B.C. ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS: JOB SATISFACTION AND STRESS LEVELS

by

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ABSTRACT

Using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and a Job Satisfaction questionnaire data was collected from assistant principals (N = 149) across British Columbia. The data was examined to determine a) whether there were significant relationships between particular personal and professional demographics and level of perceived stress b) the degree of stress and job satisfaction experienced by the assistant principals and c) the extent to which job satisfaction was predictive of burnout in these administrators. Significant relationships were found between gender, percentage of administration time, type of school, and burnout. Significant relationships were also evident between gender, years in administration, years in present position, marital status and job satisfaction. Results of the MBI indicated that 40% of the assistant principals were experiencing high levels of emotional exhaustion while another 43% were experiencing moderate levels of emotional exhaustion. Fifty-two percent of the administrators indicated high job satisfaction. The highest areas of satisfaction included satisfaction with interpersonal relationships, satisfaction with achievement and involvement and satisfaction with autonomy. The lowest areas of satisfaction were satisfaction with work load and satisfaction with advancement. Multiple stepwise linear regression showed a) emotional exhaustion was predicted by overall work stress, and satisfaction with work load; b) depersonalization was predicted by overall work stress, satisfaction with achievement and involvement and satisfaction with interpersonal relationships and; c) personal accomplishment was predicted by satisfaction with achievement and involvement.

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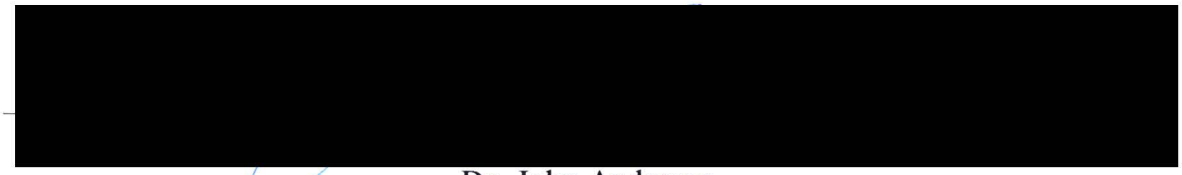

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Finally, I would like to express a sincere *thank you* to the assistant principals of B. C., who took time out of their busy schedules to participate in this study. Their candor and effort has given us all a better understanding of the satisfactions and frustrations of those with one foot in the classroom and one foot in the office.

CHAPTER 1.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

There is much speculation that the role of Assistant Principal entails considerable stress, proposedly more than that of the Principal. Assistant principals encounter all the same administrative duties as their colleagues, the principals. Mountains of paperwork, a myriad of committees and meetings, constant contact with students, parents and teachers, discipline problems, supervision of instruction, and writing of teacher reports are only a few of the administrative tasks for which an Assistant Principal may be responsible.

In addition to administrative concerns, the Assistant Principalship usually includes the challenge of balancing the dual roles of administrator and classroom teacher. In the classroom, Assistant Principals are directly responsible for the diverse needs of approximately thirty individuals with a wide variety of academic and social skills and a range of behaviors. Assignment preparation, marking, report writing, parent interviews, field trips, and support and accommodation of individual differences represent a vast responsibility in itself. With the prevalent belief that teaching today is more stressful than in former times and with the possibility of resultant role conflict and/or ambiguity this compounds the stress levels of the assistant principal. Assistant principals have two part-time jobs both of which require full-time attention.

Changing conditions within British Columbia which add stress to the Principalship, such as the implementation of the Year 2000, integration of special needs

children into the regular classroom, financial restraints, formation of the teachers' union, and the resultant strikes also affect the Assistant Principal's position. Decaying autonomy, changing status, authority and expected leadership styles are a primary source of job- related stress. Administrators are now expected to be democratic leaders who share decision making yet are still held personally responsible for those decisions. Mounting societal expectations pressuring schools to accept ever-increasing responsibility for the welfare of students and their families result in stresses unimagined a generation ago. School are becoming all-encompassing social institutions, in *loco parentis*, struggling with problems that are far beyond the capacity of the best-staffed schools. The occurrence of such significant changes in the field of education over the last decade translates into escalating stress levels for all administrators.

Statement of the Problem

Little, especially in the province of British Columbia, has been done in way of research on Assistant Principals' roles or their levels of job satisfaction or burnout. The research that does exist in regards to the burnout of professionals in the educational field concentrates on teachers and, more recently, Principals.

Initial steps in understanding the role of the Assistant Principal in British Columbia (B.C.) are determination of perceived stress levels and identification of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This information will lay the foundation for a re-examination of the role and the pressures and rewards within that role. Within the context of this information, effective changes may be considered or implemented.

Rationale for the Study

When regarding the stress and job satisfaction of Assistant Principals, there is first a concern for individuals themselves. Kent (1990) states that a forty-hour work week means approximately 70% of one's waking hours are spent either at work, preparing for work, or traveling to and from work. Cooper and Marshall (1976) warned that, "[t]here is a growing body of evidence from studies . . . to suggest that occupational stress is a causal factor in these diseases (coronary heart disease, cardiovascular disease, and mental ill health)" (p. 11). Excessive stress in the work place may result in physical or psychosomatic disorders and/or emotional exhaustion taking a tole on the individual, their health and their families.

Secondly, burnout can result in seriously reduced effectiveness of administrators and the schools in which they work. As stress and dissatisfaction have a strong effect on the performances levels of any individual and as the Assistant Principal occupies a central role in the school's social system and has high levels of interaction with students, teachers, parents and community members, any debilitating effects of stress or job dissatisfaction may translate into larger negative effects for the school as a whole.

Finally, the profession is losing many educators who indicate that some aspect of their work life is too stressful. In a survey of 1,600 principals conducted by the University of Utah (Seligmann, 1978), a full one-quarter said they intended to "quit" as the personal and financial rewards of their careers were far outweighed by the sacrifices of time and energy necessary for the job.

An understanding of the current stress levels of B.C's Assistant Principals, the factors that influence these stresses, and specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction is imperative before there is a potential for change. Any organizational planning for effective change will require accurate knowledge regarding these administrators and their perception of their occupational environments. In the interest of making informed decisions, those in the field of education must understand the present situation as clearly as possible.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate both the perceived stress levels and job satisfaction experienced by Assistant Principals in British Columbia's schools. An examination of a) the relationships among personal and professional demographic factors and of b) stress levels and job satisfaction will be undertaken in an attempt to identify factors that predict burnout .

Research Objectives

The researcher's objectives in this study are:

1. To determine the levels of perceived stress of B. C. Assistant Principals as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory;

2. To determine whether significant relationships exist between particular personal or professional demographics and levels of stress experienced by B.C. Assistant Principals;

3. To determine levels of overall job satisfaction experienced by B.C. Assistant Principals as measured by Sarros and Friesen's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire;

4. To determine levels of specific job facet satisfactions experienced by B.C. Assistant Principals as measured by Sarros and Friesen's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire; and

5. To determine the extent to which the job satisfaction levels of B.C. Principals are predictive of burnout.

Significance of the Study

Assistant Principals, as a group, have received very little attention in the research literature. The findings of this study should provide an understanding of the job satisfaction and burnout levels being experienced by this group. This information should be of interest to School Districts, the British Columbia Principals and Vice Principals Association (B.C.P.V.P.A.), Assistant Principals themselves and those considering administration as a career path.

The B.C.P.V.P.A. has a mandate to support administrators within the province. The information gained from this study should give a clearer picture of the present

situation in B.C. and allow for recommendations from the provincial body. These recommendations may include suggestions regarding further research, professional training programs, or professional support.

Identification of specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction should allow school districts to enhance areas of administrator satisfaction and to incorporate changes designed to alleviate dissatisfaction. An established correlation between job satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction and stress would emphasize the importance of job satisfaction in regard to controlling the levels of stress. This finding would demonstrate to school districts the importance of enhancing job satisfaction in the interest of obtaining optimum performance on the part of Assistant Principals. Correlations between professional and personal demographics and stress levels may identify those who would experience the least stress in an administrative position, allowing districts to determine those best suited to administrative posts.

The findings should also provide realistic information to those interested in pursuing an administrative career. It should alert individuals to the current level of stress experienced by those in the field and help to identify the satisfactions and dissatisfactions they may encounter in a similar position. This knowledge should provide the opportunity to evaluate both their capabilities and their desire to proceed in this direction. This information should allow them to determine, prior to accepting an administrative post, the realities that acceptance of such an assignment entails.

Finally, the findings of this study will provide information for Assistant Principals themselves, allowing them to examine their own situations in relation to that of provincial norms. It will permit individuals to focus on specific areas of

dissatisfaction, give them statistics with which to approach their districts and allow them an opportunity to advocate change.

Definition of Terms

In order to operationalize terms for the study, the following definitions will be employed:

1. Assistant Principal - second in charge in the school and responsible to the Principal; also may be known as the Vice-Principal

2. Burnout - involves three distinct symptoms; emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory

3. Demographics - the personal and professional statistics of the subjects participating in the study

4. Depersonalization - a symptom of burnout often associated with emotional exhaustion; an unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of one's service, care, treatment or instruction; one of three subscales on the Maslach Burnout Inventory use to measure stress

5. Distress - negative physical and/or psychological reactions to a situation presenting demands which are perceived as exceeding the persons capabilities or resources to meet

that demand and the perceived degree of seriousness in the failure to live up to the demand

6. Emotional Exhaustion - the major symptom of burnout; the feeling of being physically and emotionally overtaxed and exhausted by one's work; one of three subscales on the Maslach Burnout Inventory use to measure stress

7. Facet Satisfaction - a summing of several questions or factors of the questionnaire to identify specific components of job satisfaction such as salary and benefits, status and recognition, autonomy, and so on

8. Job Satisfaction - results from the fit between an individual's expectations of the job and what is actually received from different facets of the work situation; the closer the expectation of the job are to the reality ,the greater the job satisfaction

9. Occupational Distress - distress which is generated by demands which are specific to one's workplace or employment

10. Overall Job Satisfaction - may be a summing of all factors or facets of the questionnaire to produce a single satisfaction quotient or may be a single item question regarding overall satisfaction

11. Personal Accomplishment - the sense of personal self worth in relationship to one's job; one of three subscales on the Maslach Burnout Inventory use to measure stress

12. Role Ambiguity - a lack of clarity regarding the requirements of the job and the scope of one's responsibilities

13. Role Conflict - occurs when an individual is put in a position where simultaneous expectations are present and compliance with one results in noncompliance with the other

14. School-Based Administrators -the Principals and Assistant Principals who are charged by the Ministry of Education with carrying out the School Act and providing instructional leadership and supervision in the public schools

15. Stress - bodily or mental tension resulting from factors that tend to alter an existent equilibrium; not necessarily negative, may motivate an individual to greater efforts, better performance and improved coping strategies

Assumptions and Limitations

One of the assumptions of this study is that perceptions of stress and job satisfaction are statistically measurable. A further assumption is that subjects will respond appropriately to the items, resulting in reliable estimations of B. C. Assistant Principals' job satisfaction and stress levels.

This study will examine the levels of overall job satisfaction and specific job facet satisfaction but will not identify specific causes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Likewise, it will determine levels of stress but, again, will not identify specific causes.

Another limitation concerns the impact of particular personality traits, temperament, mood and cognitive orientation on an individual's perception and response to stress and satisfaction. This study does not address dispositional influences but concentrates on situational aspects of stress and satisfaction.

Both stress and job satisfaction receive extensive comment in the general literature. In the next chapter, the researcher presents a current review of "stress", followed in Chapter 3 by an examination of "job satisfaction."

CHAPTER 2.
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, PART I:
THE NATURE OF STRESS

Introduction

The existence of high administrator stress is accepted by most people in the educational field. An American survey of 1,600 principals found that over 25% of these administrators intended to leave the profession due to "burnout". Further the researchers stated that exceptionally talented principals were leaving their positions at a rate of one in three (Seligmann & Huck, 1978). There is, however, a growing literature base that contradicts this viewpoint. Hiebert and Farber (1984) found that seventy percent of the articles they reviewed, relating to stress, were anecdotal and were not based on statistical studies. They were primarily statements of opinion. Additionally, the results of the data based studies that do exist are far from consistent.

In the literature there have been four basic approaches to examining stress. The first discusses the nature of stress. The second measures, compares and ranks the stressors of educational administrators. The third searches for the sources of stress. The last examines coping strategies of administrators. In a synthesis of dissertation research on stress in educational administration, Saffer (1983) found that the majority of studies focused on the role of principals. Only two out of the forty-four dissertations addressed the stress of assistant principals.

The Nature of Stress

People experience stress as an integrated multidimensional response with physiological, psychological and social manifestations. Physiologically, an alarm is sent to all organs of the body. This alarm produces a biochemical reaction resulting in responses such as increased breathing and heart rates, increased sweat gland activity, muscle tension and decreased blood circulation to the extremities. Cognitively, an individual under stress may misappraise the characteristics of the demand, exaggerate its nature or intensity, ruminate excessively, agonize about the consequences of not responding optimally and denigrate their coping abilities (Hiebert, 1988). Behaviorally, there may be an increase in "hurry-up" behavior, anxiety, impatience and irritability or depression and withdrawn may occur.

In itself, stress is not necessarily negative. It can be a beneficial, positive catalyst in an individual's life. Stress can be perceived as a challenge or a threat. It can motivate an individual to greater efforts, better performance and improved coping strategies or lead to feelings of anxiety and lowered self-esteem. It is the individual who interprets the demand as either a challenge or a threat.

Another term used in the literature for excessive stress is "distress" (Selye, 1983). Distress is a disturbance of an individual's normal functioning response to an external or internal demand that is perceived to exceed the adaptive resources of that individual.

Demands are of two types, - pressures or stressors. Pressures lie within the person's coping abilities, while stressors are beyond an individual's coping abilities and contribute to distress (Hiebert & Mendaglio, 1988). Stressors may be psychological or physical in nature (Selye, 1983). Hiebert and Mendaglio state that "no situation is inherently stressful" (p.3) providing the individual has adequate, appropriate skills and resources to meet that demand. Distress results from a perceived incompatibility between a demand and an individual's capacity, power, or motivation to meet that demand, especially when failure to do so will have severe consequences. Demands are always present but it is individual perception that creates stress. These demands can either debilitate or motivate a person.

Stress may be of a transitory or chronic nature. When the coping strategies incorporated have worked, the demand has been satisfied and the system has returned to normal the stress experienced is considered transitory. Transitory stress has a finite and reasonable duration and is considered manageable. Chronic stress develops when a demand persists or coping strategies or resources are perceived to be inadequate (Hiebert, 1988). Sustained arousal, dysfunctional cognitive activity and a variety of inappropriate behaviors characterize chronic stress. Pervasive levels of stress contribute to the development of health problems such as ulcers, hypertension, coronary artery disease, obesity, tension and psychosomatic disorders (Kent, 1990).

Conceptual Models of Stress

There are three predominant conceptual models of stress described in the literature: a) an environmental model, b) a response model and c) an interactional model. Each of these will be discussed in this section.

The Environmental Model

The environmental model is stimulus-based arising from different disturbing or disruptive environmental elements and resulting in a variety of stress levels for different individuals. Three assumptions of this model are that:

- Individuals have a built-in resistance to stress.
- Stress tolerances among individuals vary.
- As normal patterns of behavior break down, abnormal behaviors may arise. Behavior, thus, may switch from being guided by logic to being emotionally motivated (Mundle, 1980).

The environmental model fits well into classical organization or bureaucratic theory. The hierarchical structure with division of labor, uniform, codified rules and procedures, and decisions emanating from the top are designed to produce maximum efficiency. In practice, if the tenets of this theory are functioning appropriately there should be few independent decisions to be made and therefore minimal stress for administrators. If stress exists, one assumption is that a change in environmental conditions would decrease the anxiety of the individual (Feitler & Tokar, 1986).

The environmental model views individuals as passive victims with the stress inherent in the situation. Predictably, following this model, different individuals should experience the same stress when they encounter similar situations. Consequently, changing the situation should relieve the stress. However, this is not the case. First, different individuals react quite distinctly to the same situational demand. Secondly, an incident or situation that stresses a particular individual at one specific time does not necessarily cause the same degree of tension for that same individual at another time. Finally, use of a variety of interventions have been successful in lowering stress levels even though the situation has remained relatively unchanged. Contrary to the tenets of this model, Feitler and Tokar (1986) found that the greater the apparent level of conformity with the tenets of the formal organization the higher the levels of individual stress.

The Response Model

The response model, popularized by Selye (1983) describes stress as a physiological or psychosomatic symptom produced in response to an environmental stimulus or demand. The environment includes the internal, external, physical or psycho social components of an individual's life. There are three basic tenets of this model:

- The physiological response represents a universal defense reaction, is essentially the same for all individuals, and does not depend on the nature of the stressor.

- The defense reaction progresses through three stages called the General Adaptation Syndrome. These include an alarm reaction, resistance and finally exhaustion.
- These defense responses, if severe and prolonged, result in illness or disease.

This model, however, overlooks social effects and the psychological needs and makeup of the individual. Individual personality, temperament, personal beliefs, and individual situations and experiences all affect a person's stress level.

The Interactional Model

The interactional model views stress as a result of transactions between an individual and the environment. Stress is considered an individual, perceptual phenomenon determined by individual, psychological processes. Cognitive appraisal plays a central role in interactional perspectives. There is an initial appraisal of the demand, the resources, the capabilities of the individual and the possible consequences of not meeting the demand. The individual becomes stressed only when the perceived demand exceeds the perceived ability to cope and there is a perception of seriousness in the failure to meet that demand (Kent, 1990, McMurray, 1986; MacPherson, 1985, Friesen, 1986). As the stress increases, there is a heightened inability to appraise the situation accurately and individuals may exaggerate the intensity of the demand, deprecate their own abilities or embellish the consequences (Hiebert, 1988). Perception is a function of individual personality and temperament influenced by such factors as personal anxiety levels, locus of control orientation, flexibility, neuroticism, tolerance for ambiguity and Type A behavior (Jankovic, 1983). Individuals with Type A behavior are considered at higher risk for tension and stress-related illness. This

behavior is typically characterized by an intense striving for achievement, easily provoked impatience, a chronic sense of time urgency, abruptness of gesture and speech, intense ambition, and excessive drive (Friedman and Rosenman, cited in Robinson, 1981). Individual perception is a major component of the interactional model.

The interactional model relates to Person-Environment (P.E.) Fit Theory, as described by Marshall and Cooper (1979), which views stress as the reflection of a lack of fit between individuals and their environment. Stress is not simply a characteristic of the environment or the individual but is caused by an interactional discrepancy between the two. P. E. fit may refer to the degree to which an individual's skills and abilities match the demands of the environment or the degree to which individuals are able to actualize their needs and values within that environment (Caplan, 1983). When occupational demands and rewards coincide with the needs and abilities of the individual, the P.E. fit is good, there is little stress, and job satisfaction is high (Feitler & Tokar, 1986; Marshall & Cooper, 1979). A lack of fit between individuals and the environment produces stress.

