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JOB SATISFACTION, PERSONALITY, WORK CONTENT

AND MOTIVATION OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS:

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC FACTORS

An Ed. S. Field Project

Presented to the

Department of Psychology

and the

Faculty of the Graduate College

University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Specialist in Education

University of Nebraska at Omaha

By

Jodi Breci

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JOB SATISFACTION, PERSONALITY, WORK CONTENT AND

MOTIVATION OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS:

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC FACTORS

Jodi Breci, Ed.S

University of Nebraska, November 2002

Advisor: Dr. Robert H. Woody

An investigation of job satisfaction of school psychologists was conducted through a mailed survey to 545 school psychologists working in Iowa and Nebraska. After an initial mailing and two follow up mailings, along with reminder postcards, a usable return rate of 71.38% was obtained. Significant findings included the following: The majority of respondents (approximately 74%) indicated that they were satisfied or highly satisfied with their current school psychology positions. School psychologists continued to practice school psychology for intrinsic reasons significantly more so than for extrinsic reasons. Older school psychologists reported higher job satisfaction than their younger counterparts. A greater percentage of Nebraska respondents were highly satisfied with their jobs than Iowa respondents. Respondents who reported that they earned over $50,000 annually had higher overall job satisfaction scores than their lower-earning respondents. A discrepancy between actual and desired amount of time spent in various job activities was related to job satisfaction. Significant differences were also observed for personality types.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank each of my committee members for their guidance, support, and expertise in the completion of this project. Each of them, Dr. Robert Woody, Dr. Carey Ryan, and Dr. John Hill, has been patient and encouraging. Special thanks are extended to my committee chair, Dr. Robert Woody, for welcoming me back into the program after giving up on a would-be project that should have been completed in 1999.

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Introduction and Review of Literature

Projected demographic changes have heightened interest in the staffing of public

schools. These demographic shifts concern another round of growth in the school age

population and a shift in its composition toward racial and ethnic minorities. As the

"baby boom echo" passes through its school years, demand for public school staff has

grown tremendously in many areas of the country (U.S. Department of Education, 1999,

Area Schools, 1999, Struggling Schools, 1999). This demographic shift, along with a

growing emphasis among school districts on hiring fully credentialed staff has produced

teacher shortages (Struggling Schools, 1999).

Statement of the Problem

Along with teacher shortages, nationwide shortages in school support staff,

including school psychologists, have been indicated (Fagan, 1988). In fact, the

profession of school psychology was cited recently in *US. News and World Report* as one

of the top eight professions in which jobs are projected to be plentiful for years to come

(Mulrine, 2002). And although the National Association of School Psychologists

recommends one psychologist per 1,000 students, the national average is one per 1,800

(Marshall, 1999).

There are many reasons that the need for school psychologists is expected to

grow. Increasingly, children are starting school "at risk" for academic, social, and

emotional problems due to a multitude of changes and problems in society. Poverty,

homelessness, and disintegration of families have all increased (Gerken, 1995). In fact, of

the 19 million adolescents between the ages of 10 and 14, approximately 20% live below

the poverty line (Crespi, 1999). The number of children receiving psychological services

is approaching one million (Dwyer, 2000). Thomas (1995) reported the number to be

even higher, namely at about 2.5 million.

Also, although reported criminal incidents have remained constant or decreased in

some areas, youth violence is alarming (Riley & McDaniel, 2000). Dykeman, Daehlin,

Doyle, and Flamer (1996) observe that not only are children committing violent crimes at

younger ages, but also they are involved with crime as victims and witnesses. The

number of such crimes taking place in schools is spiraling upward (Elliot, Hamburg, &

Williams, 1998; Poland, Pitcher, & Lazarus, 1995). According to Sandhu (2000), nearly

three million serious crimes are committed annually in the nation's schools. Since 1992,

there have been several instances of "school mass homicides," such as the ones at

Columbine High School in Colorado and Jonesboro Middle School in Arkansas. As

school administrators struggle with ways to prevent violence in their schools, they

increasingly turn to school psychologists and counselors for help with establishing

violence prevention measures (Fryxell & Smith, 2000).

