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UMI

DISSERTATION

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION

Submitted by

Wanda A. Lenox

School of Education

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Colorado State University

Fort Collins, Colorado

Spring 1999

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Colorado State University

December 9, 1998

WE HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE DISSERTATION PREPARED
UNDER OUR SUPERVISION BY WANDA A. LENOX ENTITLED
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION BE
ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING IN PART REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

Committee on Graduate Work

Cathy Kennedy

Robert W. Richburg

George A. Morgan

Charles F. Carter

Advisor

Rich Stunby

Department Head/Director

ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

Organizational Culture and Teacher Job Satisfaction

The purpose of this study was to examine the school organizational culture and the job satisfaction of elementary school teachers in one large urban school district. This study also examined the relationship of school demographic variables and student achievement to school culture and job satisfaction. The school district represented a student population of over 66,000. There were 37,039 students in the elementary schools, 13,749 students in the middle schools, and 15,746 students in the high schools.

Data collected with the School Culture Survey (1992) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (1967) were analyzed using descriptive and correlational statistics. School demographic variables (socioeconomic status of school, size of school, and average years of teaching service) and student achievement were also included. The teachers from 22 elementary schools were used to generate the data for this study.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form measured three levels of satisfaction; general/overall job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, and extrinsic job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert Scale.

The School Culture Survey (SCS) total scores were measured on a 5-point Likert Scale in four distinct areas of cultural strength; "strong" culture,

“moderately strong” culture, “somewhat weak” culture, and “weak” culture. The schools involved in this study had a mean score of 89.67 (“moderately strong” culture) on the SCS.

The strength of the school organizational culture (OC) and teacher job satisfaction were related in the areas of general job satisfaction ($r = .59$), intrinsic job satisfaction ($r = .36$), and extrinsic job satisfaction ($r = .59$). Organizational culture and the size of the school were moderately correlated ($r = .65$). There was no relationship between the OC, job satisfaction, and student achievement.

The average years of teaching service for the district under study was 6-10 years. OC and years of teaching service were not related ($r = .1003$). Teacher job satisfaction on all three levels was not related to years of teaching service (general job satisfaction, $r = .0196$, intrinsic job satisfaction, $r = .1308$, and extrinsic job satisfaction, $r = -.0038$).

The supplemental findings indicated that student achievement was related to socioeconomic status and the size of the school. In addition, it appears that large schools tend to have strong organizational cultures.

Wanda A. Lenox
School of Education
Colorado State University
Fort Collins, CO 80523
Spring 1999

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Is America serious about educational excellence in its public schools? The current public education curriculum indicates that America does not care about the education of its youth. For over a decade policy makers, business leaders, and educators have been calling for a major overhaul of the nation's public educational system. National reports of the 1980s have identified and publicized the many problems and imperfections of the national school system (Committee for Economic Development, 1994; Acker-Hocevar, 1996; Boyer, 1983). Committee for Economic Development trustees (1994) stated in their document that "when it comes to public education, our nation has lost its sense of priorities" (p. x). The national focus has been on mandates, financial issues, and legislation instead of improving student learning and achievement. Deal (1985) indicated that factors such as special interest groups, stronger teacher associations, state departments of education, collective bargaining, salary agendas, and workplace conditions had weakened school organizational culture over the past decade. Failure to recognize priorities has created a school system in need of change.

The American educational system has experienced difficulty recruiting and retaining quality teachers. The literature has supported the belief that teachers leave the profession on a regular basis because they are dissatisfied

for various reasons (Corcoran 1986; Harris & Associates, 1992, Raschke, Dedrick, Strathe, and Hawkes, 1985). Higher education institutions have failed to attract future teachers (Corcoran, 1986). Rosenholtz (1985) and Shin and Reyes (1991) concluded that school culture has a significant impact on teacher commitment. Firestone and Wilson (1984) have denoted that committed teachers who continued to work at their schools were emotionally tied to the organization, followed norms and rules, and exerted substantial effort to ensure that students were successful and the goals and objectives of the organization were realized. Shin and Reyes (1991) have stated that principals needed to work on creating job satisfaction before teachers developed a sense of commitment. A student's opportunity for success and the acquisition of academic skills are greatly influenced by the culture of the school, "Essentially the culture of schools is the foundation" (Coyle & Witcher 1992, p. 392).

When teachers were supportive of their environment, students achieved, test scores improved, and the organization benefited from their commitment. School reform began to transpire when talented teachers were recruited to serve and conditions were supportive of retention (Corcoran, 1986; Harris & Associates, 1992; Ingersoll & Rossi, 1995). Corcoran's (1986) study on improving the quality of work life concluded that teachers performed better in effective schools when they experienced incentives such as recognition, narrowly defined work responsibilities, and staff participation in decisions affecting their work. Teacher productivity increased when incentives were visible.

An organization must strive toward developing a supportive environment before teachers develop a sense of organizational commitment. This developed commitment has an impact on school culture and job satisfaction

(Rosenholtz, 1989; Shin & Reyes, 1991). Because this study wants to examine both school culture and teacher job satisfaction, an initial review of the research in these areas follow in the next two sections.

Organizational Culture

Many studies have suggested that organizational culture has a great impact on a company's effectiveness and productivity. These studies indicate that successful organizations have had strong organizational cultures, possess a strong sense of direction based upon shared vision and values, norms of behavior, teamwork, and have high standards for productivity and performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Johnson, Snyder, Anderson, & Johnson, 1994).

Schein (1992) and Deal and Kennedy (1982) note that successful organizations had cultures which derived from three sources: (a) the beliefs, values, and assumptions of founders of the organization; (b) the learning experiences of group members as their organization evolved; and (c) new beliefs, values, and assumptions brought in by new members and leaders.

The literature on organizational culture has implications for the school setting. A school's organizational culture and a corporation's organizational culture have common characteristics. They both possess shared values and beliefs, a common mission and vision, heroes and heroines, customs and traditions, and history. Both organizational cultures influence behavior and productivity (Deal, 1985; Schein, 1992). A school's culture influences behavior, affects productivity, and produces a clear image of the school to the parents and community (Deal, 1985). Deal and Peterson (1990) state that school culture reflects the values, beliefs and traditions of the school community, which is essential to the relationships between students, parents, teachers, and principals. Peters and Waterman (1982) indicate that successful business

organizations have cultures that find value in people, service, quality, and innovation. Deal and Kennedy (1982) observe that a characteristic of high-performing companies is a strong identity consistent with the demands of the environment. A strong organizational culture in the business and school setting share the following characteristics: (a) strong leadership, (b) clear focus, (c) emphasis placed on the client, (d) beliefs, values, and a set of basic assumptions, (e) a culture that defines what is possible, (f) cohesive focus, (g) monitored progress, (h) empowered employees, and (i) high production (Committee for Economic Development, 1994; Erickson, 1991; Norris, 1994). The culture of a school has a direct impact on its effectiveness (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Current studies addressing school effectiveness have supported the importance of school culture. Effective schools and forward moving schools have values and beliefs supported by all teachers in the building (Norris, 1994). Rosenholtz (1989) states that effective schools are high-consensus schools. In high-consensus schools, the common concern for student academic progress stimulates teachers to work together, share instructional strategies, engage in continuous improvement, support clearly defined goals, and develop strategies to achieve goals collaboratively with principals. Purkey and Smith (1982) indicate that school culture is an important element in increasing academic achievement and test scores.

Levine (1985) states that exemplary schools had leaders with a strong sense of mission, shared values, effective communication link, clear codes of behavior, and teachers who are treated as professionals with a great deal of autonomy, high expectations, and optimism. McCurdy (1983) indicated that the key to school reform was to move toward the development of effective schools.

In effective schools principals saw a direct relationship between their actions and the attitude of the faculty. They exercise considerable influence over the atmosphere of their schools by establishing quality relationships and by building confidence and trust. Lambert (1988) indicates in an open letter to principals that she believes that an effective school culture is developed by the people within the school organization. The collective synergy of those working within the organization to accomplish a common goal develops an effective school. The way to school effectiveness was through the building of a healthy school culture.

Bolender (1997) states that schools are composites of teaching and learning relationships, and interactions among students, staff, parents, and community. A positive school image is influenced by the effectiveness of learning and teaching within the school. The future of a school is based on the community's perception of its image, and the opportunity for improvement and growth depends on this image.

A report developed by the Committee for Economic Development (1994) indicates that a productive climate with high academic results was a result of (a) a climate supportive of a collaborative organization, (b) goal setting, (c) a clear vision based on academic standards, (d) developing standards for academic performance, (e) developing programs based on student needs, and (f) involvement in curriculum and instruction.

The climate is developed by the organization. The climate reflects the internal and external struggles and challenges, the type of people who make up the organization, the work processes, the means of communication, and the exercise of authority within the individual organization (Ochitwa, 1973). Climate represents a collection of perceived feelings, getting along, respect, or

happiness in the work environment. Climate is the collective whole of satisfaction and productivity within a school (Ott, 1989). Climate affects communication within an organization (McMurray, 1994). Organizational climate sets out to describe “those perceptions that are psychologically meaningful, and that people agree upon, which characterize systems, practices and procedures of an organization” (Schneider & Synder as cited in McMurray, 1994, p. 5). Organizational culture on the other hand, represents a set of cognitions that are shared by all members of a social unit and are acquired through social learning and the socialization processes (Kabanoff as cited in McMurray, 1994).

Student learning is enhanced by a strong and effective culture that supports learning through continued development, and promotes quality and purpose. Seymour (1993) indicated that an organization that enhance the continual development of its members, encourage sharing and reinforces a common understanding of quality within the organization possesses a quality culture. Cameron, Peterson, Julia, Winn, Spencer, and Putten (1994) state that quality is determined by the meaning derived by each member and how it relates to the objectives of the organization. Chance (1992) indicates that a strong organizational structure is one that embraces values and has, norms that direct students and staff toward the goal of teaching and learning.

Rosenholtz (1989), Karpicke & Murphy (1996), and Lambert (1991) suggest that a healthy culture has a clearly defined purpose and goals which are understood by all stake holders. They also indicated that a healthy culture that nurtures student learning goes far beyond a healthy climate. Peters and Waterman (as cited in Bodnar, 1993) state that strong cultures are more likely to be associated with organizational effectiveness than weak cultures. Strong

cultures can be deliberately created. What goes on in an organization is guided by the cultural qualities of shared meanings, invisible assumptions, and unwritten rules.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is closely related to organizational culture according to the literature. Authors have linked job satisfaction to teacher motivation, school culture, academic achievement, test scores, teacher retention, stress, burnout, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, salaries, and absenteeism. Deal and Peterson (1990) and Rosenholtz (1985) found a relationship between school culture, teacher motivation, and job satisfaction. In schools, teacher performance has an impact on the work environment. Deal and Peterson (1990) suggest that school culture is closely connected with student test scores and academic achievement, as well as teacher satisfaction and motivation. Rosenholtz (1985) conducted a study of inner city schools and recommends that principals develop a nurturing culture which supports the human aspect of the organization. She implies that the major asset of any school is its staff. The central focus of the school should be to motivate its teaching staff to continue to make contributions to it. In order to recruit, retain, and to constantly refresh the teaching staff, an organization must rely on its organizational goals.

Job satisfaction of teachers was a topic of several studies in the 1980's and 1990's. In the literature, there are authors who believe that job satisfaction is an important element in school reform and teacher retention. Lortie's (1986) study focused on the decline in teacher satisfaction in Dade County, Florida. He found a variety of external and internal factors that damaged the status of teachers. Lortie (1986) also reported that, 76% of teachers responded positively when asked about their job satisfaction. There was a relationship

between intrinsic and extrinsic factors and job satisfaction. Kim and Loadman (1994) investigated predictors of teacher job satisfaction. A sample of 2,054 practicing teachers participated in the study. They found that the identified predictors of teacher job satisfaction were associated with both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Bridges (1980) indicates that there is a relationship between teacher job satisfaction and absenteeism. Teachers pleased with their jobs were rarely absent.

Ingersoll and Rossi (1995) conducted a study on teacher turnover which was closely related to job satisfaction. They found that (a) private schools experienced higher teacher turnover rates than public schools, (b) both public and private schools with a student population of under 300 experienced the highest turnover, and (c) turnover rates were also higher in public schools where 50% of the students qualified for free or reduced lunch. The study suggested that dissatisfaction with lower salaries and fewer benefits could have contributed to higher turnover rates in small public and private schools.

A study conducted by Harris and Associates (1992) was designed to measure the experiences of new public school teachers who began their teaching career in 1990-91. A second survey compared how these first year job experiences affected their attitudes toward teaching. They found that teachers' attitudes became less optimistic in their second year of teaching. Teachers who were likely to leave the profession were more negative about the efforts of their colleagues. Others identified the lack of support and low salaries as other reasons for leaving the profession.

Job related stress is a big determinate in teacher burnout and job satisfaction. Research conducted by Hipps and Halpin (1991) implied that work environments must support positive conditions in order to retain teachers in the

profession. They identified five factors describing the dimensions of stress: (a) Job overload, (b) Subordinate-superordinate relationships, (c) Relationships with students, (d) Relationships with peers, and (e) Salary and compensation. This authors concluded that educators experienced a great deal of stress related to everyday job situations.

Raschke, Dedrick, Strathe, and Hawes (1985) identified teachers' stress and burnout to be significant factors in the satisfaction of elementary teachers. There was a strong desire to have more time to complete expected tasks. Lack of time negatively effected the environment. The work environment and conditions of the teachers' profession were also found to affect job satisfaction.

Many authors believe that the school environment must be supportive of a strong organizational culture that embraces learning and teaching. An environment should be supportive of human needs, respect differences and embrace collaboration. Purkey and Smith (1982) believe that the key to increasing student achievement is derived through school culture. Others indicate that strong leadership, open and effective communication, clear codes of behavior, high expectations for everyone in the organization, clear vision, collaboration, and professional interaction are characteristics associated with exemplary schools (Committee for Economic Development, 1994; Firestone & Wilson, 1984). Schools should develop an atmosphere responsive to maintaining a positive school culture, including incentives and opportunities for advancement (Corcoran, 1986). The total school culture is supported by a climate of values and norms that direct teaching and learning (Chance, 1992). Effective schools must be sensitive to the time restraints placed on teachers and supportive of an environment that minimizes stress, burnout, and excessive work load.

Need for the Study

Effective schools research support the belief that organizational culture and job satisfaction have an effect on academic achievement (Purkey & Smith, 1982; Silver, 1994). Deal (1985) and Sergiovanni (1996) state that school culture is a powerful component of school effectiveness. If not understood, culture could become a toxic and damaging force in an educational setting. The internal operation of the school is a major factor of effective schools. School effectiveness is driven by an understanding of the internal organizational structure. The development of a clear understanding of the existing culture is a vital element in the improvement of schools. Purkey and Smith (1982) indicate that culture is an identified factor in improving student achievement and test scores.

To move an organization forward, the principal must possess an understanding of the relationship between school culture, teacher satisfaction, and student achievement. Zatz (1994) indicates that cultural change is neither easy or error free. It requires time, effort, patience, and vigilance. The proponents of change must constantly model the expected behavior within the organization. Zatz (1994) states that complacency is a danger when changes start to take effect. There continues to be a need to develop new approaches to strengthen schools and increase student learning.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined the relationship between organizational culture, teacher job satisfaction, and student achievement in one urban school district in the state of Colorado. Twenty-two elementary school sites were used in this study. Demographic variables within the school districts were examined as they

related to school culture, job satisfaction, years of teaching service, and student achievement. To assist in this study, the following research questions were developed.

Research Questions

1. What is the strength of the organizational culture as measured by the School Culture Survey in selected elementary schools as perceived by teachers?
2. What is the perceived level of job satisfaction of elementary teachers in each school involved in the study as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form?
3. Is there a relationship between the strength of the schools' organizational culture and the level of teacher job satisfaction in selected elementary schools in one school district in Colorado?
4. Are there significant relationships between the strength of the school organizational culture and: (a) the socio economic level of the school, (b) the size of school and (c) the average years of service of teachers?
5. Are there significant relationships between the average level of job satisfaction as perceived by the teaching staff and: (a) the socioeconomic status of the school, (b) the size of school, and (c) the average years of teaching service?
6. Are there relationships between the strength of the school's organizational culture or the level of teacher job satisfaction and student achievement?

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in relation to this research:

1. The responses made by the teachers reflected the strength of the

organizational culture at their school sites.

2. Teachers participating in the study would honestly respond to the two instruments.

3. The responses made by teachers captured their perception of job satisfaction.

Delimitations

The following delimitations were made in relation to this research:

1. The study was confined to one school district in Colorado.
2. Only elementary teachers were selected to participate in the study.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, each of the following terms are defined:

1. **Basic assumptions** are the fundamental beliefs, values, and perceptions that have become so taken for granted that one finds little variation within a cultural unit. This assumption directs and guides the behavior of its members. It directs perceptions, feelings, and how one thinks (Schein, 1992).

2. **Stories** are series or a sequence of events in an organization's history. They are perceived to be historically factual. They communicate the organization's values, beliefs, and basic assumptions (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ott, 1989; Schein, 1992).

3. **Norms** are standards of expected and allowed behavior or speech within an organization. They also govern predictability and stability within an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ott, 1989; Schein, 1992).

4. **Values** are the conscious desires and wants by which an organization's choices are made. They are what support the concept as to why particular behavior exists; non-confrontable and non-debatable (Ott, 1989; Schein, 1992).

5. Organizational Culture is a collection of uniform beliefs, values, customs, traditions, and practices shared by members of the organization and transmitted from one generation of employees to another. The expectations originated from culture created norms of acceptable behavior and ways of doing things in the organization. It provides the reasons as to why people behave in a particular manner. An organization's culture is identical to an individual's personality (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Marcic, 1995; Ott, 1989; Schein, 1992).

6. Organizational Climate is an organization's personality, it consists of hopes, attitudes, biases, feeling tones, and organizational mood. It is a measure of whether one's expectations are being met within an organization (Ott, 1989).

7. Elementary school is the organization which educates students in pre-kindergarten through grade five.

8. Mission is the "why." Why do we exist? A statement that communicates an organization's purpose (Senge, 1990).

9. Vision is a picture of the future an organization strives to create or develop. (Senge, 1990).

10. Artifacts are material or non-material objects and patterns that communicate information about the organization's beliefs, values, assumptions, technology and ways of doing things, whether intentionally or unintentionally (Ott, 1989).

11. Principal is the administrator or leader of a school.

12. Extrinsic rewards are the dividends received by an individual from another (ie: monetary, financial, promotion, job status, bonus, prize, and praise).

13. Intrinsic reward are self gratifying dividends (ie: self actualization and self achievement).

14. Satisfiers are the factors that contribute to job satisfaction.
15. Dissatisfiers are the factors that do not contribute to job satisfaction.
16. Job Satisfaction is defined in terms of the overall job satisfaction of an elementary school teacher based on his/her responses to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (MSQ).

Organization of the Study

This research study consists of four further chapters, organized as followed: (a) Chapter II presents a review of the literature focusing on Theory of Organizational Culture, Organizational Culture and Climate, Elements of Organizational Culture, The Changing Culture of the Public Schools, Organizational Culture and Leadership, Organizational Culture and Effective Schools, Theory of Job Satisfaction, Theory of Motivation, Job Satisfaction Research and Teachers, and Summary; (b) Chapter III describes the research design and the methods and procedures utilized; (c) Chapter IV includes a presentation of the research findings and analysis of the data; and (d) Chapter V consists of a summary of findings, the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data, and the recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

Introduction

Organizational Culture(OC) and Teacher Job Satisfaction (JS) is the focus of this literature review. This review is not intended to be a thorough review of all of the literature in the area of OC and JS but only the literature identified as relevant to OC and JS. The review also addresses literature on effective schools and how they are related to strong OC and JS. The review of the literature is organized as follows: (1) Theory of organizational culture (OC); (2) Organizational Culture and Climate; (3) Elements of OC; (4) Changing Culture of Schools; (5) OC and Leadership; (6) OC and Effective Schools; (7) Theory of Job Satisfaction (JS); (8) Theory of Motivation; (9) Job Satisfaction Research and Teachers; and (10) Summary.