Attempts to modify stress and reduce the psycho-physiological effects usually involve one of two coping behaviors, direct action against the stressor or an attempt to alleviate the stress reaction itself. Stressor management focuses on the demand. It attempts to reduce the inequity between the demand and the individual's ability to deal with that demand. Stress management or palliation focuses on calming an individual's physiological, cognitive or behavioral reactions. It may be adaptive or maladaptive. Symptom-directed palliation includes relaxation training, meditation, exercise, counselling, use of alcohol, tranquilizers or sedatives. Intrapsychic palliation includes

defense responses such as displacement, repression, isolation, introjection, regression, denial, projection or intellectualizing (Mundle, 1980; Hiebert, 1988). From an interactional perspective, addressing both situational and personal factors is the key to stress intervention.

As stress is described somewhat differently by the various models, it is difficult to develop a single theoretical-conceptual base. For the purposes of this paper stress will be viewed from an interactional perspective.

Job Burnout

Consequences of prolonged, severe stress or distress have been termed "burnout". Job burnout is characterized by physical and emotional exhaustion, withdrawal from others, self depreciation, apathy, cynicism, low morale, decreased productivity, organizational inefficiency and lowered self-esteem. Sarros (1988) states that in contrast to the bipolar characteristics of stress, "burnout has no redeeming features" (p. 185). Both Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Redgwell (1992) suggest that burnout occurs frequently among human service professionals as a result of long-term involvement with people in emotionally demanding situations. Redgwell states the highest incidence of burnout occurs in collaborative organizational models. As school administrators move from the traditional authoritarian decision making model to a newer consultative model they are subject to the higher incidence stress levels of which Redgwell speaks.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) define burnout as a syndrome including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is a key aspect of burnout. It is characterized by physical and emotional over extension and fatigue. Kottkamp and Travlos (1986) found that emotional exhaustion correlates positively to low morale, cynicism, negativism, inflexibility, a sense of helplessness and hopelessness regarding one's clients, high absenteeism and turnover. Negative cynical attitudes and feeling regarding one's clients are the characteristics of depersonalization burnout. Reduced personal accomplishment refers to a tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly in regard to one's work or clients.

Stress / Burnout Levels in Educators

There appears to be a widely held premise that excessive stress or what is commonly termed "burnout" is rampant in the educational field. The stress of teachers has been a subject of research studies from the early 1900s. Administrators originally were simply considered one of the factors contributing to teacher stress and were not considered subjects of study themselves. More recently studies of administrator stress have become popular, though all administrators have not received equal attention. The majority of studies have focused on principals, some have included assistant principals as a component of school-based administrators but little research has focused on assistant principals themselves.

Teachers and Stress

"I thought I could make a difference. I could help improve schools, learning, society . . . who did I think I was that I could do those things?" (Redgwell, 1992, p. 18). According to Redgwell, this is the statement of a teacher disillusioned and stressed by her experience in the teaching profession.

As early as the 1930s, teacher stress was a concern. McIntyre (1983) in a review of the literature cites the 1938 National Education Association (NEA) Report which stated 37.5% of teachers (N=5,150) are seriously worried and nervous; Hicks, (cited in McIntyre, 1983) in 1933 stated 11% of the teachers he canvassed had suffered nervous breakdowns; Peck, (cited in McIntyre, 1983) in 1933, stated 33% of female teachers displayed nervous symptoms. The 1951 N.E.A. Report showed 43% of teachers (N= 2,200) were working under considerable strain and tension; in 1967, 61.7% of teachers (N= 2,290) reported their jobs being moderately stressful while 16.2% reported considerable stress. Stress in the educational field is not a new phenomenon.

Warner (1980) reviewed several research studies In one of these studies, an American national survey of 7000 teachers, Warner found that the majority of subjects answered affirmatively to the question "is teaching hazardous to your health?" Eighty-seven percent of the teachers reported chronic health problems that they attributed to involvement in their profession and 33% named stress as the major reason for sick leave.

In 1980 the Council for Exceptional Children (McIntyre, 1983) reported 56.5% of respondents (N= 5,500) claimed physical and/or mental illness as a consequence of their profession. Saville (cited in McIntyre, 1983) found 65% of teachers felt teaching was highly stressful and 58% reported they had seriously considered leaving the profession because of stress-related problems. In a survey of the literature McIntyre found several sources identified poor administrative leadership or disagreements with the principal as major contributors to teacher stress.

Today we are still concerned with evidence of teacher stress and burnout. McMurray (1986) found that 17% of female teachers perceived their job as extremely stressful and 54% as moderately stressful. Though 84% said they would still choose teaching as a profession McMurray speculates that perhaps the most anxious teachers had already left the profession. In addition, McIntyre (1983) cites the N.E.A. as reporting that 33% of teachers interviewed stated they would enter another field if they were able to start over.

Administrator Stress

It seems logical that if teachers experience stress with responsibility for individual classrooms then administrators, with the responsibility for the entire school, would be equally or more stressed than teachers. The literature, however, does not support this supposition.

American studies suggest that the majority of principals seem to find their roles mildly to moderately stressful. In a study of 80 elementary Californian principals, Peterson (1977) determined that these administrators did not experience high amounts

of stress. Farkas's 1983 study of elementary and secondary principals in two New York counties determined that these principals perceived their stress levels to be low. Kottkamp and Travlos's 1986 study of New Jersey high school principals supported the findings of Peterson and Farkas. Milstein and Farkas (1988) who did two studies on principals in New York State, initially found principals reported relatively low levels of job stress. In their second study, however, they reported moderate levels of stress.

The results of various Canadian studies are similar to the American findings. Jankovic (1983) found that none of the principals in his Alberta study rated their role as extremely stressful, only 8% indicated the role was very stressful, 58% found the role moderately stressful, 30% mildly stressful, and 4% not stressful at all. McPherson (1985) surveyed 577 principals in Nova Scotia. Only 1% of the principals reported their job as being extremely stressful, 12% very stressful, 41% moderately stressful, 36% mildly stressful, and 9% as non stressful. McMurray (1984) found data from his study of principals in five Canadian provinces suggested that as a group, these elementary principals are not at risk in regard to job-related stress. Sarros (1988) surveyed 128 elementary and secondary administrators in Western Canada and found that 2% reported extreme stress, 8% reported the job as very stressful, and 25% reported considerable stress. Sarros's finding of mild to moderate stress levels are consistent with those of Hiebert and Mendaglio (1988) who surveyed 379 male and 48 female principals in Alberta and concluded that they did not find their jobs highly stressful.

In British Columbia, Hiebert and Basserman (1986) surveyed elementary school principals in Prince George and found the subjects viewed their jobs as being

moderately stressful. The Surrey Wellness Study (1990) found administrators were at 1.67 on a stress scale from 1 - 5, with five being the most stressed.

The former studies differ considerably from that of Wax and Hale (1987). They surveyed 1300 administrators in Oregon State using the Administrator Role Perception Inventory and found that approximately one half of the administrators indicated feelings of burnout. Likewise, nearly half of the administrators in Schaffer's (1980) Alabama study reported their jobs were *usually to always* stressful.

Kent (1990) used the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to survey 145 B. C. elementary public school principals. The MBI incorporates three subscales (a) emotional exhaustion burnout, (b) depersonalization burnout and (c) personal accomplishment burnout to determine stress levels. The results on the emotional exhaustion scale showed 27% of the administrators experienced high burnout, 32% moderate burnout and 41% low burnout. The depersonalization scale showed 3% of administrators experienced high burnout, 17% moderate burnout and 80% low burnout. The personal accomplishment scale showed 2% of the administrators experienced high burnout, 15% moderate burnout and 83% low burnout. According to Kent's study more than half of B.C. elementary principals are experiencing moderate to high levels of emotional exhaustion. They are experiencing low levels of depersonalization and personal accomplishment burnout. Kent concludes that the majority of these administrators are moderately to highly over-extended and exhausted by their work.

Kent's (1990) study indicated a rise in levels of administrator stress from the previous literature. Early studies showed low to moderate levels of stress while this study showed moderate to high levels of stress. These findings suggest that the stress

levels of B.C. administrators are changing. This finding is supported by another B.C. study by Richmond and Campsall (1992) where a majority of administrators indicated that they felt the stress levels of both principals and assistant principals had risen in the last three years.

Though the stress levels of school-based administrators seem to be on the rise, Kent (1990) noted that compared to the total population on which the MBI has been normed (N = 11,067) these administrators were experiencing average levels of emotional exhaustion. They reported lower levels of depersonalization than teachers, social workers and medical practitioners. Additionally, they experienced higher levels of personal accomplishment than the total test population. This is consistent with research findings by Warner (1980), Dusseau (1982), Sarros and Friesen (1987), Sarros (1988), and the Surrey Wellness Study (1990). Though administrators appear to have lower overall stress than the norm, the majority of their life stress is attributed to the job. Marshall (1980) reports that administrators indicate that 61-68% of their total life stress is work related. This is supported by Gmelch (cited in Kent, 1990) who states that 70% of administrators' total life stress is a direct result of their job. Cook (1980) reported even higher levels, he found administrators felt job stress represented 71-80% of their total life stress.

Though assistant principals have rarely been considered as a distinct group they have been included in some of the studies as a part of school-based administrators *per se*. Sarros and Friesen (1987) studied 66 principals and 62 assistant principals and found no significant differences in stress levels between the two groups. The Wellness Study in Surrey (1990) included both assistant principals and principals and found no significant differences between the stress levels of the two groups.

In one of two studies that did focus on assistant principals, Everson (1975) attempted to determine the levels of stress for assistant principals whose major responsibility was discipline. He found that the neither anxiety levels nor the dissatisfaction scores were significantly different from that of principals. Purvis (1975) who studied assistant principals whose major responsibilities were those other than discipline found that his subjects reported significantly higher levels of anxiety than did their principals but, when asked, the majority stated they felt their positions were not particularly stressful. There does not seem to be much evidence that stress levels of principals and assistant principals differ, however, Farkas (1983) states ". . .assistant principals . . . may actually help to 'buffer' the principals from many sources of stress" (p. 4). An example of this would be where assistant principals take on the role of school *disciplinarian*. Just as generalizing stress levels of classroom teachers to principals is inappropriate, it seems unwarranted to generalize the stress levels of principals to assistant principals, especially as their responsibilities and duties differ considerably.

Although the majority of research-based studies are inconclusive, the findings suggest that educational school-based administrators perceive lower stress levels than generally believed by the professionals in the field. Studies also indicate that there are no significant differences between principals and assistant principals or between elementary and secondary principals.

Factors Contributing To Administrator Stress

Stress is the result of a combination of factors. Psychological, organizational and specific job related components all combine to produce varied levels of challenge and frustration in different instances. The individuality or personal characteristics of an administrator, along with the organizational structure, policies and procedures interact with the distinct demands of the particular position that an administrator holds. Each of these factors has a specific effect on the stress level of the administrator involved.

Psychological Factors

Psychological factors are those that relate to the individual characteristics or personality of a particular administrator. Individuals react differently to the same event or situation. Factors such as perceived locus of control, a sense of support or isolation, feedback and recognition, adaptability to change, and intrapersonal conflict all impact on the level of stress an individual can tolerate.

Locus of Control

Locus of control is a personality characteristic that influences the way individuals perceive their environments. Individuals who feel they control their own fate and assume responsibility for what happens to them have an internal locus of control. Those who perceive fate or some power outside of themselves as controlling events effecting them have an external locus of control. Lester and Tappert (1981) found that individuals who had external locus of control reported greater stress levels. Both Farkas (1983) and Mullaly (1987) found that there was a significant relationship

between the degree of internality or locus of control and levels of administrator stress. An external locus of control orientation resulted in higher stress levels.

The role of principal carries with it a continual threat of unexpected occurrences that need immediate attention. Many of the situations with which an administrator must contend cannot be controlled or changed. Administrators are dealing with overcrowding, inadequate facilities, external allocation of resources and funding, student violence, threats of legal action, involuntary transfers, lack of opportunities for promotion, teacher strikes, staff reductions, and reorganization of programs generated by the Provincial Ministry of Education. There are many situations in the principalship that may contribute to a sense of external locus of control and that foster increased stress.

Farkas (1983) found evidence to suggest that principals experience high levels of stress if they feel they lack power over assigned tasks. One of the dissatisfactions experienced by the administrators surveyed in the Surrey Wellness Study (1990) was high job demands coupled with little control of the work. Farkas concludes that the more powerless an individual feels, the less tolerance they will have for uncertainty, role conflict and ambiguity and the higher their susceptibility to stress.

Feelings of Isolation

Spaniol and Warnath (cited in Bundy, 1981) state professional isolation, inside and outside an institution, contributes to burnout. Hendrickson (1979) contends that there is a general expectation for principals to keep a professional distance from their staff in order to prevent them from becoming too responsive to teacher demands. Bill 20 (1987) which legally removed B.C. school-based administrators from the British

Columbia Teachers Federation has served to isolate these administrators from the rest of their staff. The move by the B. C. Provincial Government, to separate teachers and administrators, has placed school-based administrators in a "no-win" situation between their staff and district administration. Whatever differences may have originally existed have been exacerbated and distrust and dissatisfaction between school-based administrators and teachers have increased. Reduced collegial support and higher stress levels have been the result, for both parties.

Lack of Positive Feedback and Recognition

According to a study by Congemi and Guttschalk (1986) one of employees highest ranking wants is "full appreciation for work done" (p. 57). Though employees want and enjoy the material benefits, once these benefits are at an acceptable level, the need for recognition and appreciation becomes a dominant force. In more than 100 studies done in the past 20 years it has been shown that workers of all occupational levels want to be masters of their immediate environment. They want to feel that their work is important and that they, themselves, contribute successfully (Purvis, 1975). Congemi and Guttschalk suggest that organizations are not aware enough of this need and this puts employees and management on a collision course of dissatisfaction.

In a Wyoming study, Cook (1980) concluded that positive feedback to educational administrators was not occurring with the frequency it could or should be. Redgwell (1992) states "in the educational setting negative feedback to all parties vastly outweighs the positive . . . for educators who work primarily with problems this is even more true" (p. 22). A good deal of an administrator's time is spent trying to resolve a variety of problems, the solutions to which often do not please all parties involved. In addition to internal criticism and complaints educators are presently

dealing with increased public criticism and decreased support. The respect that was once inherent to educational positions is no longer automatically given.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) claim that the failure of a job to fulfill the "need to be admired and respected by other people" (p 193) contributes to burnout. After finding higher than normal levels of personal accomplishment burnout in their subjects, Sarros and Friesen (1987) state that one quarter of the administrators in their study felt that inadequate or negative feedback contributed to this burnout and many believed that their jobs were "often unrecognized, unrewarded and always criticized" (p. 173). They suggest that burnout is likely the result of a job that fails to satisfy the motivational needs of recognition and feedback. They cite Pines, Aronson and Kafy (1987) who previously suggested that positive feedback in the form of rewards and significance was a potential buffer against burnout. Conversely, an individual's perception of others' disregard or lack of respect leads to lowered self-esteem, decreased motivation and occupational stress.

Change

Job demands and expectations which change can be unsettling and stressful. Even beneficial changes are linked to stress. As changes are often not the result of individual choice but are imposed by changing conditions or external authorities, change may mean a loss of locus of control for the individual as well as a need for new skills. These factors plus the uncertainties of new procedures and policies create increased stress and tension.

Vanderpool (1981) contends that job-related stress is directly related to the changing role of school administrators. In the last decade B.C. has undergone several

major changes within the educational field. Principals have had to move from unilateral decision making styles to participative management and shared decision making. Special education legislation and mandatory integration has been implemented, often without the necessary level of support, resulting in anxiety for students, parents and teachers. School administrators must now pacify and reassure the individuals affected. Unions have been formed and school-based administrators have found themselves suddenly outside the supportive network to which they once belonged. New philosophies and teaching methods have been mandated by the Provincial Ministry, often without teacher or parental approval. School administrators are faced with angry parents and unsettled staff members which in turn affects their stress levels. These changes, which have followed quickly one upon another without time to adapt to one before another must be accepted, have contributed to increased stress for all levels of educators.

Intrapersonal Conflict

Intrapersonal conflict refers to a discord between professional responsibilities and personal commitments, beliefs or needs. Such conflict issues include family commitments, personal expectations and loyalty to colleagues.

Administrators are often torn between their loyalty to their job and their commitment to their families. One of the factors, identified by Cook (1980), Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982) and Marshall (1980), that contributed to the stress of administrators was the feeling that they had to participate in work activities outside the normal working hours at the expense of personal and family time.

Excessively high self-imposed expectations were listed as a source of administrator stress by Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982), Cook (1980), Marshall (1980), and Mundle (1980). Cook (1980) found that a discrepancy between administrators' work performance and their own internal beliefs and expectations was a cause of stress. Being too rushed to complete tasks to their own satisfaction contributed to self castigation, a decreased sense of self worth and tension.

Another stress inducing factor, identified by Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982) and supported by Cook (1980) and Marshall (1980), was having to make decisions that affected the lives of individual people the administrators knew. Warner (1980) found that Minnesota administrators listed making decisions that effect the lives of others as one of their *two highest* stressors.

Finally, some administrators are simply not suited to administrative tasks. Although master teachers are encouraged to enter administration however being an exemplary teacher does not quarantee being a good administrator. Some educators are more comfortable working in the classroom, do not have a tolerance for daily crisis and cannot deal with constant criticism when they feel they are doing their best.

Organizational Factors

Organizational factors include the structure, policies and procedures of a particular institution. Factors such as decision making latitude, role conflict, role ambiguity and opportunity for promotion have a strong impact on the stress levels experienced by the individuals within that environment.

Decision Making Latitude

Several researchers have identified decision making latitude as a contributor to job related stress. Warner (1980) in a survey of the literature, found that inadequate participation in decision making was one of four major factors that contribute to job stress and dissatisfaction. Purvis (1975) stated that middle managers felt they lacked influence in regard to organizational decisions, yet were held responsible for implementation of these decisions or policies, often without sufficient resources or authority to effectively carry them out. Non participation in work decisions was listed as the most significant predictor of job stress by Margolis, Kroes and Quinn (1974). This finding is supported by Brimm's (1983) study of Tennessee administrators.

Karasek (1979), as well, contends that stress results from the interaction between the demands of the job and the decision making latitude of an individual. He describes four possible types of job as a) passive - low job demand / low job decision latitude, b) low strain - low job demand / high job decision latitude, c) high strain - high job demand / low job decision latitude, and d) active - high job demand / high job decision latitude. According to Karasek, the opportunity to exercise judgment in using one's intellectual skills and making decisions enhances feelings of efficacy, releasing or transforming stressful energy into action. The combination of heavy job demands and low decision latitude translates into mental strain and job dissatisfaction.

