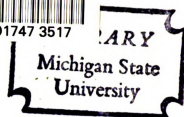


SELF-AWARENESS OF PERSONALITY FACTORS AS  
RELATED TO OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION AMONG  
MALE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.  
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY  
JOYCE H. MOORE

1967

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Joyce H. Moore

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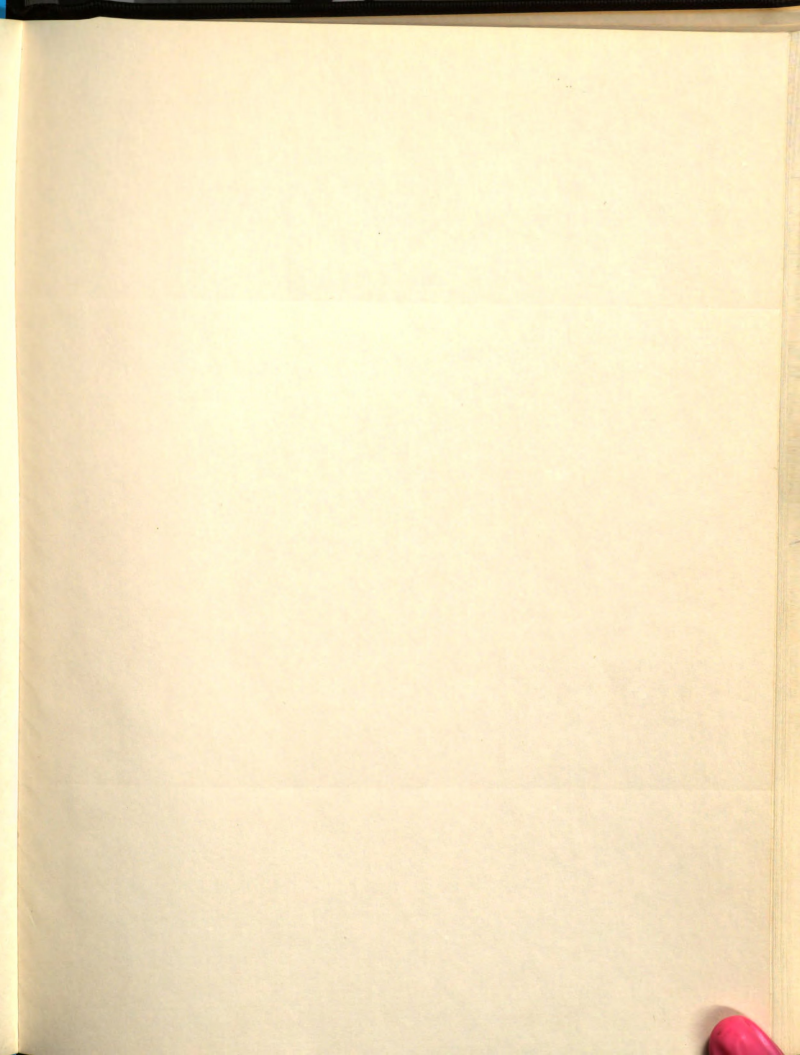
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## ABSTRACT

### SELF-AWARENESS OF PERSONALITY FACTORS AS RELATED TO OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION AMONG MALE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

by Joyce Moore

This study was undertaken to explore the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. The basis for the investigation was largely theoretical since the investigator was unable to unearth any research that dealt directly with the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. Vocational theorists have assumed that self-awareness leads to occupational satisfaction since theoretically the more an individual knows about himself, the better are his chances of selecting an occupation that will meet his needs and therefore be satisfying to him. The present study does not attempt to establish a cause-and-effect relationship, but attempts to demonstrate empirically that there is a positive relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction.

Participants in the study were 72 male junior high school teachers from the five public junior high schools in Lansing, Michigan. The data was collected by the questionnaire method. Subjects completed the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, and then rated themselves on



the scales of the test. The discrepancy scores between their actual GZTS test scores and their estimated GZTS test scores served as a measure of their self-awareness. These discrepancy scores were correlated with self-ratings and peer-ratings of occupational satisfaction.

It was hypothesized that (1) self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated for male teachers, (2) occupational satisfaction and years of teaching are positively correlated for male teachers, and (3) ~~in~~ inexperienced teachers' self-awareness and occupational satisfaction scores will be more highly correlated than those of ~~in~~experienced teachers.

Regarding the first hypothesis, relationships between the measures of self-awareness and occupational satisfaction were analyzed by using Pearson product-moment correlations. On the basis of the results, the first hypothesis was accepted: all four tests of the hypothesis showed a positive correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction scores. This finding proves tentative support for the idea that the self-aware individual is the one who is most likely occupationally satisfied.

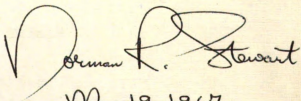
Hypothesis Two was tested by using Pearson product-moment correlation. This hypothesis was also accepted: occupational satisfaction and years of teaching were positively correlated ( $r = .22$ ). This finding lends support to a growing body of research evidence on the positive relationship of these two variables.

Joyce Moore

The third hypothesis was rejected: the relationship between inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores was not significantly greater than those of experienced teachers, although the results were in the predicted direction.

Since years of teaching seemed to have an effect on both self-awareness and occupational satisfaction, it was partialled out of the correlation of these variables with each other. When years of teaching was partialled out of the correlation, the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction increased although no statistical significance is implied.

Finally, evaluation of this study's findings led the author to suggest directions for further research on the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction.

  
May 19, 1967

SELF-AWARENESS OF PERSONALITY FACTORS AS  
RELATED TO OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION  
AMONG MALE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL  
TEACHERS

By

Joyce H. Moore<sup>ende</sup>

A THESIS

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Counseling, Personnel Services,  
and Educational Psychology

College of Education

1967



94629  
9-27-67

DEDICATION

To my husband Marv

Whose faith in me helps me to do things which seem impossible

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I first wish to express my gratitude to Dr. Norman Stewart, committee chairman, for his help with the theoretical and technical aspects of this study and for his words of encouragement. A special word of thanks is due to Dr. William Mueller for his help with the statistical handling of the data as well as for his moral support. I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Robert Green and Dr. James Costar for serving as members of my dissertation committee.

In addition I would like to thank Mable Fry, Edwin Rudolph, Reba Rudolph, Robert Hecksel, and Ruby Johnson who helped to direct this research project in their respective schools; without them the participation of teachers in this study would not have been as enthusiastic.

I would also like to express my appreciation to several persons who helped me to grow to the point that this dissertation was possible.

## IV. RESULTS

Test of Hypothesis One  
Test of Hypothesis Two  
Test of Hypothesis Three.

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## CHAPTER I

### NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

In our culture a man's job or occupation is usually a major part of his everyday life. What a man does for a living is part of his identity, a self which he presents to society. Not only does his occupation tell others something about how he spends much of his time, but it suggests his status, his associates, and his general behavior as well. Since work is so important to one's sense of self, satisfaction with one's vocation has important implications for mental health. Roe (1956) stated that it is impossible to separate occupational satisfaction from satisfaction with life in general; the two are interdependent. This concept is given credence by the research findings of Brayfield (1957) and Kuhlen (1963). They reported that occupational satisfaction and general life satisfaction were not independent variables for the men in their samples.

Belief in the above relationship has provided impetus for the field of vocational counseling, its goal being to help the individual achieve greater occupational satisfaction. As vocational counseling became more and more influenced by personality theory, exploring the

intra-psychic life of the client became an important part of helping him to achieve this satisfaction. It is assumed in such a vocational counseling process that the more the client knows about himself--the more self awareness or insight that he has--the better are his chances of selecting an occupation that will meet his needs and will therefore be satisfying to him. Without this insight, the vocational choice would tend to be in appropriate and unsatisfying.

As important as this assumption is to the vocational counseling process, however, this investigator was unable to unearth any research that attempted to determine the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. Brown and Pool (1966) pointed out the need for research in this area. If such a relationship were found, then the vocational counseling process which works to increase self-awareness would be supported. If this relationship were not found, it would be necessary to question this process. Therefore the present investigation was designed to learn more about the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. More specifically, this investigation will attempt to demonstrate empirically that there is a positive relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction.

#### Statement of Purpose

It is the purpose of this investigation to determine the relationship between self-awareness and occupational





satisfaction with a group of male junior high school teachers. Subjects will be asked to complete a personality test and afterwards to rate themselves on each of the variables measured by the test. The discrepancy scores between actual test scores and the estimated scores will serve as a measure of the subjects' self-awareness. Subjects will also be asked to rate themselves--and other teachers--on their occupational satisfaction. The discrepancy scores between actual and estimated personality test scores will be correlated with the self-ratings and peer-ratings of occupational satisfaction. Years of teaching experience will also be considered as it relates to these variables.

#### Research Hypotheses

An investigation of published literature revealed no studies dealing directly with the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. Research which dealt independently with these variables served as the basis for the research hypotheses that were developed and tested in this study.

The three hypotheses were:

1. Self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively related.
2. Occupational satisfaction and years of service are positively related.
3. Inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores will be more positively related than those of experienced teachers.

The derivation of the hypotheses given above is presented in Chapter III.

#### Limitations of the Study

Since this study is only dealing with the relationship between variables as they exist at one point in time, no cause-and-effect relationship can be established. Because self-awareness and occupational satisfaction may be positively related does not mean necessarily that self-awareness leads to occupational satisfaction. This investigator makes no claim that this study will either confirm or not confirm the vocational counseling process which is based upon this cause-and-effect assumption.

This study is also limited by its sample. Participants were male teachers from the junior high schools in a single school system. A further limitation is that they were all volunteers; no information is available regarding the non-volunteer group. The conclusions drawn, then, may only apply to this limited group of volunteer teachers. The appropriateness of the sample and the instruments will be dealt with in Chapter III under methodological problems.

#### Organization of the Study

The following chapter will include a review of the related literature. Chapter III will contain a derivation of the hypotheses, an explanation of methodological problems, a description of the sample and a report of the

methodology employed. The findings will be reported in Chapter IV, and Chapter V will be devoted to a discussion of the findings. Chapter VI will contain a summary of the study with implications and conclusions.

As has been noted in Chapter I, this investigator was unable to discover any research which dealt directly with the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. A review of the literature of such research evidence, Brown and Fennell (1966) and Brown and Fennell (1969) (1969) studies of self-awareness led to occupational satisfaction. Brown and Fennell were also unable to discover any research evidence for such a relationship. This chapter, therefore, first reviews these studies and ideas which deal with self-awareness as it might be relevant to this study. The last part of the chapter deals with self-awareness in vocational theory and finally with occupational satisfaction.