The recognized need for mental health services in schools and additional federal

money for psychological services have boosted demand for school psychologists

(Mulrine, 2002). Furthermore, school psychologists are becoming increasingly involved

in the legal system and are called upon to testify regarding psychological evaluations,

placement decisions, degree to which responsibility for criminal acts was diminished by

disability conditions, test bias, alleged discrimination against minorities, and many other issues (Stumme, 1995).

Finally, many school psychologists who entered the field in the 1960's and 1970's are nearing retirement, with nearly one-third of school psychologists between the ages 51 and 60, according to a recent survey (Mulrine, 2002). Specifically, a survey of National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) indicated that 2/3 of the 3179 survey respondents completed the question "years until expected retirement;" ten percent of those respondents indicated a plan to retire within the next three years (Thomas, 2000). It would seem then that the need for school psychologists will not decrease soon.

Significance of the Study

Because the need for school psychologists is expected to increase, attracting and retaining qualified school psychologists will become more and more important. In Anderson, Hohenshil, and Browns' study (1984), 42% of subjects planned to leave their current positions within five years. Highly satisfied school psychologists are less likely to change schools or to leave the profession altogether than those who are dissatisfied, reducing disruption to the school environment, and taking away the need for costly staff replacement efforts (Brown, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1998; Solly & Hohenshil, 1986). Also, researchers have shown that the level of job satisfaction contributes to how effectively an individual performs at his or her job (Ma & Macmillan, 1999), so the quality of services to children is likely affected by school psychologists' job satisfaction.

Therefore, it would seem prudent for school districts to address those factors that motivate school psychologists to continue to work in their schools.

Until relatively recently, most research about job satisfaction was completed in the industrial sector, with attempts often made to adapt findings to education (Tack & Patitu, 1992). Concerns about the job satisfaction of school psychologists began with a reaction at the Spring Hill Conference. Vensel (1981) found that about one-half of the school psychologists in one state planned to leave the profession within five years due to restrictions on professional roles. Similarly, Carroll, Bretzing, and Harris (1981) found that 60% of school psychologists in their study reported a desire to leave the profession. However, other studies have indicated high overall job satisfaction with the overwhelming majority of practitioners intending to continue their careers in school psychology (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Huebner, 1993; Huebner, McLeskey, & Cummings, 1984; Levinson, Fetchkan, & Hohenshil, 1988; Reschly & Connolly, 1990; Reschly & Wilson, 1995; Williams, Williams, & Ryer, 1990).

Although many studies have shown that school psychologists are generally satisfied with their careers, there is conflicting evidence as to which factors of their careers are sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For example, Anderson, Hohenshil, and Brown (1984) found that job satisfaction could be predicted to a significant degree by psychologist-to-student ratio (the lower the ratio, the higher the job satisfaction), while Ahrens (1977) did not find that job satisfaction was related to psychologist-to-student ratio. Further study of the job satisfaction of school psychologists is warranted.

Definition

Job satisfaction has been defined in a number of ways. Ivancevich and Donnelly

(1986) defined job satisfaction as "the favorable viewpoint of the worker toward the

work role he presently occupies" (p. 172). A succinct definition given by Spector (1997)

stated that, "Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different

aspects of their jobs (p.2). Nine different operational definitions of job satisfaction were

identified by Wanous and Lawler (1972). Each of the definitions was described in terms

of how different aspects or facets of job satisfaction are measured and how they combine

to achieve an overall measure of satisfaction. The definitions included: (1) overall job

satisfaction as the sum of job facet satisfaction across facets of a job, (2) job satisfaction

as a weighted sum of job facet satisfaction, (3) job satisfaction as the sum of goal

attainment or need fulfillment when summed across job facets, (4) job satisfaction as a

correspondence to Vroom's "valence for a job", (5) job satisfaction as a difference

between how much there is and how much there should be, (6) job satisfaction as a result

of comparison between fulfillment and desires or ideals in the present, (7) job satisfaction

as a measure of desires or ideals of what one would like, (8) job satisfaction as the

importance of a job facet that determines the degree of affect produced by an amount of

discrepancy between fulfillment and desires, and (9) job satisfaction as the discrepancy

between the importance of a job facet and the perception of fulfillment from a facet.