Low demand situations are not deemed highly satisfying, however, as they lack challenge. Melendez and de Guzman (cited in Sarros, 1988) assert that a job with "little stimulation, no challenge and few opportunities for growth" (p. 192) contributes to burnout. Gmelch (cited in Sarros, 1988) states that "boredom can, in fact be just as lethal as the burnout syndrome" (p. 191) for the performance levels of educators.

Karasek (1979), in agreement, concludes that constraints on decision making and not the decision making itself contributes to occupational stress and dissatisfaction.

Farkas (1983) lists inflexible organizational hierarchies as a source of administrator stress and finds that restricted decision-making latitude has positive correlations with work stress for both elementary and secondary principals in New York State. The findings of both Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1992) and Brimm (1983) identify compliance with organizational rules and policies as stressors for administrators. Marshall (1980), Cook (1980), and Milligan (1982) list this concern as the number one stressor of the administrators in their studies.

Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Kraut, (1966) described *role* as "a set of expectations applied to the occupation or given position" and *expectations* as "evaluative standards, or norms in the sense of pressures or obligations to do or be something." In his study, Kraut found that role conflict is related to higher tensions and produces significant negative relationships to job satisfaction.

Unfortunately, different members within the educational field often hold quite diverse role expectations for school-based administrators. Inter-role conflicts may be further complicated by intra-role conflicts, where there are differences between self expectations and the expectations of other stakeholders such as teachers, school boards and governments. Intra-role conflicts include not only individuals' perspectives of how their role should be carried out but also conflicts between professional and personal commitments. Finally, school administrators are required to represent the collective interests of the school while also satisfying extra-organizational demands and

expectations. These demands may be made by the business community, diverse interest groups or parents and can be mutually exclusive. Compliance with one expectation can easily lead to noncompliance with another. The simultaneous occurrence of contradictory or competing demands or differences in opinion regarding appropriate principalship behavior result in role conflict.

Role ambiguity is the lack of clear consistent or adequate information regarding the objectives, scope and responsibilities of the job or the manner in which it is to be performed. When a task or situation is unclear it causes uncertainty that leads to fear of the unknown - a critical element of stress (Piatt, 1981). Kahn (cited in Warner, 1980) found significant relations between role ambiguity and sense of futility, job stress, job dissatisfaction and low self-confidence. Role ambiguity, as well, resulted in low trust and liking for colleagues. Ambiguity tended to produce poor personal interrelations, poor communication and less satisfaction with the job.

Kottkamp and Travlos (1986) investigated the relationship between emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, role ambiguity and role conflict. He found role conflict resulted in high tension, futility, lowered self-esteem and job dissatisfaction and showed a significant relationship with emotional exhaustion. Role ambiguity resulted in poor production, anxiety and job dissatisfaction. Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) determined that role conflict and role ambiguity accounted for a statistically significant amount of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, accounting for 24% of the total variance in teacher burnout. Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989) concluded role ambiguity had a significant effect on teachers and their stress levels. MacPherson (1985) found role conflict and ambiguity correlated with perceived emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in teachers. He also ascertained that role ambiguity

predicted decreased personal accomplishment and depersonalization burnout in principals. Brimm (1983) identified role conflict as a major source of job stress.

Lack of Opportunity For Promotion

There has been little mention in the literature of how opportunities for promotion affect the school-based administrators. Certainly in the present circumstances in British Columbia there seem to be limited opportunities for professional advancement. Whether this contributes to increased stress, however, is unclear. Feitler and Tokar (1986) identified lack of opportunity for promotion as a source of stress for American school-based administrators. Robe (1980) in his study of Colorado high school principals found that "not having the opportunity for getting ahead in work" was the number one reported stress. Unfortunately, it is not clear whether this refers to promotion or to completion of tasks. In his Alberta study, Sarros (1988) lists Satisfaction with Advancement as a predictor of Personal Accomplishment Burnout but gives no indication of the degree of satisfaction or stress felt by these administrators with their promotional opportunities.

Job Specific Factors

Job specific factors relate to the differences between particular positions. Work load, specific responsibilities and interpersonal relations are some of the factors that affect the amount of stress an administrator may encounter.

Role Overload

There has been a dramatic growth and diversity in role expectations for school-based administrators. Schools have become responsible for sex education, social and

affective learning, lunch programs, psychological support, family intervention and earthquake evacuation training along with the original academic teaching. Decision making processes have changed to participative methods which often results in a multitude of meetings and a considerable expenditure of time before a consensus can be reached. These ever-expanding responsibilities lead to role overload. Overload may be quantitative and/or qualitative.

Quantitative overload occurs when there is a perception that there is insufficient time and energy to do all that is expected within a given time period. "Hurry sickness", referred to by Cook, (1980), describes the feelings of an individual who recognizes there is an inadequate amount time to complete the necessary tasks. Continually attempting to accomplish unrealistic amounts of work and constantly battling with time promote desperate, hasty thinking and ineffectual decision making. Unreachable standards, ceaseless strivings, and a life filled with deadlines leads to a declining self-concept and a focus on personal shortcomings and inadequacies. Self criticism and a perception that others are not satisfied with their professional performance contribute to a low sense of personal self-worth. Friedman and Rosenman (cited in Cook, 1980) identified this sense of time-urgency as a leading contributor to premature cardiovascular disease.

School administrators find it necessary to work long hours in order to fulfill their professional obligations. Piatt (1981) states that school-based administrators are often expected to work from fourteen to sixteen hours per day and continue to function effectively. The Surrey Wellness Study (1990) reports administrators work between 51-60 hours a week; the majority working 10-12 hours every day. Marshall (1980)

supports these estimates, finding that 72% of his population worked more than 50 hours per week.

Long hours, too many meetings, unrelenting paperwork, unrealistic deadlines, the volume and pace of work as well as the variety, brevity and fragmentation of daily activities were identified as major sources of administrator stress (Mundle, 1980; Piatt, 1981; Feitler & Tokar, 1986; Milstein & Farkas, 1988; Richmond and Campsall, 1992). Seligmann and Huck (1978) reported, moreover, that administrators attend work-related meetings or functions on an average of three evenings a week. "Too many meetings" ranked second on the intensity stress scale for Michigan administrators (Milligan, 1982) while meetings together with paperwork ranked second and third for Wyoming administrators (Cook, 1980). Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1992) summarize this with the statement that "the time demands of the job of the principal are more than can reasonably be accommodated" (p. 196).

Qualitative overload occurs when work demands require abilities, skills or knowledge not held by the administrator. Such overload leads to a lack of role competence where the individual feels a lack of sufficient expertise or leadership flexibility to meet the demands of the job. (Jankovic, 1983; Brimm, 1983). School administrators today are expected to be leaders in curriculum change, mediators to all manner of conflicts, disciplinarians, community liaisons, providers and allocators of resources, staff supervisors and evaluators and contract interpreters. Many administrators find themselves responsible for tasks they had never imagined when they originally took on their role.

Role overload tends to bear a significantly high positive relationship to emotional exhaustion (Kottkamp and Travlos, 1986). Individuals exposed to role overload also experience tension, poor interpersonal skills, low self-esteem and low job satisfaction.

Interpersonal Conflict

Administrators spend much of their working time interacting with other individuals. Friesen, Holdaway and Rice (1981) estimate that 75% of an administrator's day involves the area of interpersonal relations. These interactions are often crisis-oriented and deal with individuals who are experiencing some degree of distress or anger. It should come as no surprise, then, that interpersonal conflicts with parents, teachers and students are identified as major causes of job stress for administrators (Purvis, 1975; Brimm, 1983).

Koff, Laffey, Olson and Cichon (1979-80) found that four out of five of the highest stressors for elementary and secondary principals were identified as conflicts with teachers. Forced resignations, unsatisfactory performance, preparation for strikes and refusal to follow policies led the list. Koff, Laffey and Cochon (cited in Milstein & Farkas, 1988) also indicated the greatest source of stress for principals comes from conflicts with teaching staff. Milligan (1982) listed discipline of teachers in his top five stressors. Feitler and Tokar's (1986) study showed evaluation of teachers to have one of the two highest positive correlations with high stress. Marshall (1980) listed evaluation of staff as the second highest stressor for elementary principals in his Kansas study. It ranked fourth for Milligan's (1982) population, as well, and fifth on Cook's (1980) list of administrator stressors. Jankovic (1983) found resolving interpersonal conflicts among staff to be the third best predictors of work-related stress

Underachieving, unmotivated students, student-teacher conflicts, student fights, and meetings with rebellious students constitute a second area of interpersonal stress identified by Koff, Laffey, Olson and Cochon (1979-80). Lam (1988) lists tension with students of different ethnic origins and accommodating student subcultures as significant stressors. Feitler and Tokar (1986) identify persistent pupil misbehavior as one of two aspects that had the highest coefficient to high stress. Cook (1980) and Milligan (1982) list student discipline as one of the top five ranked stressors for Michigan and Wyoming administrators.

Resolving parent-teacher conflicts and misunderstandings was the best overall predictor of work-related stress found in Jankovic's (1983) study. Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982), Cook (1980), Marshall (1980), and Swent (1978) also found conflict between parents and school to be major sources of administrator stress. Parent-school conflicts were one of the two top stressors in Warner's (1980) study of Minnesota administrators and one of the three top stressors in Milligan's (1982) Michigan study.

School administrators have contact with students, teachers, parents, support staff and district administrators on a daily basis. In the preceding studies, we see that working with people on a continuous basis contributes to contact overload. We see, as well, that interpersonal stress results from both internally and externally generated pressures.

Personal and Professional Demographics Relating to Burnout

In the previous section psychological, organizational and job specific factors that contribute to administrator stress were discussed. Compounding these factors are both personal and professional demographics. In this section the research findings relating to specific demographics will be examined.

Personal Demographics

Personal demographics are concerned with the vital statistics of the individual. Gender, marital status, dependents and age have all been examined in a variety of studies to determine their influence on the stress levels of school-based administrators.

Gender

The research literature is inconclusive in regard to gender and experienced stress among educators. Bartol and Butterfield (cited in Farkas, 1988) suggest that females neither experience the same stress levels as men nor do they suffer the effects of stress to the same degree. This contention is supported by the findings of several studies. Both Milstein and Farkas (1988) and Farkas (1983) found that female principals consistently experienced lower stress levels than their male counterparts. The MBI which incorporates three subscales to measure stress was used by McIntyre (1983) and Sarros (1988). McIntyre found males had significantly lower feelings of personal accomplishment than females while Sarros found statistically higher levels of depersonalization burnout in males.

Contrarily, Borthwick, Thornell and Wilkinson (1982) report that female teachers exhibit a greater degree of burnout than males and suggest that external obligations may have an impact on their stress levels. This finding was supported by Mundle (1980) and the Surrey Wellness Study (1990) which report that female administrators had significantly higher levels of overall stress scores than males.

To confound the issue still further, Peterson, (1977), Schaffer (1980), Friesen (1986), and Hiebert and Mendaglio (1988) found no significant differences on stress levels regardless of whether the administrator was male or female.

Marital Status

There is little data among the research relating to the marital status of administrators and stress. Saffer (1986) reports that marital status has no relationship to level of perceived administrator stress. However, Schaffer (1980) found divorced or separated administrators perceived less stress than other administrators.

Children

Few studies have examined the relationship between having children at home and professional burnout. One that did was Schaffer (1980) who found that the presence or absence of children at home was not a significant factor in burnout.

Age

Conflicting results are evident in the studies examining relationships among administrator age and stress levels. School principals under 34 years of age were more frequently stressed by interpersonal relations stressors and more intensely stressed by both interpersonal and intrapersonal stressors than were their older colleagues in

Milligan's (1982) study. This is supported by McMurray (1986) who determined that, on average, administrator distress decreases with age. Hiebert and Mendaglio (1988), Schaffer (1980), and Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982), however, found no significance between age and stress for administrators. Schaffer (1980) suggests the possibility that (a) expertise increases with age and that (b) that burned out educators may drop out of the profession at an earlier age.

Professional Demographics

Professional demographics describe the training and experience of the individual as well as the type and size of school within which the individual works. Research studies have attempted to determine the effects of these factors on the stress levels of administrators.

Years In Current Position

Findings differ regarding the length of time in current position and the effect on administrator stress levels. Jankovic (1983), Friesen (1986), and Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982) all reported no significant relationships between length of time in position and stress. However, Sarros (1988) found administrators with 16 or more years in their current position recorded significantly more depersonalization burnout than those with 10 or fewer years.

Years of Experience in Administration

There were contradictory findings regarding years of experience in administration and administrator stress levels. No significance was found between years of experience and burnout in studies by Jankovic (1983) or Hiebert and Mendaglio

(1988). Borthwick, Thornell and Wilkinson (1982), however, found years of experience to be significant. They suggest the resultant stress decrease may be related to maturity and/or skills acquired in the field. This is partially supported by Milstein and Farkas (1988) who noted that, though years of experience were not generally significant, there was an increase in stress in the second year of the initial administrative assignment.

Zabel and Zabel (cited in McIntyre, 1983) found significant correlations between increasing years of experience and lowered feelings of personal pride in the job, depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. Schaffer (1980) found a slight increase in stress from early years up to a period between the 7th and 12th year. Stress declined sharply after the 13th to 15th year, and increased again around the eighteenth year. MacPherson (1985) suggests that older, more settled, less career motivated principals may experience increased burnout as a result of stagnation, boredom and routinization. He found that principals with eleven to fifteen years experience, who were over 39 years of age, with a desire for promotion but little opportunity were the most likely to experience burnout.

Level of Education

The literature shows no relationship between level of training or degree held and level of stress experienced by administrators. Hiebert and Mendaglio (1988), Borthwick, Thornell and Wilkinson (1982), McIntyre (1983), and Saffer (1986) all found there was no significance between education level and burnout.

Size of School

Though some studies found a positive relationship between administrators of schools with lower enrollments and less stress others did not. Hiebert and Mendaglio (1988) found that principals in schools of 200 or less reported less frequent demands than principals of larger schools. They also found that principals with no teaching responsibilities reported less frequent job demands than those with the dual responsibilities of administration and teaching. Milligan (1982) found principals of schools with over 700 students were significantly more intensely and more frequently stressed than principals with schools of 300 students or less. Gorton, Miles, Cunningham and Pajak (1982), Saffer (1986), and Jankovic (1983) found no statistically significant differences related to school size

Type of School

Results of studies examining type of school and administrator stress levels are inconclusive. Neither the Surrey Wellness Study (1990) nor Milstein and Farkas (1988) found significant differences in stress levels between elementary and secondary administrators. In a review of three studies Warner (1980) noted a consistent pattern of higher stress levels for secondary principals than elementary principals which his own research failed to uphold. Though Feitler and Tokar (1986) found that high school administrators reported higher degrees of stress than their elementary colleagues, the differences were not significant. Milligan (1982) found significant differences between elementary and high school principals on both intensity and frequency stress scales. His data indicated higher levels of stress in both areas for secondary principals. Schaffer (1980) also found that secondary principals perceived more stress than their elementary counterparts.

Interestingly Savery and Detiuk (1986) found that primary principals were significantly more stressed and also reported lower satisfaction than their senior school colleagues. However this is an Australian study where primary principals are part-time administrators as opposed to the secondary principals who are full-time managers. Savery and Detiuk attribute their stress to role overload. This may relate more accurately to the position of assistant principal in Canadian schools.

This section has explored the nature of stress, conceptual models, administrator burnout, psychological, organizational and job related factors which contribute to stress and the effect of both personal and professional demographics on stress levels. The research findings are often contradictory but generally the premise of high administrator stress does not seem to be supported. The next chapter will focus on the perceived job satisfaction of school-based administrators.

CHAPTER 3
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, PART II:
JOB SATISFACTION

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Theories of job satisfaction have their origins in theories of work motivation which in turn were derived from theories of motivation. Researchers such as Frederick Taylor, George Elton Mayo, Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Frederick Herzberg and David McClelland have all made contributions in the area of motivation theory. Taylor suggested wage incentives as motivators. Mayo emphasized social motivators and promoted informal work groups. Maslow introduced a hierarchy of individual needs to be met. McGregor supported Maslow's needs theory emphasizing higher needs such as social and ego needs as major work motivators. Herzberg divided the worker's needs into two categories and introduced a two factor theory involving motivators and hygienes. McClelland suggested that only about 10% of the population have strong achievement needs and identified the major characteristics of these individuals (Hanson & Hanson, 1978; Pugh & Hickson, 1989)

Until recent times motivational studies concentrated on production workers rather than managers or administrators, who were considered motivational factors themselves. Administrators' leadership styles, however, and the effects of these styles on subordinates were studied. Only in the last twenty years have administrators or managers been the focus of motivational studies.

Originally a bipolar approach was used when determining job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was considered the overall feeling individuals had about their jobs. This feeling was determined from the interaction of job-related and environment-related factors resulting in satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Deprivation of factors moved an individual toward the negative end of the continuum unless the presence of other factors counterbalanced the deficiency. While there was general agreement that some aspects of the job affected the distance of the move more than others, there was no agreement on the order or weighting of their importance (Bockman, 1971). Whereas the early literature focused solely on examination of the situational determinants, today job satisfaction is viewed commonly as multidimensional.

Locke (1969) has described three models of job satisfaction theory; subjective models, intrinsic models and interactionist models.

Subjective Models

In subjective models, the determinants of job satisfaction reside within the individual. Within this model job satisfaction is equated with fulfillment of individual needs. Maslow's Needs Fulfillment Hierarchy and Porter's Two-Step Hierarchy fall into this category.

Maslow's Needs Fulfillment Hierarchy

Maslow (1943) describes a hierarchy of needs for all individuals. These needs include 1) physiological needs, 2) safety needs, 3) love and belonging needs, 4) esteem needs, and 5) the need for self-actualization. Though these needs are addressed in a hierarchical manner there is only partial fulfillment of any need at any one time rather

than a hundred percent satisfaction of a specific need. A specific degree of need satisfaction must be met before the next need emerges. Maslow made the observation that for most American citizens their physiological needs are 85% satisfied, safety needs are 70% satisfied, love and belonging needs are 50% satisfied, esteem needs 40% satisfied and self-actualizing needs 10% satisfied (Hanson & Hanson, 1978) Maslow states that though we are usually unconscious of the needs they are neither necessarily conscious nor unconscious. Conscious desires are usually indicators of more basic needs.

He states that once the lower order needs are satisfied they no longer motivate an individual. McGregor concurs with Maslow's belief that a satisfied need is not a motivator and points out that since management has provided for lower needs such as security, the motivational emphasis has shifted to higher needs such as social and ego needs (Pugh & Hickson, 1989).

These higher order needs are probably more relevant in the work place for most administrators. Certainly safety needs can become pertinent with escalating incidents of student violence in schools. Belonging needs may be unsatisfied if an individual feels isolated and not a part of the group or if there are difficulties of a personal nature that makes this need a focus for the individual at a particular time. Generally speaking, however, the job satisfaction of administrators today will be influenced heavily by esteem and self-actualization needs.