For organizational purposes, this chapter has been divided into four parts. The first section contains an exploration of self-awareness and its relationship to certain personality theories. This is followed by a section in which a review of experimental studies dealing with self-awareness is presented. In the third section, the relationship of self-awareness and vocational theory is explored. The final section deals with some of the

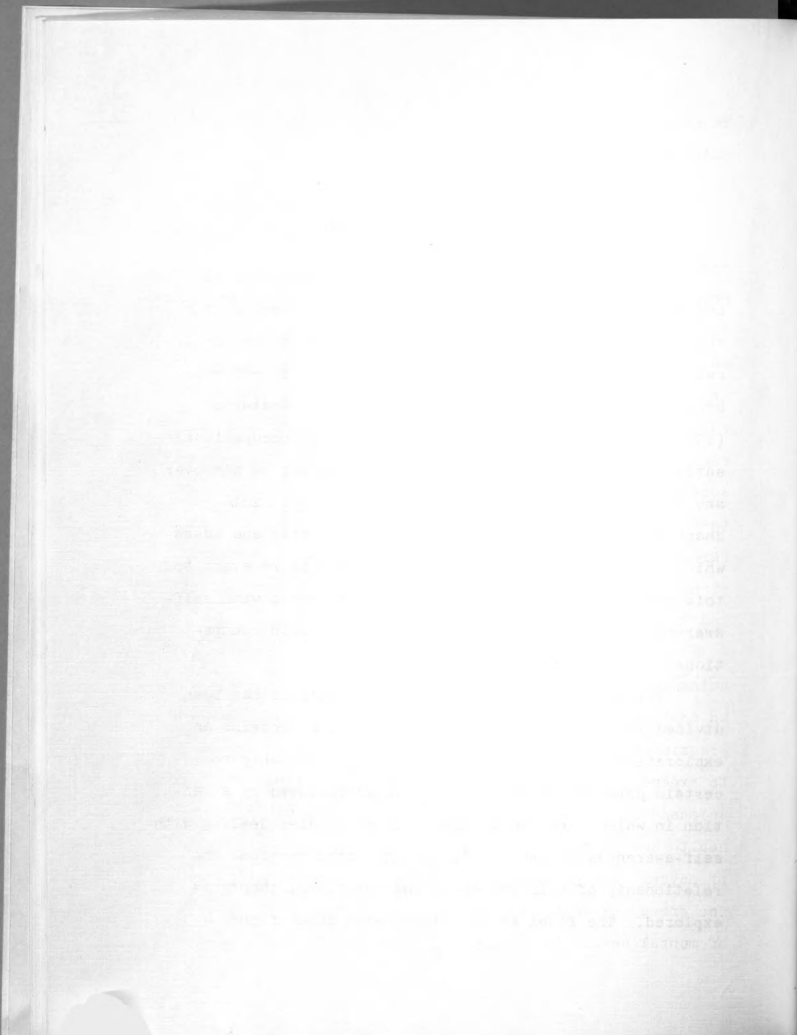


## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

As was stated in Chapter I, this investigator was unable to discover any research that dealt directly with the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. Due to the lack of such research evidence, Brown and Pool (1966) criticized Norrell and Grater's (1960) assumption that self-awareness led to occupational satisfaction. Brown and Pool were also unable to discover any research evidence for such a relationship. This chapter, therefore, first reviews those studies and ideas which deal with self-awareness as it might be relevant to this study. The last part of the chapter deals with self-awareness in vocational theory and finally with occupational satisfaction.

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research in occupational satisfaction as it is relevant to this study.

### Self-Awareness in Personality Theory

Self-awareness has been regarded as an important concept in most personality theories and in most methods of psychotherapy since the advent of psychoanalysis. According to Freud, classical neurosis was the result of some traumatic situation, the experience of which was so painful and frightening to the individual involved that he could not tolerate conscious memory of it. The experience was thus repressed, kept in the unconscious. If repression was not sufficient to keep the painful material from consciousness, then other defenses were used or symptoms developed (Breuer and Freud, 1957). One of Freud's major contributions was the notion that much of the mind is unconscious: individuals are unaware of much of themselves.

In treating the neurotic patients, the psychoanalyst attempted to bring the unconscious material into awareness so that the affect could be partially expressed. This expression gave the ego new freedom since it no longer had to expend so much energy in keeping the material out of consciousness. According to Freud, the difference between health and neurosis could be traced back to the proportion of psychic energy which had remained free as compared to the energy necessary to maintain repression. The concept of mental health is relative: the healthier individual is

less repressed and more aware of himself than the neurotic individual (Freud, 1960, 463-465).

Rogers also held that awareness of self is a necessary condition for normality. He defined the well-adjusted person as one who is able to accept all of his perceptions, including perceptions about the self, into his personality organization (Rogers, 1951). Whereas Freud described health as a moderate degree of repression or symptoms, Rogers describes the healthy individual as one who is open to all of the elements of his organic experience, one who is continually discovering new aspects of himself in the flow of his experience (Rogers, 1961, 124). The extent to which the individual is able to accept his perceptions is a result of his interaction with his environment.

According to Rogers, as the infant develops, a portion of the total private world becomes recognized as "me," "I," "myself." This self is formed as a result of the evaluational interaction with others. Because the infant needs positive regard from significant others in his life, and because he finds that some of his perceptions are more acceptable than others to these persons, experiences and objects come to have positive and negative valences for him. He has internalized the values of others so that he now perceives the world more like the important people in his life perceive it. The self-structure becomes those perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness: some of these perceptions are direct experiences by the



individual, but others are distorted symbolizations of experience due to the introjected values and concepts of significant others. Other experiences have to be denied to the self because they are inconsistent with the self-structure (Rogers, 1951).

Phenomenologists have also held self-awareness to be central to a well-functioning personality. Snygg and Combs stated that:

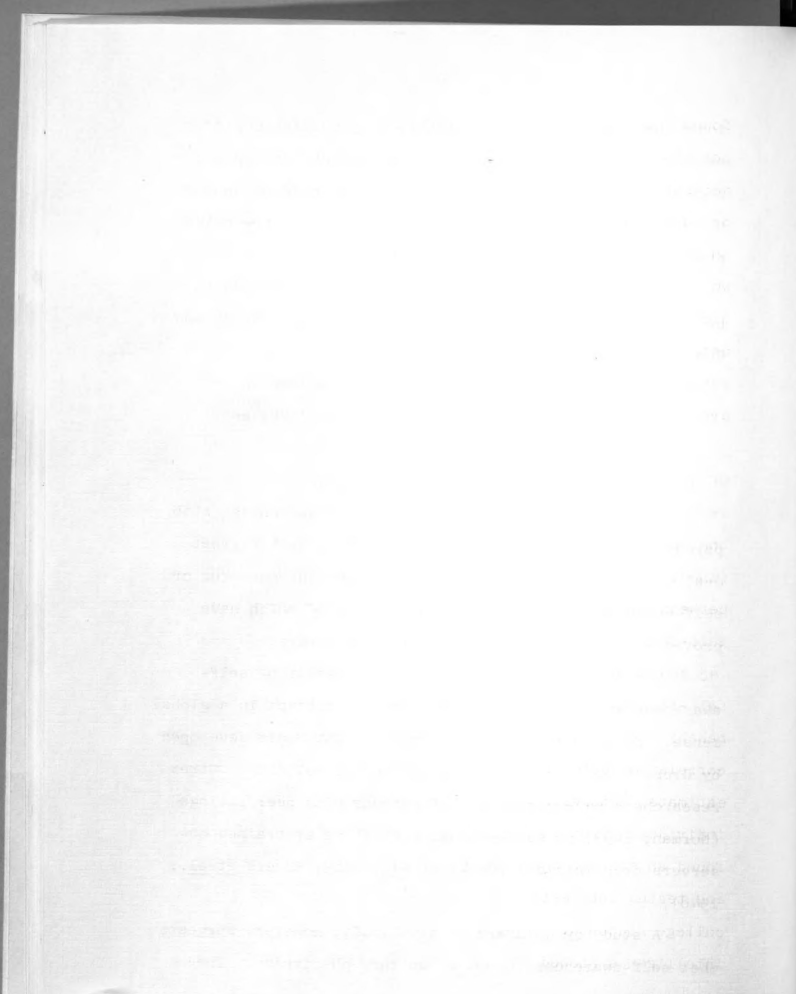
a phenomenal self is adequate in the degree to which it is capable of accepting into its organization any and all aspects of reality (Snygg and Combs, 1949, 136).

#### Research on Self-Awareness

As important as the concept of self-awareness is to psychological theory, it is not surprising that a great deal of research has been generated. Various measures of self-awareness have been developed, some of which have proven more interesting and useful than others.

One of the earlier approaches to measuring self-awareness was to attempt to measure the concept in a global sense. Such a measure is the Self-Insight Scale developed by Gross (1948), a scale of questionable validity. Other researchers have compared self-ratings with peer ratings (Norman, 1953) or self-ratings with those of trained observers or clinicians (Combs et al., 1963; Rogers et al., 1948).

A study by Goldfarb et al. (1960), however, suggests that self-awareness is not a unitary phenomenon. They



found that subjects who were accurate in estimating their performance scores on aptitude tests were not necessarily accurate in their estimation of scores on tests of interest or temperament. The ability to estimate one's performance on objective tests appears to be unique to the area in which it is measured. The findings of this study were particularly important at that time since the ability to estimate one's scores on objective tests had become a popular measure of self-awareness; researchers had assumed that the area of the self which the test tapped was unimportant.

Using estimates of objective test scores as a measure of self-awareness, research has provided evidence for the existence of this trait across populations, and has shown that people greatly vary as to how aware they are. Berdie (1950) found that the median correlational coefficient between the Strong Vocational Interest Blank scores and self-ratings of interests among male college students was .43 and between the Kuder Preference Record scores and self-ratings for the same group was .52. Using vocational rehabilitation counselors, DiMichael (1949) found that the correlation between Kuder Preference scores and self-estimated interests was .58; the correlation varied among individuals from .24 to .75. Crosby and Winsor (1941) found an average correlation of .54 between estimated and tested interests using the Kuder Preference Record with college students. In Webb's study (1955) self-ratings of intelligence showed only limited relation to intelligence



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scores ( $r = .21$ ), but he did not report individual differences in ability to estimate scores.

When using estimations of objective test scores, the research seems to indicate that there is greater variability among persons' ability to estimate their scores on personality tests than on interest tests. Renzaglia et al. (1962) found that college students were able to estimate their personality scores on fourteen of the fifteen variables of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule; individual correlations ranged from  $-.59$  to  $+.90$ . Using the Allport-Vernon Study of Values, Nickels and Renzaglia (1958) found that individuals vary considerably on the similarity between expressed and measured values (correlations ranged from  $-.44$  to  $+.83$ ) with a median correlation of  $.46$ . Combs et al. (1963) found no significant relationship between reported feelings about self and self-concept inferences made by trained observers with a group of sixth grade children; they did not report individual differences in self-awareness, however. Amatora (1956) found that view of self was in sufficient agreement with overt behavior as judged by peers in his study with a group of boys and girls grades four through eight; correlations ranged from  $+.10$  to  $+.67$ . He also found that this same group of pupils could estimate their scores on the Child Personality Scales which has twenty-two scales; on only three scales for the boys and two for the girls were the correlations too low to be significant at the  $.05$  level.

The research mentioned above indicates that individuals can estimate their own characteristics, but that they widely vary as to their capacity to describe themselves accurately. Further, we cannot assume that the individual who can estimate his personality characteristics can also estimate his interest scores or his intelligence. Self-awareness seems to be dependent upon the part of the self under consideration. This conclusion is supported by theory. Freud would say that individuals vary as to the situations and experiences which must be kept from consciousness. Rogers would hold that persons vary as to the conditions of worth or introjected values of others that have become part of the self-structure.