Theory of Organizational Culture

Deep cultural undercurrents structure life in subtle but highly consistent ways that are not consciously formulated. Like the invisible jet streams in the skies that determine the course of a storm, these currents shape our lives; yet their influence is only beginning to be identified. (Edward T. Hall, as cited in Adler, 1991, p. 39).

An organization's effectiveness is determined by its culture. Many strong organizations have similar characteristics that make them effective. Various

studies indicate that successful organizations have strong cultures, shared vision and values, clearly articulated norms of behavior, and high standards for performance (Deal & Kennedy (1982). An organization's culture has an influence on behavior, traditions, beliefs, and relationships (Deal & Peterson, 1990).

Valentine (1991) has compared culture to the human personality. He states that culture represents the essential meaning of an organization. Culture could be compared to an organization in the same manner as personality could be compared to an individual. Culture symbolizes the personality of the school that is reflected through the values and beliefs of the members of the organization. It defines the mission and goals of the organization and establishes the beliefs held in high esteem within the school. Culture is the mind set of the members of the organization when they are asked to articulate their basic understanding of the purpose of the school and beliefs on which that purpose is built. Schein (1992) indicated that culture was an invisible, pervasive presence of being that was felt by members of the organization and ultimately embraces everything that the group must deal with. Bennis, Mason, and Mitroff (1985) stated that an organization's culture consists of what members believe about what works and does not work. Kilmann, Saxton, and Serpa indicated that culture was the social energy that direct or fails to direct the organization of existence (Kilmann, Saxton and Serpa as cited in Bodnar, 1993).

Culture is identified as a part of every existing organization. Culture is a complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, laws, morals, customs, and habits acquired by individuals of society (Adler, 1991; Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952; Ott, 1989). Culture is a way of life of a group of people within

an organization who exercise learned patterns of behavior which are handed down from one generation to another through language, action, and artifacts. Culture is the nature of the organization. It is simply the way things are (Adler, 1991; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Gutknecht & Miller, 1986; Mid-continent Regional Education Laboratory, 1992). Ott (1989) has compared culture to a puzzle. He believes that organizational culture is not just another piece of a puzzle, but rather, it is the puzzle. Norris (1994) and Erickson (1991) indicated that culture develops over a period of time. Culture becomes comfortable, natural, unobservable, and eventually taken for granted over time.

Sandelands (1994) stated that culture was those specific ideas or objects that identified members of one particular group from another. Culture could be transformed into symbols, heroes and rituals. The core foundation of an organizational culture is formed by its values. The members of an organization embrace and share the values of the organization. The behavior of the members is aligned with the beliefs of the organization. The operating rules of the organization are managed by the culture.

Galpin (1996) thought of culture as a mosaic of interrelated elements. As these elements interact on a daily basis they collectively create the organizational culture. He has identified ten components that collectively created an operational illustration of organizational culture: (a) Rules and policies, (b) Goals and measurements, (c) Customs and norms, (d) Training, (e) Ceremonies and events, (f) Management behaviors, (g) Rewards and recognition, (h) Communication, (i) Physical environment, and (j) Organizational structure (Galpin, 1996, p. 84).

Erickson (1991) stated that culture consisted of many small chunks of knowledge that were stored as a large pool of information within the social

structure. The information created by the social structure is so massive in scope and content, that it is impossible for an individual to learn all the knowledge available within the group or organization.

Schein (1992) indicated that basic assumptions, values, and artifacts were important when analyzing organizational culture. The basic assumptions are those deeply embedded unconscious beliefs that communicate how an organization operates. Values on the other hand, are orally spoken beliefs about the rules and norms of the organization. And finally, artifacts are visible changes that formulate the physical view of the culture. Liedtke (1995) stated that the surface level of any organization has artifacts that represented values. Artifacts represent language, stories and myths, rituals and ceremonies, norms, the physical environment, and management practices of the organization.

Ott (1989) indicated that all organizations were different and possessed a different set of basic assumptions unique to their individual cultures. He also stated that culture strength was unique to every organization. Organizational culture (OC) is identified by the following indicators:

1. Organizational culture is the culture that exists in an organization, something akin to a societal culture.
2. It is made up of such things as values, beliefs, assumptions, perceptions, behavioral norms, artifacts, and patterns of behavior.
3. It is a socially constructed, unseen, and unobservable force behind organizational activities.
4. It is a social energy that moves organizations members to act.
5. It is a unifying theme that provides meaning, direction, and mobilization for organization members.
6. It functions as an organizational control mechanism, informally approving or prohibiting behaviors. (p. 50)

Ott (1989) stated that a common definition of OC was not agreed upon in the literature. He believes there are five basic assumptions of OC.

1. Organizational cultures exists.

2. Each organizational culture is relatively unique.
3. Organizational culture is a socially constructed concept.
4. Organizational culture provides organization members with a way of understanding and making sense of events and symbols.
5. Organizational culture is a power lever for guiding organizational behavior. It functions as organizational control mechanisms, informally approving or prohibiting some patterns of behavior. (p. 54)

Schein (1992) indicated the word culture may be related to the norms, values, behavior patterns, rituals, and traditions of an organization. The word culture has two critical elements that add stability to an organization and these elements are, structural ability and patterning or integration. Structural stability in a group indicate that the existing culture is less conscious, less tangible, and less visible in the organization. Patterning or integration of elements into a larger paradigm has the tendency to connect the various elements and exists at a deeper level of the organization. The patterning and integration are the essence of what we refer to as culture. A culture is developed when there is enough shared history to form a set of shared assumptions. Shared assumptions gain continuous power due to their ability to operate outside of awareness. Once formed and taken for granted, assumptions become a defining property of the organization. When shared assumptions exists in an organization, they are taught to new members. The power of culture becomes visible because assumptions are shared and mutually reinforced.

Organizational Culture and Climate

Culture and climate are used to describe the existing state of an organization. Authors identify various characteristics associated with the organizational environment and the perceived condition. It could be assumed that culture and climate may be synonymous, as many characteristics of culture and climate overlap in some instances.

Valentine (1991) used a metaphor to describe culture and climate. He indicated that “climate” was to an organization as attitude was to a human being. Climate is referred to as the attitude of the school being reflected through the feelings and perceptions of the members of the organization. Climate resembles the “life” of an organization that is an intangible, pervasive presence of mind felt by the members of the organization. It is a product of the of the organization’s culture.

Cameron et al. (1994) defined climate as the current common patterns of the important dimensions of the organization’s life. It also represents the perceptions or attitudes of its members toward these dimensions. Peterson and Spencer (1990) implied that climate was the organizational atmosphere and culture was made up of organizational values. Hall and Schneider (1973) have stated that climate is the “psychological atmosphere in which a person perceives himself to be” (p. 75). Climate and culture are directly related to beliefs and the practices that support all institutional efforts.

McMurray (1994) conducted a study examining the reciprocity between culture and climate. She indicated that organizational climate has a direct effect on communication within the organization. The results support earlier research that culture informs climate in a number of important ways, most notably was through its influence on organizational leadership. When climate is positive, sub-cultures are found to be congruent with the leadership culture. She discovered that culture persists over time, however, climate exists as a picture or snap shot of a specific point in time.

Culture has the tendency to reflect the values and beliefs of the members in the organization. It communicates the mission and goals of the organization. The mind set of the members is directed by culture. Climate, on the other hand,

represents the wide spectrum of attitude. Feeling tones and perceptions represents the passageway by which organizational attitudes are transmitted. There is a connection between organizational climate and culture (Ott, 1989; Valentine, 1991). Ashford (1985) indicated that there was a close relationship between the shared assumptions of culture and shared perceptions of climate.

In Mangee's study (1975) of perceived principal behaviors, he indicated that organizational climate was a quality that exhibited great endurance within an organization's environment. Organizational climate is the nature of interactions between the people within the organization and their influence on the organization. Mangee further states that schools with healthy climates found innovation easy and teacher relationships good.

For the purpose of this study the School Culture Survey, developed by Schainker and Roberts (1986) was used to measure school organizational strength. This survey was based on Deal and Kennedy's research on organizational cultures. Culture is defined as the beliefs, values, basic assumptions, shared vision, rites and rituals, heroes and cultural network possessed by members of an organization (Schainker and Roberts, 1986).

Elements of Organizational Culture

In order to study organizational culture, it is necessary to understand the elements that make up the concept. How is culture created, and does it evolve and change? Culture exists at three distinct hierarchical levels: artifacts, values, and underlying assumptions. According to Bodnar (1993), level one is identified as the most superficial level and is comprised of artifacts and creations, which include things such as the technology and visible behavioral patterns found in an organization. Values, the next level, have the most credibility in influencing behaviors and providing a basis for behavior. Values

provide an understanding of the internal operation of an organization and how it works. Values do not explain the driving forces or essence of the culture. The learned underlying assumptions at level three are created by values and responses of people in the organization. Culture is the pattern of these underlying assumptions, a pattern often taken for granted and changed into elements of thought, perception, feeling, and behavior. These assumptions direct the organization's relationship with the environment, time, space, the essence of human nature, and human relationships.

Banner & Gagne' (1995) have identified the common elements of culture as shared values, belief systems, cultural artifacts, and cultural strength. Beliefs, values, ethical codes, moral codes, and ideologies have the same meaning in organizational language. The most essential elements to an organization are beliefs and values.

Guiding beliefs and daily beliefs have an influence on organizational cultures. The guiding beliefs provide direction to practice "nitty-gritty daily beliefs" (Banner & Gagne' p. 371). Guiding beliefs explain why principles and choices exist. Guiding beliefs are also described as a blend of beliefs and values that explain the rationale for resource allocations and principles of organizational choice (Ott, 1989).

According to Peters and Waterman (1982), many successful organizations have continued to exist over a period of time due to their shared beliefs. The survival and success of an organization are based on a solid set of beliefs on which all decisions were made. Secondly, the organization must adhere to these beliefs. And finally, an organization must be flexible and make changes in order to keep up with the changing world.

Aikire (1995) conducted a study of elementary principals in California and focused on identifying elements of organizational culture that were the easiest to use in shaping school culture. She has stated that the elements of organizational culture include: a formal and informal communication network; such as stories, sagas, lore and myth, as well as norms (rules), rewards, sanctions, and physical environment.

Ott (1989) suggested that shared beliefs, values and moral codes, ethical codes, and ideologies were important to an organization's culture. They clearly display and outline the purpose of various actions within an organization. They provide a clear understanding for human behavior within the organization. It is impossible to understand the purpose and importance of artifacts and patterns of behavior without knowing the beliefs and values of the organization. Beliefs and values are elements of organizational culture where ethics, philosophy and organization meet. Each organization has its own unique personality, culture, and character that distinguishes it from all others.

Cultural language develops the common thread through which understanding is derived. Every species has a method of communicating among its members. Communication is used as a mechanism to speak of and disseminate the purpose of the organization. "Every culture, discipline, perspective, organization, profession, school, and theoretical frame has it's own unique set of conceptual components and elements on which its language or jargon is built" (Ott, 1989, p. 20). Pettigrew (1979) states that an aspect of organizational culture is the network of vocal signs identified as language. Language has the ability to process a variety of complex information. This information is integrated into the organization as experiences. Members have the responsibility to create and maintain the language of the organization.

Language is the means through which concepts, elements, values, and beliefs are communicated. And it has the ability to influence the way people think and respond toward an organization (Ott, 1989). Language is a part of the culture and historical heritage of an organization. Language is a vehicle for achieving effects and has the unique ability to create the structure of the organization and formulate its values.

In summary, despite the disparity in definitions of culture, there are many common elements identified in the literature (Banner & Gagne', 1995; Bodnar, 1993). The elements of an organization must be understood before one can develop an understanding of how it was created, and how it evolves, and is transformed (Bodnar, 1993). Schein (1992) stated that culture exists at three different levels called artifacts and creations, values, and underlying assumptions. Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders (1990) defined cultural artifacts and symbols as words, gestures, pictures, or objects that have a particular meaning within the culture. Symbols, heroes and rituals could be placed under the same umbrella called practices because of their visibility to others. Cultural meaning was created from the perception of its' members. In an organization, shared values or social ideals communicate acceptable behavior. Banner and Gagne' (1995) indicated that the cultural strength of an organization was related to the degree to which shared values have been internalized. He referred to this internalized condition as "psychological ownership." Bodnar (1993) stated that this condition was created by understanding what maintains the culture. There were two important factors that maintain culture: The impact of invisible power, influence, cohesiveness and secondly, cultural norms that are supportive of the organizations.

Changing Culture of Schools

“As an organization changes and grows through its life cycle, its culture needs to change as well to meet new realities. Even a positive culture can become dysfunctional if ignored” (Banner & Gagne’, 1995, p. 383). Hodgkinson (1993) has spoken of American education in the following way, “American education is like a house. This house was beautiful and well maintained...but over time, the owners allowed the roof to deteriorate” (p. 36). Meeting the changing needs of an organization is vital to its existence. Sarason (1996) indicates that no major social organization has been more subject to pressure for change than the public school system. This nation’s diverse population has created a new focus for schooling in America. Content and goals of schooling are perceived differently by various groups and classes in society. The laws or decisions made by the judicial system, U.S. Congress, and state legislatures have forced schools to change.

The culture of schools are influenced by the value conflict in the American educational history. The kindergarten movement by Elizabeth Peabody, was developed to promote a teacher and subject centered approach to the common school. Both “Quincy System”, developed by Francis W. Parker and the John Dewey lab school has become a debate over the development of grade-school education and the proper role of schooling in society (Levine, 1993).

The Progressive Education Movement in American history existed between 1880 to 1930. This movement was divided into two camps: child centered and mass education. The child centered wing was associated with the work of John Dewey. The other side of the Progressive continuum, was the mass education wing (sometimes called administrative) and led by E. L.

Thorndike. This theory was dominated by the rising science of educational testing (Levine, 1993).

During the Progressive Education Movement there was an effort to improve rather than expand many social institutions and services. Labor activism, woman suffrage, child labor laws, and community houses for the poor grew during this period. During this time the nation made its first attempt to change the “common schools” of Horace Mann into mass education for very diverse and increasingly urban student populations. The guiding principle of this movement was that collective action by the government or private initiative should improve the quality of life for masses of people (Levine, 1993).

Thorndike argued that researchers should focus their energies on describing the individual student in a mathematical sense. He believed that whatever exists at all should exist in some amount. In 1910, Thorndike and others developed scales to measure student achievement. World War I greatly accelerated the work and influence of Thorndike and his associates. The era of Standardized testing began when the American Psychological Association developed intelligence tests for Army recruits. Standardized educational testing, intelligence quotient (IQ), multiple choice tests were graded in relationship to average performance of national samples (Levine, 1993). Prawat (1993) indicated that these intelligence tests were used as a means to sort students into ability groups, tracks, and special education programs. Intelligence tests were used to measure traits considered relevant to individual performance in school.

Dewey and his associates believed in preparing children for rewarding membership in society and bringing the outside world of work into the curriculum. Dewey’s views were in opposition to the mass-education or

administrative Progressives. According to him, public education should nurture individual differences among learners in a common learning community. To serve American democracy, he believes that institutions have a responsibility to develop bridges among learners' cultural and personal differences rather than create routinized training. His philosophy supports individualized and small group instruction, inter-disciplinary and activity or project based instruction. Students can gain a greater mastery of mathematics, science, history, and other subjects through integration. He also saw the importance in providing students an opportunity to master various skills through artistic and domestic work (Levine, 1993).

Sarason (1996) indicated that no major social institution has been more subject to pressure for change than the public school system. In 1954 Supreme Court desegregation decision, and the recent Education For All Handicapped Children's Act (Public Law 94-142, known as the "mainstreaming" law), are two examples of efforts in the post-World War II era to modify features of school systems. The philosophical and legal justifications for Public Law 94-142 derive from the 1954 decision. The most potent source for change has come from the courts. Because the major educational policies and legislation are a result of court decisions, schools have had little option about assimilating and accommodating to change. For schools, change is mandated. There is a belief that the legislation knows what is wrong with the schools and is in charge of repair. The strongest pressures for change have come from outside the school system.

During the 1960's existing philosophies were challenged by educators. Schools were organized into more responsive, flexible, and humane organizations. The old wisdom was replaced with new ideas and innovations in

curriculum, organizational structure that supported parent involvement, and instruction. It was believed that problems of American education could be solved by producing, developing, and distributing research findings.

Accountability and evaluation became a focus in the schools. There was an emphasis on research and examination of the link between instructional activities and educational outcomes. Evaluation became a common practice that produced results of failure and very little success. These mixed results contributed to the steady decline of public faith in schools. Unionization and teacher militancy surfaced in the 1960's. Professional teacher organizations became very vocal and possessed characteristics of labor unions. Their militancy and collective bargaining procedures increased the tangible rewards while increasing the public's distrusts in the educational system. Weaker cultures were a result of stronger teacher unions (Deal, 1985; Sarason, 1996).

In the 1960's and 1970's, local schools were bombarded by many pieces of state and federal regulations. Many of these regulations were connected to additional funding. There were both voluntary and mandated policies and regulations being introduced. These were the avenues used by the courts, state education agencies, and intermediate service agencies to change local schools. The value system of the schools in the 1960's and 1970's was not strong enough to fight external policies and larger political forces. Society placed more faith in science and research than in ordinary knowledge and common sense. Society was skeptical of the school system and its practitioners. The findings of researchers had more credibility than the judgment of practitioners (Deal, 1985). Educators' beliefs that schools made a difference was challenged by the Coleman Report (as cited in Deal, 1985). During this time there was a decline of teachers due to deteriorating working

conditions and low wages. Desegregation was implemented to ensure quality of education and racial balance. This move toward integration resulted in the loss of neighborhood schools. This action, although perceived as an alternative to equality, was in violation of community values and beliefs (Deal, 1985; Sarason, 1996).

During the 1980's, educational leaders were under pressure to redesign schools, so they revolved around learning, shared decision making, development, and continuous improvement. Many reports stated that school mediocrity was on the rise (Boyer, 1983; Newman & Wehlage, 1995). The national report, A Nation at Risk (cited in Deal, 1985) indicated that the educational system was failing.

The accountability movement resulted in a movement to assess procedures and practices within schools. Achievement scores were used by teachers and administrators to measure student success. Hodgkinson (1993) stated that during this time there was a major change in the family structure. Every kind of "atypical" family increased in number during this decade. Sarason (1996) stated that in the 1976 presidential campaign, President Carter promised to develop a separate Department of Education. In the 1980 presidential campaign, President Reagan promised to eliminate the Department of Education. Education had become a political focus of national policy. This focus had become visible after World War II. Before World War II public education was a state and local affair.

In the 1990's the focus has been on closing the achievement gap and developing students who are capable of mastering rigorous academic material and compete with our foreign competitors. Acker-Hocevar (1996) stated that educational leaders were under tremendous pressure to redesign schools so

they promote learning, develop opportunities for shared decision making, and encourage ongoing development and continuous improvement. National and state policies such as America 2000, the SCANS Report, and Goals 2000 have established policy structures to address reform of the educational system.

Providing educational alternatives have been on the rise in the 1990's. The public's displeasure with the present educational system has led to an increase in the number of educational alternatives available in the last ten years. The number of children being educated at home has increased since 1993. Charter schools are emerging as an educational alternative for parents. Charter schools are attractive to parents because (a) they are perceived as being more accountable to parents by giving them a greater voice in their children's education and (b) they offer the promise of changing top-down decision making to site based decision making, as determined by parents and teachers at individual schools (Bolender, 1997).

The most effective change in school culture happens when principals, teachers, and students model the values and beliefs important to the institution. Sarason (1996) indicates that the role of the principal is to model the behavior that communicates what is important in the organization. A principal who models care and concern for others is more likely to develop a school culture with similar values. Likewise, the principal who has little time for others places an implicit stamp of approval on selfish behaviors and attitudes (Stolp, 1994). In addition to modeling, Deal and Peterson (1990) suggested that principals should work to develop shared visions-rooted in history, values, beliefs-of what the school should be, hire compatible staff, and face conflict rather than avoid it.

