

AEPF-3014

Ms. Gayle Vaughn-Wiles  
PSC-1, Box 4338  
APO New York 09633-5361

Dear Ms. Vaughn-Wiles:

Your research proposal has been approved. A copy of this approval must be attached to the instrument used in the surveys. Any mailing expenses are personal. Government-franked envelopes or stationary cannot be used. In accordance with DS Regulation 2071.2, DoDDS Research Approval Process, dated May 24, 1983, upon completion of the research project, 15 copies of the executive summary and 5 copies of the complete report are to be sent to the Director, DoDDS.

I hope the research results will prove beneficial to all concerned.

Sincerely,

  
J. H. BLACKSTEAD  
Director

cc: Dist. Supt., Frankfurt

## MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH INVOLVING  
HUMAN SUBJECTS (UCRIHS)  
238 ADMINISTRATION BUILDING  
(517) 355-2186

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1046

July 21, 1986

Ms. Gayle Vaughn-Wiles  
Box 4338  
APO New York, New York 09633

Dear Ms. Vaughn-Wiles:

Subject: Proposal Entitled, "Women in Educational Administration  
in the Department of Defense Dependents Schools in the  
Germany Region"

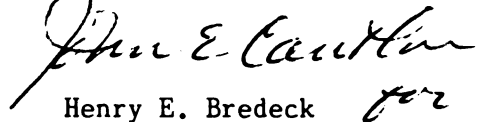
I am pleased to advise that I concur with your evaluation that this project is exempt from full UCRIHS review, and approval is herewith granted for conduct of the project.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval prior to July 21, 1987.

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by the UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to my attention. If I can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let me know.

Sincerely,



Henry E. Bredeck  
Chairman, UCRIHS

HEB/jms

cc: Dr. Samuel A. Moore, II

Box 4338  
APO 09633  
December 1986

Dear Colleague,

I am the deputy principal at Frankfurt Elementary School and also a doctoral candidate at Michigan State University in the Department of Administration. As a partial fulfillment of my degree, I am doing research regarding the satisfiers and dissatisfiers perceived by women in administration within DoDDS Germany.

The study attempts to identify Frederick Herzberg's intrinsic and extrinsic factors; each question from 5 through 45 on the attached questionnaire is directly related to one of the following:

achievement	status
work itself	salary
responsibility	peer relationships
recognition	supervisor relationships
advancement	personal life
possibility of growth	policy and administration

This research is being conducted with the approval of the Director of DoDDS Germany; a copy of the approval letter is attached. The study will provide information for the Federal Women's Program, recruitment, training, and upward-mobility programs.

For the results to represent views of the women administrators in DoDDS Germany, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned within two weeks of receipt. It will take approximately 30 minutes to complete this survey instrument.

You may be assured of anonymity and confidentiality. The responses will be tabulated by position and year of entry into administration. Your participation is completely voluntary.

The results of this study will be available to individuals upon request. I am excited about the study and hope you can find the time in your busy schedule to respond. Attached is a stamped self-addressed envelope for you to return the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your time, effort, and consideration given to this project.

Sincerely,

*Gayle Vaughn-Wiles*  
Gayle Vaughn-Wiles

## WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATION: DoDDS--GERMANY

General Directions: On the following pages of this questionnaire, circle the letter of the response that most accurately describes your answer to the statement.

## Part I

Directions: There are four sequenced statements in this part. Only one of the four must be circled. The statements have been ordered by time and position. More than one may be applicable to your career, but only one is to be circled. Read each statement carefully, and the FIRST statement that applies to your career is your answer. Circle that number only.

Example 1: You may be a building principal at the present time; however, you were an assisting administrator during the 1979-1982 time frame. You would circle number 2, as it is the first of the four sequenced items that is a true statement for you.

Example 2: You were an assisting administrator from 1979 through June 1981. In August 1981, you became a building principal. Statement number 1 would be your correct response, as it is the first of the four statements that is true for you. You would not circle numbers 2, 3, or 4.

1. I was or became a building principal during the Fall 1979 to Fall 1982 period of time.
2. I was or became an assisting administrator (EPM, AP, DP) during the Fall 1979 to Fall 1982 period of time.
3. I was a building principal during the Fall 1983 to Fall 1986 period of time.
4. I was an assisting administrator (EPM, AP, DP) during the Fall 1983 to Fall 1986 period of time.

## Part II

General Directions: For Statements 5 through 14, circle the appropriate letter that most closely describes your perception BEFORE ENTERING ADMINISTRATION.

5. Parents stated to my supervisor that I was a positive influence on their child's learning.
  - A. Often
  - C. Sometimes
  - E. Rarely
6. I felt that I could help students to succeed and maintain a balance with teachers.
  - A. Often
  - B. Sometimes
  - C. Rarely
7. I received formal recognition for my teaching performance from my supervisor.
  - A. Often
  - C. Sometimes
  - E. Rarely
8. I had been nominated for membership or had been asked to run for an office in a professional organization, union, association, or fraternity/sorority.
  - A. Often
  - C. Sometimes
  - E. Rarely
9. I felt that I could grow professionally by becoming an administrator.
  - A. Often
  - B. Sometimes
  - C. Rarely
10. I felt that more opportunities would be available to me by becoming an administrator.
  - A. Often
  - B. Sometimes
  - C. Rarely

11. My peers had told me personally that they thought I should become a school administrator.
- A. Often
  - C. Sometimes
  - E. Rarely
12. Whenever I served in a leadership position, my colleagues were supportive.
- A. Often
  - B. Sometimes
  - C. Rarely
13. My supervisor encouraged me to consider school administration.
- A. More than once
  - C. Once
  - E. Never
14. My supervisor provided me with information about career advancement and upward mobility.
- A. Often
  - B. Sometimes
  - C. Rarely

## Part III

**Directions:** Respond to Statements 15 through 45 from the perspective of your current position as a school-level administrator. Circle the appropriate letter.