Self-awareness measures have been shown to have both convergent and discriminate validity by various researchers. The following research will describe its relationship to adjustment, to certain needs, intellectual ability and to personality theory as has been found in various studies. Rogers et al. (1948) asked clinical judges to rate the self-insight of 151 delinquent children. In a follow-up study they found a correlation of .84 between self-insight and the later adjustment of these children. Goldfarb et al. (1960) discovered that the ability to predict one's scores on the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey was related significantly to an index of adjustment derived from MMPI scores and was also related significantly to the Guilford

Social Situations Test which measures the ability to make appropriate social responses in novel situations. Norrell and Grater (1960) studied the needs of college students who were able to estimate their Strong Vocational Interest Blank scores as compared to those who could not. They found that students high in awareness could be differentiated from students who were low on twelve of the fifteen EPPS scales, all in the direction predicted by experienced counselors. Students high in awareness were significantly lower on needs for succorance and for order and higher on needs for change and for heterosexuality. Their findings were supported by Brown and Pool (1966) who found that six of the EPPS scales were associated with SVIB awareness measure among in-patients in a general hospital. Specifically, they found that highly aware subjects tend to score higher on autonomy and achievement, but lower on order, succorance, abasement, and heterosexuality. In a study by Mueller (1963) self-insightful graduate students in an NDEA Counseling and Guidance Institute both described others better than non-insightfuls and were in turn predicted and described more accurately by others. In this study self-insightfulness was operationalized as the discrepancy scores between actual scores on Stern's Activities Index and self-estimated scores.

Individual differences in self-awareness were found not to be related to a more favorable self-concept, to scholastic aptitude, or to a better grade point average





(Renzaglia et al., 1962). According to Goldfarb et al. (1960), intellectual ability does not seem to play an important role in the ability to estimate one's scores on tests of personality and interest.

Self-awareness has been used as a criterion for effective counseling and therapy. According to Johnson (1953) vocational counseling increased both the accuracy and certainty of self-knowledge; the greatest gains in self-knowledge were for intelligence, next for interests, and least for personality. In a study of neurotic patients in group therapy, Parloff et al. (1954) found a correlation between a decrease of symptoms and an increase of self-awareness; the authors held that this is an important measure for personality change.

In summary, there is a great deal of empirical evidence to support the concept of self-awareness as a varying trait among individuals. There is also evidence that self-awareness is specific to the traits under consideration. Awareness of personality does not seem to be highly related to intellectual ability, but does seem to be related to measures of adjustment, to social perception, and perhaps to personality change as the result of counseling or psychotherapy.

#### Self-Awareness in Vocational Theory

The idea of self-awareness had become an important theoretical concept in vocational counseling and

rehabilitation as these fields of study began to draw upon personality theory. As Patterson (1964) pointed out, it became apparent to vocational counselors that their work involved much more than the matching of aptitudes and abilities with job demands and job requirements. Vocational counseling is more complex than merely providing test results and occupational facts. Because vocational development is not a completely rational process, it is necessary to explore the client's perception of himself, his self-concept. One of the proponents of this newer approach to vocational counseling was Super who stated that the self-concept is central in vocational choice. He defined the self-concept as the way in which the individual sees his aptitudes, his interests and his personality. He held that job satisfaction depended upon the extent to which the work and its way of life fit with the self-concept.

Even this later theory of vocational development is quite limited however. As Stefflre (1966) pointed out, this "fitting" relationship between the self and occupation occurs only when the individual perceives himself accurately, only when his self-concept and his true self are congruent. A person may often deny part of the self, a part which is not recognized in the self-concept; in fact, according to both psychoanalytic and client-centered theory, every person distorts reality to some degree and thus limits his self-awareness.





The self-concept, which is the perception the individual has of himself, is not necessarily an accurate picture of his objective or real self. If a person is not very aware of his true self, it follows that he will not be able to choose effectively an occupation that will meet his needs; thus, he will be less likely to find an occupation which is satisfying to him. Super's statement about job satisfaction might be expanded as follows: occupational satisfaction depends upon the extent to which the work and its way of life fit with the individual's true self, and the greater the self-awareness or knowledge of one's true self, the greater the possibility for job satisfaction.

The vocational counseling process thus becomes more complex. While the counselor may want to deal with the client's true self, the client may be quite unaware of his real self and may even be unwilling to find out more about it. It is commonly held that the counseling process will be effective to the extent that the true self is explored and to the extent that possible ways of implementing the true self in the world of work are examined.

#### Occupational Satisfaction

The assumption underlying the above approach to vocational counseling is that an individual's occupation is of great importance to his general happiness. The suitability of employment is now seen as an important factor in the achievement of mental health, since the work role is seen

as a major aspect of everyday life for most individuals who are employed. Research in the field seems to indicate that to some extent the above assumption is true. In his study of teachers, Suehr (1962) found that low morale teachers felt that they were not realizing their full potential in teaching, were less likely to indicate that both of their parents were happy in their respective occupations, and missed more school than high morale teachers. Kuhlen (1963) hypothesized that those persons whose measured needs are relatively stronger than their perceptions of the potential of their occupation to satisfy these needs will be less satisfied with their jobs than those who see their needs and their occupation more in harmony. The discrepancy scores between measured needs and perceived need satisfaction opportunities correlated .25 with occupational satisfaction for male teachers, but the correlation was only .02 for females. Brayfield (1957) found significant relationships between various measures of job satisfaction and measures of general satisfaction with life, but again only with the males in his sample.

At this point it seems necessary to distinguish between job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction since satisfaction with a job may differ from satisfaction with an occupation. Job satisfaction generally refers to the specific job situation while occupational satisfaction is more global. An individual may dislike the particular job he is holding at the moment, but not necessarily want to



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change occupations. Brayfield et al. (1957) found a correlation of only .40 between a measure of general job satisfaction and specific job satisfaction with males, and a correlation of only .20 for females. Ash (1954) found a correlation of .48 with similar measures when using a group eighty-two per cent of whom were males. From this point on, job satisfaction will be used to denote satisfaction with the specific job situation. Occupational satisfaction will be used to describe satisfaction with the vocational field that the individual has chosen rather than satisfaction with the specific job he is currently holding.

Research has been quite extensive in the area of job satisfaction. In summarizing job satisfaction research, Vroom (1964) states that the satisfying work role appears to be one which provides high pay, substantial promotional opportunities, considerate and participative supervision, an opportunity to meet with one's peers, varied duties, and a high degree of control over work methods and work pace. Even though some of these factors that affect job satisfaction may affect occupational satisfaction as well, we are less certain about what makes an individual satisfied with his occupational choice.

One of the variables which seems to affect such satisfaction is the number of years spent in the occupation. In their review of the characteristics of dissatisfied workers, Herzberg et al. (1957) reviewed seventeen studies in order to determine how job attitudes were related to length of



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service. They reported seven wide-range studies in which an early period of high morale dropped to a low period and then was followed by a period of rising satisfaction. For example, McClusky and Strayer (1940) found such a curvilinear relationship between occupational satisfaction and length of service with 131 elementary and high school teachers in Michigan. Herzberg et al. found that an additional five studies reported increasing morale with increasing service, but did not show the early drop. Super (1939) and Hoppock (1960) both found a similar increase in occupational satisfaction the longer one is on the job. This increase may be due to dissatisfied workers leaving the occupation or it may be due to a change in the degree of satisfaction as one becomes committed to a field. It would be more difficult for an individual to say that he is dissatisfied after ten years in the occupation than after only one, for he is much more ego-involved. Dissonance theory might also explain the finding that satisfaction increases with years of service. The man who has just entered an occupation has not necessarily decided that he will remain, so he has not made a firm decision. The man who has spent many years in an occupation can hardly deny his choice; to admit his dissatisfaction would be much more dissonant.

In summary, occupational satisfaction does seem to be an important factor in general life satisfaction, at least for men. Occupational satisfaction as used in this study

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means satisfaction with a vocational field rather than a specific job situation. Very little is known about occupational satisfaction, however, as most of the research has been done with job satisfaction. There is some evidence that the two should be considered separately, however. One variable that does seem to be related to occupational satisfaction is the length of service in the occupation. The greater the number of years spent in the vocation, the greater the satisfaction.

In this chapter the literature felt to be relevant to a study dealing with self-awareness and occupational satisfaction has been reviewed. In the next chapter this literature will be brought together showing how the hypotheses were derived. The methodology used in testing the hypotheses will also be discussed.



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### CHAPTER III

#### HYPOTHESES DERIVATION, PROBLEMS OF METHODOLOGY, AND METHODOLOGY

The first section of this chapter presents a synthesis of the research evidence presented in Chapter II, along with the derivation of the research hypotheses given in Chapter I. Methodological problems arising in testing the hypotheses are contained in the second section. The final section describes the methodology used in testing the hypotheses.

##### Derivation of the Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses dealt with in this study are based more upon theory than upon research evidence. The personality theories as described in Chapter II pointed out the value of self-awareness in helping an individual cope with reality. There is some empirical evidence that such coping is related to self-awareness of personality. Research cited in Chapter II indicated that self-awareness of personality was related to measures of adjustment and to social perceptiveness. There was evidence given that this relationship could not be explained by intelligence factors. There was also evidence that self-awareness does vary among people, and also that it varies within an individual depending upon

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the part of the self under consideration. Self-awareness of personality, therefore, is not identical to self-awareness of interests.

Since earning a living is a reality with which most individuals must deal, it might be called a coping situation as the concept is employed by personality theorists. In fact, it may be in some ways indicative of the way in which the individual generally deals with life situations. There was evidence given in Chapter II, at least, that occupational satisfaction and general life satisfaction are positively related for males. If self-awareness, then, is related to certain coping behaviors, and if occupational choice requires coping ability in order for it to result in occupational satisfaction, then self-awareness may also be related to occupational satisfaction. The more one knows about himself, the more likely he will choose an occupation congruent with this self, thus increasing the possibility of greater occupational satisfaction. Thus the following hypothesis was advanced:

- H<sub>1</sub>: Self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated among male junior high school teachers.

Chapter II contained research evidence that occupational satisfaction increased with years of service. On the basis of this evidence, the second hypothesis was formulated:

- H<sub>2</sub>: Occupational satisfaction and years of service are positively correlated among male junior high school teachers.



Due to the fact that occupational satisfaction tends to increase with years of service according to the research evidence, and that there seems to be little reason for assuming that this increase is related to an increase in self-awareness, then the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction may differ according to experience levels. Self-awareness may be an important variable in occupational satisfaction for the inexperienced worker who has just entered the occupation and who may be depending upon the vocation to satisfy certain psychological needs. The experienced worker, however, may settle for less personal satisfaction because his years of commitment bias his objectivity, and he reports satisfaction in order to reduce dissonance. His satisfaction may be more external as the result of his seniority privileges and higher pay; the awareness of what needs are being met may be irrelevant. With the inexperienced worker who has just had to select an occupation, the importance of being aware of his personality may be more important. He wants more personal rewards since the external rewards are not as great. Consequently, the third hypothesis was generated:

- H<sub>3</sub>: Inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores will be more positively related than those of experienced teachers.

It should be noted that in no sense may the results of the present study be interpreted in causative terms even though the theory leading up to them would suggest a

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causative relationship. In the absence of prior research and with the limitations of this study, conclusions must be limited to explicating the relationships found in the population studied. Any cause-and-effect relationship will await further research. The following section will deal with methodological problems considered before deciding upon the methodology.

#### Methodological Problems

This investigator felt it necessary to explain some of the methodological problems which were considered in arriving at the methodology described in the final section of this chapter. More specifically, the sample and the instruments chosen to test the hypotheses will be discussed.

#### Sampling

The sample in this study consists of the members of the largest professional group, teachers. A professional group was chosen because it was felt that psychological variables are especially important in vocational choice for this group. As Stefflre (1966) pointed out, when talking about the importance of self-awareness in choosing a vocation, it is important to remember that the opportunity for self-expression is greatest among the professional occupations and is almost nonexistent in others. For many workers, accidental and economic factors are so crucial that even when the individual has a high degree of self-awareness, his

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chances of implementing his true self in an occupation are minimal. Psychological variables are therefore important in vocational choice only for a minority of workers, mainly for middle-class males in the professions. Of the professional groups, teachers were an accessible population of sufficient size to be used in testing the hypotheses formulated by this investigator.