In summary, the mission of the schools has always been to guarantee that children acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to function

productively as citizens and future workers. Culture is the most important element in the improvement of schools. Understanding culture is to understand what people believe, the assumptions they make about how it works, and what they believe to be true or false. Principals, students, and teachers must model the behavior expected in the organization. The principal is the one insider that outsiders are looking to for direction and understanding of the school's culture. Both Dewey and Thorndike have contributed greatly to our present educational structure. Sarason (1996) states that change affects a culturally diverse environment, either through the implementation of new programs or as a result of federally imposed regulations. Many programs throughout the years have affected the culture of schools.

Organizational Culture and Leadership

Lashway (1996) stated that "Geologists tell us that every few hundred thousand years or so the earth's magnetic field flips over, compasses that today point north will some day point south. Something similar happens in school leadership, though the cycles are measured in mere decades. Ten years ago, principals were asked to become "instructional leaders", executing a strong grip by setting goals, maintaining discipline, and evaluating results. Today, they are encouraged to be "facilitative leaders" by building teams, creating networks, and "governing from the center (Lashway, 1996, p. 1)."

Organizational leadership and the process leaders use to make decisions are referred to by Thomas Sergiovanni (as cited in Ott, 1989) as cultural artifacts. He indicates that leaders, leadership styles and practices, and patterns of decisions are created and shaped more by organizational culture than by the leaders themselves.

Deal and Peterson (1990) state that culture is the intangible feeling of a school. It is an unspoken language that communicates “the way we do things around here” (Schein, 1992, p. 9), the rules of the game. School culture reflects the values, beliefs and traditions of the school community, which determines the relationships among students, parents, teachers, and principals. Strong cultural leadership is perceived as a strong determinant in influencing organizational culture and resulting in school reform. It is the principal who provides direction and develops an environment that supports excellence (Deal & Kennedy, 1990; Neill, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1984).

Sergiovanni (1984) has defined leadership in terms of forces available to administrators and teachers as they influence the events of schooling. The levels of leadership are: (a) The Technical level is derived from, strong and sound management techniques; (b) The Human level involves social and interpersonal resources; (c) The Educational level is based on expert knowledge about the business of education and schooling; (d) The Symbolic level focus and directs followers’ attention on important matters of the school; and (e) The Cultural level is derived from building a unique school culture.

Bolender (1997) indicates that “leadership is a key function in school effectiveness, school culture, and school image. The leader becomes a guide rather than a gatekeeper in the business of teaching and learning by directing and supporting a collective vision” (p. 1). Deal & Peterson (1990) reported that principals influence their school environment and have the ability to use their charisma to positively shape school culture. Karpicke and Murphy (1996) indicated that principals do not improve student growth and achievement level alone. Principals provide the leadership that supports an environment based on increased productivity. Principals who are able to work

with teachers, students, and community members to create common values and a strong bond develop successful school cultures. Former Secretary of Education, William Bennett, concluded that what makes schools effective is “the principal of the thing” (Karpicke and Murray, 1996, p. 26).

Stephen Stolp (1994) found in his research that successful leaders have the ability to see things differently. They have developed the ability to view their organizations’ environment in a holistic way. This holistic view, provides leaders the opportunity to observe the culture of the school through a wide-angle lens. It also allows leaders to develop a broader framework of understanding for difficult problems and complex relationships within the school. By developing a deeper understanding of the school culture, leaders will be better equipped to shape the values, beliefs, and attitudes necessary to promote a stable and nurturing learning environment. Leaders interested in changing their schools’ culture should first develop an understanding of the existing culture.

Zatz (1994) reported that cultural change was not easy. A great deal of patience and long term support is needed to move toward organizational change. Change should be introduced in small pieces. Cultural change must be spearheaded by one or two people with strong ideas and commitment. However, change becomes harder as an organization starts to turn around. Complacency in a school can become a potential danger to organizational change.

Deal and Peterson (1990) discovered that cultural leadership was the art of fusing a personal vision with a school that needs direction. The principal leads the staff and community in a predetermined direction toward excellence. The staff and community follow only if they believe that the direction would

address the issues facing the school. The cultural leader shapes the culture in an indirect, intuitive, and unconscious manner. The principal is not only an administrator that insures that the school runs smoothly; he/she is also:

(a) A symbol who models values in routines, dress, and behavior; (b) a potter who shapes the school's heroes, rituals, ceremonies and symbols, and who is shaped by them; (c) a poet who skillfully uses the language to reinforce values and sustain the school's best image of itself; (d) an actor who participates in school drama; and (e) a healer who oversees changes in school life (Deal & Peterson, 1990, p. 1). An understanding of culture provides an opportunity for principals to generate change.

Deal and Peterson (1990) indicated that in order to develop an environment that supported excellence, the leader must be able to lead, guide, and manage the symbolic and the cultural resources of the organization.

Snyder and Snyder (1996) stated that the ideal situation was for schools to identify their cultural characteristics and develop systems for moving toward an integrated whole. In this manner, schools are systemically driven and responsive to customer needs in shaping the learning environment.

In strong cultures, managers take the lead in supporting and shaping the culture. They are symbolic leaders. A large percentage of their time is spent on thinking about values, heroes, and rituals of the culture. They spend a great deal of their time guarding the culture, reinforcing beliefs and managing value conflicts. The manager must be knowledgeable about the structure of schools. He/She must utilize the symbolic management approach in order to tie the loosely coupled organization together. The symbolic leader manages the symbols and artifacts of the organization. The cultural leader is required to be visionary. The leader must have a working knowledge of the culture and values

of the organization before determining a direction. Next, the leader must create a mental image of the desirable future state of the organization. This image must be articulated clearly, realistically, and project an attractive future for the organization, a condition that may not presently exist (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Deal & Peterson, 1990; and Smith & Stolp, 1995). Smith and Stolp (1995) state that:

“what a vision offers is a beacon to guide the leader and the school to rediscover their way once it has been lost. And once the value expressed in the vision permeate the organizational culture, the likelihood of failure diminishes as the members’ actions become aligned with the vision” (p. 6)

Sarason (1996) indicated that the principal was the most influential being within the school organization and was instrumental in shaping culture. He further states that the institutional leader is customarily the expert in the promotion and protection of values. The leadership of the principal is the major element to building a strong school culture. Principals who are able to work collaboratively with teachers, students, and community members to create a shared vision and a bond between each other, develop successful school cultures. Deal and Peterson (1990) outline guidelines for principals to follow:

1. Read the existing culture. Understand the inner working of the school’s history, values, and norms and reflect on their match with your own hopes and fears for the school.
2. Identify the norms, values, and beliefs you want to reinforce, as well as those you want to change. Develop a deep sense of new elements that are needed.
3. If change needs to be dramatic, make an explicit commitment that is known to others.
4. Work with all the school’s stake holders to clarify the mission and purposes of the school.

5. Reinforce the core values and norms of the school by consistently modeling; coaching; attending to detail; observing ceremonies, rituals, and traditions; and telling stories that identify heroes; and heroines that all support the school's mission.

6. Confront resistance; don't avoid or withdraw from it. Use conflicts to explain and signal the mission and values of the school.

7. Highlight the priority of additional values and beliefs you seek to encourage that are not now prominent in the existing culture but that support a vision of the school's mission. Encourage deep structures that support those values and recognize those whose actions illustrate them.

8. Recruit teachers and staff who share your view of the mission of the school and whose values and beliefs are consistent with those you are trying to establish.

9. Encourage the potent school ceremonies and traditions that celebrate the purposes and goals of the school. Recognize and celebrate successes (both large and small) as often as possible, and involve all members of the school and community in doing so.

10. Keep track of what's going on. Regularly re- evaluate the extent to which students, teachers, parents, and the community share a vision of the school's mission and the degree to which cultural patterns are mutually reinforcing and supportive of the school's mission. (p. 89-90)

The principals who utilize the cultural level of the leadership hierarchy have a better chance of creating an organization that values student learning (Deal & Peterson, 1990).

Bolender (1997) indicated that there was a relationship between culture and leadership. Schein (as cited in Bolender, 1997) stated that leadership was closely linked to culture, and they represented two sides of the same coin. Neither could be understood alone. The leader's role in culture building is supreme among other leadership functions because it is the leader that drives and sustains the concept of a clear, shared vision defined and developed by all members of the organization. Schools that share a common vision are called

“high consensus schools.” They build a culture where shared goals, beliefs, and values lead teachers to embrace and pursue a vision that binds them together, including the newcomers.

Organizational Culture and Effective Schools

Norris (1994) states that “a school is more than a building, it is a society and culture that shapes the learning of staff and students alike” (p. 2).

Since Nation at Risk was released in 1983 there has been a continuous focus on school effectiveness. This report served as a catalyst for educational change. The conversations that have followed the report focus on improving schools, restructuring schools, and redesigning schools.

The search for alternatives to public schooling has escalated in the last ten years as the public has showed increasing dissatisfaction with the present form of public education. Home schooling is one popular alternative. In Saskatchewan, the number of home schooled children has increased by 30% each year since since 1993. By the turn of the century, the number of students studying at home will reach 3,000 (Yeager as cited in Bolender, 1997). Parents are creating an educational alternative that meets the needs of their children and allows them to be actively involved in the development of their childrens' education.

The concept of school effectiveness has been a central focus for the past fifteen years. Researchers in the U. S. such as Edmonds (1979) and Goodlad (1984) have conducted extensive studies to confirm what factors determine effectiveness in schools. Ron Edmonds, Wilbur Brookover and several others (as cited in Mid-continent Regional Education Laboratory, 1992) began the effective schools movement in the late 1970's and early 1980's. The effective schools movement offered an opportunity for all schools to improve. Schools

were encouraged to communicate their attributes, celebrate their differences, and transform mediocrity into positive educational values and high performance. They have identified characteristics that distinguish effective schools from ineffective ones. It was the accomplishments and efforts of the authors that led the effective schools movement. Edmonds (1979) definition of an effective school is, "high academic achievement, acceptable mastery of curriculum, and high achievement that does not vary significantly across race, ethnicity or gender, thus suggesting there was equity in the school's program" (p. 33). Edmonds and Brookover (as cited in Mid-continent Regional Education Laboratory, 1992) imply that effective schools create an atmosphere that supports high achieving students from various socioeconomic backgrounds. Silver (1994), Norris (1994), and McRel (1992) indicated that effective schools were effective with both low and high economic students. The high performance by most schools were directly related to the number of high socioeconomic students they served. Suburban districts tend to have a greater number of students who possess the characteristics associated with high achievement than urban districts.

The most sacred ceremony transpires on a daily basis in a school, the learning process. Clearly articulated values are essential in most effective organizations, including schools. Values are associated with three essential elements of organizational success: (a) A clear philosophy about how to conduct business, (b) a lot of time was spent on shaping and disseminating values, and (c) shared values are possessed by everyone in the organization (Johnston, 1987).

Levine and Lezotte (1995) indicated that successful schools were grouped in general categories such as: (a) a productive climate and culture

revealing shared values; (b) a concentration on student acquisition of central learning skills; (c) an appropriate monitoring of student progress; (d) staff development at the school site; (e) strong leadership; (f) outstanding parent involvement; (g) an effective instructional and organizational pattern; (h) high operational expectations and requirements for all students; and (i) multicultural instruction and sensitivity.

In Edmonds' 1979 and 1981 research (as cited in Coyle & Witcher, 1992), he identified the following themes that promote school effectiveness. The themes were: (a) strong instructional leadership, (b) safe and orderly climate, (c) schoolwide emphasis on basic skills, (d) high teacher expectations for student learning, (e) continuous assessment of student progress, and (f) strong parent involvement. Other research supports the belief that effective schools increase learning time for students, support a school climate that promotes learning, and are in a district that encourages site-based management. (Coyle & Witcher, 1992; Squires, Huitt, & Segars, 1983).

Schools make a difference in student achievement, especially for the disadvantaged, according to a report generated by the Committee for Economic Development (1994). Children of various diverse groups achieve in an environment where there are high academic standards. Edmonds (1979) and Goodlad (1984) discovered that all children were capable of learning, despite their background, and that some schools were more effective, or satisfying, than others. Successful schools share these common characteristics:

1. A clear mission focused on academic learning.
2. High standards for achievement and a rich course content.
3. Teachers and principals have a considerable degree of control over

instructional and training issues, the organization of their school, and school resources.

4. There are high staff expectations or visible morale in at the work site;
5. Clear leadership from the principal or other instructional figure, where the principal is identified as a skillful manager and a strong instructional leader.
6. Students feel that they are a part of a school community where adults reinforced positive values about learning and work.
7. Parents support the school's mission, participate in school activities, and support their children's learning in the home.

Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, and Outston (as cited in Bolender, 1997) indicated in 1979 that successful schools included the above characteristics plus the following: a safe and orderly school climate where all students are required to demonstrate minimum mastery, testing for program evaluation and redirection, and collegiality. These additional characteristics were identified as result of a study conducted in various inner-city schools to address the myth that schools have a limited influence on the development of students. The results of their study supported the belief that a child's educational development was affected by the school he/she attended.

Successful schools are more common in affluent communities, however such schools could exist in less affluent and disadvantage areas. In a study conducted in inner-city Catholic schools, public magnet schools, and public comprehensive high schools in New York City and Washington, D.C., Catholic schools were found to be successful because they had a focused mission, high standards, and committed parents. Public schools that shared these characteristics were also found to be successful. The more successful public schools in urban areas were usually the magnet or special-purpose

schools, sometimes called focus schools (Committee for Economic Development, 1994). Focus schools are identified by the following characteristics:

1. Have a clear, uncomplicated mission centered on outcomes and ways they intend to influence the performance, attitudes, and behavior of their students.
2. Are strong organizations with a capacity to initiate action in pursuit of their missions, to sustain themselves over time, to solve their own problems, and to manage their external relationships.
3. Students and staff consider themselves to be special.
4. Have strong social contracts that communicate the reciprocal responsibilities of administration, students, and teachers and establish the benefits that each derives from fulfilling the contract faithfully.
5. Aggressively mold students attitudes and values, emphasizing secular ethics of honesty, reliability, fairness, and respect for others.
6. Have centripetal curricula that draw all students toward learning certain core skills and perspectives.
7. Are problem-solving institutions, taking initiative to change their programs in response to emerging needs.
8. Protect and sustain their distinctive character, both by attracting staff members who accept the schools' premises and by socializing new staff members.
9. Consider themselves accountable to the people who depend on their performance, [including] parents, students, neighborhood and parish groups, and financial supporters (P. T. Hill and T. Gendler, "High Schools of Character" 1991 as cited in Committee for Economic Development Education, 1994, p. 10).

A group of journalists on a research fellowship at the George Washington University Institute for Educational Leadership conducted research on effective schools and developed a report entitled: The Journalism Research Fellows

Report: What makes an effective school (as cited in Squires, Huitt, & Segars, 1983)? The journalist traveled throughout the country and local communities and studied schools the communities thought were effective. Their findings are as follows :

1. Effective schools were similar in terms of their principals, beliefs, instruction, teachers, reading programs, and resources according to Robert Benjamin of the Cincinnati Post (as cited in Squires, Huitt, & Segars, 1983).
2. The most important component of effective schools were principals, beliefs, instruction, and teachers.
3. Through out the study the principal emerged as the one who set the direction of the school, tone, focus, and philosophy.
4. The belief that students could learn was originated with the principal and was conveyed to staff and students.
5. Student achievement resulted from time spent directly on teaching academic skills. There was a belief that time was valuable.
6. Teachers believed that students were capable of learning and that the principal had the ability to lead. Students were expected to learn (Squires, Huitt, & Segars, 1983).

Another indicator of effective schools is the aspect of coupling. Coupling is a term used to describe the operation of effective and ineffective organizations. Coupling is the extent to which action by one person leads to action by another (Squires, Huitt, Segars, 1983). In loosely coupled environments pieces of the organization could be added or taken away without substantially affecting the whole. If there is no relationship between the action of one classroom to another it is loosely coupled. In a loosely coupled environment children are divided into small manageable groups. Internal

changes don't have a large impact on the organization. Teachers are isolated from peers. Sharing of teaching ideas or methodologies rarely occur. The principal is not able to generate consensus within the school. Accountability is a concern. Strong leadership is needed to insure that a certain amount of coupling transpires within the organization. Coupling assists schools in achieving academic excellence. It also helps principals accomplish the many priorities visible in schools (Squires, Huitt, Segars, 1983; Weick, 1982).

The culture of many schools are generally characterized as being loosely coupled, however, this generalization does not describe the culture of all schools. Many schools have unique schooling practices that reflect differences in community expectations, beliefs of the founding faculty, and administrative preferences (Norris, 1994). School cultures can vary from building to building and could be placed on a continuum from highly cohesive, forward-moving schools on one end, to "stuck" schools on the other end, where teachers are in isolation, and hostility, indifference, unfriendliness and alienation are the norm. Growth oriented values and beliefs are supported by forward-moving schools. These values become guiding principles used to make decisions. This system is considered to be healthy where communication is open as information is shared with its members (Norris, 1994). In stuck schools, schools are not moving forward, teachers are given the freedom to define teaching as they see fit without consensus, which leads to competing factors within the school. This negative interaction leads to ongoing power struggles within the organization and increased isolation of teachers (Rosenholtz, 1989; Norris, 1994).

An organization has a better chance of moving forward in a cohesive manner when the culture is clearly understood and accepted. When the organization's culture is understood and accepted, goals and objectives are

pursued (Sergiovanni, 1984). Planning future growth and development of the school organization requires an understanding of its culture (Snyder & Snyder, 1996).

Sergiovanni (1996) states that the theory that applies to the schoolhouse resembles the familiar verse in the New Testament, "I am the vine, you are the branches...apart from me you can do nothing." This image captures the theory problem schools face today" (p. 26). In education, the vines represent the many theories associated with schools and the branches are the way schools work as a result of the various theories. The branches can be pruned to control growth, however, eventually the vines will shape the branches to their own image and produce their desired formats. The theory for the school house must be aesthetically pleasing. It must be idea-based and emphasize a moral connection. It must inspire people to respond to intrinsic needs rather than extrinsic needs. It must embrace and support human rationality. It should support decisions about the school organization, curriculum, and classroom life with a constructivist teaching methodology.

Some organizational cultures are strongly binding. These organizations have cultures that have a single purpose and to a great extent have standardized procedures. Teachers are professionals with subject expertise, which result in different forms of expert power within the school organization. Administrative practices in conflict with teacher's beliefs would have little impact on teaching methodologies or classroom practices (Norris, 1994; Purkey & Smith, 1983).

The characteristics of school culture and the climate of norms and values that a school possesses has an impact on teaching and learning. School culture is composed of values, norms, and roles existing within the structure of

the organization (ie: communication, educational practices, policies, etc.). Successful schools developed a climate conducive to teaching and learning. The student's opportunity for success is greatly influenced by the culture and climate of the school. Purkey and Smith (1983) identified cultural norms as (a) collegiality; (b) experimentation; (c) high expectations; (d) trust and confidence; (e) tangible support; (f) reaching out to the knowledge bases; (g) appreciation and recognition; (h) caring, collaboration, and humor; (i) involvement in decision making; (j) protection of what is important; (k) traditions and; (l) sincere, honest, open communication (p. 492).

Chance (1992) stated that effective schools supported the establishment of the total school culture and was best represented by an organizational structure, process and climate of values, and norms that directed students and staff toward the goal of teaching and learning.

The school effectiveness literature has confirmed that there is an important connection between school culture and academic achievement. Purkey and Smith (1982) identified a connection between school culture and academic achievement. Their study was conducted in the Los Angeles Unified School District, the Title I program in Austin, Texas, and three other sites in Michigan. They concluded that the use of effective compensatory education programs was successful and resulted in higher student achievement. These studies support a strong methodological program. The findings are similar to other studies on effective schools.