The self-esteem needs involve two factors. First, most individuals need a high evaluation of themselves based upon genuine capabilities, achievement, confidence, and self respect. Secondly, they desire prestige or reputation which is defined as the respect

or esteem of others and is demonstrated by recognition, attention, or appreciation. Satisfaction of the esteem needs result in feelings of confidence, independence, strength, freedom, self-worth, a sense of contribution and being necessary in the world. A deficiency in the esteem needs produces feelings of inferiority, helplessness, ineffectiveness and a lack of self-worth which result in basic discouragement and withdrawal or other compensatory or neurotic behaviors.

Self-actualization is deemed the need least met; it is also the most difficult need to study. Maslow contends that individuals will be discontented and restless unless they are doing what they are fitted for. "What a man [sic] *can* be, he *must* be" (Maslow, 1943, p. 382). Self-actualization is simply becoming everything one is capable of becoming or meeting one's potential. The emergence of this need, however, is dependent upon the prior satisfaction of the other needs in the hierarchy.

Porter's Two-Step Hierarchy

Porter (1963) developed a two step hierarchy utilizing a modified Maslow-type categorization of needs including security needs, social needs, esteem needs, autonomy needs, and self-actualization needs. He suggests that lower level needs are extrinsically satisfied while the higher level needs are satisfied by intrinsic rewards. Further he believes, like Maslow, that unless the lower order needs are satisfied the others will not come into play (Rice, 1978). This is a discrepancy model of job satisfaction partially based on Vroom's Expectancy Theory (Gunn & Holdaway, 1986). Porter takes the difference between (a) the perception of how much satisfaction is presently being experience by the individual and (b) how much the individual believes should be connected with the position, as the measure of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Porter, basically, measures how satisfied the administrators are in terms of what they expected

from the job and what they perceive they actually have. Porter regards overall job satisfaction as a function of satisfaction with the various elements of the job (Porter. 1962).

Porter (1962, 1963) examined the differences in need fulfillment or satisfaction at different hierarchical levels of management. The studies showed that though lower-level managers perceived themselves to be equally satisfied in the two lower-order need categories (security and social needs), in the three higher-level need categories (esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs), they perceived their positions as providing significantly less satisfaction than their higher-level colleagues. For all subgroups the largest deficiencies were found in the two highest-order need categories, autonomy and self-actualization. Porter concluded that esteem, autonomy and self-actualization were the least well-met areas of need fulfillment and that a differential opportunity to satisfy these needs does exist within management hierarchies. (Porter, 1962)

Intrinsic Models

Within intrinsic models, also known as content theories, the determinants that cause satisfaction and dissatisfaction are strictly factors of the job. Two instrinsic models examined here are Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory and Job Enhancement Theory.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

The Motivation-Hygiene Theory suggests that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites. They operate on separate continua, are concerned with different factors of work, and serve different aspects of human nature. Satisfiers or "motivators"

are derived from the performance of the work itself and address the *content* of the work. Dissatisfiers or "hygienes" are related to the environment or the conditions surrounding the doing of the work focusing on the *context* of the job. Motivators are task-oriented factors that permit the individual to satisfy the need for growth and self-actualization while hygienes make work tolerable and help to avoid physical and social deprivation. Herzberg built upon Maslow's hierarchy of needs when he theorized that hygienic needs must be met before motivators become operative and that in the absence of motivators, hygienes may act as motivators but only for short time periods (Pugh & Hickson, 1989; Bockman, 1971).

Intrinsic factors are associated with motivators such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and the work itself. The absence of motivators causes a condition of "no satisfaction" but does not significantly effect dissatisfaction, which is a distinct entity. Though the absence of motivators does not promote dissatisfaction it may increase sensitivity to deficiencies in hygiene factors.

Extrinsic factors, associated with hygienes or maintenance factors, include salary, interpersonal relations, supervision-technical, company policy, and administration, working conditions, and job security. The presence of hygiene factors causes a condition of "no dissatisfaction" but does not usually contribute to "satisfaction".

Job Enrichment Theory

Job enrichment theory assumes that workers are more productive when their work is varied and challenging, thus taking full advantage of their skills and potential. Argyris advocates redesigning work enhancing opportunities for the individual to

experience greater autonomy and control over job factors, lengthening the time perspective and decreasing dependence and submissiveness to superiors. (Pugh & Hickson, 1989)

Interactionist Models

In interactionist models, also known as process theories, the determinants are a consequence of an interaction between the intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of the job and the needs, values and expectations of the individual. Locke's Value Achievement Theory, Equity Theory and Social Comparison, also known as discrepancy theories, are considered interactionist models as is Vroom's Instrumentality-Valance Theory.

Locke's Value Achievement Theory

Locke (1969) stated "job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (p. 316). This model is considered a value-precept model. There are three appraisal elements in this model; 1) the perception of some aspect of the job, 2) an implicit or explicit value standard and 3) a conscious or subconscious judgment of the relationship between one's perceptions and one's values. The causes of job satisfaction are not exclusively factors of the job or the individual but reside in the interaction between the two therefore the prediction of job satisfaction requires an interactive approach. Satisfaction is the result of a positive comparison between fulfillment and desires or ideals. Locke indicates, that as a job is a combination of tasks rather than an entity unto itself, overall job satisfaction is the sum of perceived

satisfaction with the separate elements of the job. Unfulfilled desires or negative evaluations cause dissatisfaction and would be subtracted from the total of the summed satisfactions. (Locke, 1969; Wanous & Lawler, 1972)

Locke's theory is considered a goal theory and is derived from Vroom's Expectancy theory and Herzberg's Needs theory. It has an underlying belief that individuals have a value hierarchy that is dependent upon their hierarchy of needs (Gunn & Holdaway, 1986).

Equity Theory

Equity theory holds that individuals are dissatisfied if they are unjustly compensated for their efforts and accomplishment. Satisfaction is determined by a ratio of what an individual puts into the job compared to what he perceives he should get out of it. This, again, is a discrepancy model similar to Locke's Value Achievement Theory. There are two different measures of comparison that may be used. The first is an input-output balance and the second is social comparison. Input-output is an exchange where satisfaction and dissatisfaction hinge on the individual's perception of the equality of that exchange. Social comparison examines the rewards or acknowledgment received by others at a similar job level comparing them with the individual's perception of their own rewards or acknowledgment. Again, satisfaction is determined by the individual's perception of how equitable the rewards are for both parties (Rice, 1978).

Vroom's Instrumentality-Valance Theory.

Instrumentality-Valence Theory, also known as expectancy theory, postulates that an individual is more likely to endeavor to do well if there is an anticipated valued

reward that the individual believes they are capable of earning. This is considered a cognitive theory which, unlike content theory, explains motivation in terms of the *things* that motivate. The individuals can be motivated by either intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. This theory examines cognitive processes which in turn determine individual behaviors. This theory of work motivation examines expectancy, values and perceptions of future consequences (Gunn & Holdaway, 1986)

Vroom suggests that motivation is determined as a result of an interaction between valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Valence refers to one's anticipated satisfaction with something. Individuals subjectively assess the value of the expected outcomes. Instrumentality refers to a belief that the desired reward or goal will be forthcoming if the necessary effort is put out. Expectancy relates to the extent of the individual's belief that the goal or reward desired is achievable as a result of a given level of effort (Hoy & Miskel, 1987). Individual values and attitudes influence decisions and behavior in Vroom's model.

Job Facet Satisfaction vs Overall Job Satisfaction

There seems to be common agreement that there are a variety of job facets that contribute to job satisfaction. There is no consensus, however, regarding the categorization of these facets. Vroom lists attitudes towards the company and company management, promotional opportunities, job content, supervision, financial rewards, working conditions and co-workers as important job facets (Friesen, Holdaway & Rice 1984). Locke identifies nine major job facets, dividing them into two categories "events" and "agents." Events included the work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits and working conditions. Agents involved supervision, co-workers and

company or management (Kerber & Campbell, 1987). Kerber and Campbell (1987) divide job facets into non economic and economic aspects. They also divide employees into exempt and nonexempt categories. Exempt employees are executives, administrators or other professional; nonexempt employees are lower level workers. They state the motivational job facets differ for the two groups. Friesen, Holdaway and Rice (1984) identify seven relevant job satisfaction factors for school-based administrators; the work itself, occupational status and prestige, interaction with district administration, interaction with teachers, interaction with students, salary and benefits and working conditions. There appear to be as many different descriptions of job facets as there are writers in the area.

Overall job satisfaction is viewed in a variety of ways. By some, it is considered as a function of the sum of job facet satisfaction. Compensatory models allow for a high score on one facet to compensate for a low score on another facet, coming up with an overall average (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). Discrepancy theorists, such as Locke and Porter, determine satisfaction as the difference between ideal standards and the perceived reality of what actually is and take a sum of these differences (Friesen, Holdaway & Rice 1984; Wanous & Lawler, 1972). Some non-linear models allow for differential weighting of facets (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983).

Others argue that overall satisfaction is not consistent with a summed measure of specific job facets. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) contend that overall job satisfaction may include consideration of variables not measured by a given instrument such as individual differences in work related interests and preferences for work settings. They suggest that if job satisfaction is a function of person/environment interaction personal judgment and the frame of reference used by the individual may

differ. They argue, also, that if job satisfaction is related to various off the job satisfactions such as personal interests, activities and responsibilities these, too, will confound the measure of overall job satisfaction and are not measurable by the instruments being used. Therefore the sum of the satisfactions with specific job facets cannot equal the overall job satisfaction of the individual.

In their study, Scarpello and Campbell found low correlations between the sum of job facet scores and single item measures and suggest this may be a result of the failure of current instruments' abilities to measure the range of variables that influence job satisfaction. They conclude that there is no empirical reason to reject the use of the single-item global measure in favor of a summed facet measure.

Friesen, Holdaway and Rice's (1984) findings in a satisfaction study with Alberta principals also indicate that overall satisfaction may not necessarily be the sum of facet satisfaction. Though five of their eight facets were significantly correlated with the overall satisfaction they were not substantially correlated. This study supports Scarpello and Campbell's contention that the sum of facet satisfaction is not necessarily the best method of determining overall satisfaction.

Research Related To Job Satisfaction

The majority of studies on administrator satisfaction have focused on the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction however some studies that have attempted to determine the extent of school-based administrators satisfaction.

Administrator Levels of Satisfaction

American studies indicate that most school-based administrators are moderately to highly satisfied with their jobs. In an early study, Peterson, (1977), found high degrees of job satisfaction in 80 elementary Californian principals. Seventy-three percent scored in the top quarter of the range while only ten percent scored below mid point. In a Minnesota study, Warner (1980) found 74% of elementary principals and 70% of secondary principals surveyed indicated they were either "fairly satisfied" or "very satisfied". Only sixteen percent of elementary principals and 17% of secondary principals were "fairly dissatisfied" or "very dissatisfied". In Kottkamp and Travlos's 1986 study of New Jersey high school principals 74% of the administrators reported moderately high levels of job satisfaction.

In one of several Canadian studies, Rice (1978) found that more than 90% of Alberta principals (N = 327) reported they were satisfied. In accordance with Porter's (1962, 1963) contentions, though, Rice determined that generally the higher level needs of these administrators were less satisfied than the lower level needs. In 1984, Friesen, Holdaway and Rice surveyed one third of all Alberta principals. Results indicated that 28% were highly satisfied, 57% were moderately satisfied, 10% were slightly satisfied and 5% were slightly dissatisfied. Gunn and Holdaway (1986) surveyed 133 Alberta high school principals. They found 39% were highly satisfied, 45% moderately satisfied while none were moderately or highly dissatisfied. In a 1988 study, Sarros found 62% of principals surveyed in Western Canada were very to extremely satisfied with their work.

In one of two B. C. studies, Kent (1990) concluded that elementary principals in this province were experiencing a high degree of satisfaction with their jobs and interpersonal relations. Sutton (1992) who studied B. C. Christian School principals indicated 79.2% were moderately satisfied and 37.9% were highly satisfied while only 6.9% were dissatisfied.

These studies show that the majority of educational administrators surveyed have indicated moderate to high levels of satisfaction with their job. One may ask, however, if administrators would have remained in a job that they were highly dissatisfied with? Perhaps those who have had high levels of dissatisfaction have left the profession or returned to the classroom.

Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Some common sources of administrator satisfaction were identified in the research. These were achievement or sense of accomplishment (Schmidt, 1976; Rice, 1978; Hanson & Hanson , 1978; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1984; Gunn & Holdaway 1986; Sutton, 1992; Locke, cited in Gunn & Holdaway, 1986), responsibility (Rice, 1978; Hanson & Hanson, 1978; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1984; Sutton, 1992), recognition (Schmidt, 1976; Hanson & Hanson, 1978; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1984; Sutton, 1992), advancement (Schmidt, 1976; Hanson & Hanson, 1978), and autonomy (Rice, 1978; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1984).

Dissatisfaction was indicated by administrative with routines and policies (Rice, 1978; Hanson & Hanson, 1978; Sutton, 1992), routine work (Rice, 1978; Friesen, Holdaway and Rice, 1984), societal and/or parent attitudes (Rice, 1978; Gunn &

Holdaway, 1986; Sutton, 1992), low salary (Hanson & Hanson, 1978), unfair supervision (Hanson & Hanson, 1978), poor working conditions (Hanson & Hanson, 1978), and methods of consultation or collective bargaining with the board (Friesen, Holdaway and Rice, 1984).

The findings regarding the relationship between administrator satisfaction and interpersonal relations was less clear. Relations with teachers were identified as satisfiers by Rice (1978), Friesen, Holdaway and Rice (1984) and Sutton (1992). Conversely, Schmidt (1976), Hanson and Hanson (1978) and Gunn and Holdaway (1986) found interpersonal relations with subordinates, peers and superiors were identified as major sources of dissatisfaction.

Regardless of the fact that within their particular studies interpersonal relationships appeared to be satisfiers rather than dissatisfiers, both Rice (1978) and Sutton (1992) contend that Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory was generally upheld in their research. Rice found the satisfiers tended to fit within Herzberg's description of motivators while the dissatisfiers coincided with the hygienes. Sutton (1992), also, noted that the high satisfaction items related to the work itself while dissatisfiers related to environmental factors. While working conditions were a source of dissatisfaction, Sutton states, they had little effect on overall satisfaction. Interpersonal relations seems to be the only area of difference. Two other studies that support Sutton's and Rice's contention that Herzberg's theory hold true, in the educational field, are Schmidt's (1976) study on Chicago high school principals and Sergiovani's (1967) study on teacher satisfaction.

Relationship of Job Satisfaction to Burnout

It may be hypothesized that job dissatisfaction is a manifestation or sign of occupational stress. Though Maslach who is well-known in the area of stress research, states that job dissatisfaction and burnout are not synonymous she does concur that the failure of a job to fulfill needs to be "admired and respected by other people" contributes to burnout (cited in Sarros, 1988 p. 193). Presently there are few studies to either support or disclaim the contention that job stress and overall job satisfaction are interrelated.

The results of studies that do examine the relationship between job stress and overall satisfaction differ considerably. On the one hand, Kottkamp and Travlos (1986) found significant negative correlations between job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion for high school principals in New Jersey. Anderson and Iwanicki (cited in Sarros and Friesen, 1987), also, suggest that the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of specific job facets may predict burnout. On the other hand, Peterson (1977) found no significant correlation between stress and job satisfaction for principals in his study. Warner (1980) found that though 42% of the respondents in his Minnesota study characterized their work as stressful, 73% of the same administrators indicated satisfaction with their job.

In an Alberta study of elementary and secondary principals and assistant principals, Sarros and Friesen (1987) found job satisfaction to be a predictor of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. There were significant correlations between satisfaction with work load for both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Satisfaction with interpersonal relations, satisfaction

with security and involvement, satisfaction with advancement and satisfaction with autonomy were predictors of personal accomplishment. While satisfaction with status and recognition was found to be a predictor for all three dimensions of the burnout scale (Friesen, 1986). Sarros, (1988), also, noted that administrators who indicated moderate opportunities for promotion recorded significantly more personal accomplishment burnout than those with good to excellent promotion opportunities. Sarros and Friesen conclude that job satisfaction is a predictor of burnout.

The present study is based on the work of Sarros and Friesen, as their findings suggest that there is sufficient evidence to warrant further investigation into the possibility that overall job satisfaction is a predictor of administrator burnout.

CHAPTER 4

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to determine perceptions of burnout and satisfaction levels among B.C. Assistant Principals, to identify specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction and to determine whether administrator burnout is predicted by job satisfaction.

Procedures

The British Columbia Principals and Vice-Principals Association (B.C. P. V. P. A.) was approached for an endorsement of this study. In addition to giving the endorsement (Appendix A), the B.C.P.C.V.A. randomly generated a list of one third (N = 256) of all elementary and secondary Assistant Principals in B.C. with their home addresses to be used in the study.

An information letter (see Appendix B), the B.C.P.V.A. letter of endorsement and a copy of the questionnaire (see Appendix C) were sent to the Superintendents of the seventy-five school districts in B.C. informing them of the intent to proceed with a provincial study. They were asked to contact the researcher if they had questions or concerns about Assistant Principals in their district being involved. With the exception of School District # 40 (New Westminister) all school districts in B.C. participated.

An information letter (see Appendix D) with a questionnaire was sent to the home of each of the 256 subjects. Included in the packet was a stamped return envelope.

Instrumentation

Maslach Burnout Inventory

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1979) was used to measure burnout levels of Assistant Principals. The MBI is comprised of three subscales (a) emotional exhaustion burnout, (b) depersonalization burnout, and (c) personal accomplishment burnout. The scoring of the instrument does not culminate in an overall burnout score but rather as three non-additive separate scores. Each score is examined individually and represents a distinct aspect of burnout. Note that the personal accomplishment subscale is an inversed scale and is read differently than the other two. The questionnaire consists of 25 items with a Likert-type scale; nine items relate to emotional exhaustion, five items to depersonalization and eight items to personal accomplishment. High responses for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization indicate burnout, while low responses correspond to burnout for personal accomplishment. The original MBI measured both frequency and intensity. The current edition, however, assesses only the frequency dimension as there is now sufficient evidence to show fairly high correlations between the two dimensions when subscale scores are computed (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The MBI has been used extensively in education-based research in recent years (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Reliability

Internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha (N=1,316). The reliability coefficients for the subscales are: .90 for emotional exhaustion, .79 for depersonalization and .71 for personal accomplishment. Test-retest reliability coefficients for the three subscales are: .82 for emotional exhaustion, .60 for depersonalization and .80 for personal accomplishment, all are significant beyond the .001 level (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Validity

Evidence for the convergent validity of the Maslach Inventory subscale scores is published in the Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual. Convergent validity was demonstrated first with correlations between behavioral ratings made independently by a person who knew the respondent well and the individual's scores. Second, subscale scores were correlated with the presence of certain job characteristics that were expected to contribute to experienced burnout. Third, MBI scores were correlated with measures of various outcomes that had been hypothesized to be related to burnout. All three sets of correlations provided substantial evidence for the validity of the MBI (see Appendix C of Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

This is a 26 item satisfaction scale developed by Sarros and Friesen (1986) from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist; the Satisfaction With Teaching and Employment Conditions by Holdaway and the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire by Gunn and Rice (Sarros, 1987). A varimax factor

Table 1

Varimax Factor Analysis
for the
Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Job Satisfaction Items	Factors and Factor Loadings						
	1 Autonomy	2 Achievement & Involvement	3 Advancement	4 Recognition	5 Interpersonal Relationships	6 Work Load	7 Salary & Benefits
9. freedom to use own judgment	**.85**	.24					
10. freedom to use your own methods	**.79**	.33			.22		
19. degree of autonomy	**.79**	.24			.21	.28	
21. involvement in important decisions	**.72**			**.46**			
22. accountability for your own work	**.46**	.33		.28		**.45**	
2. the chance to help other people		**.79**			.31		
3. chance to give direction to others	.32	**.76**					
4. the opportunity to use your abilities	.23	**.66**		**.41**			
20. sense of accomplishment	**.44**	**.51**		**.41**	.24		
14. methods used in promotion			**.88**	.20			
8. advancement opportunities			**.84**				
15. methods in evaluating performance			**.65**			.38	
13. relationships with superordinates			**.50**	.27	.21	.29	
26. intellectual stimulation		.25		**.78**	.20		
18. reinforcement given for a good job	.34		.25	**.61**		.38	
24. recognition of your work by others	.27	.23	.26	**.56**		.37	
17. physical working conditions				**.54**		.23	.24

Continued. . .