The appropriate method of sampling was also considered. Would it be better to randomly select teachers from several schools or to get as many participants as possible from a few schools? If there were wide differences in occupational satisfaction between schools, then the former method of sampling would have been a better choice. Larson and Owens (1965) suggested that this might not be the case. They reported studies in addition to their own which indicated that group aspects of satisfaction may often be of small magnitude as compared to individual differences or personal characteristics. Jerdee (1966) found similar results with manufacturing employees. The work groups did not differ in job attitudes, but individuals did differ. The sample in the present study includes teachers from the five junior high schools in one city school district. While this poses limitations on the generalizability of the data, the research reported by Larson and Owens and others suggested that the results from this sample may not be far different from a random sampling of a larger population.

be generalized beyond the particular sample in this study.



Women teachers were not included in the sample because women seem to be quite unlike men in terms of the meaning which an occupation has for them. For example, as reported earlier, occupational satisfaction was found to be significantly related to life satisfaction for men, but not for women (Brayfield, 1957; Kuhlen, 1963). These studies gave support to Stefflre's proposition (1966) that an occupation is psychologically more central to some workers than to others. In the above studies, it seems to be more central for men than for women. While a man's identity is closely tied to what he does for a living, a woman may feel that her role as a wife and/or mother is more central. In support of this idea, Masih (1967) found a greater proportion of high career salient men among the students in his college sample than among women. A woman with high self-awareness may find other ways of meeting her needs than through her occupation; consequently, since they need to be considered separately in a study dealing with occupational satisfaction, they were not included in this study.

The sample in this study, then, consists of male junior high school teachers from a single city school system. As pointed out in Chapter I, the generalizability of the data is further limited by the fact that the participants were volunteers from these schools. No data was available on the male teachers who did not participate. No claim is made that the data contained in this study can be generalized beyond the particular sample in this study.

### Instruments

It seemed to the experimenter after reviewing the literature that having subjects estimate their objective test scores was a valid method of determining their self-awareness. The review of the research dealing with such self-awareness measures as presented in Chapter II indicated that individuals vary more on their ability to estimate their scores on personality tests than on interest or intelligence tests. It was, therefore, decided to use subjects' estimates of their scores on a personality test as the measure of self-awareness in this study.

As far as possible, the personality test chosen had to be free from scales which were either threatening or socially desirable. Otherwise when asking subjects to rate themselves on the scales, one might be measuring defensiveness or the desire to project a favorable image rather than self-awareness. The scales also had to be understandable to the rater so that his intellectual ability or his knowledge of psychological terminology is not a factor. The test must not be so transparent, however, that the subjects would be able to guess what personality dimension was being measured by the questions asked. If the test were transparent, the subjects would know their scores to a great extent by the time they finished taking the test. A final consideration was to choose a test that would be unfamiliar to the subjects so that, as far as possible, no one had an advantage of already knowing his scores from a previous time.

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Taking these factors into consideration, it was decided that the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS) was the personality test which best met the criteria. Its scales, for the most part, are unthreatening and understandable. The scales were derived through factor analytic studies, so, although they have validity, they are not transparent. This test had also been used in a study of teachers (Ryans, 1960) so that the scales of the tests which differentiated tests from other adults were known. This provided another measure of self-awareness: the awareness of those personality dimensions important to teaching. It was felt that this measure might even be a better indication of occupational satisfaction than awareness of personality in more general terms. Estimations of GZTS scores were also used in the study by Goldfarb et al. as a measure of self-awareness, and they found it related to measures of adjustment. To the investigator it seemed to be a good measure of the self-awareness of teachers as related to occupational satisfaction. Further information about the GZTS will be given in the final section of this chapter.

In choosing a measure of occupational satisfaction, brevity was important because the self-awareness measure was already going to require more than an hour's worth of the volunteer subjects' time. It was also important because ratings by others were going to be solicited as well as ratings by self. Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5 was chosen for its clarity as well as its brevity

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since it seemed to correlate well with much longer measures. It also had formerly been used by researchers (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951; Harmen, 1966) as a measure of occupational satisfaction. Further information about this scale will be given later in this chapter.

### Method

This final section of Chapter III will contain a description of the subjects who volunteered for this study, an explanation of the procedure used in gathering the data, and information about the instruments chosen for testing the hypotheses.

### Subjects

Subjects were 72 male teachers from the five junior high schools in Lansing, Michigan, who volunteered to participate in this study. In Table 1 subjects are described by schools according to the number who participated, their experience level, their age and the number married.

From the table below it can be seen that except for School E, about half of the male teachers in each school agreed to participate in this study. The experience level was even in Schools A and E, with School C being the only school where the volunteers tended to be inexperienced teachers. In the study sample, experience level in teaching ranged from one year to forty-two years of experience. Age seemed to correspond to experience level in each school with School C having the youngest teachers in the sample

and School D the oldest. The number married from each school did not vary much.

TABLE 1.--Number, Experience Level, Age, and Marital Status by Schools of the 72 Male Teachers Who Volunteered as Subjects from the Five Lansing Junior High Schools.

	N	Possible N	Experience Level		Mean Age	Number Married
			8 Yrs. or Less	9 Yrs. or Less		
School A	20	41	10	10	37.6	19
School B	14	32	5	9	38.1	13
School C	14	31	11	3	32.7	11
School D	13	27	3	10	44.1	11
School E	11	32	5	6	34.6	9
Total	72	163	34	38	37.4	63

The teacher-volunteers from these schools do seem to vary somewhat in terms of experience level and age particularly. Since the number from each school was relatively small, it was decided to look only at the sample totally as opposed to examining inter-school differences.

#### Procedure

Administrative cooperation for the study was obtained by contacting the Director of Secondary Education in the Lansing Public School System. He presented the research proposal to the principals of the five junior high schools involved in the project and obtained their cooperation.

They agreed to participate as long as no classroom time was involved. In School A, the principal attached a note to the research packets described below, giving the project his endorsement. In School C, a counselor discussed the project in a faculty meeting, encouraging teachers to participate. In the other three schools, the teachers were not prepared before receiving the research materials.

In each school the experimenter chose a person to help administer the materials. This person's name also appeared on the letter of explanation (Appendix A) to each teacher so that there was someone at hand to answer any questions the teachers might have. Packets of the research materials along with a letter of explanation (Appendix A) were placed in the school mail boxes of each male teacher in the Lansing junior high schools. The teachers were told in the letter that the project had administrative approval and that all results would be confidential. In order to elicit their cooperation, they were also told that they would be informed of the results of the personality test and of the result of the entire study if they agreed to participate. Instructions were included in the packet so that teachers who agreed to participate could complete the measures whenever they wished.

Research packets included a letter of explanation, a page of instruction, a Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS) test booklet and answer sheet, rating scales (Appendix C). For each subject the ratings

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for the ten personality characteristics measured by the GZTS (Appendix B), an Occupational Satisfaction rating scale (Appendix C), and a personal data blank (Appendix D). Subjects were instructed to complete the Guilford Zimmerman test first, then to rate themselves on each of the ten scales of the test. The end points of each of these ten scales were defined as they are in the GZTS manual. Subjects were asked to rate themselves in comparison to other adult males. Ratings were made on an eleven point scale which corresponds to the scaled scores of the GZTS profile sheets. After finishing these ratings, subjects completed an occupational satisfaction blank called an Occupational Scale in the research packet. Finally, they filled out a personal data sheet asking for information about their age, their experience in teaching, their preferences in teaching, their marital status, their non-teaching activities in and out of school, and their desire for test results. They were also asked to indicate whether or not they would agree to rate other teachers. After completing the materials, they were then sealed in an envelope and mailed to the investigator. This process of returning sometimes took as much as three weeks and telephone calls were sometimes necessary to encourage the returns.

After the above materials had been returned from each school, six rating sheets were made for each subject using the same occupational satisfaction measure as used for the self-ratings (Appendix C). For each subject the ratings



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were done randomly by teachers who had also participated in the research and who had previously agreed on the personal data sheet (Appendix D) to rate other teachers. Raters were told on a letter of explanation (Appendix E) not to rate teachers whom they did not know and were told that their rating would be considered along with the ratings from other teachers. These ratings, when completed, were sealed and mailed to the experimenter. Most of the subjects had five or six ratings by others and no subject had less than three of such ratings.

### Instruments

The following section contains a description of the two major instruments used in this study: the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey and Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5. Validity and reliability information for these instruments will also be given. The derivation of the self-awareness scores and of the occupational satisfaction ratings will also be explained.

Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.--The GZTS consists of 300 items, thirty for each of ten traits responded to by yes, ?, or no. The Survey puts into one schedule the ten major traits that Guilford and others have defined by factor analysis and which were included earlier in separate inventories: Nebraska Personality Inventory; Guilford-Martin Inventory of Factors STDCR. The scales of the GZTS

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are general activity, restraint, ascendance, social interest, emotional stability, objectivity, friendliness, thoughtfulness, personal relations, and masculinity. The intercorrelations of these traits are low, the high is around .61, but most are around .40, which is small enough to indicate that they seem to measuring separate dimensions (Steenberg, 1953).

Validity for the GZTS had been principally based on factor analytic studies (Steenberg, 1953) and by the low intercorrelations of the scales (GZTS manual, 1949; Jones, 1956). Construct validity for some of the scales was demonstrated by Gilbert (1950) who found correlations ranging from .76 to .80 between the O,P,F,E, and A scales of the GZTS and similar scales of the Guilford-Martin Personnel Inventory and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Correlations have also been found between scales of the GZTS and scales of the California Personality Inventory (Gowan, 1958; Gowan and Gowan, 1955). The GZTS has been used in the study of different occupational groups such as counselors (Cottle and Lewis, 1954), personnel workers (Wrenn, 1952), and teaching candidates (Gowan and Gowan, 1955). As mentioned earlier, Ryans (1960) also used the GZTS in his study of teachers. These studies make the GZTS more valid for this particular study.

Reliability coefficients as reported in the GZTS manual (1949) range from .75 to .87. These coefficients

are the consensus of results from different samples of college students.

Self-awareness scores were determined by taking the difference between the actual and estimated scores of the GZTS and summing them over the ten scales. Thus the self-awareness score is a discrepancy score; the higher the discrepancy, the less self-awareness the subject has since he is less accurate in estimating his scores. The smaller the discrepancy, the greater is his self-awareness. Self-awareness scores were also determined for the five scales most relevant to teaching. It was felt that perhaps self-awareness of one's entire personality is not so crucial in occupational satisfaction as self-awareness of the important personality dimensions in the occupation. The scales selected as those most relevant to teaching were those reported by Ryans (1960) in his book, Characteristics of Teachers. These scales were restraint, emotional stability, objectivity, friendliness, and personal relations. Discrepancy scores between actual and estimated scores were also determined for these five scales as a second measure of self-awareness.

Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5.--As pointed out earlier in this chapter, the Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5 has been used in other studies as a measure of occupational satisfaction, even though Hoppock called it a job satisfaction measure originally. Hoppock tried out a series



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of simple attitude scales as part of an interviewing study of employed adults. Earlier blanks were comparable to the Blank No. 5 (Appendix C) and were identified as Blanks 1 and 10. The blank has four items, each with a scale from 1-7, so that it yields a job satisfaction score which can range from four to twenty-eight. To score four, a person would have to endorse statements such as "I hate my job without qualification," and "I am never satisfied with my job." To score twenty-eight, a person would endorse statements such as "I love my job without qualification," and "I am satisfied with my job all of the time" (Hoppock, 1935).