In an academically effective school, staff and students are channeled in the direction of successful teaching and learning by a process, a structure, and a climate of values and norms (Purkey and Smith, 1982). A cultural approach to school improvement is advantageous for schools. The cultural model points to

increasing the organizational effectiveness of the school. Effective schools must be studied in order to gain an understanding of how they operate and are conducive to student achievement. It is equally important to perceive schools as functioning social systems with unique cultures where the improvement effort is directed toward continual, long-term cultural change.

Gilchrist (1989) studied three excellent schools, Garden Hills Elementary School in Atlanta, Georgia was recognized by Phi Delta Kappan, Twin Peaks Middle School in Poway, California and McCluer North High School in Florissant, Missouri were acknowledged by the U.S. Department of Education. He discovered that they all possessed similar characteristics, strong organizational cultures, and common themes. The themes identified were: (a) Staff members' caring attitudes toward students were clearly understood and received; (b) These schools were places where teaching and learning were fun and productive; (c) Teachers, administrators and students do what they do well; teach, administer, and learn; and (d) Parent and community involvement were valued.

The role of symbolism in school improvement is referred to as language and ideas that describe a spiritual and moral essence of schools. It is believed that objects or activities often have implicit meaning and serves important hidden purposes within the organization. Symbolisms also represents an awareness that schools do more than produce learning. Understanding the symbols and culture of a school is a prerequisite to making the school more effective. Schools are judged by their external communities as much on appearance as on results. The faith and belief of teachers and community are based on shared perceptions. Perception on the other hand, is based on shared values and symbols. Symbolism is identified as an important

component of effective schools. School improvement is greatly influenced by the elements of symbolism and language (Deal, 1985).

Levine (1985) linked culture to schools with exemplary qualities. Structure and norms of operation are essential for an organization's productivity. Schools with strong cultures establish: goals, clear beliefs, a mission, and vision, as guiding posts of the organization. Successful organizations are guided by strong leaders that model expected behaviors for the organization and communicate why the organization exists. Levine also states that effective organizations develop over time. A culture that supports unique beliefs and norms give meaning to the educational process. Various subgroups of an organization must share common values and beliefs in order to sustain the direction of the organization (Deal & Peterson, 1990).

The productivity of an organization can be influenced by its culture. The same cultural dimensions that account for high performance in business also account for high achievement in schools. Both schools and organizations have: (a) an agreed upon way of doing things; (b) a coherent ethos; (c) core values communicated by the leadership; (d) shared beliefs about the organization's mission; (e) teachers and students were role models, students were responsible, core values were communicated by heroes and heroines; (f) staff development; (g) ceremonies; (h) traditions and rituals directed toward events such as greetings, retirement, graduation; an orderly atmosphere and a balance between innovation and tradition, autonomy and authority; and (i) participation in cultural rituals and decision making (Deal, 1985; Deal & Peterson, 1990).

As indicated by Johnston (1987) and Weber and Omotani (1994), values contribute to the development of a strong cultural foundation. Common values

embraced by the members of the organization result in higher levels of teacher motivation and productivity. Common values provide a structure upon which decisions are made and interactions and communication are enhanced. When values are shared and supported within the school organization, academic achievement and organizational effectiveness are a result. New teacher recruits must share and support the values of the school.

School culture is the foundation upon which schools are built. The nature of the relationships among adults within the school organization has considerable impact on the schools' quality, character, and accomplishments of its pupils, to a greater extent than any other factor. Classrooms where students achieve are those which display order, structure, purposefulness, and a humane atmosphere, as well as the use of appropriate techniques for instruction (Coyle & Witcher, 1992).

School culture and student academic achievement has an important connection to organizational effectiveness. School culture also has a connection to teacher motivation and job satisfaction (Deal & Peterson, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1985; Tackett, 1997). Deal and Peterson (1990) believe that school culture is a contributor to productivity in terms of student achievement, teacher morale, turnover, motivation, collegiality, and restoration of retention of public faith in schools. The most valuable resources are those contributed by teachers.

In summary, effective schools are identified as tightly coupled organizations. There is congruence between values, norms, and behaviors of principals and teachers within an organization (Norris, 1994). Goals are clearly defined. There is agreement among organizational participants about expected outcomes and the prescribed ways these outcomes could be

reached. In effective schools, data on student performance is always collected by principals to evaluate teacher performance and student growth (Norris, 1994; Rosenholtz, 1991; Schmoker, 1996; Silver, 1994; Squires, Huitt, & Segars, 1983). Rosenholtz (1991) states that school success relies upon how effectively progress is measured. The goals of the school communicate what should be emphasized instructionally and define how to measure student performance.

School culture has a connection to academic achievement, organizational effectiveness, teacher motivation, and job satisfaction (Deal & Peterson, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1985; Tackett, 1997). The most valued resource in the school is the classroom teacher. He/She has the ability to inspire students to achieve and produce (Deal & Peterson, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1985). Fullan and Hargreaves (as cited in Bolender, 1997) indicates that teachers work in collaborative groups where they are concerned about the health of the school as an organization. Rosenholtz (1989) states that collaboration promotes effective school culture because it helps break down teacher isolation. Bolender (1997) indicates that in schools where self-reliance is the norm, teachers are more protective and conscious of their "turf" and become unwilling to admit problems or see others' problems. This method of operation increases teacher isolation. However, school cultures that participate in shared problem-solving and decision-making efforts place value on interdependence and support among staff members.

The research reviewed up to this point indicates that organizational culture has an impact upon teacher performance, productivity and student achievement. It is appropriate to study job satisfaction and its relationship to organizational culture because the literature suggests there are factors that

align performance and satisfaction. In the following section, job satisfaction and teacher performance will be addressed.

Theory of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction research began with the famous Hawthorne Studies conducted by Elton Mayo at the Western Electric Company in the 1920's (Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman, 1959). Since Hoppock's Monograph on Job Satisfaction was published in 1935, the literature on job satisfaction has grown in both quantity and scope. The literature addresses the attitudes people have toward their jobs, and the causes and consequences of these attitudes (Vroom, 1964; Warr & Wall, 1975). Through the years job satisfaction has been linked to both positive and negative attitudes toward the work site. Employee job performance and productivity is a concern of management and industrial society (Kalleberg, 1977). The "satisfied employee" was referred to as "the contented cow munching its feed and producing milk with the least amount of fuss and activity" (Warr & Wall, 1975, p. 15).

Early studies resulted in a shift from the belief that physical conditions of a job affected productivity, to the belief that human feelings and the nature of man affected job productivity. From these studies the "human relations school" was born, and the goal of the industrial psychologists became the improvement of workers happiness and productivity. This assumption implies that the satisfied worker produces more (Gruneberg, 1976).

Conducting business as usual does not guarantee success in today's markets. Employees that were satisfied with their jobs had enormous potential to become leaders and offer ideas and were the backbone of quality and service. It was well known that employees who enjoyed their jobs put extra effort in getting their job done, worked more safely, contributed directly to

organization growth, and to a company's bottom line (Holdaway, 1979; Kalleberg, 1977; Kim & Loadman, 1994).

There are many theories in the literature on job satisfaction. The pioneers of job satisfaction theories were Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, and Douglas McGregor. Their theories were originally developed for management in corporate work sites, however, they have been easily applied to the educational environment. The literature on job satisfaction contains many adaptations and variations of theory for use in the educational setting by several researchers (Herzberg, Mauser & Snyderman, 1959; Rossow, 1990). Maslow's theory supports the idea that a person could not be motivated at a higher level unless he/she was satisfied at lower levels (Rossow, 1990). Herzberg's (1959) theory was called the two-factor theory. This theory was based on the belief that factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction had separate and distinct causes. Vroom (1964) proposes that the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of a job depended not only on the nature of the job but also on the expectations that a worker had of what his/her job should provide. The importance of the expectancy theory is the emphasis on the individual's expectancy of what his/her job should provide for self satisfaction. In other words, the workers' perceived expectation of what their job contributes to their satisfaction. Satisfaction is based on expected job outcome as perceived by the individual. Kalleberg (1977) has addressed the concept of value fulfillment in his study as "A personal value system which assures that work which enables satisfaction of one's needs furthers the dignity of the human individual, whereas work without these characteristics limits the development of personal potential and is, therefore, to be negatively valued" (p. 124). Job satisfaction occurs when the

job fulfills what one values. Job satisfaction is therefore driven by the needs and expectations of the individuals in their immediate work sites.

The terms job satisfaction and job attitudes have been used interchangeably. Both refer to people's perception of their work roles. Positive and negative attitudes toward the job are equivalent to job satisfaction. Job morale is typically referred to as the mental attitude toward one's job. Job satisfaction, attitudes, and morale are measured by the verbal responses of the individuals, and therefore they are based on perception (Vroom, 1964).

The literature identifies many definitions or theories for job satisfaction.

Listed below are various definitions for job satisfaction:

1. Inlow (1951) states that job satisfaction is a function of the type of occupation in which a person is engaged.
2. Hoppock (1935) states that satisfaction is confirmed when a worker says, "I am satisfied with my job" (p. 47). It is the functioning level of individuals who have gained their desires or reached their goals for the moment.
3. Job satisfaction has also been described as the fulfillment of certain needs or desires. Satisfaction is paramount when an individual receive intrinsic and extrinsic rewards from the job situation (Bridges, 1980; Gruneberg, 1980; Kim & Loadman, 1994; and Lambert, 1991).
4. Satisfaction is a totality or unitary concept representing a state of mind in the individual. The feeling or state of mind is real but not subject to fragmentation into discrete parts. The individual's satisfaction were determined by his/her total situation at work and at home in every aspect of life (Zaleznik, Christensen, Roethlisberger, 1958).
5. Job satisfaction is the assessment of conditions existing on the job (work supervision) or outcomes that have arisen as a result of having a job (pay or security). It is the perception of an internal response (ie: feelings). Job satisfaction consists of perceptions that are filtered and processed through the individual's system of norms, values, and expectations (Schneider and Synder, 1975).
6. Job satisfaction has been associated with the affective orientations on the part of individuals toward the work roles they presently occupy. Positive

attitudes toward the job are closely related to job satisfaction, and negative attitudes are related to job dissatisfaction (Kalleberg, 1977 & Vroom, 1964).

As indicated above, researchers have many different perceptions and definitions of job satisfaction. A single agreed upon definition does not exist, although there are many common threads. Job satisfaction for this study will be measured by the responses acquired on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form.

Theory of Motivation

Maslow's work was concerned with motivation and the psychological growth of people. His theory identifies an individual's wants in terms of his/her hierarchical organization (Alderfer, 1972; Rossow, 1990; Warr & Wall 1975). Humans have five classes of basic needs: (a) Physiological needs; one's desire for food, water, and other necessities of life; (b) safety needs; a desire for security and the opportunity to bypass physical danger; (c) social needs; desire for affection and friendship; (d) need for esteem; a desire for a high assessment of oneself, for self-respect and; (e) self-actualization. The natural state of an individual is to continuously move toward his/her full potential, or self-actualization. Maslow states that the first three levels of need must be met or the individual would focus on satisfying these lower needs first. When these needs are met, the individual is able to concentrate on higher level needs. The highest level of need is mastered when an individual reaches self-actualization (Rossow, 1990).

In 1950, Herzberg's theory was aimed at the organization of work. In 1959, Herzberg, Mauser, and Snyderman proposed the motivation-hygiene theory in their book The Motivation to Work. Herzberg's theory has important implications for labor and management areas. The theory supports the

philosophy that raising salaries and improving working conditions do not produce higher levels of work performance, however, they help maintain current performance levels. The worker would be satisfied, but not motivated. Rossow (1990) and Herzberg, Mauser, and Snyderman, (1959) have stated that to increase performance the principal/manager must provide job factors related to five satisfiers. Satisfiers or motivators are identified as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Herzberg, et al. (1959) state that the factors of work itself, responsibility, and advancement are almost always associated with long term changes in job attitudes. They also identified another set of factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction called hygienes. Hygiene factors are: policy and administration, type of supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. When these factors are at a low-level, dissatisfaction appears; however, when conditions are good, satisfaction is visible. Wolf (as cited in Holdaway, 1978) states that the Herzberg's "two-factor theory indicates that content elements [intrinsic facets] are more powerful determinants of [overall] satisfaction than are context items [extrinsic facets]" (pp. 34).

Porter (1963) modified Maslow's model of motivation theory and developed a Hierarchy of Work Motivation. Porter believed that there were basic or primary needs (food, water, and sleep) that must be satisfied before a worker would move to higher-order needs, such as affiliation, nurturance, and esteem. If an individual has satisfied the first-order and middle order needs then the effort is placed on satisfying the highest-order needs of self-actualization. In this model, physiological needs have been dropped and autonomy needs have been added. In both theories self-actualization is ranked the highest in importance. Porter's (1961) model (Rossow, 1990) includes

higher-order needs (growth oriented) and lower-order needs (deficiency oriented). The lower-order needs are: (a) Security needs refer to compensation, longevity (seniority), union association, retirement plan, negotiated contracts, and insurance plans; (b) Affiliation/Social Needs refer to being a member of a formal or informal work groups, professional associations and unions, friendships, acceptance of colleagues/peers beyond the immediately organization and; (c) Self-esteem: Feeling self respect by others, recognition, symbols that reflect status, promotions, awards, being a part of the 'insider' group. The higher-order needs are: (d) Autonomy Needs: In control of work situation, influential member of the organization, participated in important decisions, authority to utilize organizational resources and; (e) Self-Actualization: performing at maximum potential.

Alderfer's (1972) model, based on his Existence, Relatedness, and Growth theory (E.R.G.) was concerned with basic human needs in the form of the desires and satisfactions that people experience as they participate in organizational life. A person's desires are in part determined by his/her perceptions of the returns he/she obtains from his/her external environment, and that his/her desires, in part, are also determined by the nature of the return he/she is able to perceive from his/her external world. E.R.G. includes basic categories used to conceptualize human needs. E.R.G. is a content theory. According to Purkey and Smith (1982) the content theory refers to the organizational structure, roles, norms, values and instructional techniques of a school, and curriculum. The E.R.G. theory concentrates on the subjective states of satisfaction and desire. The primary categories of human needs are as follows: (a) Existence needs are material needs and physiological desires (basic needs). They are satisfied by food, water, pay, fringe benefits, and

physical working conditions; (b) Relatedness needs involve relationships with significant others, such as family members, coworkers, superiors, subordinates, friends, and enemies and; (c) Growth needs are an individual's attempt to make a creative, worthwhile, and productive impact on one's self and the environment through personal development (Alderfer, 1972).

Myers (1964) conducted a six year study of Texas Instruments Incorporated and concluded that what motivated workers to perform their tasks more effectively was a job that presented challenges, supported feelings of achievement, promoted responsibility, provided opportunity for advancement, growth and recognition, and work enjoyment. He stated that primarily non-essential job factors such as work rules, lighting, coffee breaks, titles, seniority rights, salary, and fringe benefits, resulted in dissatisfaction. He further concluded that workers were quick to react to their working environment and find fault when opportunities for achievement were eliminated.

Reinemer (1995) indicated that the youngest and oldest workers were more likely to express satisfaction with their jobs. The baby boomers were likely to be less optimistic about their work sites. As a whole, American workers were positive about their jobs. Attitudes and perceptions become more positive as the worker moves up the corporate ladder. In general, job satisfaction increases with age. Motivators such as Christmas bonuses, catered parties, and "loosening up" on some company rules, assist in maintaining a high level of satisfaction.

Motivators that address intrinsic values offer greater creative opportunity and challenge for educators. Many teachers enter the profession because of a desire to help and serve (Kim & Loadman, 1994; Lehman, 1989). Their interests are child based. They want to develop students' potential and perform

a service to the community. Teaching is perceived as an opportunity to serve society, and the teacher was a moral agent dedicated to serving the public (Kim & Loadman, 1994).

Kalleberg (1977) developed a theory of job satisfaction which includes differences in work values and perceived job characteristics as key explanatory variables. The Kalleberg's study examined the relationship between job satisfaction, work values, and job rewards related to six dimensions of work called intrinsic, convenience, financial, relationships with co-workers, career opportunities, and resource adequacy. The findings suggested that: (a) work values had independent and significant effects on job satisfaction; (b) job rewards were obtained as a function of an individual's ability to control his/her job environment/ employment situation and; (c) a model framework was developed that linked the variation in the job satisfactions of workers to the factors that influenced the degree of control over the attainment of job rewards.

This section has highlighted various theories related to job satisfaction. These theories have contributed to the knowledge base in this area. Although these theories were initially applied to the industrial environment or work setting, they are easily applied to education. One example of an industrial theory applied to the school setting is Herzberg's, et.al. (1959) Two-Factor Theory.

Lambert (1991) indicates that what makes a job satisfying and worthwhile is the nature of the job. Job satisfaction is more likely to occur when jobs are meaningful and promoted self determination. Gruneberg (1976) states that the results of the Western Electric studies suggest that human feelings and perceptions of work affected productivity.

Theories of motivation have also contributed to the foundation of job satisfaction. The theories support the assumptions that humans must satisfy very basic needs before they are able to reach the highest level of satisfaction and motivation, one's desires are influenced by the perceived return from the external world, and the belief that effort results in performance and performance results in reward (Lawler, 1976).

Job Satisfaction Research and Teachers

The literature on job satisfaction has focused on (a) finding support in motivational theories; (2) correlating job satisfaction with employee productivity, supervisor leadership behaviors, organizational decision making, teacher burnout; and (3) correlating job satisfaction with climate factors.

Job satisfaction in the work environment is derived by the attitudes and perceptions of teachers. The National Center for Education Statistics (1997b) has highlighted some interesting facts about teacher job satisfaction based on various studies. Between the 1987-88 and 1993-94 school years, public school teachers' satisfaction decreased in the areas parental support, materials and resources, and enforcement of school rules by principals. In the 1993-94 school year, public school teachers from high poverty schools, where more than 40% of students qualify for free or reduced lunch, were more likely to report that students' inappropriate behavior, and routine duties, interfered with their work. They were also less likely to report that they received a great deal of support from parents, unlike those teachers from low poverty schools where 5% or less of students eligible for free or reduced price lunch. Private school teachers were more likely to say that teachers participated in important educational decisions in their schools, received a great deal of support from parents, and had a great deal of cooperation among staff members.

The three greatest needs of teachers, according to a report developed by Mary Beth Anderson and Edward Iwanicki (as cited in Lehman, 1989) are: (a) higher level of self-esteem, (b) more independence and autonomy, and (c) greater degree of self-actualization. Their study identified increased self-esteem as the greatest need of teachers, which indicates that appropriate motivators would be very effective and beneficial in this area. Teachers must be allowed to develop their potential to the highest level, derive satisfaction from personal achievement, and grow professionally.

Holdaway (1978) indicated that early interest in job satisfaction resulted from the feeling that satisfied workers would be more productive. Lawler and Porter (as cited in Holdaway, 1978) suggested that a reverse relationship could exist because the more productive workers tend to have higher levels of overall satisfaction. Holdaway's (1978) study concentrates on 801 Alberta Teachers to determine the level of a relationship between overall job satisfaction and facet satisfaction. Lawler (as cited in Holdaway, 1978) indicated that facet satisfaction is the affective reactions to particular aspects of one's job. Overall job satisfaction is "a person's affective reaction to his total work role" (p. 30). In this study the relationship of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction is determined by the perceived relationship between what a person wants from his/her job and what he/she perceives it as offering. Holdaway (1978) used the Herzberg's two factor theory to collect data. This theory indicates that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on the same continuum. Two independent continuums exist. It also indicates that different job facets influence feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction was related to achievement, recognition, stimulation, and career orientation.

In a study conducted by J. J. Engleking (as cited in Neill, 1994), found that sources of job satisfaction were identified as recognition and achievement, and dissatisfaction resulted from interpersonal relations with students and parents, lack of achievement by students and teachers, district policy, administration, and communication with administration.