Table 1 (Continued)

Job Satisfaction Items	Factors and Factor Loadings						
	1 Autonomy	2 Achievement & Involvement	3 Advancement	4 Recognition	5 Interpersonal Relations	6 Work Load	7 Salary & Benefits
11. relationships with subordinates		.34			**.79**		
12. relationships with colleagues					**.77**		
25.social relationships at work		.32		.28	**.70**		
23. your status in the community		.28		**.41**		**.70**	
16. extra tasks associated with your job			.30		.31	**.63**	
7. the amount of work required			.21		.36	**.56**	
5. fringe benefits							**.90**
6. your salary			.23				**.89**
Eigenvalues	9.14	2.58	1.61	1.38	1.32	1.10	.95
Percentage of Total Variance	36.6	10.3	6.4	5.5	5.3	4.4	3.8
Cumulative Percentage	36.6	46.9	53.3	58.8	64.1	68.5	72.3

* items with factor loadings over 0.40 that appear in more than one factor have been assigned to the factor with the highest loading value
** items with factor loadings below 0.20 do not appear in the table

analysis of the 26 items on the questionnaire yielded seven satisfaction factors: Satisfaction with Status and Recognition, Satisfaction with Autonomy, Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relations, Satisfaction with Advancement, Satisfaction with Security and Involvement, Satisfaction with Work Load and Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits. These factors accounted for 65.2% of the variance in job satisfaction based on responses from school-based educators. A Spearman-Brown split-half reliability for the instrument ranged from .93 to .95.

A factor analysis was conducted on the data collected from the B.C. subjects to determine the extent to which the instrument conformed to the original factor loadings. The analysis of the B. C. data resulted in some differences. The first rotated varimax factor analysis resulted in six factors or satisfaction subscales. However, it was noted that item number one, job security, did not meet the 0.40 cut off standard that had been used in the original study. A second factor analysis was done omitting this question. The results of the second factor analysis yielded seven factors as in the original study (see Table 1). Although there were still some differences in the factor loadings, the results were more similar than different. For a comparison of the two analyses see Appendix E. The labels given to the factors by Sarros and Friesen were still representative of the groupings with only minor changes to factor one and five. Together the factors accounted for 72.3 percent of the total variance in job satisfaction for assistant principals. The seven factors, the number of items loading at or above 0.40, and the ranges of loadings are as follows:

Factor	N	Range of Loadings
1. Satisfaction with Autonomy	5	.46 to .85
2. Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement	4	.51 to .79

3. Satisfaction with Advancement	4	.50 to .88
4. Satisfaction with Recognition	4	.54 to .78
5. Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships	3	.70 to .79
6. Satisfaction with Work Load	3	.56 to .70
7. Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits	2	.89 to .90
	25 items	

(see Table 1 for individual items in each factor)

An alpha coefficient reliability analysis was run to determine the measure of internal consistency or the extent to which items in the factors measured the same thing. The reliability coefficients ranged from a high of .90 to a low of .69 (see Table 2).

The differences between the original factor loadings and the present factor loadings were attributed to working with a somewhat different population and possibly provincial differences. In the original study, Sarros and Friesen had worked with 763 educators of whom 635 were teachers and only 17% were administrators. In the present study 100% of the population are administrators. Differences in provincial educational philosophies may also contribute to the variance noted. British Columbia is a province which is in the process of implementing province-wide, child-centered educational programming. This means major changes for teachers, students and parents, all of which have an effect on the administrators working with these individuals. The province of Alberta, on which the Sarros and Friesen calculations are based, is in the midst of a strong back-to-basics movement.

Table 2

Alpha Coefficient Reliability Analysis For Job Satisfaction Subscales

Factor	Alpha
Satisfaction with Autonomy	0.89
Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement	0.85
Satisfaction with Advancement	0.80
Satisfaction with Recognition	0.75
Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relations	0.82
Satisfaction with Workload	0.69
Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits	0.83

Subject Information Questionnaire

This section covers personal and professional demographics as well as a personal comment section including five questions structured to solicit personal opinions on stress and job satisfaction. Personal demographics included the age, sex, marital status, number of children at home and frequency of exercise of the subjects. Professional demographics examined the level of education, years of administrative experience, percentage of administration time, and the size and type of school in which the subject worked. The subjects were asked to rate their perception of the frequency

and degree of stress they encountered. As well, they were asked to list the three most rewarding and the three most stressful aspects of their present position. Finally they were given the opportunity to add any additional comments they may have either on the study or on their administrative position.

Data Analysis

Demographic data plus data from The Maslach Burnout Inventory, the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and demographic data was analyzed using frequency, mean and standard deviation. Correlation analysis was used to investigate relationships between demographic factors, the burnout subscales, satisfaction subscales and overall satisfaction. T-tests were used to determine the nature of any significant relationships found when two were groups involved. Where there were more than two groups, the Scheffe procedure was used.

As in the original Alberta study, stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether overall job satisfaction or job satisfaction facets predicted any of the three burnout subscales among the administrators.

Finally, in an attempt to determine where differences existed, two subgroups were formed from the study population. The first group consisted of those with high emotional exhaustion and low satisfaction (N=59). The second group consisted of those with low emotional exhaustion and high satisfaction (N=26). T-tests were used to determine significant differences between these groups on personal and professional

demographics, the MBI subscales, and the subscales of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Subjects

The B.C.P.V.P.A. generated a list of all Assistant Principals in British Columbia. Every third name was selected to received a questionnaire. The membership list consisted of 437 elementary and 332 secondary Assistant Principals. A total of 256 questionnaires were sent out. Participation was entirely voluntary. The anonymity of the subjects was protected , in the fact that names and districts were neither requested on the questionnaires nor, of course, recorded in the report. Additionally school district personnel did not have access to any of the individually completed forms.

One hundred and fifty-nine questionnaires were returned for a return rate of 62%. Of these, 10 were discarded as they had been returned too late to be included or the subject had changed to an assignment other than that of assistant principal. This resulted in N = 149 and a usable return of 58%.

Personal Demographics

Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were male, 31% were female. Five percent were between 25-35 years of age, 45% were between 36-45 years of age, 45% between 46-55 years of age, and 5% were over 55 years of age. Eighty-five percent of the respondents were married, 4% were single and 11% were separated or divorced. Fifty-eight percent of respondents had children living at home while 42% had no children living at home. Fifteen percent of respondents indicated that they exercised

daily, 41% exercised 2-3 times a week, 9% once a week and 35% had no regular exercise routine (see Table 3).

Professional Demographics

Eighty percent of the subjects held a masters degree, 15% had a bachelors degree (though several of these indicated they were working on their masters degree) and 5% indicated other degrees or training. Years in administration ranged from less than one to 32 years. Nine percent had been in administration for 0-2 years, 47% for 3-5 years, 18% for 6-10 years and 26% for more than ten years. Years in the present position ranged from less than 1 to 25. Thirty-eight percent had been in their present position for 0-2 years, 47% for 3-5 years, 10% for 6-10 years and 5% for over ten years. Percentage of administration time ranged from 0 to 100% (2 subjects indicated that though they had a position as assistant principal they had no officially designated time for that duty). Seventeen percent had 0-20% administration time, 40% had 20-50% administration time, 8% had 50-70% administration time, 16% had 70-90% administration time and 19% had 100% administration time. School size ranged from 30 to 1900. Three percent were under 100, 14% were 101-300, 52% were 301-600, 14% were 601-1000 and 17% were over one thousand. Fifty-three percent of the schools were elementary schools, 9% were middle or junior high, 9% were senior high, 25% were secondary (8-12), and 5% were other (see Table 4).

The next chapter reports the results of the data obtained from the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the demographic and personal comment section. Data from the three burnout subscales is included as well as

data from the seven subscales of the job satisfaction questionnaire. Predictors of burnout are reported. As well, a comparison of subjects with high emotional exhaustion and subjects with low emotional exhausion is undertaken.

Table 3
Personal Demographics

Gender	**Female**	**Male**		
	31%	69%		
Age	**25-35 years**	**36-45 years**	**46-55 years**	**55 years +**
	5%	45%	45%	5%
Marital Status	**Single**	**Married**	**Separated/Divorce**	
	4%	85%	11%	
Child. at Home	**Yes**	**No**		
	58%	42%		
Exercise Routine	**Daily**	**2-3 times Weekly**	**Once a Week**	**No Reg. Routine**
	15%	41%	9%	35%

Table 4
Professional Demographics

Degree Held	**B.Ed.**	**M.Ed / M.A.**	**Other**		
	15%	80%	5%		
Yrs in Admin	**0-2 Years**	**3-5 Years**	**6-10 Years**	**10 + Years**	
	9%	47%	18%	26%	
Yrs in Present Position	**0-2 Years**	**3-5 Years**	**6-10 Years**	**10+ Years**	
	38%	47%	10%	5%	
Percentage of Admin Time	**0-20%**	**20-50%**	**50-70%**	**70-90%**	**100%**
	17%	40%	8%	16%	19%
Size of School	**0-100**	**101-300**	**301-600**	**601-1000**	**1001 +**
	3%	14%	52%	14%	17%
Type of School	**Elementary**	**Middle/Junior**	**Senior Sec.**	**Secondary (8-12)**	**Other**
	53%	9%	9%	25%	5%

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Demographic Correlations with Burnout and Job Satisfaction

Pearson Correlations were used to determine relationships among personal and professional demographics and the burnout subscales and satisfaction subscales. There were no relationships noted either with the MBI subscales or the JSQ subscales with the size of the school, age of administrator, children at home, education level, or frequency of exercise.

Gender

Pearson Correlations showed significant relationships between Gender and Depersonalization ($P < .01$), and Gender and Satisfaction with Advancement ($P < .05$) (Table 5). T-tests show males ($M = 1.72$) having significantly higher depersonalization burnout than females ($M = 1.20$), $p < .00$. This is consistent with previous findings (Maslach, 1986). T-tests show females ($M = 2.68$) being significantly more satisfied with advancement than males ($M = 2.26$), $p < .04$ (Table 6).

Percentage of Administration Time

Pearson Correlation showed significant positive relationships between percentage of administration time and depersonalization burnout ($P < .05$) (Table 5). The positive correlation indicates higher depersonalization burnout with increased administrative time.

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

Personal and Professional Demographics and the MBI and the Job Satisfaction Subscales (N=149)

	Em. Ex..	Depers.	Per. Acc.	Recog.	Auton.	Interpers.	Advance..	Achieve..	Wk Ld.	Salary
Sex	-.15	-.25**	.03	.11	.14	.13	.17*	.15	.09	.06
Age	-.09	-.03	.00	.03	.01	.14	.01	.07	.13	.06
Marital Status	-.12	-.10	.09	.10	.04	.18*	-.06	.11	.12	.02
Num. of Children	.06	.07	.03	-.01	-.16	-.01	-.03	-.10	-.06	-.08
Education Level	.01	-.02	-.04	-.01	-.00	.04	-.15	.07	-.04	-.02
Years in Admin.	-.02	.01	.11	-.02	.07	.06	-.26**	.06	.06	.12
Years in Position	.06	.06	.02	.14	.15	.06	-.02	.20*	.07	.19*
Percent. of Admin.	.09	.18*	.04	.07	.15	-.01	.14	.01	.00	.14
Percent. of Teach.	-.09	-.19*	-.03	-.07	-.15	.01	-.13	-.00	-.00	-.14
Size of School	.06	.03	.06	.11	.10	.12	.11	-.02	.05	.06
Type of School	.09	.22**	.05	.03	.03	-.08	.06	-.08	-.01	.09
Freq. of Exercise	.06	.11	-.07	.01	. 04	.01	.05	.03	-.08	-.12
0-99% vs 100% Admin. Time	.01	.04	.10	.21*	.19*	.11	.18*	.10	.10	.10
0-49% vs 50-100% Admin Time	.17*	.21*	-.04	-.10	.06	-.05	-.03	-.05	-.12	.06

* Significance at .05 ** Significance at .01

Table 6

T-Test for Gender Significances

	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	2-tail Prob.
Advancement						
Male	102	2.26	1.06	.11		
					-2.06	.04
Female	46	2.68	1.18	.17		
Depersonalization						
Male	102	1.72	1.00	.10		
					3.13	.00
Female	46	1.20	.89	.13		

It was noted that some of the administrators had no assigned teaching time. Unlike the majority of their colleagues, their assignment consisted of 100% administration time. Consequently, the subjects were divided into two groups, those with 100% administration time (N=27) and those with less than 100% administration time (N=121) and Pearson Correlations were rerun. Significant relationships were found between the two groups in Satisfaction with Recognition ($P<.05$), Satisfaction with Advancement ($P<.05$), and Satisfaction with Autonomy ($P<.05$) (Table 5). T-tests showed full-time administrators (M=3.39) having significantly higher satisfaction with recognition than part-time administrators (M=2.88), $p < .00$. T-test showed full-time administrators (M=3.90) having significantly higher satisfaction with autonomy than part-time administrators (M=3.34), $p < .00$. Finally t-tests showed significantly higher satisfaction with advancement for full time administrators (M=2.81) than part-time administrators (M=2.30), $p, < .01$ (Table 7).

Table 7

T-Test for Percentage of Administrative Time

	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	2-tail Prob.
Recognition						
Group 1	121	2.88	.969	.09	-3.04	.00
Group 2	27	3.39	.732	.14		
Autonomy						
Group 1	121	3.34	1.02	.09	-3.12	.00
Group 2	27	3.90	.65	.13		
Advancement						
Group 1	121	2.30	1.15	.11	-2.69	.01
Group 2	27	2.81	.83	.16		

Group 1 - less than 100% Admin Time
Group 2 - 100% Admin Time

When administrators were divided into groups, where group one consisted of those with less than 50% administration time (N=69) and group two consisted of those with more than 50% administration time (N=79) Pearson Correlations show significant relationships with emotional exhaustion ($P<.05$) and depersonalization ($P<.05$) (Table 5).

A t-test showed administrators with more than 50% administration time (M=2.85)) having significantly higher emotional exhaustion than administrators with less than 50% administration time (M=2.50), p, $<.04$. T-tests showed administrators

with more than 50% administration time (M=1.75) having significantly higher depersonalization than administrators with less than 50% administration time (M=1.33), p, < .01 (Table 8).

Table 8

T-Test for Percentage of Administrative Time - 2

Group	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	2-tail Prob.
Emotional Exhaustion						
Group 1	69	2.50	.95	.11	-2.05	.04
Group 2	79	2.85	1.12	.13		
Depersonalization						
Group 1	69	1.33	.80	.10	-2.65	.01
Group 2	79	1.75	1.11	.13		

Group 1 - 0-49% admin time
Group 2 - 50-100% admin time

Type of School

Pearson Correlations showed positive relationships between Type of School and Depersonalization (P< .01) (Table 5). T-tests show assistant principals in secondary schools (M=1.87) having significantly higher depersonalization burnout then assistant principals in elementary schools (M=1.31), p < .00 (Table 9).

Table 9

T-Test for Type of School

Group	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	2-tail Prob.
Depersonalization						
Elementary	79	1.31	.88	.10	-3.33	.00
Secondary	62	1.87	1.07	.14		

Years in Administration

Pearson Correlations showed a significant negative relationship between Years in Administration and Satisfaction with Advancement ($P < .01$) (Table 5). The correlation indicates less satisfaction with advancement as the years in administration increases.

Years in Present Position

Pearson Correlations showed significant positive relationships between years in the present position and Satisfaction with Achievement ($P < .05$) and Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits ($P < .05$) (Table 5). The correlations indicated higher satisfaction with achievement and salary and benefits as years in the position increased.

Marital Status

Pearson Correlations showed a positive relationship between marital status & Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relations ($P < .05$) (Table 5).

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

Results of the MBI indicated that 40% of the assistant principals are experiencing high levels of emotional exhaustion. Forty-three percent reported moderate levels and 17% low levels of emotional exhaustion. The depersonalization subscale showed 13% indicated high levels of depersonalization, 26% moderate levels and 61% low levels. Seventy-six percent of respondents indicated high levels of personal accomplishment, 19% moderate levels and 5% low levels of personal accomplishment (Table 10).

Table 10

MBI Burnout Subscales (N=149)

	Low	Moderate	High
Emotional Exhaustion	17%	43%	40%
Depersonalization	61%	26%	13%
Personal Accomplishment	5%	19%	76%

Respondents were also asked to indicate their personal perceptions of the frequency and intensity of stress they experienced on the job. Seven percent indicated that they always encountered stress in their jobs, 48% often, 34% sometimes, 9% seldom, and 1% never. Three percent felt the intensity of the stress was extreme, 52% considerable, 33% moderate, 10% slight, and 1% none (Table 11).

Table 11

Self-Reported Overall Work Stress (N=149)

Rating Scale	1	2	3	4	5
Frequency	1%	9%	34%	48%	7%
Intensity	1%	10%	33%	52%	3%
Overall Work Stress	1%	10%	34%	50%	5%

Scale: 1= never/ none at all; 2 = seldom/slight; 3 = sometimes/moderate; 4 = often/considerable; 5 = always/ extreme

In the original study by Sarros and Friesen there was a single self-reported Overall Work Stress item. In the present study the frequency and intensity items were combined and a mean taken to determine the subjects' Self-Reported Overall Work Stress. One percent of the subjects indicated *never/none at all* stress, 10% indicated seldom/slight stress, 34% indicated sometimes/moderate stress, 50% felt there was often/considerable stress and 5% indicated always/extreme stress (Table 11). As in the original study, this combined self-reported overall work stress factor was used as an independent variable in the multiple regression analysis to determine predictors of administrator burnout.