Hoppock (1935) pointed out that specific questions about job aspects put the investigator in the position of weighting the various aspects of job satisfaction while the global questions of Blank No. 5 allow subjective weighting by the individual and allow for personal values.

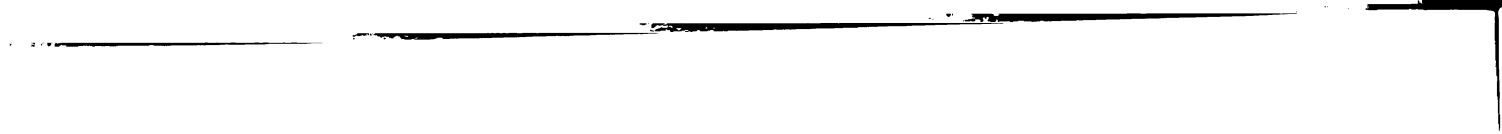
The blank has been used to study the job satisfaction of professional workers (Schletzer, 1966), clerical workers (Kates, 1950), psychologists (Hoppock, 1937), college students (Harmon, 1966), and employed workers in a twenty-seven year follow-up (Hoppock, 1960).

Blank No. 5 has found to be not significantly correlated with vocational interests (Kates, 1950; Schletzer, 1966) and also not with Rorschach signs of maladjustment (Kates, 1950). Increases in scores have been shown to occur for persons who change jobs (Hoppock, 1960).

Hoppock reported a reliability coefficient of .93 which is more reliable than a more specific 100 item questionnaire that he devised with a reliability coefficient of .87 (Hoppock, 1935). Harmon (1966) reported a reliability coefficient of .84 computed by the odd-even method and corrected by the Brown-Spearman formula.

The blank has been assumed to have face validity due to the nature of the items. Blank No. 5 correlated .92 with the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Blank, supposedly a more sophisticated measure (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951). Schletzer (1966) found a correlation of .83 between these same two measures. Harmon (1966) felt that her study contributed to the validity data of the Blank No. 5 since the blank did differentiate those college students seeking job placements who had been rated by judges as to how satisfied they were with their occupational choice. She did not furnish the validity data, however. Scott et al. (1958) questioned whether any job satisfaction measures improved over the Hoppock blank since it correlated so well with later measures which were much longer.

For this study, occupational satisfaction self-rating scores were determined by totaling the ratings made on the Blank No. 5 so that each subject had a self-rating ranging from four to twenty-eight. The ratings by others of occupational satisfaction was computed by taking the mean of these ratings available for each subject. As long as the rater knew the subject being rated, his rating was included,



so that degree of familiarity with the subject was not considered in these ratings.

The primary statistic employed was the Pearson product-moment of correlation. It was decided to reject the hypotheses only when the critical value established at the .05 level of confidence was not exceeded. Because directionality was predicted in each instance, the one-tailed test was used in all instances. With 70 degrees of freedom, this established the critical ratio at .151.

In summary, this chapter has included the derivation of the hypotheses, problems in methodology, and the method used in testing the hypotheses. In the next two chapters the findings will be described and then discussed.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter, which is devoted to analysis of the data and reporting of the findings, is divided into sections according to the hypothesis being tested. Each hypothesis will be stated, a report of the findings relevant to each hypothesis will be given, and conclusions will be drawn.

#### Test of Hypothesis One

$H_1$ : Self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated.

This hypothesis was tested by computing Pearson product-moment correlations between self-awareness scores and occupational satisfaction ratings by self and ratings by others. It can be recalled that self-awareness scores are discrepancy scores between subjects' actual and estimated scores on the GZTS. A low discrepancy score indicates high self-awareness while a high discrepancy score indicates low self-awareness. Even though the hypothesis states that there is a positive relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction, the test of this hypothesis using discrepancy scores should show negative correlations.

As can be seen from Table 2, Hypothesis One was supported by all four correlations between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. Self-awareness as measured by the discrepancy between actual and estimated scores for the entire GZTS (10 scales) correlated  $-.35$  with occupational satisfaction ratings by self and correlated  $-.28$  with occupational satisfaction ratings by others. When using the five scales of the GZTS which are most relevant to teaching, self-awareness correlated  $-.41$  with occupational satisfaction ratings by self and  $-.25$  with occupational satisfaction ratings by others.

TABLE 2.--Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Self-Awareness Scores<sup>1</sup> and Occupational Satisfaction Ratings by Self, Ratings by Others, and Years of Teaching for (N=72) Male Teachers

	Occupational Satisfaction		Years of Teaching
	Ratings by Self	Ratings by Others	
Self-Awareness Using 10 GZTS Scales	$-.35^{**}$	$-.28^{**}$	$-.13^{*}$
Self-Awareness Using 5 GZTS Scales	$-.41^{**}$	$-.25^{**}$	$-.19^{*}$

<sup>1</sup>Self-awareness was defined as the discrepancy between subjects' actual and estimated scores of the GZTS.

$^{**}$ For 70 df,  $p = .01$  when  $r = .151$  for a one-tailed test.

$^{*}$ For 70 df,  $p = .05$  when  $r = .116$  for a one-tailed test.



The ratings by self of occupational satisfaction had somewhat higher correlations with the measures of self-awareness than did the ratings by others. Computing a Pearson product-moment correlation between the two occupational ratings, it was found that the ratings by self and the ratings by others were significantly correlated ( $r = .51$ ). The mean of the self-ratings was 21.6 with a standard deviation of 3.56. The mean of the ratings by others was 20.8 with a standard deviation of 2.46. Thus, the ratings by others tend to be more restricted in range than the self-ratings. This perhaps is one explanation for the higher correlation of the self-ratings with self-awareness as compared to the ratings by others.

In summary, on the basis of the four correlations which were computed to test Hypothesis One, this hypothesis could not be rejected. All four correlations supported its acceptance. The occupational satisfaction ratings by self were more highly correlated with the self-awareness measures than the satisfaction ratings by others.

#### Test of Hypothesis Two

$H_2$ : Occupational satisfaction and years of teaching are positively correlated.

In testing this hypothesis, a Pearson product-moment correlation was computed between the occupational satisfaction self-ratings and the number of years of teaching. With this sample of 72 teachers, this correlation was  $r = .22$ , which is significant at or beyond the .01 level.





The relationship was of sufficient magnitude that the hypothesis could not be rejected.

As was reported in the studies on occupational satisfaction in Chapter II, in the present study occupational satisfaction increased with years of service. Whether this correlation is due to the fact that dissatisfied teachers tend to leave the teaching field or whether it is due to a change within teachers the longer they remain in the teaching field cannot be determined from the data in the present study.

#### Test of Hypothesis Three

H<sub>3</sub>: Inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores will be more positively correlated than those of experienced teachers.

This hypothesis was tested by computing Pearson product-moment correlations between the two self-awareness scores and the two measures of occupational satisfaction for experienced teachers and for inexperienced teachers, and then by testing the difference of these correlation coefficients. As indicated in Table 3, for inexperienced teachers, the correlation between their self-awareness scores (10 scales) and their occupational satisfaction self-ratings was  $r = -.48$ , while their self-awareness scores using five scales correlated  $-.49$  with occupational satisfaction self-ratings. Both of these correlations were considered to indicate a greater relationship than that which might occur by chance. For experienced teachers,

TABLE 3.--Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Self-Awareness Scores and Occupational Satisfaction Ratings by Self for Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers.

	Occupational Satisfaction	
	Inexperienced Teachers: Self-Ratings (N=34)	Experienced Teachers: Self-Ratings (N=38)
Self-Awareness Using 10 GZTS Scales	-.48*	-.19
Self-Awareness Using 5 GZTS Scales	-.49*	-.25

\*For 32 df,  $p < .01$  when  $r = .437$ .

the correlation between the ten scales and the self-ratings was  $-.19$  and between the five scales and the self-ratings was  $-.25$ . Neither of these correlations were greater than that which might occur by chance. In checking as to whether these correlations between inexperienced and experienced teachers differ significantly, the investigator first transformed the correlations into  $z'$  values corresponding to the given values of  $r$ . Dividing the observed difference between the two  $z'$  values for  $r = -.48$  and  $r = -.19$  by the standard error of the difference gives the following  $z$  value:

$$z = \frac{z_1' - z_2'}{\sigma_{z_1' - z_2'}} = 1.324$$



The probability of obtaining such a z value according to the table of the normal curve is .093, which did not reach the critical value established to accept the hypothesis. The differences in the correlations between inexperienced and experienced teachers, then, were not of sufficient magnitude to accept the hypothesis although the differences were in the predicted direction. Hypothesis Three, therefore, was rejected.

After running the tests of the hypotheses, a further examination of the data revealed that years of teaching seemed to have some effect upon occupational satisfaction and upon self-awareness. In testing Hypothesis Two, years of teaching was found to be significantly correlated with occupational satisfaction. In Table 2, years of teaching was also significantly correlated with the self-awareness measures. Since years of teaching had an effect upon both of these variables, the investigator decided to remove its effect to gain a better understanding of the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. When using the ten scales of the GZTS and the occupational self-ratings, partialling out the effect of years of teaching according to the following formula (Guilford, 1956) results in the following correlation:

$$r^{12.3} = \frac{r_{12} - r_{13}r_{23}}{(1 - r_{13}^2)(1 - r_{23}^2)} = -.45$$

When using the five scales of the GZTS and the occupational self-ratings, partialling out the effect of years of teaching gives the correlation  $r = -.463$ . In both cases the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction increased when years of teaching was held constant, although the increase in neither instance was significant. With ten scales the correlation increased from  $-.35$  to  $-.45$ , and with five scales it increased from  $-.41$  to  $-.46$ . Both correlations obtained through partialling are significant beyond the level established for the test of the hypotheses.

In conclusion, then, two of the three hypotheses of this study were supported. Self-awareness and occupational satisfaction were found to be positively correlated in all four tests of the hypothesis. Years of teaching and occupational satisfaction were also found to be positively correlated. Inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores were not found to have a greater relationship than those of experienced teachers, so the third hypothesis was rejected. Because years of teaching seemed to have some effect on the data, it was partialled out of the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. In both cases where this was done, the correlations increased somewhat.

This chapter has presented tests of each of the three hypotheses dealt with in this study. Chapter V will include a discussion of these results.





## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter will discuss the results as they were presented in Chapter IV. Explanations of the findings for each hypothesis will be offered.

#### Hypothesis One

Experimental Hypothesis One was supported; that is, self-awareness and occupational satisfaction were positively related in all four tests of the hypothesis. The highest correlation was obtained by using the discrepancy scores of the five GZTS scales most relevant to teaching as a measure of self-awareness and correlating this measure with occupational satisfaction self-ratings. Even though this correlation was not significantly different from the correlation between the self-awareness scores using ten scales and the occupational satisfaction self-ratings, it may indicate that self-awareness of the particular personality characteristics relevant to an occupation is more important in determining occupational satisfaction than self-awareness in general. This notion, of course, would need further confirmation. If a more specific measure of self-awareness did prove to be a better predictor of satisfaction, this would support Goldfarb's (1960) finding that



self-awareness is not a unitary phenomenon, but is dependent upon the area in which it is measured.