Kim & Loadman (1994) indicated that the factors that resulted in satisfaction were positive working relations with other teachers, and working with students. Schools with fewer lower income and minority students were more likely to report positive experiences. Higher proportions of teachers who intended to remain in their profession had positive experiences with students and positive experiences for themselves. Teachers believed that despite the problems children brought to school, they still made a difference in the lives of their students (Kim & Loadman, 1994). Betty Young (cited in Neill, 1994) found that teachers were satisfied with interactions with students, successes, vacations and holidays, and most were dissatisfied with working conditions. Alderfer (1972) and Vroom, 1964 state that the job satisfaction literature point to the fact that teacher job satisfaction was related to self-perception of needs fulfillment through work, evidence exists that job satisfaction was not related to hierarchical arrangement of needs (Vroom, 1964; Alderfer, 1972).

Whyley and Callender (1997) conducted a study on job satisfaction in higher education. They found that various staff members gained satisfaction from different aspects of their jobs. The staff indicated that higher education provided a more attractive working environment than the private sector. The staff members valued the opportunity to pursue their own interests. Many enjoyed the autonomy associated with their job. The staff members felt that they were valued and earned a great salary. Dissatisfaction was the result of a lack

of opportunities for progression, a lack of recognition, inadequate salary or pay, insufficient resources, and lack of representation. One important aspect was the satisfaction gained from the role the staff played in the educational process. One respondent stated "It's nice to go into a classroom and actually teach and come away thinking, you know, I've taught all these students how to do this, and they all understand it" (Whyley & Callender, 1997, p. 2).

In Westbrook's study (1988), teacher recognition increased job satisfaction and recognition originated from many different sources. She found that satisfaction influenced both absenteeism and turnover. Intrinsic rewards were related to performance. Recognizing the needs of teachers is vital in order to maximize satisfaction and performance.

Perie and Baker (1997) indicate that "a high quality teaching staff is the cornerstone of a successful educational system. Daily interactions between teachers and students is at the center of the educational process; attracting and retaining high quality teachers is, thus, a primary necessity for education in the United States" (p. 1). It is important to identify the factors associated with teaching quality and retention. One factor that have been studied widely by researchers is organizational commitment and organizational performance (Ostroff 1992 & Mathieu, 1991 as cited in Perie & Baker, 1997). Organizational commitment is the strength of a teacher's identification and involvement in the school organization in which he/she works. This report developed by Perie & Baker (1997) describe the satisfaction with teaching as a career in the K-12 school setting. The focus of this report is to identify workplace condition and compensation factors that may be used to influence satisfaction. Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can affect teacher job satisfaction. Choy et al (1993 as cited in Perie & Baker, 1997) stated that intrinsic factors could be instrumental in

motivating individuals to enter the teaching profession because they enjoy working with students. Very few individuals enter the teaching profession because of external rewards such as salary, benefits, or prestige. Extrinsic rewards such as salary, perceived support from administration, school safety, and availability of school resources have been associated with teacher job satisfaction.

In a study conducted by Bridges (1980) on job satisfaction and teacher absenteeism, he surveyed 5,837 teachers and found that psychic rewards such as the enjoyment of one's work, was far more valuable to classroom teachers than were extrinsic rewards like wages and benefits. The structure for rewards in teaching is based exclusively on seniority and course-taking. Psychic or task-related satisfaction was influenced in part by efforts of the individual teacher. Bridges (1980) also found that job satisfaction was not a major factor in absenteeism. In a study conducted by Moracco, D'Arienzo, and Danford (as cited in Hipps & Halpin, 1991) it was discovered that teachers who were dissatisfied identified stress as contributing to a greater percentage of their absences than did teachers who were satisfied.

Raschke, Dedrick, Strathe, and Hawkes (1985) indicated that teacher dissatisfaction with the work environment and conditions of the profession was a visible factor. Teacher stress and burnout were significant in elementary school. Stressful conditions indicated that teachers perceive the lack of time to be the greatest factor effecting job satisfaction. In addition, studies indicated that teachers were leaving the profession primarily for economic reasons and found teaching to be unrewarding because of public criticism, societal expectations which were conflicting, lack of parent support, unsupportive

administrators, and students' failure to possess the attributes needed to continuously achieve (Harris & Associates, 1992; Kim & Loadman, 1994).

Several contributing factors that lead to teacher burnout are discussed in Byrne's (1994) study. She tested three underlying factors called emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishments, and reports:

Teachers exhibit signs of emotional exhaustion when they perceive themselves as unable to give of themselves to students, as they did earlier in their teaching careers; of depersonalization when they developed negative, cynical, and sometimes callous attitudes toward students, parents, and or colleagues; and feelings of diminished personal accomplishment when they perceive themselves as ineffective in helping students to learn and in fulfilling other school responsibilities. (pg. 646)

Ingersoll and Rossi (1995) conducted a study to find out what types of schools, public versus private, had the highest teacher turn over and why. They used the data from the National Center for Education Statistics survey in 1990-91 of elementary teachers who had recently left the profession. Teacher turn over rates were higher in private than in public schools. Schools with a high percentage of students receiving reduced or free price lunches had higher rates of teacher turn over. Lower salaries and fewer benefits in small public and private schools may have contributed to a higher turn over rate. Teachers receiving lower salaries and fewer benefits in small public or private schools were at a higher risk of leaving the profession. Private schools tended to have less experienced teachers with fewer advanced degrees.

Decision making and job satisfaction have been linked in various research studies. In order to support reform in schools there must be a concerted effort to involve teachers in the decision making process (Corcoran, 1986). Herzberg, et al. (1959) found that workers liked to have a voice in the

decisions that affected them. Corcoran (1986) stated that teachers with a high degree of autonomy and challenge used their personal judgment to enhance and guide instructional work with students. In addition, satisfied teachers have more professional autonomy and challenge. The findings of a study conducted by the American Association of School Administrator's (as cited by Corcoran, 1986) indicated that professional autonomy, recognition on a daily basis, and decision making helped build job satisfaction. Brodinsky (1984) found that increased job satisfaction translated into improved school productivity. Lehman (1989) stated that teachers involved in the decision-making process helped to develop a collegial atmosphere that reduced feelings of isolation. Teachers who perceived themselves as being more involved in decision-making also have a significantly higher level of job satisfaction.

Kottkamp, Provenzo, and Cohn (1986) replicated a study conducted by Lortie in 1964 entitled, Schoolteacher. The purpose of the study was to identify teachers' attitudes toward work in a twenty year period from 1964 to 1984 in Dade County, Florida. It was discovered that teachers were less satisfied than they were twenty years ago. The authors found that the overall satisfaction of teachers remained relatively high over the twenty year period, however, satisfaction with job and workplace declined. Lortie (1986) suggests that Dade County teachers were more dissatisfied with teaching than their counterparts were in 1964. Both groups felt that intrinsic rewards were the most satisfying.

British Columbia Teacher's Federation (1996) polled it's membership by administering a membership attitude survey in 1995. The survey revealed that teachers identified two major factors associated with high job satisfaction. These two factors were: staff and work site, and teaching and students. Having a fondness for colleagues, the principals, the school, and the district, were key

elements of job satisfaction. Love of teaching and working with youngsters, the particular grade/age level, and contact with parents, also contributed to job satisfaction. In addition, other aspects of the working conditions, such as the autonomy and flexibility of the job, were mentioned as sources of positive feelings for those who were satisfied. Dissatisfaction seem to be a result of problems and demands that arise at the work site such as workload, hours, managing student behavior, and lack of support/resources. Teachers also identified problems with administration and staff, unhappiness with the teaching assignment, and lack of stability in the educational system, as additional contributors to dissatisfaction.

In a study conducted by National Center for Education Statistics (1997a) on teacher job satisfaction, the findings were:

1. Administrative support and leadership, student behavior and school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy were conditions associated with teacher satisfaction. The more favorable the working conditions were, the higher the satisfaction scores were.
2. Private school teachers were more satisfied than public school teachers and elementary teachers were more satisfied than secondary teachers. Teachers in an environment with strong parental support tend to be more satisfied than teachers who do not.
3. In public schools, younger and less experienced teachers had higher levels of satisfaction than more experienced and older teachers. In private schools, the very youngest and very oldest teachers had the highest levels of satisfaction as did the least and most experienced teachers.
4. Workplace condition factors, such as administrative support, parental involvement, and teacher control over classroom procedures were very significant in higher levels of satisfaction.
5. Teachers with greater autonomy displayed higher levels of satisfaction than teachers who felt they had less autonomy. Administrative support, student behavior, and feelings of control were consistently shown to be associated with teacher job satisfaction.

6. There was a weak relationship between job satisfaction and salary and benefits.
7. “ Workplace conditions had a positive relationship with a teacher’s job satisfaction regardless of whether a teacher was in a public or private school, or an elementary or secondary school, and regardless of the teacher’s background characteristics or the school demographics.
8. The most satisfied secondary teachers felt they had more parental support and were less likely to have been threatened by students than the least satisfied secondary school teachers (p. 1).”

School climate and teacher satisfaction are areas that significantly influence the outcome of the educational process. Chittom and Sistrunk (1990) indicated that positive school climate is seen as a “platform upon which productive learning and teacher job satisfaction can be built.” (p. 1) Research shows that the social climate of schools and the level of teacher satisfaction could positively influence student attitudes and learning (Chittom & Sistrunk 1990, Squires, Huitt, & Segars 1983). Neill (1994) states that as school climate becomes more participative and open, teacher satisfaction increases.

Tackett (1997) indicates that climate has a powerful influence on teachers’ attitudes. Any erosion in the school climate leads to job stress. Byrne (as cited in Tackett, 1997) identifies student discipline, attitude, and abusiveness as contributors to teacher burnout. He also reported that a lack of decision making opportunities contributes to teacher burnout. Participation in the organization decision making process is a vital element in maintaining morale, motivation, enthusiasm, self-esteem, and overall job satisfaction.

Summary

Culture is defined as a “family of concepts” that includes language, social drama, symbols, and rituals that highlight organizations. Culture is also

created through symbols, ideology, beliefs, myths and rituals. Strong evidence supports the belief that an organization's performance is greatly impacted by the values and beliefs of its members. The elements that shape the culture of an organization are shared values, heroes and heroines, rites and rituals, and the communication network (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ott, 1989; Schein, 1992).

Organizational culture is defined as the philosophy, values, beliefs, assumptions, and shared behavior possessed and implemented by members of the organization. Culture is made up of the ideas or objects that differentiate members of one group from another. Culture can be manifested in symbols, heroes, and rituals. The heart of an organization is formed by its values and beliefs. Those values and beliefs can influence and direct performance. It has been stated that culture is considered to be a puzzle with all the pieces interrelated. As these pieces interact on a daily basis they collectively create a picture of the organizational culture (Ott, 1989; Schein, 1992).

Educational researchers have discovered that both effective schools and strong organizations have similar characteristics, organizational cultures, and leadership. The vision has to be clearly articulated to members in the organization. These organizations share common beliefs, and values, recognized achievement, participate in rites and rituals. Effective schools are characterized as tightly coupled organizations. Any variation in the organizational structure is closely linked to all elements of the organization. The values, norms and behavior of teachers and principals are closely aligned. Effective schools have clearly defined goals for student achievement, common understanding of their importance to administration and staff, and an agreed upon means of implementation and delivery on a consistent basis. Effective

schools are characterized by their unique culture, structure, and a climate of values and norms that direct staff and learning (Committee for Economic Development, 1994; Levine, 1985; Rosenholtz, 1985; Silver, 1994).

Since Hoppock's Monograph on Job Satisfaction in 1935, there has been a great deal of research done on both the quality and scope of job satisfaction. The research addresses the attitudes people have toward their jobs, and the causes and consequences affiliated with these attitudes. The nature of job satisfaction suggests no one theory or definition is commonly accepted. In this study, job satisfaction is defined by individual teacher responses to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form, as describes the extent to which their present jobs meet their individual needs and expectations.

The literature suggests that job satisfaction is related to one's self perceptions of needs through work. Maslow's theory (as cited in Rossow, 1990) of human nature was developed specifically to understand people at work. His work was concerned with motivation and psychological growth. His theory identifies factors within people which motivate them to work. Herzberg's theory (1959) is the theory of motivators and hygienes called the Two Factor Theory. His theory is based on the view that factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction have separate and distinct causes. Alderfer's (1972) work on human needs was based on the belief that a person's desires were in part determined by his/her perceptions of the returns he/she obtained, and his/her desires were in part determined by the visible return for his/her efforts. An increase in job satisfaction does not translate to higher performance. Job satisfaction is an important area of concern for organizations.

In studying teacher job satisfaction, much of the research has focused on needs theory, employee productivity, leadership behaviors, decision making, teacher burnout, absenteeism, and climate. Harris & Associates (1992) and Lehman (1989) suggest that teachers enter the teaching profession because they like to be of service to the community. Bridges (1980) and Kim & Loadman (1994) found greater satisfaction in intrinsic rewards such as achievement, responsibility, and recognition. British Columbia Teacher's Federation (1995) and Whyte & Callender (1997) state that dissatisfaction was increased by a lack of extrinsic factors such as salary, working conditions, interpersonal relations, and administrative practices. A collegial atmosphere reduces a feeling of isolation among teachers (British Columbia Teacher's Federation, 1995). Teachers who are involved in decision making have a significantly higher level of job satisfaction. Teachers involved in decisions that would benefit the school's educational process are of value to the organization because they have a greater sense of responsibility and ownership (Corcoran, 1986; Deal & Peterson, 1990).

This review of the literature presented an overview of the following: (a) Theory of organizational culture (OC); (b) Elements of OC; (c) The Changing Culture of the Public Schools; (d) OC and Leadership; (e) OC and Effective Schools; (f) Job satisfaction; (g) Theory of JS; (h) Theory of Motivation, (i) JS Research and Teachers, and (j) Summary. The literature indicates that organizational culture plays a major role in affecting job satisfaction of teachers.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the school organizational culture and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers in one urban school district. Demographic variables within the school district were examined as they related to years of teaching service, school culture, and job satisfaction. These variables were measured by the School Culture Survey (SCS) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (MSQ). This chapter includes the procedures and relevant research concerns for selecting the study population, and the instruments used in data collection. The contents of this chapter are organized into the following sections: (a) Population and setting, (b) sampling design, (c) research design, (d) description of research instruments, and (f) statistical analysis.

Population and Setting

There are 176 school districts in the state of Colorado. The district selected for this study was chosen for the following reasons: (a) The school district was located in the Denver metro area, (b) the district had a range of high to low socioeconomic (SES) status, (c) the district had a diverse teacher and student population, (d) the teaching staff had a wide range of teaching experience, (e) schools varied in size based on student population, and (f) the

population was accessible to the researcher. Permission was granted to conduct research by the district and the Colorado State University, Office of Regulatory Compliance. Permission was also obtained from the building principals before the research was conducted.

The setting for this study was a school district with a student population of 66,534 located in the metro Denver area. There were 37,039 students in the elementary school, 13,749 students in the middle school, and 15,746 in the high schools (Colorado Department of Education, 1997a,1997c). The socioeconomic status (SES) was based on the National School Lunch Act. This act identifies what students were eligible for the federal free lunch program (Colorado Department of Education, 1997b). These students were identified as at-risk youth. At-risk students were estimated at approximately 37,001 students. This district represented a wide range of student diversity and ethnicity.

In 1996 there were 36,397 teachers in the state of Colorado. There were 15,871 elementary teachers. The district in this study has a teacher core of 3,197. This number includes Chapter 1 and 2 teachers, classroom teachers, and special education teachers. In the elementary schools there were approximately 1,498 elementary school teachers, 182.50 Special Education teachers, 39.50 Early Childhood teachers, 15.0 gifted and talented teachers and 31.50 librarians. The average years of service for teachers was 13.0 (Colorado Department of Education, 1997a) .

The elementary schools in this study have various ranges of socioeconomic status (SES). The schools are located in different areas throughout the school district. Schools identified as low SES have a high percentage of students qualifying for free lunch. Schools identified with a

population of higher SES has a smaller percentage of students qualifying for free lunch.

Originally, there were two school districts requested to participate in this study, however only one agreed to participate. The name of each elementary school was placed on an index card. On each card the researcher indicated the size of the school based on student population and the SES. After the school demographic information had been analyzed the researcher developed categories for SES based on the school information. High SES was identified as schools with 0-25% of students qualifying for free lunch. The schools identified as having low SES had 53-100% of their students receiving free lunch. The medium range of SES was 26-52% of the students qualifying for free lunch. This school district had a large percentage of low SES schools. The size of the schools were divided into three categories of small, medium, and large. The small schools had a student population of 1-409, medium size schools had a population of 410-549, and the large schools had a population of 550 and over. The researcher used these levels to show the frequency of size and SES.

A 3 x 3 grid was developed. The vertical columns were labeled by size as small, medium, and large, and the horizontal rows were labeled by socioeconomic status as high, medium, and low. The names of all 81 schools were placed on cards. The cards were shuffled. Cards were drawn one by one and placed on the grid in the appropriate space based on size and SES. The researcher placed all 81 schools on the grid based on the vertical and horizontal labels.

The researcher began to contact building principals by telephone. The cards were drawn one at a time, from left to right, always taking the top card.

These schools were selected by systematically drawing cards from the grid. After a card had been drawn, the researcher contacted the building principal and described the study. Several calls were made to elementary principals and the interest to participate was not there. The researcher continued to draw cards and call principals until 29 had agreed to participate. These 29 schools became the initial sample. Seven schools backed out during the study, resulting in a final sample of 22 schools.

The Colorado Department of Education (1997a) indicated that the average years of teaching experience in the district was 13 years and the average total teaching experience was 14 years. In this study, the years of teaching service was divided into three levels of 0-5 years, 6-10 years, and more than 11 years. This data was derived from teachers' self reports.

Sampling Design

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (MSQ) rated the participants responses on a 5-point Likert scale with a 5 point total. Permission was not given to include the MSQ in the appendix. The School Culture Survey (SCS) also rated participants responses on a 5-point Likert scale with a 4 point total (see Appendix A).

The researcher determined that a sample size of over 20 schools was needed to produce any significant findings. Each of the 81 schools was located on the grid based on SES and socioeconomic status. The schools were selected from left to right. Twenty-nine principals initially agreed to participate, however seven principals withdrew from the study. The seven principals indicated that their teachers were not interested in participating. After permission had been granted, a packet for every teacher was delivered to each school with a personal letter to the principal explaining the research, the

instruments to be used, and the approximate time commitment (see Appendix B). The packets delivered to teachers included the SCS and MSQ, a cover letter, and a plain white envelope (see Appendix C). All teachers were encouraged to participate in the study, however, their participation was voluntary. To maintain confidentiality, all teachers were asked to place both surveys in the plain white envelope provided and to place that envelope in the large brown envelope provided to the principals for the survey returns. If a teacher chose not to complete the survey, he/she was still asked to place the surveys in the white envelope and to place it in the large brown manila envelope provided for all survey returns.

After surveys had been delivered to the schools the researcher allowed two weeks for completion. Follow-up telephone calls to the building principals were made to inquire about the distribution, return of the surveys, and to thank them for their participation. The surveys were collected by the researcher after a two week period.

Research Design

The researcher collected survey data which described the perceptions of elementary teachers in one school district in Colorado regarding the organizational culture (OC) and job satisfaction (JS) of its teachers. After data had been collected the achievement of students measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills was reviewed as it related to OC and JS. Achievement scores were obtained in aggregate levels for the whole school for grades two and five.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data and to provide a picture of the relationships between OC, JS, size of school, socioeconomic status, years of teaching experience, and student achievement. Correlational statistics were used to determine the relationship between variables (Borg,

1987). The correlation coefficient used was the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson r). Descriptive research is concerned with current status and describes existing achievement, attitudes, behaviors, or other characteristics of a group of subjects. This research was used to observe relationships and represent these patterns with numbers. Relationships exemplify the degree to which variations in one variable are related to variations in another variable (Huck, Cormier & Bounds, 1974; Leedy, 1993; Rudestam & Newton, 1992).

Description of Research Instruments

The Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) is the instrument of choice to measure student progress in the state of Colorado. In this study, the ITBS results were used for students in grades two and five to measure student achievement. Two instruments were used in this study, School Culture Survey and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form.