Job Satisfaction Subscales

Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships was the area of highest satisfaction among administrators with 52% indicating high satisfaction and only 7% indicating low

satisfaction. It should be noted that relationships with superordinates did not fall into this subscale but into Satisfaction with Advancement. Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships included relationships with colleagues and subordinates. The second area of highest satisfaction was Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement. Thirty-nine percent of assistant principals indicated high satisfaction while 6% indicated low satisfaction. Satisfaction with Autonomy was the third highest subscale with 34% indicating high satisfaction and 7% indicating low satisfaction. Those indicating low satisfaction were below 10% in all three of these areas. High satisfaction ranged from 34 -52%.

The three areas of lowest satisfaction were Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits, Satisfaction with Work Load and Satisfaction with Advancement. While 33% of the subjects were highly satisfied with Salary and Benefits, 18% indicated low satisfaction. Twenty-five percent of assistant principals indicated low satisfaction with Work Load while only 9% indicated high satisfaction. Low satisfaction with Advancement was indicated by 35% and high satisfaction with Advancement by 8%. Clearly Satisfaction with Work Load and Satisfaction with Advancement are areas of concern and in need of scrutinization.

While only 12% of assistant principals indicated low Satisfaction with Recognition only 18% were highly satisfied. This too would appear to be an area that could be improved. See Table 12 for percentages of low, moderate and high subscale satisfaction and Appendix F for the percentages on the original 1-6 rankings.

Table 12

Job Satisfaction Subscales / Low, Moderate, High (N=149)

	Low	Moderate	High
Recognition	12%	69%	18%
Autonomy	7%	59%	34%
Interpersonal Relations	7%	41%	52%
Advancement	35%	57%	8%
Achievement & Involv.	6%	55%	39%
Work Load	25%	65%	9%
Salary & Benefits	18%	48%	33%
Overall Satisfaction	5%	43%	52%

Predictors of Overall Satisfaction

Multiple stepwise linear regression analysis for prediction of Overall Satisfaction showed Satisfaction with Achievement, Interpersonal Relationships. Recognition, Autonomy, and Work Load were the major statistically significant predictors of Overall Satisfaction, contributing to 67 % of the total variance (Table 13). The positive correlation coefficients indicate that the more satisfied administrators are in these areas the more overall satisfaction they will experience. Neither Satisfaction

with Advancement nor Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits were predictors for Overall Satisfaction.

Table 13

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Prediction of Overall Satisfaction

Dependent Variable	Predictor	Beta	T	P
Overall Satis.	Achievement	.23	3.13	.00
	Inter. Relation.	.30	4.80	.00
	Recognition	.19	2.86	.00
	Autonomy	.17	2.37	.02
	Work Load	.13	2.13	.03
R Square = .67				

These results tend to support Herzberg's dual theory of work satisfaction with the exception, which was also found in Rice's (1978) study, of Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships. Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships appears to be a motivator rather than a hygiene as in the original Herzberg study. However, since the original studies were done with production workers, who tended to work with things as opposed to working with people, this is perhaps an understandable difference. If, as Friesen (1981) states, 75% of an administrators time involves working with people, then "people" are the work and as such should not be classified as a hygiene element or a part of the environmental conditions, as was originally done. Growth, achievement, and self-actualization for administrators are accomplished in the context of working

with people as opposed to producing some item. Therefore, it could reasonably be concluded, that the difference in the nature of the work itself could contribute to the difference found with interpersonal relationships between Herzberg's original studies and later studies and that this theory still holds true.

Individual Items of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire Showing Low Satisfaction of Twenty Percent or Above

The individual items of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire were examined to determine areas of least satisfaction. Over twenty percent of the subjects surveyed indicated low satisfaction with the following items:

- reinforcement given for doing a good job (23%)
- methods of evaluation (24%)
- extra tasks associated with the job (27%)
- amount of work required (36%)
- advancement opportunities (37%)
- methods of promotion (38%)

See Table 14 for low, moderate and high percentages of all individual items and Appendix G for percentages on the original 1-6 rankings.

Career Choices

The respondents were asked to indicate their preference in regards to the position they wished to hold. Seven percent indicated they would return to the classroom (some indicated concerns about salary cuts if they were to do so), 32%

Table 14

Individual Items -Job Satisfaction Questionnaire - Low/Mod/High Rankings (N=149)

	Low	Moderate	High
Job Security	11%	27%	61%
Opportunity to Help Others	2%	30%	67%
Opportunity to Give Direction	4%	43%	52%
Opportunity to Use Abilities	9%	37%	55%
Fringe Benefits	19%	38%	43%
Salary	16%	40%	44%
Amount of Work Required	36%	52%	12%
Advancement Opportunities	37%	44%	19%
Freedom to Use Own Judgment	9%	32%	58%
Freedom to Use Own Methods	6%	34%	59%
Relationships With Subordinates	5%	28%	66%
Relationship With Colleagues	3%	24%	72%
Relationship With Superordinates	14%	41%	43%
Methods of Promotion	38%	42%	19%
Methods of Evaluation	24%	43%	30%
Extra Tasks Associated With Job	27%	53%	19%
Physical Working Conditions	16%	33%	49%
Reinforcement Given	23%	44%	32%

Continued

Table 14 Con't

Individual Items - Job Satisfaction Questionnaire - Low/Mod/High Rankings

	Low	Moderate	High
Degree of Autonomy	7%	35%	57%
Sense of Accomplishment	6%	41%	52%
Involvement in Import. Decisions	9%	41%	49%
Accountability For Own Work	5%	40%	55%
Status in the Community	4%	47%	48%
Recognition of Work by Others	11%	57%	31%
Social Relationships at Work	7%	36%	56%
Intellectual Stimulation	5%	50%	44%
Overall Satisfaction	5%	43%	52%

* values across rows may not add up to 100% as some subjects did not answer all questions

indicated they would stay in their present position, 38 % would like to change to another job in education (many indicating a change to a principalship), 13% of respondents indicate that they would like to leave the education field entirely and; the remaining were undecided (Table 15)

Table 15

Career Choices (N=149)

Return To a Classroom	7%
Stay in Present Position	32%
Change To Another Job In The Field	38%
Change Fields	13%

Austin and Brown (cited in Purvis, 1975) stated that only 25% of men and 50% of women viewed the position of assistant principal as constituting a desirable career assignment. In this study only 32% indicated a desire to stay with the position of assistant principal.

Correlations Between MBI Subscales and JSQ Subscales

Pearson Correlations showed negative relationships between Emotional Exhaustion and:

- Satisfaction with Recognition
- Satisfaction with Autonomy
- Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships
- Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement
- Satisfaction with Workload
- Satisfaction with Advancement.

There were negative relationships between Depersonalization and:

- Satisfaction with Recognition
- Satisfaction with Autonomy
- Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships
- Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement
- Satisfaction with Workload

There were positive relationships between Personal Accomplishment and:

- Satisfaction with Autonomy
- Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships
- Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement
- Satisfaction with Work Load
- Satisfaction with Recognition

There were no significant relationships found with Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits and any of the burnout subscales (Table 16).

Table 16

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Job Satisfaction Subscales.

	Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonalization	Personal Accomplishment
Recognition & Involv.	-.39**	-.24**	.31**
Autonomy	-.30**	-.25**	.32**
Interpersonal Relation.	-.32**	-.42**	.29**
Advancement	-.19*	-.03	.05
Achievement	-.32**	-.44**	.47**
Work Load	-.51**	-.29**	.25**
Salary & Benefits	-.03	.00	-.05

* significance at .05 ** significance at .01

Predictors of Burnout Among Assistant Principals

The results of multiple stepwise linear regression for prediction of Emotional Exhaustion showed Overall Work Stress and Satisfaction with Work Load were the major statistically significant predictors, contributing 52% of the total variance in this subscale. The correlation coefficient indicates that the higher the self-reported overall stress and the less satisfied the administrators are with their work load the more likely they are to experience Emotional Exhaustion burnout.

Depersonalization burnout was best predicted by Overall Work Stress, Satisfaction with Achievement and Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships. These factors contributed to 29 % of the total variance in this subscale. Again the higher the self-reported overall work stress and the less satisfied administrators are with their perception of their achievement and interpersonal relationships the more likely they are to suffer from Depersonalization burnout.

Satisfaction with Achievement was the best predictor of Personal Accomplishment. It contributed to 22 % of the variance of this subscale. A positive correlation coefficient indicates that the more satisfied the administrators were with their perception of achievement the less Personal Accomplishment burnout experienced. Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relationships was the best predictor of this subscale in Sarros and Friesens study.

In none of the three burnout subscales, in the present study, did Satisfaction with Advancement, Satisfaction with Recognition, Satisfaction with Autonomy, or Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits prove to be predictors of burnout (Table 17).

Comparison of Subjects with High Emotional Exhaustion and Subjects with Low Emotional Exhaustion

Subjects exhibiting high emotional exhaustion (N = 59) and subjects exhibiting low emotional exhaustion (N = 26) were compared to determine where significant differences lay. No significant differences were noted on any professional or personal demographic item.

Table 17

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Prediction of Burnout Among Administrators

Dependent Var.	Predictor	Beta	T	P
Emotional Exhaustion	Overall Work Stress	.56	8.80	.00
	Work Load	-.27	-4.17	.00
R Square = .52				
Depersonalization	Overall Work Stress	.24	3.27	.00
	Achievement	-.28	-3.19	.00
	Interpersonal Relationships	-.19	-2.14	.03
R Square = .29				
Personal Accomplishment	Achievement	.47	6.44	.00
R Square = .22				

On the MBI there were significant differences not only in the area of emotional exhaustion but also on the depersonalization scale and the personal accomplishment scale. Emotional exhaustion was significantly different for those with high emotional exhaustion ($M=33.62$) and those with low emotional exhaustion ($M=11.15$), $p < .000$. T-tests showed those exhibiting high emotional exhaustion also exhibited significantly higher depersonalization burnout ($M=2.16$) than those with low emotional

exhaustion (M=.89), $p < .000$. T-tests showed those with high emotional exhaustion exhibited significantly lower personal accomplishment (M=4.92) than those with low emotional exhaustion (M=5.41) $p < .000$. (Table 18)

Table 18

T-Test for Subjects with High Emotional Exhaustion and Low Emotional Exhaustion on the MBI

Group	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	2-tail Prob.
Emotional Exhaustion						
High	59	33.63	5.78	.75	19.43	.00
Low	26	11.15	4.48	.88		
Depersonalization						
High	59	2.16	1.01	.13	7.01	.00
Low	26	.89	.63	.12		
Personal Accomplishment						
High	59	4.92	.70	.09	-3.96	.00
Low	26	5.41	.44	.09		

There were significant differences in Satisfaction in Recognition, Autonomy, Interpersonal Relationships, Achievement and Work Load between subjects with high emotional exhaustion and subjects with low emotional exhaustion. Neither Satisfaction

with Advancement nor Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits showed significant differences between the two groups. T-tests showed significantly less satisfaction with recognition for those with high emotional exhaustion (M=2.72) than those with low emotional exhaustion (M=3.61), $p < .000$. Significantly lower satisfaction with autonomy was apparent for those with high emotional exhaustion (M=3.20) than those with low emotional exhaustion (M=3.88), $p < .003$. Those with high emotional exhaustion showed significantly lower satisfaction with interpersonal relationships (M=3.44) than those with low emotional exhaustion (M=4.21), $p < .000$. Satisfaction with achievement was significantly lower for those with high emotional exhaustion (M=3.28) than for those with low emotional exhaustion (M=4.12), $p < .000$. Finally, those with high emotional exhaustion showed significantly lower satisfaction with workload (M=2.10) than those with low emotional exhaustion (M=3.32), $p < .000$. (Table 19).

Table 19

T-Test for Subjects with High Emotional Exhaustion and Low Emotional Exhaustion on the JSQ Subscales

	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	2-tail Prob.
Recognition						
High	58	2.72	1.04	.14	-4.72	.00
Low	26	3.61	.66	.13		
Autonomy						
High	58	3.20	.99	.13	-3.41	.00
Low	26	3.88	.77	.15		

Table 19 Con't

T-Test for Subjects with High Emotional Exhaustion and Low Emotional Exhaustion on the JSQ Subscales

Interpersonal Relationships							
High	58	3.44	1.06	.14	-4.32	80.16	.00
Low	26	4.21	.55	.11			
Achievement							
High	58	3.28	.89	.12	-4.94	67.03	.00
Low	26	4.12	.63	.12			
Work Load							
High	58	2.10	.99	.13	-6.81	72.53	.00
Low	26	3.32	.63	.12			

Personal Responses

Subjects were asked to identify which three aspects of their jobs were the most stressful and which three were the most rewarding. Some clearly identifiable themes emerged from the responses to both questions.

Interpersonal relationships comprised the area of greatest stress. Forty percent of the administrators identified problems with teachers as a major stress. Difficulties between students and teachers, parents and teachers, dissatisfied teachers, outdated teacher practices, unreasonable teacher demands and teacher supervision and evaluation were all listed as causes of stress. Thirty-two percent found dealing with student

discipline, repeated behavior problems, suspensions, poor attitudes, and a constant pressure to "change" student behavior to be one of their top three stresses. One felt stress resulted from "having to deal with all the 'bandits' and 'bad actors' myself". Some of these administrators identified themselves as "Mr Fixit" or as the individual upon whom teachers "dumped" their discipline problems.

Another thirty-eight percent credited conflicts with parents as a source of high stress. Dysfunctional families, unrealistic demands, irate parents, parents who had given up, and parents who discipline inappropriately or don't support their child's education were included in this category.

Relating to "ineffectual", "incompetent" superordinates was another area many felt was stressful. Assistant principals mentioned "poor arbitrary district policy and action", "out of touch District Personnel", "decisions from above that effect us but that we have no say in", and "interference from Board Members". Another felt they were "being asked to give input (to District Office) then having it regularly ignored" and felt "obliged to take on District Office tasks when I'm already overloaded". Yet another states " I feel undervalued by the School Board and Superintendent . . .only I appreciate me."

Differences with principals were mentioned often. "Principal's mood swings", "a weak principal who takes credit for everything", "differences of philosophy" with the principal but "having to do things the principal's way", "lack of confidence in the principal", " a principal who is absent 50% of the time and does little when he is in the plant", lack of autonomy and level of delegation by principal all contributed to the stress levels of assistant principals. One individual stated "Just about every job the Principal is

unwilling - incapable of doing gets past [sic] on to the V.P." Another says, "I work long hours every day (8 am -5:30/6:00 pm). My principal leaves at 4:00 pm and arrives at 8:30 am". A third states, "previously I had an awful one (principal). . .was nonsupportive so stress was severe". One individual concludes "the stress level of a vice-principal is very much related to the working relationship between the V.P. and the senior administrator". This is supported by another colleagues who writes, "my position this year is far less stressful than previous years. A lot depends on the principal you work with."

Work load was a second major theme identified by assistant principals as a source of stress. Within this area multiple demands or "serving many masters" (district, public, staff, students, parents, community and superiors) was listed. As well, juggling teaching and administration or "not enough time to do two full time jobs" was a concern. One administrator states, "I never feel like I am able to do either job as well as I should."

The volume of work, the menial tasks sometimes assigned and the time pressures or constraints were a major difficulty. Paper work, meetings, long hours, the pace of the work, "always being on", too many things at the same time ("constant decisions", "constant barrage") and the unpredictable nature of the job led to pressure. Management of "crisis after crisis", "responding to people continually" and "being all things to all people" were listed as pressures. According to one administrator, being a VP is ". . .like an emergency ward - have to exclude and prioritize constantly - by the hour." Another states, "I feel frustrated, fried and worn out at expending so much energy to (apparently) no avail." Another sees the situation of the assistant principals this way, "very often VP's are caught in the middle - they do all the discipline - the hassles with kids/parents/public - plus they seem to be the work horses of the school." And finally, "the rate at which things

come at a Vice-Principal from all directions makes one feel constantly 'badgered' by overload and stress." The amount of administration time allotted was a concern to many.

One administrator who was in a school of 186 students and 8 staff was officially given 0% administration time regardless of the fact that the school was annexed to another school and did not have a resident principal. This individual added communication problems and lack of autonomy as complications to being the only in-resident administrator. In a similar situation the assistant principal had 30% administration time, 175 students and a principal who was in another school and "visited" 2-3 half days a week. He says, " I feel I 'shoot out of the starting blocks' at 7:30 am every day & finish the race, exhausted at 7:00 pm in the evening. I often wonder how long I can keep it up." Another assistant principal writes, "when we did a self assessment, I was doing at least 50% of the (administrative) work. I like the work but sometimes the hours are horrendous." This administrator had 80% teaching time and 20% administration time. Recent cuts in administration time were also a source of stress. In the opinion of two administrators, " too much is being put on the VP's plate with nothing coming off" and "nothing is dropped from the list - only added."

Union restrictions, demands, relationships and criticisms was a third theme identified as major stressors. "Teacher contract negotiations and job action", "trying to do what's best for the kids while ensuring that the collective agreement isn't breached" and "eight months of teacher job action-with no end in sight" all contributed to the daily pressure felt by these administrators. One administrator writes, "one of the most distressful aspects of my job is the incessant and unwarranted criticism from the BCTF and local affiliates" Another states, "I believe the US (administration) vs. THEM (BCTF members)

relationship that has developed over the past few years is destroying educational reform in this province and is leading to an increase in job dissatisfaction!"

Funding was an identified area of concern. Diminishing resources, budget restrictions and cuts affected many. Lack of resources, support services, programs and expertise to deal with severe problems or to support "at risk" or "special needs" students was a stress often encountered.

The *sense of belonging* individuals had as teachers was lost for some when they became assistant principals. These administrators mentioned "a loss of collegiality" and "being neither fish nor foul [sic]" One stated, "the shift from teaching to excluded staff affects how people see me." Another felt, "not truly a part of the principals group. . .don't attend the district principal meeting . . . no minutes sent to us . . .yet not one of the teachers either". Yet still another noted, "my relationships with my best friends who are teachers have changed they don't want to hear about my day or difficulties." One administrator explains, "Vice-principals do not have a support system which is as strong as principals' networking groups. You often have to walk a narrow line between Senior Administration and teachers. Keeping you own counsel can be lonely." Another says, "I would rather be a principal or a classroom teacher but not 'in between'." In conclusion, "I think the position of assistant principal is the most stressful one in the school. It is an amalgamation of everything and it fits nowhere."

Violence or crime was another theme identified by assistant principals as an administrative stress. Intruders, abductions, violent children, the Young Offenders Act and the probation system were all mentioned by these administrators as stresses of the job. As

well, dealing with outside agencies such as the police and social services contributed to the overall stress of the position.