One of the difficulties in defining job satisfaction is the different terms

researchers use to describe it. Job satisfaction is used interchangeably with such terms as

morale, attitudes, and feelings. As early as the 1930s, the terms feelings and attitudes were used to describe job satisfaction (Kornhauser, 1930). Ivancevich and Donnelly (1986) suggested that the term satisfaction is similar to morale and attitude. Brayfield and Roethe (1951) noted that "...attempts to identify and estimate job satisfaction have preceded precise definition. Employee satisfaction and morale are often equated but seldom defined" (p. 307).

Another difficulty in defining job satisfaction is the way in which satisfaction itself is measured. Ewen (1967) noted that usually job satisfaction is measured by determining how satisfied employees are with various aspects of their jobs. A concern raised by Ewen was how much weight each facet should be given in measuring it. Evans (1969) noted that the validity of job satisfaction measures was dependent upon the assumption that respondents assign equal importance to each aspect. Similarly, Wanous and Lawler (1972) raised concern that the many conceptual definitions of job satisfaction have led to different ways of measuring the term satisfaction. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) observed that while the measurement of job satisfaction is the total of facet satisfaction, this assumption was appropriate only as long as the content of the satisfaction measure is valid.

Although there is no consensus on ways of defining job satisfaction, it has generally considered to be an affective state (Jayaratne, 1993; Williamson, 1996). Spector (1997) stated that, "Job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various facets or aspects of the job"

(p.2). While job satisfaction has often been expressed as an affective state, the cognitive component of workers' satisfaction with their jobs has been increasingly recognized. Brief (1998) stated that job satisfaction is "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor" (p. 86). However job satisfaction is defined, researchers have generally agreed that job satisfaction is related to specific outcomes, one important outcome being the decision to continue to work at that job (Williamson, 1996).

For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction has been defined as a global set of attitudes employees have about how well their jobs fulfill their needs. Such a definition worked well with the present study's questionnaire design (which measures attitudes) and the study of intrinsic and extrinsic factors of jobs, which will be discussed later.

Measurement of Job Satisfaction

Numerous ways to measure job satisfaction have been attempted since Hoppock's monograph was presented in 1935 (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1986). Since then, thousands of studies have been conducted to try to determine the sources of workers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their jobs (Locke, 1969; Spector, 1999). Locke (1969) noted that despite the number of studies completed, advances in understanding the phenomenon of job satisfaction have not kept pace with the research. It has been apparent that many different methods of collecting and analyzing data have been used. Because of the numerous methods used to investigate job satisfaction, different results have been obtained (Locke, Smith, Kendall, Hulin, & Miller, 1964). The data collection techniques

used most often in studies of job satisfaction have included questionnaires, interviews,

rank-order studies, sentence completion tests, and critical incident inquiries (Fournet,

Distefano, & Pryer, 1969).

The most commonly used technique to measure job satisfaction has been the

questionnaire (Ewen, 1967; Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Spector, 1997). Spector

(1997) indicated that using existing questionnaires is an easy way to assess job

satisfaction. Since they have been used in previous studies, reliability and validity

generally have been established. Other advantages of using questionnaires include

increased likelihood of insured confidentiality, ease of administering, and frankness in

response if used anonymously (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Because it is less likely to

deviate from the instructions and administration methods, Pedhazur and Schmelkin

(1991) reported that questionnaires are less susceptible to bias than other methods, such

as interviews.

Job satisfaction questionnaires have been divided into two types. One type

measures overall job satisfaction and includes devices such as the Hoppock Job

Satisfaction Scale or the Gallup Poll, while the other type measures the various facets of

the job and includes measures such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota

Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). Wanous and Lawler

(1972) stated that important construct and validity questions are raised with job

satisfaction measures because it is not clear if the term satisfaction is being measured in

the same way. Ewen (1967) raised doubt that job satisfaction questionnaires do not take

into consideration the importance of the single components to the worker. Costs can be a factor when a large number of people are going to be surveyed since many preexisting scales have been copyrighted.