School Culture Survey. The School Culture Survey (SCS) was used to obtain data in this study. The SCS was developed by Schainker and Roberts (1992) of the California Leadership Academy based on ideas found in Terrence Deal and Allen Kennedy's book Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life. The SCS has been designed to provide insight into the nature and strength of a school's organizational culture.

The purpose of the SCS is to determine the strength of the organizational culture in a school by combining teacher responses to 38 items. Each item is evaluated by teachers according to the following 5 point Likert scale:

0 = The statement is not at all descriptive of my school, 1 = The statement is slightly descriptive of my school, 2 = The statement is moderately descriptive of my school, 3 = The statement is descriptive of my school, and 4 = The

statement is strongly descriptive of my school. The total points create the following four categories: (a) Strong culture, 114-152; (b) Moderately strong culture, 76-113; (c) Somewhat weak culture, 38-75, and (d) Weak culture, 0-37.

In Deal and Kennedy's (1982) study of eight organizations, they found that consistently high performers had strong cultures that possessed nine distinct characteristics. These characteristics were used to develop the SCS. A strong culture: (a) has a widely shared philosophy, (b) emphasizes the importance of people, (c) encourages rituals and ceremonies to celebrate events, (d) has identified heroes and sings their praises, (e) maintains a network of culture communicators, (f) has informal rules of behavior, (g) has strong values, (h) sets high standards for performance, and (i) possesses a definitive organizational character (Schainker & Roberts, 1986).

Reliability. To determine the reliability of the School Culture Survey, Neill (1994) determined a coefficient of internal consistency for split half reliability. The SCS was divided in half, all odd-numbered items in one subset and all even-numbered items in another subset. There were 19 items in each subset. Neill (1994) determined that the correlation coefficient was .90 utilizing the split-half method. The 19 odd and 19 even numbered items were correlated, from which a reliability (consistency) coefficient for the entire test of 38 items, was estimated by the Spearman-Brown formula. The resulting correlation of .90 for this instrument was above the accepted .80 which is considered a reliable instrument. (Based on the statistics used in this study the reliability coefficient for this instrument was determined to be .94).

Validity The SCS has been used for administrator's training in California and Texas. The validity was established in Neill's (1994)

dissertation. The validity was verified by two experts; Allen Mori, Dean of Education of California State University, Los Angeles and Julie Quinn, Associate Professor at the University of Southern California and Consultant to the Los Angeles County Office of Education. They reviewed the instrument and developed a written summary of their findings. The letters were included in Neill's (1994) dissertation. Allen Mori (1997) went over the survey and provided a letter of validity for this study (see Appendix D). Permission to use this survey instrument was granted by the California School Leadership Academy (see Appendix E).

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (MSQ). The MSQ was developed as a result of research by the Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, known as the Work Adjustment Project, on the general problem of adjustment to work. The MSQ was designed to identify a group picture of satisfaction.

The MSQ consists of 20 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale. There are five response selections for each item: 1 = Very satisfied, 2 = satisfied, 3 = neither (dissatisfied or satisfied /average satisfaction), 4 = dissatisfied, and 5 = very dissatisfied (Sweetland & Keyser, 1991; Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). Job satisfaction was measured on the following 20 dimensions on the MSQ-short form.

1. Activity. Being able to keep busy all the time.
2. Independence. The chance to work alone on the job.
3. Variety. The chance to do different things from time to time.
4. Social Status. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.
5. Supervision-Human relations. The way my boss handles his people.
6. Supervision-Technical. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
7. Moral values. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.

8. Security. The way my job provides for steady employment.
9. Social Services. The chance to do things for other people.
10. Authority. The chance to tell other people what to do.
11. Ability Utilization. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
12. Company policies and practices. The way company policies are put into practice.
13. Compensation. My pay and the amount of work I do.
14. Advancement. The chances for advancement on this job.
15. Responsibility. The freedom to use my own judgment.
16. Creativity. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.
17. Working conditions. The working conditions.
18. Co-workers. The way my co-workers get along with each other.
19. Recognition. The praise I get for doing a good job.
20. Achievement. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job

The MSQ has three scales called Intrinsic satisfaction, Extrinsic satisfaction, and General satisfaction. The scale scores were determined by calculating the weights for the responses chosen for the items in each scale. The three scales of satisfaction of the MSQ included the following items:

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Item numbers</u>
Intrinsic	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 20
Extrinsic	5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 19
General satisfaction	1-20

Reliability The MSQ reliability coefficient is high. The coefficients varied from .77 to .82 for the Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale. For Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale, the coefficients range from .84 to .91. Median reliability coefficients were .86 for intrinsic Satisfaction, .80 for extrinsic satisfaction and .90 for general satisfaction. Norm data for teachers was not available for the MSQ-short form. The Professional norms scale was used because it best represents professionals and educators.

Validity The Validity concerns the extent to which an instrument measures what one thinks it is measuring. MSQ was designed for the purpose of appraising constructs (Ary, Jacobs & Rozavich, 1990; Sweetland & Keyser (1991). The validity of the MSQ-short form was based on a subset of the long-form items, therefore, validity may be inferred from the validity of the long form. Other evidence to support validity includes studies of differences in occupational groups and studies of the relationship between satisfaction and Theory of Work Adjustment. These studies suggest that the MSQ-short form measures satisfaction according to the expectations of the Theory of Work Adjustment (Weiss, et al, 1967). The MSQ provides reliable, valid, and well-normed information about intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction using twenty rating scales.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed on the data collected. First, descriptive statistics were produced for subjects and their perceptions of organizational culture (OC) and job satisfaction (JS). These were further described by the 38 items on the SCS and the 20 items on the MSQ-short form. The mean was computed for each instrument. The SCS had one total score for the strength of the school culture, whereas the MSQ-short form had three different scores for each level of satisfaction. Each individual's responses were tabulated and a total score was derived for the three types of satisfaction. The correlations for each variable was computed to determine relationships and their strength. The variables were OC, JS, size of school, SES, length of job service, and student achievement. The Pearson r was used to determine relationships between the variables indicated above.

CHAPTER IV

Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of this study which resulted from the analysis of data collected from surveys on the strength of the organizational culture (OC) and the level of job satisfaction (JS) as perceived by teachers in selected Denver metro area elementary schools. The district participating in this study had a student population of approximately 66,534. There were 81 elementary schools in this district and a teacher core of 3,100. The researcher also used the demographic variables of size of school, and socioeconomic status (SES) of the schools. The average years of teaching service and student achievement in grades 2 and 5 were also variables. There were six research questions for this study:

1. What is the strength of the organizational culture as measured by the School Culture Survey in selected elementary schools as perceived by teachers?
2. What is the perceived level of job satisfaction of elementary teachers in each school involved in the study as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form?

3. Is there a relationship between the strength of the school's organizational culture and the level of teacher job satisfaction in selected elementary schools in one school district in Colorado?

4. Are there significant relationships between the strength of the school organizational culture and: (a) the socioeconomic status of the school, (b) the size of school, and (c) the average years of service of teachers?

5. Are there significant relationships between the average level of job satisfaction as perceived by the teaching staff and: (a) the socioeconomic status of the school, (b) the size of school, and (c) the average years of teaching service?

6. Are there relationships between the strength of the school's organizational culture or the level of teacher job satisfaction and student achievement?

The chapter is organized in the following order: (a) sample population and returns, (b) findings of the research questions, and c) findings of the supplementary data analyses.

Sample Population and Return

After permission had been granted by the school district, the researcher contacted elementary school principals in the school district. All elementary schools were considered for the study contingent upon building principal's approval. The researcher contacted thirty-seven schools before reaching the target sample of twenty-nine. Twenty-nine principals initially agreed to participate in the study. Seven principals changed their minds because their faculties were not interested in participating or they felt overwhelmed with other responsibilities. Twenty-two schools actually received surveys, completed surveys, and provided data for this study. One school was not given a school

culture score because there was not enough data to make a fair determination of the culture based on one teacher's response. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (MSQ) and the School Culture Survey (SCS) were distributed to every teacher in the 22 schools. Returns were based strictly on a volunteer basis. The surveys were completed and returned to the researcher. The overall response rate was 46.05% for the SCS. The response rate for MSQ-short form was 43.60% for general satisfaction scale, 43.60% on the intrinsic satisfaction scale, and 43.60% on the extrinsic satisfaction scale.

The researcher analyzed the data acquired from both questionnaires to determine: (a) Strength of the organizational culture (OC); (b) the level of job satisfaction on three scales (general, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction); (c) the relationship between the OC and job satisfaction (JS); (d) the relationship between OC and size of school, socioeconomic status (SES), student achievement (grades 2 and 5) and average years of teaching service; e) the relationship between JS and size of school, SES, student achievement (in grades 2 and 5), and average years of teaching service.

There were 242 valid surveys for the SCS and 239 valid surveys for the MSQ for general job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction and 238 valid surveys for extrinsic job satisfaction. Using the valid surveys, the researcher calculated the frequency distribution and percentages of school and teacher responses in each of the categories.

For the purpose of this study the norms used for the SCS were divided as a strong culture, moderately strong culture, somewhat weak culture, and weak culture. Each type of culture had a score to indicate the intensity of strength as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

School Culture Survey-Description of Culture Strength

Scores	Interpretation
114-152	Strong Culture
76-113	Moderately Strong
38-75	Somewhat Weak Culture
0-37	Weak Culture

Note: The guidelines for this instrument were developed by the California School Leadership Academy to assess the strength of organizational culture.

Table 2 shows the MSQ percentile scores for job satisfaction. The percentiles were divided into five categories: Very satisfied (high level of satisfaction), Satisfied (high average level of satisfaction), Neither (average), dissatisfied (low average), and very dissatisfied (low level of satisfaction). Note that for the statistical analysis relative satisfaction scores were used based on the authors' norms and percentiles for an appropriate comparison group, which in this case was Engineers (professional workers).

Table 2

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Job Satisfaction Scale

Percentile score	Relative Satisfaction
75%+	Very satisfied
65-74%	Satisfied
35-64%	Average
25-34%	Dissatisfied
0-24%	Very dissatisfied

Note: Maximum score is 100%

Table 3 indicates the size of the schools represented in this study. The size of each elementary school is based on student enrollment obtained by the Colorado Department of Education (1997c). Fifty percent of the schools represented are small schools as indicated by the criteria developed for this study. For the analysis of the research questions the actual student enrollment was used for each school.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution - Size of Elementary Schools

Size of School	No. of Schools	% of Schools	No. of Teachers	% of Teachers
Large (550+)	7	31.81%	91	38%
Medium (410-549)	4	18.18%	60	25%
Small (1-409)	11	50.00%	87	37%
Total	22	100%	238	100%

Table 4 summarizes the percentage of teacher responses, mean scores, and years of service for each school. There were 238 cases used to formulate this data. There were three categories developed for years of service and were divided as 0-5 years, 6-10 years, and over 10 years. Nine schools fell in the 6-10 years of service category. Therefore, an assumption could be made that a fair amount of the schools involved in this study had a teacher core with 6-10 years of teaching experience. Colorado Department of Education (1997a) indicated that the average years of teaching service for the district was 13.0. The average number of years includes both elementary and secondary teachers. The total percentage of teacher responses/survey returns was 43.87%.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution-Years of Teaching Service in the Schools of Study

School	Teacher Responses responses	% of Teacher	Mean	SD	Average Yrs of Service	Group Key
1	8	44.44%	2.2500	0.8864	6-10 yrs.	2
2	3	21.42%	2.0000	1.0000	6-10 yrs.	2
3	8	22.85%	2.6250	0.7440	11+ yrs.	3
4	3	12.50%	2.3333	1.1547	6-10 yrs.	2
5	4	25.00%	2.5000	1.0000	11+ yrs.	3
6	5	31.25%	1.6000	1.0954	0-5 yrs.	1
7	9	47.36%	2.2222	0.8333	6-10 yrs.	2
8	20	95.23%	2.2500	0.9105	6-10 yrs.	2
9	7	24.13%	2.5714	0.7868	11+ yrs.	3
12	7	41.17%	2.5714	0.7868	11+ yrs.	3
13	17	70.83%	2.4118	0.7123	6-10 yrs.	2
17	21	100.00%	2.6190	0.7400	11+ yrs.	3
18	16	57.14%	2.8125	0.4031	11+ yrs.	3
19	12	50.00%	2.6667	0.6913	11+yrs.	3
20	15	55.55%	2.3333	0.9759	6-10 yrs.	2
21	11	32.35%	2.7273	0.4671	11+ yrs.	3
22	15	41.66%	2.2000	0.9411	6-10 yrs.	2
23	10	31.25%	2.6000	0.6992	11+ yrs.	3
26	11	33.33%	2.3636	0.8090	6-10 yrs.	2
27	5	16.12%	2.8000	0.4472	11+ yrs.	3
28	31	96.87%	2.2258	0.9205	6-10 yrs.	2
Total	238	43.76%	2.4310	0.8060	6-10 yrs.	2

Note: School #10 did not provide information. Schools 11,14,15,16, 20, 24,25 & 29 did not participate in this study.

Key: 1 = 0-5 years, 2 = 6-10 years, and 3 = 10 years
n = 21

Table 5 exhibits the frequency distribution for the SCS descriptive levels for cultural strength within schools. There were a total of 21 schools used to formula this data. School number 10 did not provide data for the SCS. The table indicates that 18 schools were perceived by teachers as having a

“moderately strong” culture. These schools appear to have strong leadership and possess the qualities of successful schools. There is an opportunity for leaders to shape the culture in these schools. Deal and Peterson (1990) indicate that strong cultural leadership is a strong determinant in influencing organizational culture. Bolender (1997) indicated that leadership was a key function in school effectiveness, school culture, and school image.

Several authors state that most of what goes on in an organization is guided by the cultural qualities of shared meanings, underlying assumptions, and unwritten rules. The researchers argue that “strong” cultures, are more likely to be associated with organizational effectiveness than are “weak”

Table 5

School Culture Survey-Frequency Distribution for Culture Strength

Culture Strength	No. of Schools	% of Schools	No. of Teacher	% of Teachers
Strong	0	0%	0	0%
Moderately Strong	18	85.71%	220	91%
Somewhat Weak	3	14.28%	22	09 %
Weak	0	0%	0	0%
Total	21	100%	242	100%

cultures, and that strong cultures can be intentionally created (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1983 (as cited in Bodnar, 1993); Peters and Waterman, 1982). Serviovanni (1884) stated that “all schools have cultures: strong or weak, functional or dysfunctional. Successful schools seem to have strong and functional cultures aligned with a vision of excellence in schooling” (p. 10). It can be assumed that the schools participating in this study have strong

leadership because of the perceived culture strength. Schein (1985) indicated that leadership was closely related to school culture, for “they are two sides of the same coin, and neither can really be understood by itself” (p. 2).

Table 6 represents the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form (MSQ) general/overall job satisfaction scale in 22 elementary schools. The five levels of job satisfaction are aligned with the schools based on the perceptions of teachers working in the schools. Four schools are identified as places where teachers are very satisfied. Fifty percent of the schools are in the average level of satisfaction.

Table 6

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire- General/Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (as reported by teachers) Frequency Distribution Percentiles

Level Job satisfaction	Freq Schools	Percentage Schools	No. of Teachers	%of Teachers
Very Satisfied	4	18%	57	24%
Satisfied	2	09%	17	07%
Average (neither)	11	50%	116	48%
Dissatisfied	5	23%	57	21%
Very Dissatisfied	0	0%	0	0%
Total	22	100%	239	100%

Note: None of the schools were in the very dissatisfied level of job satisfaction.

Table 7 represents the Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Scale. There were 238 cases. The schools are represented in the table based on the extrinsic level of job satisfaction. Seven schools were extrinsically average where teachers were neither satisfied or dissatisfied. Eleven schools (50%) were

characterized as satisfied (18%) or average (32%), and 50% of the schools were dissatisfied (32%) or very dissatisfied (18%).

Table 7

***Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Extrinsic Scale
Frequency Distribution Percentile***

Level Job Sat	No. of School	Percentage School	No. of Teachers	% of Teachers
Very Satisfied	0	0%	00	0%
Satisfied	4	18%	52	21.84%
Average (neither)	7	32%	66	27.73%
Dissatisfied	7	32%	86	36.13%
Very Dissatisfied	4	18%	34	14.28%
Total	22	100%	238	100%

In Table 8 MSQ-short form Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale frequency distribution is shown. The number of schools in the various satisfaction levels include four in the very satisfied category, five in the satisfied category, and 13 in the average category. In the dissatisfied and very dissatisfied levels of satisfaction there were no schools represented. The data presented indicates that the schools represented in this study report average and above average levels of intrinsic job satisfaction based on teachers' perceptions. More than half of the elementary teachers participating in this study perceived their schools to be average in intrinsic satisfaction. These schools support the climate that encourages intrinsic satisfaction to fester. Teachers feel good about their environment and what they are doing for students.

Table 8

***Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire- Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Scale
Frequency Distribution Percentiles***

Level Job Sat	Freq School	Percentage School	No. of Teachers	% of Teachers
Very Satisfied	4	18.18%	47	19.66%
Satisfied	5	22.72%	40	16.73%
Average (neither)	13	59.09%	152	63.59%
Dissatisfied	0	.00%	0	0%
Very Dissatisfied	0	.00%	0	0%
Total	22	100%	239	100%

Table 9 represents the socioeconomic status (SES) distribution of students. There were 22 schools involved in this study. After the data had been collected and analyzed three categories were developed for SES. The percentages for each category were based on the number of students eligible for the federal free lunch program. When 0-25% of the student population qualified for free lunch the schools were considered high SES. Schools with 26-52% of the student population eligible for free lunch were identified as medium SES schools. Low SES schools had 53-100% of their students qualifying for free lunch. Nine schools (40.90%) were classified as low SES and nine schools were considered high SES. Over 50% of the teachers were working in low SES schools, 15.12% were working in medium SES schools, and 34.03% were working in high SES schools. In this study a large percentage of teachers worked in either the low or high SES schools. Actual percentages of students eligible for the federal lunch program was used in the data analysis.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution- Socio Economic Level of Schools

SES	Schools	Percentage School	No. of Teachers	Percentage Teachers
Low SES (53-100%)	9	40.90%	121	50.84%
Medium SES (26-52%)	4	18.18%	36	15.12%
High SES (0-25%)	9	40.90%	81	34.03%
Total	22	100%	238	100%

Note: Percentages are for children qualifying for free lunch.

Research question one: What is the average strength of the organizational culture as measured by the School Culture Survey (SCS) in elementary schools as perceived by teachers?

Table 10 displays the schools participating in this study, the frequency distribution of the SCS scores, the percentage of teacher responses, the mean scores, standard deviations, and the interpretation column. The data indicates that the majority of the schools were perceived by their teachers as having a “moderately strong” culture. Three schools had mean scores of 71.00, 68.33, and 72.12 categorized as a “somewhat weak” culture. The overall total mean of 89.67 for all of the schools reflected a rating of “moderately strong”. There was a total teacher response rate of 46.05%. Sergiovanni (1984) stated that “weak cultures result in a malaise in schools characterized by a lack of understanding

of what is to be accomplished and a lack of excitement for accomplishment itself" (p. 10). In this study there were no schools that had a strong culture or a "weak" culture.

Table 10

Strength of Organizational Culture in Schools Involved in the Study

School	No. of Tchr Responses	% of Tchr Responses	Mean	SD	Interpreted Strength
1	8	44.44	78.60	14.45	Moderately strong
2	3	21.42	71.00	9.64	Somewhat weak
3	8	23.00	92.49	9.17	Moderately strong
4	3	12.50	68.33	9.01	Somewhat weak
5	4	25.00	75.75	11.66	Moderately strong
6	5	31.25	78.52	32.35	Moderately strong
7	9	47.36	72.12	33.72	Somewhat weak
8	20	95.23	91.70	18.63	Moderately strong
9	7	24.13	80.91	10.11	Moderately strong
12	7	41.17	79.71	38.59	Moderately strong
13	20	83.33	85.62	19.11	Moderately strong
17	21	100.00	101.32	17.89	Moderately strong
18	16	57.14	112.45	23.03	Moderately strong
19	13	54.16	80.88	29.19	Moderately strong
20	15	55.55	85.78	23.99	Moderately strong
21	11	32.35	87.96	25.82	Moderately strong
22	15	41.66	109.45	18.10	Moderately strong
23	10	31.25	93.85	31.18	Moderately strong
26	11	33.33	103.61	21.26	Moderately strong
27	5	16.12	84.12	20.53	Moderately strong
28	31	96.87	81.43	24.13	Moderately strong
Total	242	46.05	89.67	24.75	Moderately strong

Note: Guidelines for this instrument were developed by the California School Leadership Academy.

n = 21

Research question two: What is the average level of job satisfaction of elementary teachers in each school involved in the study as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form?