Finally, lack of opportunity for advancement, lack of recognition, lack of constructive feedback, constant attacks on education by government and media and no proper breaks for lunch were stresses mentioned by others. One individual who feels the lack of recognition or appreciation writes "I have been at my school for 20 years . . . as I write I am in hospital . . . 8 days now . . . I have not heard from my employer . . . I wonder why I continue to provide service for this school district."

The major source of stress was also the major source of reward for the subjects of this study. Interpersonal relationships were mentioned most often as the most positive aspect of the job. Seventy-two percent of assistant principals listed working with students as one of the most rewarding aspects, while another 10% cited classroom teaching as one of the most positive experiences. Fifty-seven percent of the administrators identified working with or helping staff as highly rewarding. Others listed being part of a school-based or educational team. Thirteen percent felt working with families was rewarding and 9% included networking and relationships with other administrative officers as a positive aspect of the assistant principal position.

The types of tasks performed was a second theme that surfaced as rewarding for assistant principals. The potential of effecting positive change was mentioned most often in this area. New initiatives, development of vision for the school, affecting change and innovation, program development, curriculum implementation and the opportunity for educational leadership were all included. Initiating projects and seeing

them succeed, organizing school activities, setting and achieving goals, and finishing major projects were listed as personally rewarding for assistant principals. Working with extra curricular activities was positive for others as was presenting workshops or staff development creations.

Recognition emerged as another major area of reward. Positive feedback, respect or recognition from students, parents, the community, or teachers was identified by many of the individuals as one of the most rewarding aspects of their job. A sense of autonomy, empowerment and being encouraged to try new things was perceived to be another positive aspect of the position.

Intrapersonal rewards were, also, listed by many as being rewarding. Some identified their job as being continually challenging and intellectually stimulating. Others appreciated "knowing that I do make a difference in some kid's lives", "knowing that you're needed and make a difference", "having a positive impact", "being an influence on the educational lives of children" or "knowing that I planned well for the good of the school." Some felt providing support, solving problems, and offering leadership was the most positive aspect of their job. One administrator summed it up, "My focus [is on] service to others".

Assistant principals have a variety of feelings about the job they do. One claims, "[it] is generally a high stress, relatively low paid job. . . rarely seen as a worthwhile long term assignment." Another contends, "I think VP's have the worst job in education. I hate it. It's reactive rather than proactive." After twelve years of service another states, "With the stress surrounding becoming a principal I have lost my

interest in pursuing higher goals on the administerial ladder." Another says, "many V.P's are currently considering a career change due to being overworked, decreased administration release time, and feelings of not being recognized for their skills and accomplishments. Why then, do others stay with the job? One explanation, "sometimes I'm afraid that going back to 'just' teaching would make me look like a 'quitter' and there are days when I think that it just doesn't matter." According to another administrator, however, "although there is certainly a great deal of stress related to the job. . . a firm belief. . . that I can make a difference. . .makes me determined to 'stick with' this position". What recommendations do assistant principals make regarding their job? One individual suggests, "(it) should be more of an apprenticeship to becoming a Principal. . . and minimal teaching responsibilities." Another states, "work needs to be done on development of collaborative leadership by school administrators ie principal as leader, not 'commander' ."

The first purpose of this study was to determine the levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment experienced by assistant principals in B. C. as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory. A secondary purpose was to determine whether significant relationships exist between personal or professional demographics and the levels of stress experienced by B.C. assistant principals. Thirdly, Sarros and Friesen's (1987) Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was used to determine the job-satisfaction experienced by B. C. assistant principals. Levels of job facet satisfaction were examined to identify specific areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Finally, the data was examined to determine the extent to which the job-satisfaction levels of B.C. assistant principals were predictive of stress as proposed by

Sarros and Friesen in their study of Alberta educators. The results of the study will be discussed further in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary and Discussion

Stress Levels

The data indicates that over 80% of assistant principals are experiencing moderate to high emotional exhaustion. This is considerably higher than that shown for principals in earlier studies. Self-reported overall work stress showed that over 50% of the subjects felt there was often considerable stress associated with their position and that only 33% would be satisfied to remain in their present position. As might be expected, those experiencing high emotional exhaustion also indicated higher levels of depersonalization burnout and lower levels of personal accomplishment than those experiencing low emotional exhaustion.

The scores on the emotional exhaustion subscale are startling as they are considerably higher than the stress levels found in the majority of earlier studies. Though there were three studies (Wax, 1987; Schaffer, 1980; Kent, 1990) that found at least half of the administrators involved indicated significant feelings of burnout, most studies consistently indicated low to moderate stress levels for school administrators (Peterson, 1977; Jankovic, 1983; Sarros, 1988; Milstein, 1988; Kottkamp, 1986; McPherson, 1985; Hiebert, 1986; Hiebert, 1988; Farkas, 1983; McMurray, 1986; Surrey Wellness Survey, 1990). It must be remembered, however, that the majority of administrators in these studies were principals and when assistant principals were included they were not usually examined as a distinct group. While Kent's (1990) study

of B.C. principals indicated higher stress levels than normally found, (59% indicated moderate to high levels of emotional exhaustion), this is still considerably less than the 80% indicated by the present study for B. C. assistant principals.

While the results on the depersonalization and personal accomplishment subscales are not as dramatic as the emotional exhaustion subscale, there are notable differences between the results of the present study and previous studies. Kent (1990) found 20% of B.C. principals experienced moderate to high levels of depersonalization burnout. The present study found that 39% of B. C. assistant principals experience moderate to high depersonalization burnout. This finding, together with that for emotional exhaustion, is approximately 20% higher for assistant principals than principals in the province. It is clearly evident that the levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization presently being experienced by B.C. assistant principals are significantly higher than was previously thought. Kent's study showed that 83% of B.C. principals indicated high personal accomplishment while the present study showed 76% of assistant principals experiencing high personal accomplishment. Though the differences in personal accomplishment are not as substantial as the other two subscales it is of concern that they, too, are lower than previously noted. It is, however, interesting to note that though assistant principals are experiencing increased emotional exhaustion and depersonalization the majority indicate high levels of personal accomplishment.

The differences found in administrator stress levels in the present study and previous studies suggest two possiblities. Either assistant principals in B. C. experience higher levels of tension and stress than their administrative colleagues, the principals or, the stress levels of all B.C. school-based administrators are rising. The

results of Kent's study, when compared to earlier studies, suggests increasing levels of stress for B.C. principals. In a second B. C. study Richmond and Campsall (1992), found that the administrators indicated that they felt the stress levels of B.C. administrators had increased significantly in the last three years. Though Kent's study focused on B.C. principals and should provide a good comparative base for the present study, it is three years old. As there has been considerable conflict within B.C. School Districts in the last three years in regards to contract negotiations, strikes, increased grievances and financial restraints, the political climate itself, may be responsible for the differences in stress levels found between the two studies (rather than differences between the two administrative positions). Whether the findings of higher stress levels in the present study are related to overall increased stress or whether there are definite differences between the two positions is not presently clear. What is clear is that the stress levels of B.C. assistant principals are unacceptably high.

Personal Demographics

In the area of personal demographics significant differences were found in gender, with females showing more satisfaction with advancement and less depersonalization burnout than their male counterparts. Assistant principals who were married showed higher satisfaction with interpersonal relationships on the job. No differences were found with age, having children at home or frequency of exercise routines.

It was surmised that differences in depersonalization burnout and gender may relate to the number of female assistant principals found in elementary schools (47%) as compared to the number of female assistant principals found in secondary schools

(10%). If, as the literature suggested, student conflict was one of the major stresses encountered by "secondary administrators", as opposed to elementary administrators, (Koff, 1979-80; Lam, 1988; Feitler, 1986; Cook, 1980; Milligan, 1982) then the disparate number of female administrators at this level would have an effect on the results of the present study. This hypothesis was supported by the results found, in this study, for type of school. Depersonalization burnout was significantly higher for secondary school assistant principals than for elementary school assistant principals. Since there were substantially more male secondary assistant principals (where depersonalization levels are higher) the prediction was that the results for gender and depersonalization burnout may be skewed.

In the interest of proving or disproving the hypothesis assistant principals were divided into two groups. The first group consisted of elementary assistant principals (N=59) while the second group consisted of secondary assistant principals (N=62). Analysis of variance was run for gender and depersonalization on both groups. Neither group showed significant differences between male and female depersonalization (see Appendix H). Therefore, it was concluded that the apparent differences noted in the initial correlations and T-test were a result of type of school rather than gender.

The differences in satisfaction with advancement between male and female may possibly be attributed to differing career expectations between males and females. Traditionally management has been a male-dominated field, therefore, women who have gained an assistant principalship may be quite pleased with the progress they have made. The male assistant principal, on the other hand, may have higher expectations and will not be overly satisfied with attaining only the first step on the educational administerial ladder. Gender equity has been a concern in the educational field over the

last ten years and there has been an substantial increase in the number of female administrators possibly giving women a stronger sense of progress than their male counterparts.

The finding for marital status and interpersonal relationships were inconclusive. Though the original correlations indicated that assistant principals who were married experienced higher satisfaction with interpersonal relations than those who were separated or single, upon further examination the significance disappeared.

Professional Demographics

In the area of professional demographics higher percentages of administration time resulted in higher depersonalization and emotional exhaustion burnout as well as higher satisfaction with autonomy, recognition and advancement. Secondary school assistant principals experienced higher levels of depersonalization burnout than elementary assistant principals. As years in administration increased the satisfaction with advancement decreased. Also, as might be anticipated, increased years in a position resulted in higher satisfaction with both achievement and salary and benefits. No significant differences were noted for level of education or size of school.

Significant relationships were noted between "percentage of administration time" and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, satisfaction with recognition, satisfaction with advancement and satisfaction with autonomy. Assistant principals with more than 50% administration time showed higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than those with less than 50% administration time. Interestingly these differences were not present with assistant principals who had 100% administration

time. Further, assistant principals with 100% administration time showed higher satisfaction with autonomy, advancement and recognition than those with less than 100% administration time. It appears that a significant amount of administrative responsibility coupled with classroom duties is more stressful than either lighter administrative responsibilities or a role which focuses solely on administration. An assistant principal with more administrative time may also be asked to take responsibility for more demanding complex tasks than those who have little time for administrative duties. This may work in one of two fashions. If the time is not there to deal with these more demanding tasks, frustration and stress may increase If the time is available, however, (as is the case with full time administrators) these tasks may be viewed as challenging and as a confirmation of ability. As full-time administrators, assistant principals can confine their energies and attention to administrative duties and not be torn between two demanding roles. Role overload and role conflict may be the result of substantial administrative duties coupled with a continuing responsibility for a classroom which in turn leads to high levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Assistant principals in secondary schools exhibited higher depersonalization burnout than their elementary colleagues. This may be attributed to an increase in the frequency and severity of student discipline problems at the secondary level. This finding is supported by the research literature which indicates student conflicts were one of the major stresses of secondary administrators (Koff, 1979-80; Lam, 1988; Feitler, 1986; Cook, 1980; Milligan, 1982). It may also be related to the variety of programs and activities offered at a secondary level, a need to be familiar with each, and the conflicts encountered in an attempt to match diverse individual needs with the programs available. As well, secondary schools are often considerably larger than

elementary schools. This translates simply into the potential for increases in the number of personal conflicts and more extensive needs for support for both students and staff.

Satisfaction with advancement decreased as years in administration increased. Currently financial restraints have resulted in fewer opportunities for promotion. This results in assistant principals often remaining in the position for longer periods of time than they may have predicted. The years in administration for the respondents of this study ranged from less than 1 year up to 32 years, with the average being 7 1/2 years. Forty-four percent of the assistant principals in this study had been in administration for 6 years or more. It would not be unreasonable to conclude that assistant principals become discouraged as the years proceed and they do not see concrete career movement. If the assistant principalship is considered a stepping stone to the principalship but is not forthcoming in what the administrator perceives to be a reasonable length of time it is logical to assume satisfaction will decrease.

Satisfaction with achievement and satisfaction with salary and benefits increased with years in the current position. This is a logical outcome for satisfaction with achievement should increase as administrators becomes more familiar and competent with the tasks and responsibilities they are given. It could be hypothesized however, that under certain circumstances the converse would also hold true. A situation where an assistant principal was not given new opportunities or challenges should eventually promote dissatisfaction with achievement, especially as individuals may remain in an assistant principalship for long periods of time. Stagnation and boredom would likely be the result of menial, repetitive tasks and satisfaction with achievement could be reasonably expected to dissipate after an optimum period of time had passed. Though

this was not evident in this study it probably was due to the fact that 85% of the assistant principals had been in their present position for 5 years or less.

Job Satisfaction

Over 50% of assistant principals indicated high overall satisfaction with their positions. Satisfaction with Interpersonal Relations, Satisfaction with Achievement and Involvement and Satisfaction with Autonomy were the areas of highest satisfaction for assistant principals. The areas of lowest satisfaction were Satisfaction with Work Load and Satisfaction with Advancement.

Satisfaction with advancement is clearly an area of concern. Thirty-five percent of respondents indicated low satisfaction with advancement while only 8% indicated high satisfaction. Within this subscale 24% of respondents indicated low satisfaction with methods of administrator evaluation, 37% indicated low satisfaction with advancement opportunities and 38% indicated low satisfaction with methods of promotion. As well, 23% of respondents indicated low satisfaction with the reinforcement received for doing a good job.

When nearly 40% of assistant principals are dissatisfied with the methods of promotion and 25% are dissatisfied with the evaluation methods, our school boards need to take note and consider changes. Policy relating to these procedures needs to be reviewed or developed in conjunction with the school-based administrators. Arbitrary methods or procedures lead to uncertainty and dissatisfaction. Evaluation and promotion procedures need to be clearly developed and consistent. Just as our school-

based administrators are being encouraged to use participative decision-making methods in their schools, our school boards should be encouraged to use participative methods in developing those procedures which effect the school-based administrators themselves. In addition to formal evaluation, regular ongoing feedback needs to be made available to assistant principals. This information allows individuals to judge their own performance and growth and serves as an encouragment. Principals should be aware of this need and be willing to serve as a mentor to their assistant principals. School staff needs to be encouraged to recognize the contributions of school-based administrators and to give feedback regarding what has been helpful and what else could help. School-based administration positions are isolated positions with little feedback, peer support or appreciation. Assistant principals need to be given personal support and acknowledgment for the time and effort they give to their jobs if they are to function at optimum levels and find satisfaction in their work.

Though school boards are limited in what they can do to increase advancement opportunities, especially in times of restraint, there are a variety of options that can be implemented to compensate for these limitations and to provide other appealing avenues of opportunity. Options such as early retirement programs have been used to prevent stagnation and to promote movement within districts. Opportunities and encouragement to transfers after 3-5 years in a particular school offer individuals a change in environment, new challenges and varied school experiences. Exchange programs between districts, provinces or countries offer all manner of opportunity for interest and growth which, while in itself is not a promotion, presents opportunities in other areas which may compensate for limited advancement. Exchange programs also benefit the home districts of administrators as individuals return with new ideas and broadened experience which enrich the original district. Finally, deferred salary programs, such as

those available to teachers, coupled with leaves for travel or pursuit of personal interests provide individuals with a focus on opportunities other than promotion. Personal leaves also serve as rejuvenation periods, promoting personal well-being and allowing for decreases in the intolerably high stress levels presently being experienced. These options provide opportunities for a personal growth and advancement and promote a broader focus than offered by the traditional career ladder.

Satisfaction with work load is a second area of concern. Twenty-five percent of the assistant principals indicated low satisfaction in this area while 9% indicated high satisfaction. Thirty-six percent of these administrators indicated dissatisfaction with the amount of work required while 27% indicated dissatisfaction with the extra tasks associated with the position. The position of the assistant principal, unlike that of most principals, spans both the classroom and school administration duties. Both classroom duties and administrative responsibilities can be extensive, contributing to a distinct potential for role overload and/or role conflict. Too often attention to one role deters from needed attention to the other, leaving these administrators feeling they cannot fulfill the requirements of either role to their own or others' satisfaction. With 80% of our assistant principals experiencing moderate to high emotional exhaustion, work loads need to be reexamined to ensure that tasks and expectations are reasonable and realistic.

Types of tasks assigned also need to be considered. Responsibility for school discipline, which is negative in nature and emotionally draining, frequently tends to fall to the assistant principal. Assistant principals often spend large blocks of time with clerical tasks such as preparing duty rosters, text book orders, P.E. and Library schedules, and sorting through mail to determine that which requires the principals' attention and that which is of a minor nature and can be diverted elsewhere. A balance

between clerical and disciplinarian tasks and tasks which involve educational leadership are needed. Assistant principals need to feel that they contribute in a positive, meaningful manner to the organization and effectiveness of the school. They want to be a part of a consultative model and to have the opportunity of learning how to manage a school of their own rather than being a person who deals with the overflow or tasks principals don't want to attend to. Both the amount of work expected from the assistant principal and the type of work is critical if this is to be a satisfying position.

One third to one half of respondents were highly satisfied with interpersonal relations (this subscale does not include relations with superordinates which are included in satisfaction with advancement), achievement and involvement, autonomy, and salary and benefits. With the exception of salary and benefits, the areas of highest satisfaction seemed to focus on the *content* of the job rather than the *context.* It is interesting to note that although 80% of these administrators indicated that they experience moderate to high levels of emotional exhaustion, at least half were still highly satisfied with their job.

Satisfaction as a Predictor of Burnout

As in the Sarros and Friesen (1987) study predictors of burnout were found in the satisfaction subscales. Emotional exhaustion was predicted by satisfaction with work load and overall stress. Depersonalization burnout was predicted by overall work stress, satisfaction with achievement and satisfaction with interpersonal relationships. Satisfaction with achievement was the best predictor of Personal Accomplishment burnout. In none of the three burnout scales did Satisfaction with Advancement,

Satisfaction with Recognition, Satisfaction with Autonomy or Satisfaction with Salary and Benefits prove to be predictors of burnout.

The findings support Sarros and Friesen's hypothesis that certain job satisfaction facets are predictors of burnout. There were some distinct differences, however, noted in the results of the two studies. In the first subscale, emotional exhaustion, the results of the two studies concurred. The difference noted for this subscale was the percentage of variance. In the present study, 52% of the total variance was accounted for whereas only 23% of the variance was accounted for in the Sarros and Friesen study. In the other two subscales, depersonalization and personal accomplishment, though significant predictors were identified they did not match those of the earlier study. Sarros and Friesen identified overall work stress, satisfaction with work load and satisfaction with status and recognition as predictors of depersonalization. The present study found overall work stress, satisfaction with achievement and involvement, and satisfaction with interpersonal relations to be predictors of depersonalization. The initial study found satisfaction with interpersonal relations to be the best predictor of personal accomplishment. The present study found satisfaction with achievement and involvement was the best predictor of personal accomplishment.

Though the particular predictors identified in the two studies differ in relation to depersonalization and personal accomplishment, what appears consistent is the fact that, as Sarros and Friesen hypothesized, satisfaction facets do act as predictors of burnout. The differences noted may be a result of the modifications to the original Job Satisfaction Questionnaire itself or to differences between the populations of the two studies and the political climates in which they function.