Interviews generally have been used in combination with other methods to gather information about workers' job satisfaction (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). Spector (1997) stated that more extensive information can be obtained in an interview since respondents are free to elaborate about the issues under discussion. Also, a less formal atmosphere encourages responses not preplanned by the interviewer.

In rank-order studies, respondents are asked to rank the characteristics of the job they consider to be the most important determinant to overall job satisfaction. Fournet et al. (1969) pointed out that Likert (1961) considered the use of this method questionable since its importance can only be measured by its correlation to total job satisfaction.

Sentence completion techniques are projective in nature and provide an opportunity for the respondent to reveal information that otherwise may not have been disclosed (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). In this method, individuals are asked to complete a sentence by using a phrase relative to their jobs. The phrases are then coded according to whether they contribute to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.

The critical incident method utilizes an approach developed by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). In this method, workers are asked to describe times in which they were exceedingly happy or unhappy in their jobs. Workers are then asked to give reason for their feelings and how the feelings impact job performance and life

satisfaction. The researcher then categorizes the factors that appear to be influencing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

History of Job Satisfaction Research

The study of job satisfaction and motivation has its roots in the medical profession's attempts to cure mental illness by understanding human needs. Thus, Freud described an id and superego at war on his couch over the ego's need to be satisfied (Freud, 1910). Adler argued for the person's insatiable need to control one's life (Stein & Edwards, 1998). After spending World War II in a concentration camp, Frankl spoke about an inherent will to find meaning in life (Scully, 1995).

In a 1938 report entitled "Explorations in Personality," however, Murray asserted that all people, not just the ill, have needs that must be satisfied (Liebert & Spiegler, 1970). Murray argued that the concept of need is necessary to understand differences in the intensity or direction of behavior in response to the same stimuli. Murray attempted to catalog needs and determine their relationships to one another. In Murray's need theory, the individual and the environment must be considered together as an interaction. He defined forces from within the individual as needs, forces from without as press. Murray categorized 23 needs into two major divisions: primary or viscerogenic needs (an organism's physical requirements) and secondary or psychogenic needs (power, communication, affiliation, defense of self, and ambition). Murray provided the philosophical foundation for later discussions about higher-order and lower-order need satisfaction.

Maslow (1954) then postulated his construct of a hierarchy of need satisfaction. He based his theory on healthy, creative people who used all their talents, potential, and capabilities. He pioneered the notion that a healthy person could grow beyond being "not sick" to attaining a self-actualized, "fully functioning" state of wellness. At the time, such methodology differed from most psychology research studies, which were based on the observation of disturbed people. Maslow suggested that the lower-order needs, security and affiliation, must be satisfied before the higher-order needs, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization, could be satisfied. According to Maslow, knowing where a person is located in the hierarchy aids in determining what motivators will be effective for them.

Herzberg (1968) developed a theory that is closely based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, except that Herzberg's theory is more specifically related to work. Herzberg suggested that the hygienic factors – working conditions, policies and administrative practices, salary and benefits, supervision, status, job security, fellow workers, and personal life – must be present before motivators would be effective in increasing job satisfaction. However, once the hygienic factors are present, Herzberg said that the motivator factors – recognition, achievement, advancement, growth, responsibility, and job challenge – are the primary cause of satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1968), the lower order or hygienic needs could not bring job satisfaction, but when an employee was dissatisfied, the primary cause would be because a hygienic need had not been met. One corollary of Herzberg's theory would be that pay does not motivate because it is a

hygienic need, but it can be a source of dissatisfaction. Building on his model, Herzberg (1986) coined the term "job enrichment" to describe the process of redesigning work in order to build in motivators.

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y, a philosophical view of humankind, ties in with both Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Theory X managers assume that workers are basically lazy, error-prone, and extrinsically motivated by money. Theory X ties in with workers caught in the lower levels illustrated by Maslow's (1954) theory, and with workers who have not had their hygienic needs met, as in Herzberg's (1964) theory. On the other hand, Theory Y managers assume that people are intrinsically motivated to work for reasons beyond money – to promote self-esteem, enjoy satisfying relations with others, and fulfill their potential. Theory Y ties in with workers who have gone above level 3 of Maslows's (1954) Hierarchy of Needs and with workers who have had their hygienic needs met, as in Herzberg's (1964) theory.