**15.** I entered school administration because my success in administration and supervision coursework convinced me that I would be successful on the job.

- A. A strong reason
- B. A reason, but weak
- C. Not a reason

**16.** In my current position, I feel I have been able to achieve specific goals.

- A. Describes me
- B. Somewhat describes me
- C. Not true of me

**17.** The job as an administrator presents a professional challenge that I find rewarding.

- A. Describes me
- B. Somewhat describes me
- C. Not true of me

**18.** I have found job satisfaction as an administrator.

- A. Describes me
- B. Somewhat describes me
- C. Not true of me

**19.** I entered school administration because I wanted to be more of a part of the decision-making process.

- A. A strong reason
- B. A reason, but weak
- C. Not a reason

**20.** I feel confident in my ability to handle the responsibilities of my job.

- A. Describes me
- B. Somewhat describes me
- C. Not true of me

21. I entered administration because I felt I needed to assume more responsibility in my professional life.
- A. A strong reason
  - B. A reason, but weak
  - C. Not a reason
22. As an administrator, I have received recognition awards for my performance from my supervisor.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
23. I have been asked to run for office in a professional organization.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
24. Advancement in my school administration career has seemed to parallel that of my colleagues.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
25. I have reached my goal of career advancement.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
26. I continually seek opportunities that will promote the advancement of my career.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
27. I entered administration because I felt the experience would help me to grow professionally.
- A. A strong reason
  - B. A reason, but weak
  - C. Not a reason



28. As I find my responsibilities increasing as an administrator, I also find more opportunities for professional growth.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
29. I feel that I am growing as a professional in skills and abilities as an administrator.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
30. I entered school administration because I wanted the status that goes with such a position.
- A. A strong reason
  - B. A reason, but weak
  - C. Not a reason
31. As an administrator I feel important and vital, not only in the school, but also in the DoDDS organization.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
32. I perceive my position in administration as an educational status symbol.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
33. I entered school administration for economic reasons.
- A. A strong reason
  - B. A reason, but weak
  - C. Not a reason
34. I have become financially comfortable by working as an administrator.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me

35. By working in administration, a larger financial supplement is available for the family income.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
36. I entered administration because I had a mentor who I felt confident would stand with me in the learning stages.
- A. A strong reason
  - B. A reason, but weak
  - C. Not a reason
37. My colleagues in administration, peers as well as higher levels, have provided me with positive recognition of my job performance.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
38. I have experienced no difficulty with my colleagues because of my sex while serving as a school administrator.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
39. My supervisors have provided me with adequate feedback on my performance.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
40. My supervisors and the region have provided me with the opportunity for positive growth experiences.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
41. Functioning as an authority figure on the job has presented a threat to my social relationships with friends.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me

42. I have experienced some difficulty as an authority figure due to the fact that I am a woman.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
43. Functioning as an authority figure on the job enables me to be more decisive in my personal situations.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
44. Adherence to policy and regulations has given me the foundation for succeeding in my position.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me
45. Regional policy and guidance have contributed to my advancement into administration.
- A. Describes me
  - B. Somewhat describes me
  - C. Not true of me

## Part IV

**Directions:** The following portion of the questionnaire will provide a profile of the characteristics of women in school-level administration in DoDDS-Germany. Please circle the appropriate letter for each applicable question (answer either Item 55 or 56). For the demographic data, count the current year as a full year.

46. How many years have you been employed in education as a teacher, specialist, or administrator?

- A. 5 to 9
- B. 10 to 14
- C. 15 to 19
- D. 20 to 24
- E. 25 or more

47. How many years have you been employed with DoDDS?

- A. 1 to 4
- B. 5 to 9
- C. 10 to 14
- D. 15 to 19
- E. 20 or more

48. How many years have you been employed as a building-level administrator or above school-level staff member in DoDDS?

- A. 1 to 4
- B. 5 to 9
- C. 10 to 14
- D. 15 to 19
- E. 20 or more

49. How many years were you a classroom teacher and/or school-level specialist (i.e., reading specialist, counselor, media, art specialist, etc.)?

- A. 1 to 4
- B. 5 to 9
- C. 10 to 14
- D. 15 to 19
- E. 20 or more

50. At what age did you enter administration in DoDDS?

- A. 25 to 29
- B. 30 to 34
- C. 35 to 39
- D. 40 to 44
- E. 45 or more

51. Please indicate your present age group.

- A. 25 to 29
- B. 30 to 34
- C. 35 to 39
- D. 40 to 44
- E. 45 or more

52. What level of education have you completed?

- A. Doctorate
- B. Master's plus
- C. Master's
- D. Bachelor's plus
- E. Bachelor's

53. What is your ultimate goal in DoDDS as an administrator?

- A. Deputy or assistant principal
- B. Principal
- C. Chief school administrator
- D. Regional office branch or division chief
- E. Office of the regional director

54. What is your present school-level assignment?

- A. Elementary
- B. Elementary/junior high
- C. Middle school
- D. Junior high school
- E. High school

For Questions 55 and 56, answer ONE ONLY.

55. What is your present administrative-level assignment, if applicable?

- A. Principal, elementary
- B. Principal, middle school
- C. Principal, junior high school
- D. Principal, high school

56. What is your present administrative-level assignment, if applicable?

- A. Educational program manager, elementary
- B. Educational program manager, secondary
- C. Assistant/deputy principal, elementary
- D. Assistant/deputy principal, secondary

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