There were three scales of job satisfaction called extrinsic, intrinsic and general satisfaction scales. There were 238 cases for the MSQ extrinsic job satisfaction and 239 cases for intrinsic and overall job satisfaction. The teachers responded to twenty questions on a 5-point Likert scale, from very satisfied with a point value of 5 to very dissatisfied with a point value of 1.

In this study the researcher measured all three scales of satisfaction. "The most meaningful scores to use in interpreting the MSQ were the percentile scores for each scale obtained from the most appropriate norm group for the individual" (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967, p. vii). The normative data for engineers and professionals were used because it was the best available norm group to represent teachers.

Tables 11, 12, and 13 indicate the frequency distribution, the percentage of teacher responses in each school, the standard deviation, and the mean scores that translate into levels of relative satisfaction for each scale. This data was used to change the mean scores into percentile ranks. These scores were utilized with the descriptive scale.

Table 11 exhibits the general/overall job satisfaction scale. There were 20 items used to determine the level of general/overall job satisfaction. The mean score of 79.14 represented an average level of job satisfaction for the schools in this study. The most appropriate norm group for this study is the engineers/professional norm group. The engineers/professional norm group has a mean score of 77.88.

Table 11

General /Overall Job Satisfaction of Teachers in Schools Involved in the Study

School	No. of Tchr Responses	Percentage of Tchr Resp	Mean	SD	*Satisfaction % ile Level
1	8	44.44%	76.14	16.60	N(37.5%)
2	3	21.42%	73.66	4.16	D(32%)
3	8	22.85%	78.00	10.79	N(45%)
4	3	12.50%	74.33	13.65	D(34%)
5	4	25.00%	77.50	2.38	N(43%)
6	4	25.00%	81.86	9.05	N(64%)
7	9	47.36%	80.33	10.63	N(57%)
8	19	90.47%	75.31	10.14	N(36%)
9	7	24.13%	73.28	11.11	D(31%)
10	4	23.52%	75.75	9.97	N(37%)
12	7	41.17%	83.52	6.52	S(71%)
13	16	66.66%	84.95	8.07	V(75%)
17	21	100.00%	77.32	11.07	N(41%)
18	15	53.57%	87.73	4.33	V(84%)
19	13	54.16%	77.52	6.90	N(45%)
20	15	55.55%	78.07	15.45	N(45%)
21	11	32.35%	80.31	11.67	N(56%)
22	15	41.66%	84.62	8.66	V(75%)
23	10	31.25%	83.40	10.28	S(71%)
26	11	33.33%	85.09	7.35	V(75%)
27	5	16.12%	73.00	8.30	D(30%)
28	31	96.87%	73.48	10.64	D(30%)
Total	239	43.47%	79.14	10.77	Neither/Avg

Note: *Level of job satisfaction determined by Weiss and Associates for the MSQ, Engineer and Professional Norms (mean = 77.88).

D = dissatisfied, N = Neither/Avg, S = Satisfied, and V = Very Satisfied

n = 22

In Table 12 Intrinsic job satisfaction had 12 specific items associated with this scale. The mean score for intrinsic job satisfaction was 50.84. This percentile rank compared to other professionals on the engineer norm scale (48.53) fell in the average category of satisfaction.

Table 12

Intrinsic Job Satisfaction of Teachers in Schools Under Study

School	No. Tchr Resp	Percentage Tchr Resp	Mean	SD	*Level of Satis & %ile
1	7	38.88%	48.21	10.86	N (42%ile)
2	3	21.42%	50.33	00.57	N(56%ile)
3	8	22.85%	50.50	3.50	N (58%ile)
4	3	12.50%	49.00	6.08	N(50%ile)
5	4	25.00%	52.50	1.73	S(73%ile)
6	4	25.00%	51.45	6.16	S(64%ile)
7	9	47.36%	53.10	5.32	V(75%ile)
8	19	90.47%	48.78	6.81	N(48%ile)
9	7	24.13%	48.71	5.85	N(46%ile)
10	4	23.52%	50.00	2.16	N(55%ile)
12	7	41.17%	54.04	3.35	V(80%ile)
13	16	66.66%	53.03	4.51	V(75%ile)
17	21	100.00%	49.14	7.07	N(51%ile)
18	15	53.57%	54.68	2.35	V(87%ile)
19	13	54.16%	51.31	3.53	S(63%ile)
20	15	55.55%	48.92	10.46	N(48%ile)
21	11	32.35%	52.78	6.62	S(73%ile)
22	15	41.66%	53.47	4.81	V(77%ile)
23	10	31.25%	51.60	5.89	S(68%ile)
26	11	33.33%	52.81	3.89	S(73%ile)
27	5	16.12%	49.87	3.55	N(54%ile)
28	31	96.87%	48.14	6.44	N(41%ile)
Total	239	43.21%	50.84	6.218	Neither/Avg

Note: *Level of job satisfaction determined by Weiss and Associates for the MSQ - Short Form, Engineer and Professional Norms (mean = 48.53).

D = dissatisfied, N = Neither/Avg, S = Satisfied, and V = Very Satisfaction

n = 22

In Table 13 Extrinsic job satisfaction was measured based on six identified items on the questionnaire. The overall mean score for all 22 schools involved in the study was 20.77. This score translated into an average level of job satisfaction.

Table 13

Extrinsic Job Satisfaction of Teachers Under Study

School	No. of Tchrs	Percentage of Tchr Resp	Mean	SD	*Level of Sat %ile
1	7	38.88%	22.00	3.31	N(55%ile)
2	3	21.42%	16.66	4.50	VD(18%ile)
3	8	22.85%	20.12	5.91	N(36%ile)
4	3	12.50%	18.33	7.02	D(27%ile)
5	4	25.00%	18.75	1.50	D(29%ile)
6	4	25.00%	22.50	2.38	N(60%ile)
7	9	47.36%	19.55	4.69	D(33%ile)
8	19	90.47%	19.26	3.61	D(32%ile)
9	7	24.13%	18.00	5.16	D(25%ile)
10	4	23.52%	20.25	5.90	N(37%ile)
12	7	41.17%	20.42	4.54	N(39%ile)
13	16	66.66%	23.02	3.41	S(65%ile)
17	21	100.00%	20.40	4.24	N (39%ile)
18	15	53.57%	23.90	2.59	S(74%ile)
19	13	54.16%	19.38	3.88	D(32%ile)
20	15	55.55%	21.53	4.62	N(50%ile)
21	11	32.53%	21.63	5.55	VD(22%ile)
22	15	41.66%	22.93	3.69	VD(23%ile)
23	10	31.25%	23.20	3.70	S(67%ile)
26	11	33.33%	23.72	3.22	S(72%ile)
27	5	16.12%	16.80	4.76	VD(19%ile)
28	31	96.87%	18.64	4.22	D(28%ile)
Total	238	43.21%	20.77	4.44	Avg/Neither

Note: *Level of job satisfaction determined by Weiss and Associates for the MSQ-Short Form, Engineer and Professional Norms (Mean= 21.32).

VD = Very dissatisfied , D = dissatisfied, N = Neither, S = Satisfied, and V = Very Satisfaction.

n = 22

Research question three: Is there a relationship between the strength of the school's organizational culture and the level of teacher job satisfaction in selected elementary schools in one school district in Colorado?

The statistical procedure used to develop an understanding of the data was the Pearson r . It was used to measure the relationship between variables. The Pearson r was used to identify the linear relationships between two variables of organizational culture (OC) and teacher job satisfaction (JS). Table 14 shows a relationship between OC and JS on the three scales of satisfaction. The general satisfaction scale indicates a moderate positive relationship between the OC and JS ($r = .59$, $p = .004$). There was also a moderate positive relationship between OC and JS on the extrinsic scale of satisfaction ($r = .5901$, $p = .004$). A low positive correlation was indicated between OC and JS on the intrinsic scale of satisfaction ($r = .36$, $p = .104$).

Table 14

Pearson Correlation Between Strength of Organizational Culture and Teacher Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Level	Correlation	Interpretation
General	.59**	Moderate Positive Correlation
Intrinsic	.36*	Low positive correlation
Extrinsic	.59**	Moderate Positive Correlation

** $p < .01$

* $p \leq .05$, one tailed

Research question four: Are there significant relationships between the strength of the school organizational culture and: a) the socio economic level of the school, b) the size of school and c) the average years of service of teachers?

Table 15 shows the relationship between school culture and socioeconomic status (SES), size of school, and average years of service. There was no significant relationship between school culture and socioeconomic status. The correlation coefficient was .2358, $p = .291$. Socioeconomic status does not seem to have a significant impact on school culture. Table 15 also indicates the relationship between school culture and the size of the school. There was a moderate positive correlation coefficient of .6545, $p = .001$. The OC is effected by the size of the school. The large schools tend to have moderately strong cultures. The large schools range from low to high SES. The SES does not seem to affect the cultural strength of the schools. The average years of teaching service does not have an impact on organizational culture as indicated by the low correlation coefficient of .1003, $p = .657$.

Table 15

Pearson Correlation Between Strength of Organizational Culture with Socio Economic Level, Size of School and Years of Teaching Service

Organizational Culture with:	Correlation	Interpretation
SES	.2358	Not significant
Size	.6545*	Moderate positive
Years of Service	.1003	Not significant

* $p < .05$

Research question five: Are there relationships between the average level of job satisfaction as perceived by the teaching staff and: a) the socio- economic level of the school, b) the size of school, and c) the average years of teaching service?

In Table 16, the correlation between job satisfaction and socioeconomic status (SES), size of school, and years of teaching service is shown. The relationship between SES and the level of general job satisfaction has a correlation size of $r = -.1772$, $p = .430$. This means there was no statistically significant relationship. Similar results were indicated for intrinsic satisfaction ($r = -.1358$, $p = .547$) and extrinsic satisfaction ($r = -.0989$, $p = .661$). The lack of statistical correlations do not support that there was a relationship between school SES and teacher job satisfaction. The data indicates that SES has no bearing on the level of job satisfaction of teachers. The relationship is not significant.

The relationship between the three kinds of job satisfaction and size of the school was not significant. The size of the elementary school does not influence the job satisfaction of its teachers in the areas of intrinsic job satisfaction and general job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction has a correlation of $.1425$, $p = .53$ and general job satisfaction has a correlation of $.2672$, $p = .23$. There is a low positive correlation of $.3364$, $p = .06$ (one tailed) on the extrinsic scale of satisfaction. Teachers perceive size as having an impact on extrinsic job satisfaction.

Table 16

Pearson Correlation Between Job Satisfaction and: Socioeconomic Level, Size of School and Years of Teaching Service

Sub groups	Scales of Satisfaction and Correlations		
	General	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
SES	.1772	.1358	.0989
Size	.2672	.1425	.3364*
Years of Teaching Service	.0196	.1308	-.0038

* $p \leq .06$, one tailed

Research question six: Are there relationships between the strength of the school's organizational culture or the level of teacher job satisfaction and student achievement?

Table 17 shows the correlation coefficients between OC, JS and student achievement. The correlation coefficients between school culture and student achievement in grades two and five show no significant correlations. Grade two had a correlation of $r = -.1012$, $p = .654$ and grade five had a correlation of $r = -.1248$, $p = .580$.

The MSQ-short form has three scales of satisfaction. On all three scales there was not a significant correlation between job satisfaction and student achievement in grades 2 and 5. This study supports the assumption that the level of JS is not affected by the academic achievement of students.

Table 17

Pearson Correlation Between the Strength of Organizational Culture, Job Satisfaction and Student Achievement in Grades 2 and 5

Student Achievement	Strength OC	Level of Job Satisfaction		
		Gen	Intr	Ex
Grade 2	-.1012	.0687	-.0762	.0306
Grade 5	-.1248	.1179	-.0571	.1925

Note: Achievement was measured on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS)

* $p < .05$

Supplemental Findings

In Table 18, there is a high positive relationship between socioeconomic level (SES) and student achievement in grades two ($r = .8083$, $p = .01$) and five ($r = .7634$, $p = .01$). SES has a strong relationship with student achievement in

these elementary schools. The size of the schools under study and student achievement in grade 5 have a low negative correlation ($r = -.4358$, $p = .043$). There is no significant correlation between the size of schools and the achievement of second grade students in this district ($r = -.3055$, $p = .167$). There is a significant correlation between the size of the elementary schools and the socioeconomic status of the schools ($r = -.4197$, $p = .052$). The larger schools have higher SES.

Table 18

Additional Findings: Pearson Correlation Between Student Achievement in Grades 2 and 5 and: Socioeconomic Level (SES) and size of school

Student Achievement	SES	Size
Grade 2	.8083*	-.3055
Grade 5	.7634*	-.4358*

Note: Achievement was measured on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS)

* $p < .05$

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the strength of the organizational culture of a school organization, teacher job satisfaction, and student achievement within a public school district in Colorado. The organizational culture and job satisfaction were also correlated with socioeconomic level (SES), size of the school, and years of teaching service. This chapter was organized in the following manner: a) Summary of the Study, b) Summary of Findings, c) Conclusions, and d) Recommendations.

Summary of the Study

Teachers in the district under study completed two surveys, the School Culture Survey (SCS) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form (MSQ). The data resulting from both surveys would indicate that organizational culture (OC) of the schools and the overall level of job satisfaction for the district are related. This school district has implemented the collaborative decision making process throughout the district, by creating a decision making group in each school in the district. Teachers, administrators, and community members are involved in making decisions related to the school site.

The SCS reflected a mean score of 89.67 for the schools participating in the study. The culture of the elementary schools in this school district was “Moderately strong”. These findings suggest that teachers in these schools have maintained a professional community. They have pursued a clear shared purpose, engaged themselves in collaborative activity, and accepted collective responsibility, and accountability for student learning (Newman & Wehlage, 1995). Deal & Peterson (1990) and Purkey & Smith (1982) indicated that strong cultures have a clear school mission and encouraged teachers to share ideas with colleagues. High values and high expectations exist for everyone in organizations with strong cultures. There appeared to be strong leadership presence in the schools under study. Rosenholtz (1989) indicated that the school setting was a place where teachers and students learn.

Job satisfaction can be driven by an individual’s perception of the work site. Alderfer (1972) indicated that a person’s desires were in part determined by his/her perceptions of the returns obtained from the external environment. Kim and Loadman (1994) stated that teachers were driven by desire to serve society and the public. Their interests were child based. Teachers in this study reported that they were satisfied on the general job satisfaction scale as reflected by a mean score of 79.14. On the Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale the mean score was 50.84. The mean was 20.77 on the Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale. These scores on the intrinsic and extrinsic scales were in the “average/neutral” level of satisfaction. Lambert (1991) indicated that what makes a job satisfying and worthwhile was the nature of the job and satisfaction is likely to occur when a job is meaningful and promoted self determination.

Summary of Findings

Research Question One

What is the strength of the organizational culture as measured by the School Culture Survey in selected elementary schools as perceived by teachers?

Teachers responses to the strength of the schools' organizational culture revealed that these elementary schools have strong cultures. The total mean for all schools in this study placed these schools in the "moderately strong" organizational strength category. Neill (1994) used this instrument in her study of middle school teachers. She established validity and reliability on School Culture Survey. There was a total mean of 79.62, indicating a "moderately strong" culture in her study. The mean for the elementary teachers in this study had a higher overall mean of 89.67. The schools involved in this study, possess the characteristics of a strong organizational culture. In the study conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (1997) indicated that elementary school teachers tend to be more satisfied than secondary school teachers. Both settings were equally strong when strong parental support was present. Strong organizational cultures have strong leadership that invest in people, implement decision making strategies, trust the judgment of others, encourage participation, and embrace ethical implications in decision making.

Research Question Two

What is the perceived level of job satisfaction of elementary teachers in each school involved in the study as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form?

Elementary teachers were satisfied with their jobs as indicated in the overall levels of satisfaction on three scales. The overall/general level of

satisfaction compared to other professionals was “average”. Possibly, the professionals identified in the norm group may be highly satisfied. The teachers in four schools indicated that their average level of satisfaction was “very satisfied”.

On the Extrinsic scale of satisfaction the schools ranged from very satisfied to very dissatisfied. Extrinsic satisfaction deals with the rewards bestowed upon teachers by others, such as salary, fringe benefits, etc. There were seven elementary schools with teachers who reported “average” satisfaction levels. The overall teacher rating for the schools under study was in the “average” category of satisfaction.

The schools under study had an overall rating on the Intrinsic scale higher than the engineers and other professionals norm group. All of the schools were in either the “very satisfied”, “satisfied”, or “average” categories. It appeared that the majority of teachers rated their schools in the “average” satisfaction category. The Gallup Poll (1996) stated that most Americans were happy with their employers. Eighty-two percent indicated that they had the opportunity of doing what they do best on a daily basis and that someone had encouraged their development at work. The assumption could be made that the teachers in this study were satisfied with their jobs and compared favorably with other Americans.

Research Question Three

Is there a relationship between the strength of the school’s organizational culture and the level of teacher job satisfaction in selected elementary schools in one school district in Colorado?

There was a positive moderate relationship between the strength of the school culture and general satisfaction. There was also a positive moderate

relationship between the strength of the school culture and extrinsic satisfaction, but there was a low relationship between organizational culture and the intrinsic satisfaction of teachers. Teachers indicated in a study conducted by National Center for Education Statistics (1997) that administrative support and leadership, student behavior, school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy were working conditions related to teacher satisfaction. The more favorable the working conditions were, the higher the satisfaction scores were. Teachers with greater autonomy reported higher levels of satisfaction. British Columbia Teacher's Federation (1996) identified two indicators of job satisfaction, the staff and work site, as well as the teaching and students. Teachers in this study indicated that organizational culture affects teacher job satisfaction. They also appeared to be satisfied with their school culture and level of job satisfaction. It could be assumed that these teachers experience more autonomy, are satisfied with the staff, work site, teaching, and the students.

Chittom and Sistrunk (1990) indicated a significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of school culture and job satisfaction (JS). They stated that teachers with high levels of JS projected a more favorable impression of school culture than did teachers with low levels of JS. Kottkamp, Provenzo, and Cohen (1986) indicated that extrinsic rewards were identified as the most important factor in JS by 20% of the teachers in 1984 and 13% in 1964. Intrinsic rewards were identified as most important in JS by 11.97% in 1964 and 16.3% in 1984. Wolf (As cited in Hollaway, 1978) stated that the intrinsic facets of satisfaction were more powerful determinants of overall JS than extrinsic facets. The facets are the difference between what one feels is the adequate

level of satisfaction for the job done and what one is receiving. In this study, intrinsic satisfaction, general satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction are related to job satisfaction.

Research Question four

Are there significant relationships between the strength of the school organizational culture and: (a) the socio economic status of the school, (b) the size of school, and (3) the average years of teaching service?

There appeared to be no statistically significant correlation between organizational culture and socioeconomic status (SES). It appears that SES is not a key component in developing culture strength. The literature indicates that teachers in schools with fewer low income and minority students were more likely to report positive experiences (Kim & Loadman, 1994). In this study, both low SES and high SES schools have strong cultures.

The size of the schools in this study ranged in size from small (196 students) to large (766 students). The size of the schools were based on student enrollment. The data supported the assumption that 40% of the schools in this district were characterized as small. The small schools in this district appeared to have fewer students qualifying for free lunch, indicating higher SES. However, the large schools seemed to have more students qualifying for free lunch. There was a moderate positive relationship between organizational culture and the size of schools. The size of the school can influence how teachers perceive the culture of their work site.