Researchers of employee motivation and job satisfaction examined the theories of higher and lower order needs more closely. Alderfer (1972) suggested that each individual has both higher-order and lower-order needs of existence, relatedness, and growth. Alderfer's (1972) theory assumes that more than one need may be influential at the same time. If the gratification of a higher-level need is frustrated, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need will increase. The relevance of this phenomenon on the job is that even when the upper-level needs are frustrated, the job still provides for the basic physiological needs upon which one would then be focused. If, at that point, something

happens to threaten the job, the person's basic needs are significantly threatened. If there are not factors present to relieve the pressure, the person may become desperate and panicky. Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed job diagnostic surveys to measure higher-order need strengths as they related to job characteristics and employee satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham's research indicated that higher internal motivation, high job satisfaction, high quality performance, and low absenteeism and turnover result when employees experience meaningfulness, responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of results.

The vast body of research done on job satisfaction has revealed various factors that contribute to workers' satisfaction with their jobs. Locke (1976) categorized three approaches that have been used to study job satisfaction. In the 1920s, physical working conditions, physical arrangement of the work, and pay were emphasized. The human relations aspects of job satisfaction, which explored the social role of the work group and the impact of good supervisory relationships, were emphasized in the 1930s. The next trend emerged in the late 1950s and early 1960s and examined the features of the work itself that produce job satisfaction. Spector (1997) observed that most researchers today focus on workers' cognitive processes in the study of job satisfaction rather than on underlying needs.

Job satisfaction studies in the United States have their roots in the early explorations of industry's concern with ways to improve productivity (Gruneberg, 1976; Tack & Patitu, 1992). One of the first studies to examine the relationship of the physical

environment and worker productivity was carried out by Frederick Taylor (1911) at the

Bethlehem Steelworks. In the late 1920s, another important study was conducted at the

Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. What began in 1927 as

an attempt to identify the relationship between working conditions and physical

conditions at the plant, ended with the realization that social factors and worker

expectations had the greatest impact on job satisfaction (Roethlisberger & Dickson,

1939).

The Hawthorne studies gave way to extensive research on the multiplicity of

factors involved in job satisfaction. Hoppock (1935) raised the notion that it may not be

possible to disassociate job satisfaction from other satisfactions in life. In his famous

monograph, *Job Satisfaction*, Hoppock (1935) stated that "family relationships, health,

relative social status in the community, and a multitude of other factors may be just as

important as the job itself in determining what we tentatively choose to call satisfaction"

(p. 5). Hoppock surmised that job satisfaction could be a function of general satisfaction

with life. Gruneberg (1979) asserted that Hoppock's approach to job satisfaction is

typical of many studies conducted since the 1935 monograph. Gruneberg stated that this

approach assumes that "if the presence of a variable in the work situation leads to

satisfaction, then its absence will lead to job dissatisfaction..." (p. 7).

Commenting on the earliest studies of general life satisfaction and job

satisfaction, Brayfield, Wells, and Strate (1957) noted that an investigation by Wesley of

University of Minnesota students in 1939 found that the attitude towards the job was

significantly and positively related to life in general. Bamundo and Kopelman (1980) studied the moderating effects of several variables related to occupation, age, and urbanization. The researchers used a global measure of job satisfaction in their study of 911 heads of households to examine the relationship between job and life satisfaction and specific variables. The moderating variables chosen for the study were based on the findings of their positive relationship to occupation, age, and urbanization in other research. They found evidence that occupational level, education, income, self-employment, age, job longevity, and residential city size positively moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Although widely studied and discussed in the literature, some researchers have reported that studies linking job satisfaction and life satisfaction are too simplistic. Rain, Lane, and Steiner's (1991) analysis of four literature reviews done in the 1980s on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction found that the "spillover hypothesis" was substantially more supported in the studies. Rain et al. described the spillover hypothesis as job satisfaction and life satisfaction each influencing the other. The researchers maintained that in the majority of these studies, a theoretical position was not taken and job satisfaction was just assumed to affect life satisfaction.

Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction

Age. Although some studies have not shown a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction (e.g., Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel,1998), the literature suggests that in general, age consistently has been linked to job satisfaction (Anderson, Hohenshil,

& Brown, 1984; Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998; Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Hoppock, 1960; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; McArthur & Stevens, 1955). Three views have been associated with the relationship between age and job satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985). Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) described a U-shaped function to represent job satisfaction in the career span. In this model, job satisfaction with younger workers is initially high and then drops after a few years, and finally rises as workers age. Using a large sample of British employees, Clark, Owald, and Warr (1996) investigated the relationship between age and job satisfaction. They found that for overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with pay and work itself, strong evidence existed to support a U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction.

The second view has held that job satisfaction increases as age increases. A number of studies have shown a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction (Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Rhodes, 1983; Ronen, 1978). The relationship has often held true for both blue-collar and white-collar employees and for women as well as for men (Rhodes, 1983). Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and age for both males and females. Results of the study showed that job satisfaction increased with age for both genders. Lee and Wilbur (1985) surveyed 1,707 public employees of a United States county and state government. Respondents were categorized by three age groups which corresponded to the early, middle, and late stages of the career span. Findings

revealed that job satisfaction increased for each of the three age categories, leading Lee and Wilbur (1985) to conclude that total job satisfaction increases as employees get older.

The third view has held that job satisfaction and age are linear until a specific period and then job satisfaction declines (Bourne, 1982; Saleh & Otis, 1964). Bourne (1982) reported that the increase in job satisfaction with age is reliable only until about the age of 60, at which point the evidence becomes less conclusive. Saleh and Otis (1964) studied 118 employees to see if job satisfaction increased with age until pre-retirement and then declined. Participants were administered a survey that was divided into five age periods, with the last one being age 60 and over. Results showed that job satisfaction levels increased with each age group until the pre-retirement period, during which time job satisfaction levels decreased.

Job experience. The relationship between job satisfaction and number of years on the job is complex. During the early stages of employment, new workers tend to be satisfied with the job. This early period involves the stimulation and challenges of developing skills and new abilities. Also, the work may seem attractive because it is new. Early satisfaction wanes unless employees receive evidence of their progress and growth. After a few years on the job, discouragement has been common. Also, in times of inflation and rapidly rising starting salaries, employees with a few years of experience have found that they are making little more than beginning employees, despite the salary increases they have received over the years.

Sex. Gender differences have been recognized as a factor in employees' job satisfaction level. Hulin and Smith (1964) surveyed 295 male workers and 163 female workers to determine how satisfied they were with their jobs. The results indicated that female workers were less satisfied with their jobs than male workers. The researchers suggested that it is not gender that relates to job satisfaction but rather a group of factors that varies with sex, such as pay, job level, or advancement opportunities. Women have often believed they have to work harder and be more outstanding in their work than men before they can expect to receive the same rewards and recognition (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1986). Also, it is reasonable to expect different sources of job satisfaction for women who willingly choose a career as compared to women who are forced to work to support their families. Working mothers may not look to their jobs as a way of satisfying needs, deriving satisfaction instead from the jobs of homemaker, wife, or mother.

Ehly and Reimers (1988) administered a questionnaire to 133 male and 76 female school psychologists to assess their perceptions of job satisfaction. Results indicated positive perceptions of school psychological roles and functions across subjects, and especially for females. Females had a more positive perception of the work site, as indicated by their greater degree of satisfaction with the quality of supervision.

Education. Although studies investigating the relationship between educational level and job satisfaction have been conflicting, higher education has often been associated with higher job satisfaction. The 1991 Gallup poll showed that both older workers and workers that were college graduates were more satisfied with their jobs

(Hugick & Leonard, 1991). Bamundo and Kopelman (1980) found that the variables of job tenure, educational level and salary correlated highly with age. Fournet, Distefano and Pryer (1969) found that the effects of educational level on job satisfaction are confounded with the variable of age. Motowidlo (1996) indicated, however, that education and age have shown fairly consistent positive correlations with job satisfaction.