The self-ratings of occupational satisfaction tended to be more highly correlated with the two measures of self-awareness than were the ratings by others, although not significantly so. One of the reasons was that the ratings by others tended to be less variable than the self-ratings; that is, raters seemed to avoid making extreme judgments and to assign individuals to more moderate categories. The smaller variance would affect any variable correlated with the ratings by others, making it more difficult to achieve a significant correlation. The two ratings of occupational satisfaction did have a significant correlation with each other,  $r = .51$ , which is significant well beyond the level established for the test of the hypotheses. However, only about one-fourth of the variance is explained by this relationship.

The correlations between the occupational satisfaction measures and the self-awareness scores may have been even greater if the range of the occupational satisfaction scores had been broader. In the self-ratings, only nine of the seventy-two subjects rated himself on the dissatisfied side of the occupational scale (a score of 16 or less). In the ratings by others, there were only two ratings that were clearly dissatisfied. Such high satisfaction may not be unique to this sample, however, since Robinson, et al. (1966) reported a median of only thirteen per cent

dissatisfied in the job satisfaction research studies of 1964-65. To have only twelve per cent in this study who state that they are dissatisfied may not be unusual for professional workers. Such a limited range of scores, however, does affect its correlation with other variables, making it more difficult to achieve high correlations.

Certainly one cannot say from the data that the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction is fully explained. It does suggest that to some extent, at least, the individual who knows his true self is more likely to be satisfied in his occupation than one who is not. There are people, however, that are satisfied even though they do not have much self-awareness according to the measures used in this study. To explain this, Stefflre (1966) suggested that an individual may have repressed parts of his personality which are implemented in his occupational choice; he called this a "permitting" relationship. For example, some teachers may not be aware of their desire to control others although this controlling is part of the teaching role. These teachers could be quite satisfied with their occupation while being unaware of the needs being met which make it satisfying. The unconscious has been at work satisfying needs which are seemingly too painful to be brought into awareness.

There also seem to be individuals who are aware of their true selves who still are not satisfied with their occupational choice. Stefflre (1966) also has suggested





an explanation for this phenomenon in what he called the "binding" relationship. Perhaps the individual with self-awareness was not aware of the role expectations in teaching. He may have chosen teaching because he enjoys academics and/or children only to find himself burdened with disciplinary actions and record keeping. He thus becomes dissatisfied because he lacked a clear conception of what the occupation involved rather than lacking knowledge about himself. Another possibility is that the individual with self-awareness has found other ways of implementing his needs outside his occupation e.g., in hobbies or family, so that his occupational choice is not central to his sense of self. Further study of the relationship between personality and occupational choice is necessary before the relationship is clearly understood.

#### Hypotheses Two and Three

Taking the whole sample of 72 teachers, the correlation between years of teaching and occupational satisfaction is  $r = .22$ , which is significant at or beyond the level established for the test of the hypotheses. It could not be determined from this data whether the increase in satisfaction is due to the fact that dissatisfied teachers tend to drop out of the teaching field, or whether individuals become more satisfied the longer they stay in teaching. Plotting the satisfaction scores on a graph did not indicate an early drop in satisfaction as was found in some of



the studies cited by Herzberg, et al., (1957). The finding that years of teaching and occupational satisfaction are significantly correlated does support the research evidence as cited in Chapter II.

According to Hypothesis Three, inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores are more highly correlated than those of the experienced teachers. The basis for this prediction was the notion that self-awareness was more important in occupational satisfaction during the first years of teaching, but became less so as years of teaching increased. This lessening of the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction would be due to an increase in commitment and external rewards for the experienced worker so that his occupational satisfaction would depend more upon his commitment than upon his self-awareness.

In testing this hypothesis, the correlations for the inexperienced and experienced groups of teachers were found not to be significant at the level established for the test of the hypotheses, although the differences were in the direction predicted by the hypothesis. Hypothesis Three, therefore, was not accepted on the basis of the data in the present study. Further research on this question may prove fruitful, however, since the data were in the direction predicted.

Since it was indicated in the data that years of teaching had an effect upon both self-awareness and upon

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occupational satisfaction, the investigator felt that perhaps years of teaching would also be a factor in the correlation between these two variables. It was decided to partial out the effects of years of teaching upon both of the variables being correlated, so that its influence is ruled out in the correlation.

With both of the partial correlations which were computed, the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction increased when years of teaching was held constant. It may seem unusual to increase a correlation by holding another variable constant. Looking at Table 3, however, the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction decreased from  $-.48$  for inexperienced teachers to  $-.19$  for experienced teachers. As years of teaching increased, the correlation between the other two variables tended to decrease. Holding out the effect of years of teaching, then, actually improved the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction (from  $-.35$  to  $-.46$  for ten scales, and from  $-.41$  to  $-.46$  for five scales.) This partial correlation, although not part of the stated hypotheses, actually lends support to Hypothesis One.

In summary, the data suggest that to some extent, at least, the individual who knows his true personality is more likely to be satisfied in his occupation than one who is not. Other types of relationships between the self and the occupation which might exist were discussed. The





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finding that years of teaching has an effect upon self-awareness and upon occupational satisfaction as well as upon their correlation was discussed. Chapter VI will present a summary of the study, along with conclusions and implications which were drawn as a result of the study.



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter will contain a summary of the study which has been presented in the first five chapters, along with conclusions and implications which were drawn from the investigation.

#### Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether a relationship existed between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction with a group of male junior high school teachers. The basis for the hypotheses that were formulated was largely theoretical since the investigator could uncover no research that dealt directly with the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction.

The value of self-awareness in helping an individual to cope with reality has been pointed out by personality theorists such as Freud and Rogers. Recently the most frequent measure of self-awareness in the literature has been a subject's estimation of his objective test scores. Research using such a measure has shown that this trait varies among people and that it is somewhat dependent upon the

area of the self under consideration. There is also evidence that self-awareness is related to certain measures of adjustment.

Since there is some evidence that self-awareness is related to adjustment or to the ability to cope with reality, and since choosing an occupation is a reality situation which almost everyone must face, then it was felt that self-awareness would also be related to occupational satisfaction. The assumption here is that satisfaction depends upon how well an individual deals with the occupational choice. This certainly fits with the vocational theory which holds that the more one knows about himself, the more likely he will choose an occupation congruent with his true self, thus increasing the possibility of greater occupational satisfaction. Stefflre (1966) spoke of this type of choice as a "fitting" relationship. From this framework, the first hypothesis was formulated: self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated.

Since previous research indicated that length of service was positively related to occupational satisfaction, it was considered as a separate factor which might affect such satisfaction. Therefore the second hypothesis was offered: occupational satisfaction and years of service are positively related.

If years of service affects occupational satisfaction seemingly independent of self-awareness, then the



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relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction will be different for experienced workers than for inexperienced workers. The more one becomes committed to a field, the more difficult it becomes to admit dissatisfaction even though the same needs are not being met as when one first entered the occupation. Thus, satisfaction may increase due to commitment or due to external rewards such as seniority and higher salary. Consequently, the third hypothesis stated that inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores would be more positively related than those of experienced teachers since the satisfaction of the latter group is more dependent on other factors.

Participants in the study were 72 male junior high school teachers from the five public schools in Lansing, Michigan; all were volunteers. The data was collected by the questionnaire method. Subjects completed the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, rated themselves on the scales of the GZTS, completed Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5, and filled out a personal data blank. Self-awareness was measured by the discrepancy between subjects' actual scores on the GZTS and their estimated scores. Occupational satisfaction was measured by self-ratings on the Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5 and also by ratings made by other participant teachers using the same blank.

Relationships between the measures of self-awareness and occupational satisfaction were analyzed by using Pearson



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product-moment correlations. On the basis of the results, the first hypothesis was accepted: all four tests of the hypothesis showed a positive correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction scores. Hypothesis Two was also accepted: occupational satisfaction and years of teaching were positively correlated ( $r = .22$ ).

The third hypothesis was rejected: the relationship between inexperienced teachers' self-awareness scores and their occupational satisfaction scores was not significantly greater than those of experienced teachers, although the results were in the predicted direction.

Since years of teaching seemed to have an effect on both self-awareness and occupational satisfaction, it was partialled out of the correlation of these variables with each other. When years of teaching was partialled out of the correlation, the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction increased although no statistical significance is implied.

### Conclusions and Implications

Stefflre spoke of one type of occupational choice as a "fitting" relationship in which the individual chooses an occupation congruent with his true self, thus increasing the possibility of greater occupational satisfaction. The data in the present study seem to provide some support for the existence of such a relationship since self-awareness (knowledge of one's true self) and occupational satisfaction

were found to be positively correlated. Definite precautions must be taken in such an interpretation, however, since the study did not establish a cause-and-effect relationship. The fact that self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated does not necessarily mean that self-awareness led to occupational satisfaction since the opposite might also be true. Consequently, the support for such a "fitting" relationship between the self and the occupation is only tentative and awaits further investigation. A longitudinal study in which subjects high and low in self-awareness were followed through a considerable period of their occupational development would be one way of determining such a cause-and-effect relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction.

Although the correlation between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction was significant, it left a great deal of the variance unexplained. (Even the highest correlation, the partial where  $r = -.46$ , accounted for only twenty-one per cent of the total variance.) The results of this study suggest that the relationship between the self and occupational choice is far from clearly understood, even though it provided support for the "fitting" relationship described above. Stefflre (1966) has stated that there may be other relationships between an individual's true self and his occupational choice as described in Chapter V. Study of other relationships such as those Stefflre has posited is needed.

The finding that occupational satisfaction increases with years of teaching adds support to a growing body of research evidence. There are a number of possible explanations for this finding, none of which have been researched. First, one might speculate that teachers who are dissatisfied tend to leave the profession so that the total group becomes more satisfied.

Another explanation may be that something changes within the teachers so that they report greater satisfaction the longer they stay in teaching. As discussed in Chapter III their commitment and external rewards will have increased making it more dissonant for them to think about changing their occupation. In addition, perhaps the experienced teacher feels that the opportunities for changing occupations have lessened so that out of this loss of freedom he reports greater satisfaction to reduce his dissonance. The older worker's confidence in his own ability to adapt may also have weakened so that he feels less able psychologically to cope with a new occupation. With the world changing rapidly, he may feel anxious about his own adequacy so that he clings to what security he has; he is much less certain about his ability to compete in a world of a younger generation.

So the older worker who had greater economic security, greater freedom to move geographically, and fewer commitments to family needs may not be able to allow himself the same freedom as a younger worker who objectively is not as



secure in his position. The fifty-year-old man who does change occupations is probably more like a younger man in terms of his flexibility, his sense of adventure, and his sense of security than he is like his own peer group.

#### Limitations of the Study

One must be cautious in generalizing the findings of this study to other groups of teachers, much less to other occupational groups. This study dealt only with males, and only with male junior high school teachers in one city school system. These teachers also tended to rate themselves and to be rated by others as more satisfied than dissatisfied with their occupational choice. The fact that the main hypothesis of this study (that self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated) was supported, however, does indicate that the topic of the study is worthy of further investigation with other groups, e.g., other professional groups, non-professional groups, and women.

The major limitations of this study, as seen by the investigator, would be the limits on the generalizability of the data. As mentioned above, the sample is not necessarily representative of male teachers since they were all from one city school system. The participating teachers were also volunteers so that the findings may not be generalizable to all the male teachers in the schools included in the study. Whether the result would have been



greatly different with a more representative sample of male teachers is indeterminate from the data.