The correlation between the school organization and years of teaching service did not result in a significant relationship. The years of teaching

experience does not have an impact on organizational culture in this study. It appears that the strength of the school culture is not driven by the experience of the teaching staff.

Research Question Five

Are there significant relationships between the average level of job satisfaction as perceived by the teaching staff and: (a) the socioeconomic status of the school, (b) the size of school, and (c) the average years of teaching service?

The job satisfaction is not affected by the socioeconomic status of the school (SES). There were very low correlations for all three scales of satisfaction. It appears that teachers use various factors to determine his/her level of job satisfaction. The results of this data also indicates that teachers do not base their level of job satisfaction on the SES of the students in the school.

The relationship between the three levels of job satisfaction and the size of the school is not significant in all three areas. The size of the elementary school does not influence the job satisfaction of its teachers in the areas of intrinsic job satisfaction and general job satisfaction. There is a positive correlation on the extrinsic job satisfaction scale which indicates that job satisfaction is influenced by the student population. Teachers perceive size as having an impact on extrinsic job satisfaction. Gottfredson (As cited in Cotton, 1998) stated that "Large schools appear to promote negative teacher perceptions of school administration and low staff morale" (p. 9). Worthy (As cited in Porter, 1963) indicated that the most important factor in determining the quality of employee relationships was the smaller the unit the higher the morale. However, National Center for Education Statistics (1997) stated in a study of teachers in grades kindergarten through 12th that the enrollment size of a

school was not related to satisfaction. This study is more consistent with these latter findings than those of the individual researchers mentioned above.

The average years of service in the district under study was 6-10 years. There was no statistically significant correlation between organizational culture and the years of teaching service. National Center for Education Statistics (1997) indicated that variables such as teacher's age and years of experience were related to teacher satisfaction, however, they were not as relevant in explaining different levels of satisfaction as workplace conditions such as administrative support, parental involvement, and teacher control over classroom guidelines. Schools with more experienced teachers did not have higher job satisfaction intrinsically.

NCES (1997) indicate that in public schools, younger and less experienced teachers have higher levels of satisfaction than older and more experienced teachers. Whyley and Callendar (1997) implied that younger staff members were getting more satisfaction working in higher education than older colleagues. In this study, years of service was not significantly related to job satisfaction.

Research Question Six

Are there relationships between the strength of the school's organizational culture (OC) or the level of teacher job satisfaction (JS) and student achievement?

The correlation coefficient between organizational culture and student achievement in grades two and five showed relatively little, if any, correlation. The correlation between job satisfaction and student achievement was not statistically significant. In this study, school organizational culture did not play a significant role in affecting student achievement. It seems that the OC and JS

do not play a key role in determining student achievement results on standardized tests. Whether the culture is strong/weak or teachers are satisfied/dissatisfied, these two factors do not seem to drive the achievement of students.

Supplemental Findings

There is a high positive relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and student achievement in grades two and five. SES was related to student achievement in the elementary schools participating in this study. The poorer the school the lower the test scores. In these schools more challenges are brought to school on a daily basis by students. The students are striving to meet their basic needs (food, shelter, medical care, etc.). The school district under study is located in the inner city. This district is faced with the challenge of addressing the needs of a large at-risk population. The size of the schools and student achievement in grade five were negatively correlated. However, this is likely due to the fact that the larger schools were more likely to be low SES. There was little if any correlation between the size of schools and the achievement of second grade students in this district. This could be contributed to the commitment made by this district to keep the primary classes at a lower number and to provide additional assistance to teachers in the classrooms.

There was also a significant correlation between the size of the elementary schools and the socioeconomic status of the schools ($r = -.4197$, $p = .052$). The larger schools have higher SES.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were made:

1. Socioeconomic status plays a significant role in student achievement.

Students from large and low wealth or socioeconomic status (SES) schools will

have a difficult time meeting the same challenges bestowed upon them as the average American child. Where there is a low level of SES there is generally a large population of minority and poor youngsters. The large schools located in low SES communities are usually located in large and older inter city school districts. Students come to school poorly prepared to accept the challenges and expectations for learning. There are many unforeseen factors that affect these children before they report to school. Consequently, these factors interfere with student learning. A conscious effort should be made to identify the needs of children living in poverty. Maslow states that basic needs must be met before one can move up the ladder toward self-actualization (Rossow, 1990). Learning will not be a priority in the lives of students unless their basic needs are met.

2. The size of an elementary school plays a significant role in student achievement, school culture, and the extrinsic satisfaction of teachers. If student achievement is the ultimate goal, it is critical to maintain small school sizes. Cotton (1997) suggested that an effective elementary school is 300-400 students. In this study the large schools have a lower level of SES. There are more students eligible for free lunch which indicate that the community is less affluent. Cotton (1997) also indicated that small schools generated better student attitudes, student behavior, and better academic programs. There was a high correlation between small schools and student achievement of disadvantaged youth. Teachers in small schools have more influence on the way their schools functioned than larger schools. In this study a larger number of poor students are attending large schools located in lower SES communities. Although the cultures are strong the student achievement is low.

3. Organizational culture (OC) and teacher job satisfaction (JS) are

related. The culture of the schools is formed through an inter action of beliefs, experiences, and already existing elements. An individual is slowly shaped in order to fit into the existing culture. The culture truly displays how things are done. Job satisfaction is determined by the culture of the school. When the culture is strong, the job satisfaction is satisfying. In this study, the OC of the elementary schools are “moderately strong”. Based on the cultural strength, these schools have strong leaders, a clear vision, a widely shared philosophy, strong values, high standards for performance, rules for behavior, etc. The teachers scored about the same as their norm group (engineers/professionals) in the area of job satisfaction. It is important to consider OC and JS when contemplating change in schools. Before change is considered, the culture of the school must be understood. Teachers must be the primary “change agents”. Teachers must be involved in decisions affecting them. Student achievement can be affected only if teachers are a part of this process. Strong organizational cultures produce more committed and satisfied teachers. Satisfied workers produces more (Hoppock, 1935). In strong cultures teachers teach and students learn.

4. Teachers do not need extrinsic rewards as much as people in other occupations. In this study, teachers scored slightly lower than their norm group of engineers/professionals. This could mean that the engineers/professionals norm group receives more accolades and better compensation for their work. Professionals in this norm group enter their profession with different expectations. Teachers traditionally do not enter the field of teaching because of money, but for the intrinsic gratification. In the study conducted by NCES (1997), concluded that “teacher satisfaction showed a weak relationship with salary and benefits” (p. ix). Teachers generally enter the field of teaching

because they want to be of service to mankind. They want to make a difference in the life of a child (Harris & Associates, 1992). These findings however, do not indicated that teachers feel that extrinsic rewards are not valuable. Although compensation and extrinsic rewards are not the primary elements that attract teachers to the profession, they are necessary components of satisfied workers.

Recommendations

Based upon the research and conclusions of this study, the following general and research recommendations are made:

1. This study should be replicated in the middle and high school levels in the district of study to determine if findings could be generalized to all grade levels.
2. This study should be conducted in more than one school district in Colorado. By utilizing more than one school district, there would be a wider range of socioeconomic status, school sizes, student achievement, and years of teaching experience. School districts identified as suburban, urban, and inner city should be involved in the study.
3. Further research should be conducted focusing on principal leadership styles and characteristics and the ways these characteristics affect organizational culture and teacher job satisfaction.
4. A research study should be conducted to determine if the community has an effect on organizational culture and teacher job satisfaction. Allow the teachers, parents, and other community members to complete the School Culture Survey.
5. Conduct a study to determine if the size of the school and the socioeconomic status of the school effect student achievement on the Colorado

State Assessment Program (CSAP). Identify specific determinants that define the relationship.

6. Conduct a study of private elementary, public elementary, and charter elementary schools to determine the level of organizational culture, teacher job satisfaction, the level of student achievement, and the level of parent involvement.

7. The results of this study should be made available to the District Accountability Councils and local elementary schools to generate interest in assessing the organizational culture and job satisfaction at other school sites.

8. The results of this study could lead to informal dialog that could encourage principals to share with other colleagues their success in strengthening their schools' cultures. Principals would share and obtain ideas to improve the organizational culture of their schools and the job satisfaction of their staffs.

9. Conduct research to determine what factors contribute to teachers high levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. What can be done to discourage teacher dissatisfaction in the school district? When does the level of dissatisfaction increase in a teacher's career?

10. The results of this study could be used as an avenue to stimulate discussion and interest in further professional development in the area of organizational culture and teacher job satisfaction.

11. Conduct a research study to determine the level of principals' job satisfaction and its relationship to the organizational culture of the school district.

12. Compare schools with low organizational culture and low job satisfaction with schools with high organizational culture and high job satisfaction in terms of student achievement.

13. Conduct a study to determine the effects of teacher burnout and level of job stress on organizational culture and student achievement.

14. Replicate this study on organizational culture and teacher job satisfaction and redesign the response options for the job satisfaction instrument to include very satisfied, satisfied, dissatisfied, and very dissatisfied. The response of neither/average/neutral would be omitted. This redesign would encourage the respondents to identify a level of job satisfaction and omit the neutrality option.

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APPENDIX A
SCHOOL CULTURE SURVEY

The School Culture Survey

128

The School Culture Survey has been designed to provide you and other members of your school with insight into the nature and strength of its culture. "Culture " may be defined as the fabric of shared values, beliefs, and behaviors that are of paramount importance to a given school and characterize it to its staff and outsiders as well.

As you consider each of the following thirty-eight statements, think of your school as it exists today, not as it may have existed in the past or the way people would like it to project itself in the future.

For each statement, circle the number you believe most accurately reflects the extent to which that statement is descriptive of your school. Remember to be candid in your responses.

- 4 = the statement is **strongly descriptive** of my school
- 3 = the statement is **descriptive** of my school
- 2 = the statement is **moderately descriptive** of my school
- 1 = the statement is **slightly descriptive** of my school
- 0 = the statement is **not** at all descriptive of my school

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. Our school and what it stands for can be easily identified by outsiders from our formal (or informal slogan). | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 2. Our school has a widely shared philosophy. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 3. It is difficult to get a job in our school because the selection process is so rigorous. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 4. The informal rules telling us how to behave in most circumstances are very clear in our school. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 5. Our school has "storytellers" who are good at imparting school legends and folklore to newcomers. They carry news and interpret organizational events. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 6. We have clear standards for the use of spoken and written language. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 7. New teachers are carefully oriented to "the way we do things around here." | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 8. Most new teachers go through a form of hazing before they are completely accepted into our school. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 9. Our clerical and custodial workers understand our school's values. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 10. Successful people in our school are given full and wide publicity to other staff. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 11. The heroes in our school, even though they may no longer be present, are still meaningful to me. | 0 1 2 3 4 |

Over please. Continue to # 12.

4 = strongly descriptive
 3 = descriptive
 2 = moderately descriptive
 1 = slightly descriptive
 0 = not descriptive

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| 28. | The values and beliefs of this school are well known to our community, parents, and students. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. | This school places a high value on its informal get-togethers, e.g., a Friday afternoon lunch to which everyone is invited. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. | The important leaders of this school can be counted on to put the needs of the school ahead of everything else. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. | This school clearly stands for something of importance, school history at their fingertips. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. | When someone performs well in our school, a great deal of recognition is provided through various well-understood rituals. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. | This school consistently adheres to its values, even in times of adversity. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. | This school has clearly identified and well-publicized heroes, i.e., people who have contributed something of value to its success. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. | Rituals and ceremonies are an important part of the daily life in this school. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. | We have clear rules for communicating with one another, such as how to address each other. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. | We place a high value on teaching expertise. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. | People in this school are willing to work harder because they are dedicated to the school's values. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. | How many years have you been teaching? Circle the number that applies to you. | 0-5 years 6-10 years 11 Years up | | | | |

Please continue to the next questionnaire

From *Shaping Your School's Culture to Improve Student Learning*. Hayward, CA: California School Leadership Academy, 1992, pp. 3-62 through 3-66. The California School Leadership Academy based "School Culture Survey" on ideas found in Terrence E. Deal and Allan A. Kennedy, *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*. (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1982)

4=strongly descriptive
3 = descriptive
2 = moderately descriptive
1 = slightly descriptive
0 = not descriptive

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 12. Our school has explicit rules for interpersonal behavior, e.g., romances among teachers are strictly forbidden. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 13. Our administration participates in the selection of new teachers, particularly those hired through recruiting. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 14. In our school, it is clear to everyone what matters, e.g., high test scores, discipline, administration. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 15. Members of administration spend a large portion of their time communicating their philosophy of what the school is all about. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 16. We have important school rituals or ceremonies that show our staff what kind of behavior is valued and expected. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 17. We have a few "sacred cows" around here. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 18. Administrators go to great trouble to set standards of performance publicly. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 19. Our faculty meetings have formal rules of operation, well known to all who attend. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 20. Our school has a strong informal and unofficial communication network that is the primary means for transmitting important information. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 21. Our school publications make frequent and clear statements about our values and what we stand for. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 22. Our school has "storytellers," who possess a rich reservoir of school history at their fingertips. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 23. We have a formal mentoring program to assure the successful assimilation of teachers new to the school. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 24. Our school attempts to make a statement about itself in the building, classroom, and resources it provides its staff. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 25. Feedback on our school's success and failures is rapid. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 26. When an administrator makes a formal presentation, he or she knows that there is an acceptable format. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 27. Our heroes are mostly super teachers. | 0 1 2 3 4 |

Over please. Continue to # 28.

APPENDIX B
COVER LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

School of Education
Fort Collins, Colorado 80523-1588

February 1998

Dear Principal,

Thank you for your decision to participate in the research of "School Organizational Culture and Teacher Job Satisfaction." The purpose of this study is to examine the school's organizational culture and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers within two metropolitan school districts. Demographic variables within the school district will be examined as they relate to organizational culture, teacher job satisfaction and student achievement. I appreciate the commitment of time you and your teachers are willing to undertake in this research.

The data collected in this study will provide information on school culture, teacher job satisfaction and student achievement in your school and district wide. The results will be reported in a summary format for your individual school. I will also provide a summary of the study. I hope this study will provide useful information for your school improvement efforts.

I will be asking teachers to complete two instruments, the School Culture Survey (SCS) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the surveys. All responses will remain confidential. To insure anonymity, I am requesting that all surveys be returned in the unmarked sealed envelope included in the teacher packet, whether they are filled out or not and placed in the large envelope provided for all returned surveys. I will pick up your school's envelope. I will be providing a packet for each teacher in your building. The packet will include: a cover letter, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, School Culture Survey and a plain envelope.

The manner in which this inquiry is conducted should assure the anonymity of all participants and assure confidentiality of information collected. All written data will be destroyed after it is collected, coded, and analyzed. I understand that it is not possible to identify all potential risks in an experimental procedure, but I believe that reasonable safeguards have been taken to minimize both the known and the potential but unknown, risks.

Thank you again for your participation.

Sincerely,

Wanda A. Lenox

Wanda A. Lenox

Graduate student

Principal of Willmore-Davis Elementary School

Charles F. Porter

Dr. Charles Porter

Principal Investigator

School of Educational

____ Yes, permission has been granted to conduct the study in my school.

____ I would like you to administer the survey at a regular staff meeting

____ Please send me enough surveys for my certified staff.

No. of teachers: _____ No. of certified staff, not teachers (social worker, nurse, etc): _____

Signature of Principal: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX C
COVER LETTER TO TEACHERS

February 1998

Dear Teacher,

I am a doctoral student at Colorado State University conducting a study on organizational culture(OC), teacher job satisfaction(TJS), and student achievement(SA). My study is entitled "Organizational Culture and Teacher Job Satisfaction." The purpose of this study is to examine the school's organizational culture and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers within two metropolitan school Districts. Demographic variables of the school not the teachers, will be examined as they relate to OC, TJS, and SA. Your school has been selected to participate in this study based on socio economic status and the size of your school (student population). Both the school district and your principal have given authorization to conduct the study in your school. I encourage your participation.

It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the two surveys. Place both surveys in the plain envelope included in the packet and seal it. Do not mark or write on the envelope. Place the plain unmarked envelope in the large envelope provided for your school's surveys. To insure confidentiality and anonymity, I am requesting that all surveys be returned in the unmarked sealed envelope and placed in the large envelope provided for your school's survey returns. Your participation is voluntary so, if you choose not to participate please, return your blank surveys in the unmarked sealed envelope and place it in the large envelope provided for your school's survey returns. The manner in which this inquiry is conducted should assure the anonymity of all participants and assure confidentiality of information collected. All written data will be destroyed after it is collected, coded, and analyzed. I understand that it is not possible to identify all potential risks in an experimental procedure, but I believe that reasonable safeguards have been taken to minimize both the known and the potential but unknown, risks.

Each teacher will receive a packet. The packet includes the followings items:

- This cover letter
- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)
- School Culture Survey (SCS)
- Plain envelope

The quality and quantity of this study will assure a productive study. If you have questions please contact Chuck Porter the principal investigator at (970) 491-6289, Colorado State University or Wanda Lenox at (303) 982-2890 (Wilmore-Davis Elementary School) or 371-0097 (home).

Thank you for your participation. A summary of results will be sent to your building principal after the completion of this study.

Sincerely,


Wanda A. Lenox
Graduate student
Principal of Wilmore-Davis School


Dr. Charles Porter
Principal Investigator
School of Educational

APPENDIX D
PERSONAL COMMUNICATION- ALLEN MORI

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CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, LOS ANGELES



5151 STATE UNIVERSITY DRIVE, LOS ANGELES, CA 90032-8140

CHARTER SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
OFFICE OF THE DEAN

(213) 343-4300 FAX: (213) 343-4318 <http://www.calstatela.edu>

December 12, 1997

Ms. Wanda Lenox
5094 Scranton Court
Denver, CO 80239

Dear Ms. Lenox:

I am delighted to assist you in the process of completing your dissertation study at Colorado State University. As per your instructions I reviewed thoroughly and carefully the School Culture Survey for the purpose of determining its content validity. I find that this survey is clearly valid for the task at hand; that is, it measures attributes commonly associated with the concept of organizational culture. The survey items are written clearly and are well stated.

I wish you the best of luck in completing your dissertation study and the doctoral degree program. If I can be of further assistance, please feel free to call upon me.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Allen A. Mori', is written over the typed name.

Allen A. Mori, Ph.D., Dean
AAM:ms

The California State University

Bakersfield • Channel Islands • Chico • Dominguez Hills • Fresno • Fullerton • Hayward • Humboldt • Long Beach • Los Angeles • Maritime Academy
Northridge • Monterey Bay • Pomona • Sacramento • San Bernardino • San Diego • San Francisco • San Jose • San Luis Obispo • San Marcos • Sonoma • Stanislaus

APPENDIX E
PERMISSION TO USE THE SCHOOL CULTURE SURVEY

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California
School
Leadership
Academy

September 29, 1997

138
313 W. Winton Ave.
Suite 373
Hayward, CA
94544-1198
ph 510/670-4563
or 670-4564
fax 510/670-4516

Wanda Lennox
5094 Scranton Court
Denver, CO 80239
via fax (303) 982-2891

Dear Ms. Lennox:
The California School Leadership Academy and Laraine Roberts hereby
restate permission for you to reprint the following:

"The School Culture Survey"

Research has revealed that the attribution of the Survey to ideas found Rollin Glazer's work (mentioned in CSLA's *Shaping Your School's Culture to Improve Student Learning*) is erroneous, and that the attribution of the Survey to ideas found in *Corporate Cultures* is quite valid, but is general in nature and not specific enough to warrant a permission to adapt.

CSLA requests that you cite the Survey in the following manner when you reprint it:

From *Shaping Your School's Culture to Improve Student Learning*. Hayward, CA: California School Leadership Academy, 1992, pp. 3-62 through 3-66. The California School Leadership Academy based "School Culture Survey" on ideas found in Terrence E. Deal and Allan A. Kennedy, *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1982).

Thanks for your interest in CSLA, and best of luck with your project.

Sincerely,

Megan Shaw
Research and Development Assistant