Conclusions

The role of assistant principal is a difficult and demanding one as evidenced by the level of emotional exhaustion presently being experienced throughout the province. There are substantial differences noted between administrator stress levels in previous research and the present study which suggests that stress is either on the rise or that tangible differences do exist between the principalship and the assistant principalship. In either case, the stress levels are unacceptably high. This information should prove valuable to individuals planning to pursue an administrative career, to the boards that hire them, and to the district administrators that work with them. Awareness of the stresses involved allows individuals to contemplate, prior to entering the field, whether this is an acceptable lifestyle and whether they feel suited to dealing with the stress involved. Awareness of the current stress levels of assistant principals alerts boards and district administrators to the need to re-evaluate the role of the assistant principal, to determine what additional support can be given, and to explore the possibility of change.

The study has identified critical areas of need, such as advancement opportunities, promotion methods, evaluation procedures, work load and tasks associated with the job, that have a strong impact on the job satisfaction of the individuals involved. This gives boards and district administrators a focus for re-assessment and intervention.

Finally, the finding that over half of B. C. assistant principals are highly satisfied with their positions and that three quarters experience high personal accomplishment, regardless of the high stress levels and specific areas of low

satisfaction, is reassuring. It demonstrates that there are rewards in this very demanding role and that it is still a career path worthy of consideration.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Action

It is important both for the well-being of the individual administrator involved and the education system itself that the role of assistant principal be re-examined with a view to efforts to decrease job stress and increase job satisfaction.

Therefore, it is the recommendation of this study that:

1. In an effort to more adequately prepare beginning administrators for their role, universities or administrative training facilities should include as a part of the training program:

    a) courses which emphasize communication skills, conflict resolution skills, and consultative decision making

    b) courses which teach stress management and personal well-being

2. Districts provide inservice for administrators in the areas of communication skills, conflict resolution skills, consultative decision making and stress management.

3. The various facets of the assistant principalship role be re-examined within school districts, *in a consultative manner,* to determine that:

a) administrative tasks are delegated in a proportionate relationship to the time allotments given

b) administrative tasks delegated are balanced in nature and allow for positive involvement and contributions and are not limited to disciplinarian or clerical tasks.

4. Assistant principals' be included in the regular District Principals Meetings to encourage a sense of team and to provide a support network.

5. Districts encourage administrative transfers within the district every 5 years to promote varied experiences and opportunities.

6. Districts re-examine evaluation methods and work to develop, in consultation with school-based administrators, clear consistent evaluative techniques and procedures.

7. Districts offer early retirement plans to stimulate opportunity for advancement within districts.

8. Districts re-examine promotion policy and work to develop and communicate clear, understandable criteria for promotions.

9. Districts offer incentives such as exchange programs, deferred salary plans and personal leaves to broaden the opportunities available to school administrators.

Recommendations for Further Study

As with most studies, questions arise or remain to be be examined. In this study three specific areas are identified for further exploration. First, though there appear to be differing levels of stress for B.C. principals and assistant principals there are also different possible explanations as to the cause of these apparent differences. Second, though significant relationships were demonstrated between job satisfaction and stress they were not consistent with the findings of the Sarros and Friesen's (1987) study. As well, with these relationships in mind, the question arises as to whether increased administrator satisfaction would decrease perceived stress. Finally, the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire itself was queried both in regard to the number of factors used in some of the satisfaction subscales and in regard to possible differences resulting from use with differing populations (ie teachers and administrators).

Therefore, it is the recommended that there be:

1. Further study to determine whether the stress levels of all B. C. administrators are on the rise or whether the disparity noted between the present study and earlier research results from differences between the two school-based administrative positions.

2. Further study of the relationship between job satisfaction and overall work stress with a view to determining whether:

a) there are specific job satisfaction facets that consistently predict stress

b) increased satisfaction has a beneficial effect on work stress.

3. Further study of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire to determine:

a) consistency and reliability

b) to determine the results of use with different populations (ie teaching staff and administrators).

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Appendix A

Letter of Endorsement

From

The British Columbia Principals' and Vice Principals' Association

B.C. Principals' & Vice-Principals' Association

Quality Leadership in Education

March 23, 1993

Ms. Linda Leibel
Apartment 1205
327 Maitland Street
Victoria, B.C.
V9A 7G7

Dear Linda:

This letter is to support your research study, **Assistant Principals - Job Satisfaction and Stress Levels.**

The Association is actively involved in developing programs centered around "Wellness". This involvement has arisen from concerns by members that although the position of principal or vice-principal is indeed rewarding, it has become increasingly stressful.

Your study will add to the information about this concern. The data will be useful when developing programs to reduce stress and increase job satisfaction.

On behalf of the BCPVPA I would urge those members of our Association, randomly selected, to participate by completing your questionnaire.

The association would appreciate a copy of your completed research study.

Yours truly,

[redacted]

Frank Roemer
Assistant General Secretary

FR/jo

LL0323.FR
jo

#1550 - 1185 West Georgia Street, Vancouver, B.C. V6E 4E6 (604) 689-3399 / 1-800-663-0432 Fax: 689-3880

Appendix B

Information Letter to School Superintendents

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA
P.O. BOX 3010, VICTORIA, B.C., CANADA V8W 3N4
TELEPHONE (604) 721-7766, FAX (604) 721-7767

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

March 31, 1993.

Mr. J. Imrich,
Superintendent of Schools,
Prince George District School Board Office,
1894 9th Avenue,
Prince George, B. C. V2M 1L7

Dear Mr. Imrich:

Please allow me to introduce myself. My name is Linda Leibel and I am presently completing my second year of secondment, as a Teacher in Residence, with the University of Victoria. I presently hold a B. Ed and an M.A. in Counselling Psychology but felt that my presence at the university presented a perfect opportunity to pursue an Educational Administrative Degree. At this time I have finished the course work and have begun the research, which is the final requirement for completion of this degree.

I have designed a provincial study that examines stress levels and job satisfaction of Assistant Principals in British Columbia. With the assistance of the B.C.P.V.P.A. I have randomly selected 250 assistant principals throughout British Columbia (approximately 33% of the total population) who will receive questionnaires relating to this research.

The random selection means there is a good possibility that some of the assistant principals in your district could receive a questionnaire. I am contacting superintendents in all 75 districts to let them know of the study, to provide some information regarding the study, and to determine whether there are any concerns relating to this research.

Comparatively little research is available on the role of the assistant principal, though there is much speculation that the position entails considerable stress. The research that does exist in regard to stress of educators concentrates on teachers and principals. Determination of stress levels and identification of aspects of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is an initial step in clarifying the present situation and laying the foundation for future examination of the role of assistant principal. I wish to assure you that all replies will be completely anonymous, no district, school, or assistant principal will be identified in the results.

I have included the questionnaire which subjects will receive and a supporting letter from the B.C.P.V.P.A. If you have concerns or would like more information you can contact me by writing to the above address, or you may phone 721-7766 or 360-0428. You may also contact my university supervisor, Dr. Peter Murphy, at 721-7211. If I do not hear from you by April 23rd I will take that as an indication that you do not have concerns regarding this study or objections to assistant principals in your district participating in this research project.

I will be sending out questionnaires once I receive approval from the university Committee on Research and Other Activities Involving Human Subject. I am anticipating this process taking place the last week of April.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Linda Leibel, B.Ed, M.A.
Teacher in Residence
University of Victoria

Appendix C

Subject Questionnaire

B.C. Assistant Principals: Job Satisfaction and Stress Levels

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Sex: Male ____ Female ____

2. Age: 25-35 ____ 36-45 ____ 46-55 ____ Over 55 ___

3. Marital Status: single ____ married ____ separated / divorced ____

4. Number of children: birth to 6 yrs ____ 7 yrs to 12 yrs ____ 13 yrs to 18 yrs ____
(at home)

5. Education level: B.Ed. ____ M.Ed. / M.A ____ Other _____

6. Years of administrative experience: _____

7. Years in present position: _____

8. Percentage of administrative time: _____ teaching time: _____

9. Size of the school (number of students): _____

10. Type of school: Elememtary ____ Middle ____ Junior High ____
Senior High ____ Other _____

11. How often do you exercise: daily ____ 2/3 times weekly ____ once a week ____
no regular routine ____

SECTION B : EDUCATORS STRESS SURVEY

Please rate each statement according to the following scale.

Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

How Often
0 - 6

1. ____ I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. ____ I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. ____ I feel fatiqued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. ____ I can easily understand how my students feel about things.
5. ____ I feel I treat some students impersonally.
6. ____ Working with people all day is a strain for me.
7. ____ I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.
8. ____ I feel burned out from my work.
9. ____ I feel I'm positively influencing prople lives through my work.
10. ____ I've become more callous towards people since I took this job.
11. ____ I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
12. ____ I feel very energetic.
13. ____ I feel frustrated by my job.
14. ____ I feel I'm working too hard at my job.
15. ____ I don't really care what happens to some of my students.
16. ____ Working with people directly puts too much pressure on me.
17. ____ I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.
18. ____ I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.
19. ____ I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
20. ____ I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.
21. ____ In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.
22. ____ I feel students blame me for some of their problems.

Administrative use only cat. cat. cat.

EE: _____ _____ DP: _____ _____ PA: _____ _____

(Maslch Burnout Inventory, 1981)

SECTION C : JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONAIRE

Please rate your degree of satisfaction with your present position according to the following scale:

Dissatisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Considerably Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
0	1	2	3	4	5

Circle the selected number.

1. Job security	0	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to help other people	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chance give direction to other people	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. The opportunity to use your abilities	0	1	2	3	4	5
5. Fringe benefits	0	1	2	3	4	5
6. Your salary	0	1	2	3	4	5
7. The amount of work required	0	1	2	3	4	5
8. Advancement opportunities	0	1	2	3	4	5
9. Freedom to use your own judgment	0	1	2	3	4	5
10. Freedom to use your own methods	0	1	2	3	4	5
11. Relationships with subordinates	0	1	2	3	4	5
12. Relationships with colleagues	0	1	2	3	4	5
13. Relationships with superordinates	0	1	2	3	4	5
14. Methods used in promotion	0	1	2	3	4	5
15. Methods used in evaluating performance	0	1	2	3	4	5
16. Extra tasks associated with your position	0	1	2	3	4	5
17. Physical working conditions	0	1	2	3	4	5
18. The reinforcement you get for doing a good job	0	1	2	3	4	5
19. Degree of autonomy	0	1	2	3	4	5
20. Sense of accomplishment	0	1	2	3	4	5
21. Degree of involvement in important decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5
22. Degree of accountability for your work	0	1	2	3	4	5
23. Your status in the community	0	1	2	3	4	5
24. Recognition by others of your work	0	1	2	3	4	5
25. Social relationships at work	0	1	2	3	4	5
26. Intellectual stimulation	0	1	2	3	4	5
27. Overall satisfaction with your job	0	1	2	3	4	5

(Friesen Job Satisfaction Scale, 1986)

SECTION D: PERSONAL RESPONSE

1. How often do you perceive your job as being stressful?

never seldom sometimes often always

2. Personally, how much stress do you experience as an assistant principal?

none at all slight moderate considerable extreme

3.. Which three aspects of your job are the most stressful?

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

4. Which three aspects of your job are the most rewarding?

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

16. If you were free to choose, would you:

a) return to a classroom full time ____
b) stay in your present position ____
c) change to another job in education ____
d) change fields ____
e) undecided ____

17. Please add any comments you may have regarding this study.

THANK YOU ONCE AGAIN FOR YOUR TIME AND ASSISTANCE

Appendix D

Information Letter to Subjects

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA
P.O. BOX 3010, VICTORIA, B.C., CANADA V8W 3N4
TELEPHONE (604) 721-7766, FAX (604) 721-7767

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Dear Colleague:

Please allow me to introduce myself. My name is Linda Leibel and I am presently completing my second year of secondment, as a Teacher in Residence, with the University of Victoria. I presently hold a B.Ed and an M.A. in Counselling Psychology but felt that my presence at the university presented a perfect opportunity to pursue an Educational Administrative Degree. At this time I have finished the course work and this research is my final requirement for completion of this degree.

I have designed a provincial study that examines stress levels and job satisfaction of Assistant Principals in British Columbia. With the assistance of the B.C.P.V.P.A. I have randomly selected 250 Assistant Principals throughout British Columbia (approximately 33% of the total population) who will receive questionnaires relating to this research.

Comparatively little research is available on the role of the Assistant Principal. The research that does exist in regards to stress of educators concentrates on teachers and principals. There is much speculation that the role of assistant principal entails considerable stress. Determination of stress levels and identification of aspects of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction are an initial step in clarifying the present situation and laying the foundation for future examination of the role of Assistant Principal.

I realize that as a professional your time is limited, however I believe that this study will provide important information regarding the Assistant Principalship in British Columbia. To make this study valid a high return rate is necessary and your voice needs to be heard. I therefore urge you to take the time to participate and wish to assure you that your reply will be completely anonymous. No district, school or Assistant Principal will be identified in the results. No district personnel will have access to completed questionnaires. Participation in this study will not effect your employment or career advancement.

If you would like more information or have concerns regarding this study you may contact me by writing to the above address, or you may phone 721-7766 or 360-0428.

Thank you for taking the time to read and consider this information, and hopefully for agreeing to complete the attached questionnaire and provide the needed data for this study.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could return the questionnaire in the enclosed envelope no later than May 21st.

Sincerely Yours,

Linda Leibel, B.Ed., M.A.
Teacher in Residence

Appendix E

Comparison of Factor Analysis

Appendix E
Comparison of Factor Analysis

Alberta Study			Present Study		
	Factor 1			**Factor 1**	
	Status & Recognition			**Recognition**	
23	status in the community	.69	26	intellectual stimulation	.78
24	recognition by others	.67	18	praise for doing a good job	.61
26	intellectual stimulation	.66	24	recognition by others	.57
20	sense of accomplishment	.66	17	physical working conditions	.54
21	invol. in import. decisions	.52			
22	accountability for own work	.51			
18	praise for doing a good job	.48			
	Factor 2			**Factor 2**	
	Autonomy			**Autonomy**	
9	freedom to use own judgment	.81	9	freedom to use own judgment	.85
10	freedom to use own methods	.78	10	freedom to use own methods	.80
19	degree of autonomy	.71	19	degree of autonomy	.79
			21	invol. in import. decisions	.72
			22	accountability for own work	.46
	Factor 3			**Factor 3**	
	Interpersonal Relationships			**Interpersonal Relationships**	
12	relationships with colleagues	.85	12	relationships with colleagues	.77
25	social relationships at work	.70	25	social relationships at work	.70
11	relationships with subordinates	.70	11	relationships with subordinates	.79
13	relationships with superordin.	.56			
	Factor 4			**Factor 4**	
	Advancement			**Advancement**	
14	methods used in promotion	.83	14	methods used in promotion	.88
15	methods used in evaluation	.66	15	methods used in evaluation	.65
8	advancement opportunites	.63	8	advancement opportunities	.84
			13	relationships with superordin.	.50
	Factor 5			**Factor 5**	
	Security and Involvement			**Achievement and Involvement**	
1	job security	.71	2	chance to help other people	.79
2	chance to help other people	.63	3	chance to direct other people	.76
3	chance to direct other people	.58	4	opportunity to use abilities	.66
4	opportunity to use abilities	.51	20	sense of accomplishment	.51
	Factor 6			**Factor 6**	
	Work Load			**Work Load**	
7	amount of work required	.81	7	amount of work required	.56
16	extra tasks assoc. with the job	.75	16	extra tasks assoc. with the job	.63
17	physical working conditions	.48	23	status in the community	.70
	Factor 7			**Factor 7**	
	Salary and Benefits			**Salary and Benefits**	
6	salary	.82	6	salary	.89
5	fringe benefits	.79	5	fringe benefits	.90

Appendix F

Job Satisfaction Subscales

Appendix F

Job Satisfaction Subscales (N=149)

	Dissatisfied	Slight Sat.	Moder. Sat	Consid. Sat.	Very Sat.	Extreme Sat
Recognition	3%	9%	31%	38%	18%	0%
Autonomy	2%	5%	21%	38%	30%	4%
Interper. Relat.	1%	6%	11%	30%	44%	8 %
Advancement	9%	26%	27%	30%	8%	0%
Achiev. & Inv..	1%	5%	18%	37%	34%	5%
Work Load	4%	21%	31%	34%	9%	0%
Salary & Ben.	7%	11%	19%	29%	24%	9%
Overall Satisf.	1%	4%	15%	28%	41%	11%

Appendix G

Individual Items

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Appendix G

Individual Items - Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (N=149)

	Dissatisfied	Slight Sat.	Moder. Sat	Consid. Sat.	Very Sat.	Extrem Sat.
Job Security	5%	6%	11%	16%	36%	25%
Opport. Help Others	1%	1%	11%	19%	42%	25%
Opport. Give Direction	1%	3%	14%	29%	36%	16%
Opport. Use Abilities	1%	8%	13%	24%	35%	20%
Fringe Benefits	9%	10%	14%	24%	32%	11%
Salary	9%	7%	13%	27%	32%	12%
Amount of Work Req'd	20%	16%	24%	28%	11%	1%
Advancement Opport.	15%	22%	26%	18%	16%	3%
Free. To Use Judgment	3%	6%	11%	21%	42%	16%
Free. Use Own Methods	3%	3%	10%	24%	38%	21%
Relation. Subordinates	2%	3%	9%	19%	42%	24%
Relation. Colleagues	1%	2%	7%	17%	40%	32%
Relation. Superordinates	3%	11%	17%	24%	34%	9%
Methods of Promotion	24%	14%	24%	18%	17%	2%
Methods of Evaluation	14%	10%	18%	25%	24%	6%
Extra Tasks	13%	14%	22%	31%	19%	0%
Physical Work. Cond's	5%	11%	11%	22%	31%	18%
Reinforcement Given	11%	12%	20%	24%	26%	6%
Degree of Autonomy	3%	4%	12%	23%	46%	11%
Sen. of Accomplishment	1%	5%	9%	32%	38%	14%
Involve. in Decisions	2%	7%	12%	29%	32%	17%
Accoun't for Own Work	1%	4%	9%	31%	43%	12%

* values across rows may not add up to 100% as some subjects did not answer all questions

Individual Items - Job Satisfaction Questionnaire Con't

	Dissatisfied	Slight Sat.	Moder. Sat.	Consid. Sat.	Very Sat.	Extrem Sat
Status in Community	1%	3%	15%	32%	35%	13%
Recognition of Work	4%	7%	23%	34%	24%	7%
Social Relations	2%	5%	11%	25%	42%	14%
Intellectual Stimulation	1%	4%	16%	34%	36%	8%
Overall Satisfaction	1%	4%	15%	28%	41%	11%

* values across rows may not add up to 100% as some subjects did not answer all questions

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Author 

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May 15, 1994