#### Implications for Counseling Practice

Despite the limitations of the study, however, the results do appear to have some implications for counseling practice. First of all, the results give tentative support to the vocational counseling process which seeks to increase self-awareness with the hope of eventual greater occupational satisfaction. Whether or not increased self-awareness does, in fact, lead to occupational satisfaction awaits further investigation. The finding that occupational satisfaction increases with years of teaching may also be heartening to vocational counselors. The fact that an individual makes an unwise vocational choice early in his career development does not mean that he will remain dissatisfied throughout his working life. Individuals seem to be flexible enough so that they may either find a vocation that better suits them or change themselves to better suit the vocational choice. Either way, their satisfaction increases.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

No attempt was made in this study to establish a cause-and-effect relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. This study only attempted to determine if the relationship between these two variables was a positive one. The evidence suggested that such a



positive relationship does exist so that further investigation into the relationship seems warranted.

The investigator feels that a replication of this study with a sample of male teachers reporting a wider range of occupational satisfaction might increase the significance of this study's findings. To obtain a more extended range of reported occupational satisfaction, one might study those teachers who initially would not volunteer in a study such as the present one or using some measure of satisfaction, one might select beforehand the teachers who report less satisfaction. A replication of the present study using different instrumentation might also further clarify the nature of the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction. The present study dealt with self-awareness of personality characteristics. The relationship between self-awareness of interests or self-awareness of intelligence and occupational satisfaction remains unexplored. Another occupational satisfaction measure might also be indicated since the instrument used in this study did not result in a wide range of scores.

Research dealing with the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction with other professional groups is needed to verify the findings of this study. Looking at the relationship of these two variables with non-professional workers and with women would provide further clarification of the nature of this relationship for different groups of workers. The present study is only a



first look at the relationship between the self and satisfaction with occupational choice. Its contribution can only be fully evaluated when such research as suggested above is carried out.

### In Retrospect

The present investigation was designed to learn more about the relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction since the relationship seemed to be an important one in vocational theory. More specifically, this investigation attempted to demonstrate empirically that there is a positive relationship between self-awareness and occupational satisfaction with a group of male teachers.

According to the results of this study, the hypothesis that self-awareness and occupational satisfaction are positively correlated could not be rejected. This finding gives tentative support to the vocational counseling process which attempts to increase a client's insight with the goal of eventually achieving greater occupational satisfaction as a result. Since no cause-and-effect relationship can be established in a correlational study such as this, whether or not self-awareness does, in fact, lead to greater occupational satisfaction awaits further investigation. Clarification of the relationship of these two variables with different groups and with different instrumentation also awaits further study.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF EXPLANATION TO POSSIBLE  
PARTICIPANTS IN THIS STUDY





College of Education  
Michigan State University  
East Lansing, Michigan  
December 1, 1966

Dear

For a little more than an hour's worth of your time, you can learn something about yourself and you can also contribute to our knowledge of teachers in general. More specifically, you can learn something of the traits that contribute to your own personal make-up as well as something about how these traits are related to the occupational attitude of teachers in general.

The attached envelope includes three measures that are part of the research required for my doctoral dissertation. The first measure is a temperament survey, the results of which will be available to you as soon as the measures are returned and scored. The other two measures will take only minutes of your time to complete. If you like, you will also be informed of the results of the entire project upon its completion.

If you agree to participate, please complete the enclosed measures within the next few days, seal the envelope, and drop it in the mail. I assure you that all returns will be kept confidential. If you feel that you cannot participate, please put the envelope in the box in the office.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Joyce Moore  
Doctoral Student

P.S.  
See  
for further details or questions

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## TEACHER RESEARCH PROJECT

**Instruction:** It is necessary that you complete the enclosed materials in order. Do not look at the other materials until you have completed the temperament test. Remember that the test scores and other information will be confidential. Remove the answer sheet from the Guilford-Zimmerman test booklet, read the test instructions, and then record your answers with ~~the test~~ pencil.

$\wedge$ 

1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033, 2034, 2035, 2036, 2037, 2038, 2039, 2040, 2041, 2042, 2043, 2044, 2045, 2046, 2047, 2048, 2049, 2050, 2051, 2052, 2053, 2054, 2055, 2056, 2057, 2058, 2059, 2060, 2061, 2062, 2063, 2064, 2065, 2066, 2067, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2071, 2072, 2073, 2074, 2075, 2076, 2077, 2078, 2079, 2080, 2081, 2082, 2083, 2084, 2085, 2086, 2087, 2088, 2089, 2090, 2091, 2092, 2093, 2094, 2095, 2096, 2097, 2098, 2099, 2100, 2101, 2102, 2103, 2104, 2105, 2106, 2107, 2108, 2109, 2110, 2111, 2112, 2113, 2114, 2115, 2116, 2117, 2118, 2119, 2120, 2121, 2122, 2123, 2124, 2125, 2126, 2127, 2128, 2129, 2130, 2131, 2132, 2133, 2134, 2135, 2136, 2137, 2138, 2139, 2140, 2141, 2142, 2143, 2144, 2145, 2146, 2147, 2148, 2149, 2150, 2151, 2152, 2153, 2154, 2155, 2156, 2157, 2158, 2159, 2160, 2161, 2162, 2163, 2164, 2165, 2166, 2167, 2168, 2169, 2170, 2171, 2172, 2173, 2174, 2175, 2176, 2177, 2178, 2179, 2180, 2181, 2182, 2183, 2184, 2185, 2186, 2187, 2188, 2189, 2190, 2191, 2192, 2193, 2194, 2195, 2196, 2197, 2198, 2199, 2200, 2201, 2202, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2206, 2207, 2208, 2209, 2210, 2211, 2212, 2213, 2214, 2215, 2216, 2217, 2218, 2219, 2220, 2221, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225, 2226, 2227, 2228, 2229, 2230, 2231, 2232, 2233, 2234, 2235, 2236, 2237, 2238, 2239, 2240, 2241, 2242, 2243, 2244, 2245, 2246, 2247, 2248, 2249, 2250, 2251, 2252, 2253, 2254, 2255, 2256, 2257, 2258, 2259, 2260, 2261, 2262, 2263, 2264, 2265, 2266, 2267, 2268, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272, 2273, 2274, 2275, 2276, 2277, 2278, 2279, 2280, 2281, 2282, 2283, 2284, 2285, 2286, 2287, 2288, 2289, 2290, 2291, 2292, 2293, 2294, 2295, 2296, 2297, 2298, 2299, 2300, 2301, 2302, 2303, 2304, 2305, 2306, 2307, 2308, 2309, 2310, 2311, 2312, 2313, 2314, 2315, 2316, 2317, 2318, 2319, 2320, 2321, 2322, 2323, 2324, 2325, 2326, 2327, 2328, 2329, 2330, 2331, 2332, 2333, 2334, 2335, 2336, 2337, 2338, 2339, 2340, 2341, 2342, 2343, 2344, 2345, 2346, 2347, 2348, 2349, 2350, 2351, 2352, 2353, 2354, 2355, 2356, 2357, 2358, 2359, 2360, 2361, 2362, 2363, 2364, 2365, 2366, 2367, 2368, 2369, 2370, 2371, 2372, 2373, 2374, 2375, 2376, 2377, 2378, 2379, 2380, 2381, 2382, 2383, 2384, 2385, 2386, 2387, 2388, 2389, 2390, 2391, 2392, 2393, 2394, 2395, 2396, 2397, 2398, 2399, 2400, 2401, 2402, 2403, 2404, 2405, 2406, 2407, 2408, 2409, 2410, 2411, 2412, 2413, 2414, 2415, 2416, 2417, 2418, 2419, 2420, 2421, 2422, 2423, 2424, 2425, 2426, 2427, 2428, 2429, 2430, 2431, 2432, 2433, 2434, 2435, 2436, 2437, 2438, 2439, 2440, 2441, 2442, 2443, 2444, 2445, 2446, 2447, 2448, 2449, 2450, 2451, 2452, 2453, 2454, 2455, 2456, 2457, 2458, 2459, 2460, 2461, 2462, 2463, 2464, 2465, 2466, 2467, 2468, 2469, 2470, 2471, 2472, 2473, 2474, 2475, 2476, 2477, 2478, 2479, 2480, 2481, 2482, 2483, 2484, 2485, 2486, 2487, 2488, 2489, 2490, 2491, 2492, 2493, 2494, 2495, 2496, 2497, 2498, 2499, 2500, 2501, 2502, 2503, 2504, 2505, 2506, 2507, 2508, 2509, 2510, 2511, 2512, 2513, 2514, 2515, 2516, 2517, 2518, 2519, 2520, 2521, 2522, 2523, 2524, 2525, 2526, 2527, 2528, 2529, 2530, 2531, 2532, 2533, 2534, 2535, 2536, 2537, 2538, 2539, 2540, 2541, 2542, 2543, 2544, 2545, 2546, 2547, 2548, 2549, 2550, 2551, 2552, 2553, 2554, 2555, 2556, 2557, 2558, 2559, 2560, 2561, 2562, 2563, 2564, 2565, 2566, 2567, 2568, 2569, 2570, 2571, 2572, 2573, 2574, 2575, 2576, 2577, 2578, 2579, 2580, 2581, 2582, 2583, 2584, 2585, 2586, 2587, 2588, 2589, 2590, 2591, 2592, 2593, 2594, 2595, 2596, 2597, 2598, 2599, 2600, 2601, 2602, 2603, 2604, 2605, 2606, 2607, 2608, 2609, 2610, 2611, 2612, 2613, 2614, 2615, 2616, 2617, 2618, 2619, 2620, 2621, 2622, 2623, 2624, 2625, 2626, 2627, 2628, 2629, 2630, 2631, 2632, 2633, 2634, 2635, 2636, 2637, 2638, 2639, 2640, 2641, 2642, 2643, 2644, 2645, 2646, 2647, 2648, 2649, 2650, 2651, 2652, 2653, 2654, 2655, 2656, 2657, 2658, 2659, 2660, 2661, 2662, 2663, 2664, 2665, 2666, 2667, 2668, 2669, 2670, 2671, 2672, 2673, 2674, 2675, 2676, 2677, 2678, 2679, 2680, 26

APPENDIX B

RATING SCALES FOR THE TEN PERSONALITY  
CHARACTERISTICS MEASURED BY THE GZTS

Instruction

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To

## PART TWO

**Instructions:** You have now finished the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. You are now asked to rate yourself on the scales of this test, indicating how you think you scored in comparison to other adult males. Each of the scales is presented as a continuum from 0 - 10, the end points of which are defined for you. First read the descriptions at each end of the scale and then decide which description best fits you. If it is the one on the right, you will rate yourself from 6 - 10 depending on how much of the trait you feel you have. If the left one describes you better, you will rate yourself from 0 - 4 depending on how much of that trait you feel you have. Choose 5 only when you cannot decide because you feel that you have both traits equally.

The following is an example:

---

Always Dominant	Almost Always Dominant	Generally Dominant	Generally Submissive	Almost Always Submis- sive	Always Submis- sive
0	1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	
DOMINANT			Submissive and Dominant equally		SUBMISSIVE
Independent					Dependent
A leader					Follower
Tough-minded					Soft hearted

---

First you choose whether dominant or submissive best describes you in comparison with other males. Suppose you decide submissive fits you best. Then you will choose how submissive you are. If you are generally submissive, choose 6 or 7; if almost always submissive, choose 8 or 9; if always, choose 10. Select only one number, 0 - 10, for each trait.

My wife and I have been married for 15 years. We have two children, a son and a daughter. They are both very smart and hardworking. My son is a doctor and my daughter is a teacher. We are very proud of them. I have been married for 15 years and I love my wife very much. We have two children, a son and a daughter. They are both very smart and hardworking. My son is a doctor and my daughter is a teacher. We are very proud of them.

[illegible]



Write the number in the box that best represents how you feel you rate on each characteristic.

1. GENERAL ACTIVITY - INACTIVITY

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>INACTIVE:</b> slow pace, Fatigability Low Production				<b>Active and Inactive equally</b>			<b>ACTIVE:</b> Strong drive Energetic Productive			

2. RESTRAINT - IMPULSIVE

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>IMPULSIVE:</b> Carefree Happy-go-lucky Excitement-loving				<b>Restraint and Impulsive equally</b>			<b>RESTRAINT:</b> Serious minded Deliberate Persistent			

3. ASCENDANCE - SUBMISSIVE

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>SUBMISSIVE:</b> Followership Hesitation in speaking Submissive				<b>Ascendancy and Submissive equally</b>			<b>ASCENDANCE:</b> Leadership Speaking in public, bold Dominance			

1\*

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS FOR INFORMATIONAL PURPOSES ONLY AND IS NOT TO BE USED FOR ANY OTHER PURPOSE.

1. NAME: [REDACTED] 2. ADDRESS: [REDACTED] 3. PHONE: [REDACTED]

4. OCCUPATION: [REDACTED] 5. EDUCATION: [REDACTED] 6. MARITAL STATUS: [REDACTED]

7. EMPLOYMENT HISTORY: [REDACTED] 8. CREDIT HISTORY: [REDACTED]

9. SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER: [REDACTED] 10. DATE OF BIRTH: [REDACTED]

11. CURRENT RESIDENCE: [REDACTED] 12. PREVIOUS RESIDENCES: [REDACTED]

13. CURRENT EMPLOYER: [REDACTED] 14. PREVIOUS EMPLOYERS: [REDACTED]

15. CURRENT INCOME: [REDACTED] 16. PREVIOUS INCOMES: [REDACTED]

17. CURRENT CREDITORS: [REDACTED] 18. PREVIOUS CREDITORS: [REDACTED]

4. SOCIABILITY - SECLUSIVENESS

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>SECLUSIVE:</b> Few Friends Introverted Shy				Sociable and Seclusive equally		<b>SOCIABLE:</b> Many friends Extraverted Social interest				

5. STABILITY - INSTABILITY

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>INSTABLE:</b> Fluctuation of moods, interests Pessimism, gloominess Excitability				Stable and Instable equally		<b>STABLE:</b> Evenness of moods, interests Optimism, cheerfulness Composure				

6. OBJECTIVITY - SUBJECTIVITY

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>SUBJECTIVE:</b> Hypersensitive, easily hurt Suspicious Self-centered, egotistic				Objective and Subjective equally		<b>OBJECTIVE:</b> Thick-skinned Insensitive Doesn't relate happenings to self				

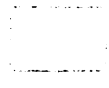
7. SOCIETY - PRODUCTIVITY

Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity



8. SOCIETY - PRODUCTIVITY

Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity



9. SOCIETY - PRODUCTIVITY

Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity
Productivity	Productivity	Productivity

7. FRIENDLINESS - BELLIGERENCE

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
BELLIGERENT:					Friendly and Belligerent equally					FRIENDLY
Hostility										Agreeable
Desire to dominate										Acceptance of dominance by others
Contempt for others										Respect for others

**8. REFLECTIVE - EXTRAVERTED**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
EXTRAVERTED							REFLECTIVE			
Dislikes planning, reflection							Meditative, thoughtful			
Nonoberservant of self and others							Introspective, observant of self and others			
Interest in overt activity							Interest in thinking			

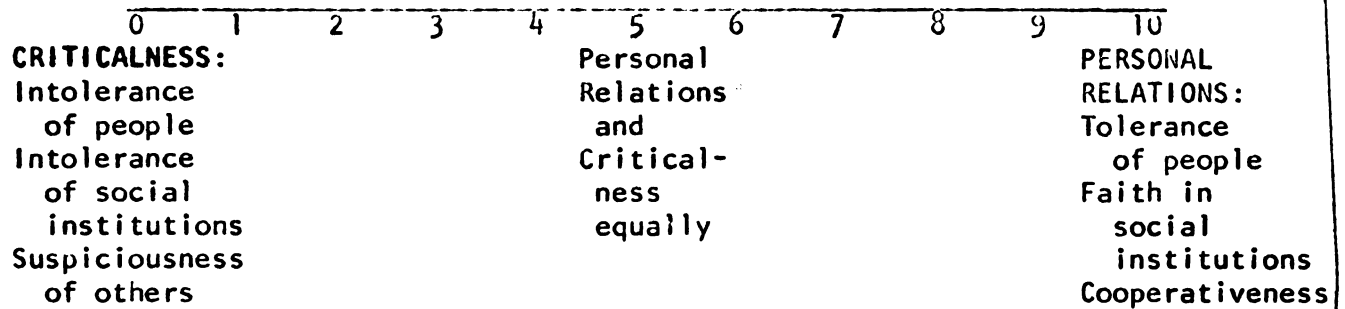
0.2501 1000 0.2513 219 0

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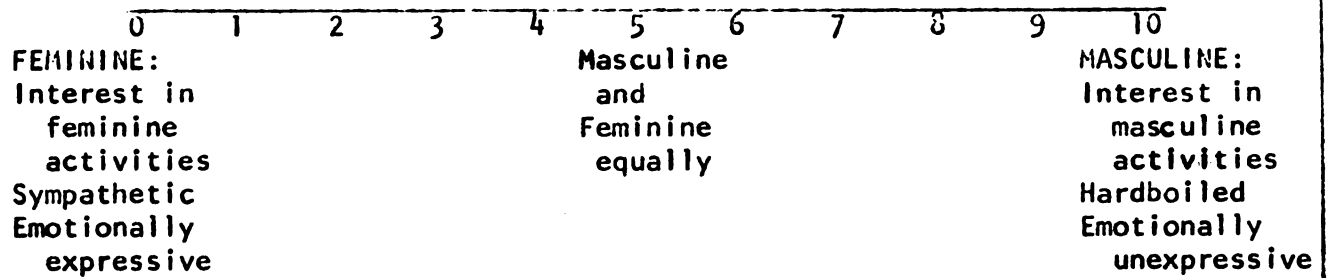
The author is  
 grateful to  
 the author of  
 the book  
 for the  
 information  
 provided.

10.

9. PERSONAL RELATIONS - CRITICALNESS



10. MASCULINITY - FEMININITY



CLASSIFICATION - CONFIDENTIAL

1. The purpose of this document is to provide information regarding the classification of information.	2. The classification of information is determined by the sensitivity of the information.	3. The classification of information is determined by the sensitivity of the information.
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APPENDIX C

HOPPOCK'S JOB SATISFACTION BLANK NO. 5

### PART THREE: OCCUPATIONAL SCALE

Instructions: put the number 1-7 in the box which best represents your position on each of the following four questions.

1. How do you like teaching?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7  
Hate teach-      Indifferent      Love teaching  
ing without           without qual-  
qualification           ification

2. How do you compare with other teachers as to how well you like your occupation?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7  
No one dis-      I like teach-      No one likes  
likes teaching      ing about as      teaching  
more than I      well as most      more than I  
teachers

3. How do you feel about changing your occupation?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7  
I would quit      I would ex-      I would not  
teaching im-      change teach-      exchange teaching  
mediately if      ing for      for any other  
the oppor-      another sim-      occupation  
tunity arose      ilar occupa-  
tion

1.

1

1

4. How much of the time do you feel satisfied with teaching?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
Never satis- Satisfied Satisfied  
fied half of all of the  
the time time

☐

APPENDIX D

PERSONAL DATA BLANK

PERSONAL DATA

A. NAME \_\_\_\_\_

B. SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

C. MARITAL STATUS: 1. Single

2. Married

3. Widower

4. Divorced

Write number in this box

D. AGE:

E. NUMBER OF YEARS YOU HAVE TAUGHT ALTOGETHER

F. NUMBER OF YEARS YOU HAVE TAUGHT IN YOUR PRESENT SCHOOL

G. SUBJECTS TAUGHT THIS YEAR AND GRADE LEVELS \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

H. SUBJECTS YOU PREFER TO TEACH \_\_\_\_\_

I. GRADE LEVELS YOU PREFER TO TEACH \_\_\_\_\_

J. ARE YOU INVOLVED IN EMPLOYMENT OTHER THAN TEACHING DURING THE REGULAR SCHOOL YEAR?

( ) YES ( ) NO

K. IF J ABOVE IS YES, WHAT SORT OF EMPLOYMENT? \_\_\_\_\_

L. IF J ABOVE IS YES, APPROXIMATELY HOW MANY HOURS PER WEEK ARE SPENT IN THIS EMPLOYMENT?

M. ARE YOU INVOLVED IN ANY DUTIES OTHER THAN INSTRUCTIONAL (e.g., administration, counseling)?

N. IF M ABOVE IS YES, WHAT DUTIES? \_\_\_\_\_

O. IF M ABOVE IS YES, WHAT PORTION OF YOUR TOTAL LOAD (e.g.  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) DOES THIS REPRESENT?

P. WILL YOU AGREE TO RATE OTHER TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL ON THEIR OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION?

( ) YES ( ) NO

Q. DO YOU WISH YOUR TEST RESULTS?

( ) YES ( ) NO

TEACHER SELF-APPRAISAL

1. How well do you know your students?	_____
2. How well do you know your students' learning styles?	_____
3. How well do you know your students' interests?	_____
4. How well do you know your students' abilities?	_____
5. How well do you know your students' attitudes?	_____
6. How well do you know your students' backgrounds?	_____
7. How well do you know your students' families?	_____
8. How well do you know your students' communities?	_____
9. How well do you know your students' cultures?	_____
10. How well do you know your students' languages?	_____
11. How well do you know your students' religions?	_____
12. How well do you know your students' values?	_____
13. How well do you know your students' beliefs?	_____
14. How well do you know your students' opinions?	_____
15. How well do you know your students' feelings?	_____
16. How well do you know your students' thoughts?	_____
17. How well do you know your students' actions?	_____
18. How well do you know your students' reactions?	_____
19. How well do you know your students' responses?	_____
20. How well do you know your students' behaviors?	_____
21. How well do you know your students' attitudes?	_____
22. How well do you know your students' beliefs?	_____
23. How well do you know your students' values?	_____
24. How well do you know your students' opinions?	_____
25. How well do you know your students' feelings?	_____
26. How well do you know your students' thoughts?	_____
27. How well do you know your students' actions?	_____
28. How well do you know your students' reactions?	_____
29. How well do you know your students' responses?	_____
30. How well do you know your students' behaviors?	_____

APPENDIX E

LETTER OF EXPLANATION USED IN OBTAINING OCCUPATIONAL  
SATISFACTION RATINGS BY OTHERS



\_\_\_\_\_

College of Education  
Michigan State University  
East Lansing, Michigan  
February 15, 1967

Dear

Thank you for participating in my research project. The results of the temperament test which you took will be sent to you within the next few days. The last thing which I am asking you to do is to rate the following teachers on their satisfaction with teaching as an occupation. Remember that you will be rating them on their satisfaction, not on their effectiveness as teachers.

The teachers that you will rate were chosen at random from those that have also participated in the project. Some of these teachers you will know much better than others, and you are asked to indicate the degree of acquaintanceship on each rating sheet. Please rate each teacher even if you know him only slightly; remember that there will be several others rating him that will probably know him better.

Make your ratings by placing an X on the appropriate number, 1-7 on each of the four items. When you have finished with the ratings, seal the envelope and return it to . Thank you very much.

Sincerely yours,

Joyce Moore

JM:jp















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