Education may be slightly and negatively related to job satisfaction. People with more education may have higher expectations, believing their work should bring greater fulfillment and responsibility. Most jobs will not satisfy these expectations. However, employees with college degrees may be somewhat more satisfied with their jobs than those who attended college but did not graduate. This could be due to the fact that many higher level positions are open only to those who have earned degrees.

Salary. Studies linking salary and satisfaction with work have shown mixed results. Although the effects of salary on workers' job satisfaction have been among the most frequently reported determinants of job satisfaction, accurately assessing salary's association with job satisfaction has been complicated by factors such as age, occupational level, and education (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). Early studies by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) reported that salary was not ranked high in importance by employees. Some studies have shown a positive relationship between age and pay satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Rhodes, 1983). Hulin and Smith (1965) stated that "it is not a worker's salary per se that affects his satisfaction, but rather

the discrepancy between what he is earning [his present salary] and his salary aspirations [desired salary]" (p. 211).

A 1996 study conducted by Carraher and Buckley explored another way of explaining satisfaction with pay based on the concept of cognitive complexity. The researchers defined cognitive complexity as the way in which individuals use their characteristics or traits to understand their world. In their study of 1,969 teachers, Carraher and Buckley (1996) concluded that cognitive complexities could account for different ways individuals conceptualize satisfaction with pay. Spector (1997) noted that workers tend to compare themselves to each other and are more concerned with equality in pay policies than in salary differences.

Social Support. Although the above variables are certainly important in understanding the job satisfaction of school psychologists, other variables have also been shown to be important. For example, social support has been linked to job satisfaction since the famous study at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric carried out in the late 1920s (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957). Workers who identified with the group were more satisfied and more likely to have interpersonal and friendship needs met (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Maynard, 1986). Graham (1966) stated that 'social acceptance by fellow workers often proves to be a more powerful incentive for maintaining the present level of production than does the promise of increased rewards for improving productivity" (p. 547). Maynard (1986) found that individuals who had a variety of support networks such as work, family, friends, and community were better

adjusted at work. Maynard (1986) concluded that those individuals with deficient social networks experienced more stress and were less able to cope. Ducharme and Martin (2000) used a nationally representative sample of 2,505 full-time employees to investigate whether social relationships in the workplace enhanced job satisfaction and whether social support mattered more to employees under the greatest job stress. The researchers differentiated between instrumental support, which is defined as functional interdependence, and affective coworker support, which is defined as personal affiliations. Findings from the study revealed that social support did significantly enhance workers' job satisfaction, but neither instrumental support nor affective social support mediated the negative impact of job stress.

Stress and Burnout. Extensive research has investigated the impact of stress and burnout on job satisfaction (Dragan, 1981; Farber & Heifetz, 1981; Gartley, 1981; Leiter & Meechan, 1986; Martin & Schinke, 1998; Newton, 1989; Pugliesi, 1999; Um & Harrison, 1998; Wolpin, Burk, & Greenglass, 1991). Studies involving stress originally were associated with workers in industry, while studies on burnout during the mid-seventies became associated with workers in the caring professions (Handy, 1988). According to Handy (1988), the two fields have begun to overlap with stress research examining more closely the impact on caring professionals.

Factors often contributing to stress include close involvement in other people's lives almost daily, working in isolation, the inability to share concerns with other workers due to confidentiality matters, increased paperwork and bureaucracy, and

increased workloads (Farber & Heifetz, 1981). A study by Pugliesi (1999) investigated

the impact of emotional labor and psychological distress on job satisfaction. Emotional

labor was defined as paid work for the performance of varying forms of emotional

management in people. Emotional management was described as the use of strategies to

modify or create expression of emotions through use of cognitive, behavioral, or physical

means in both workers own emotions and the emotions of others. Findings from

Pugliesi's (1999) research revealed that attempting to change one's own emotions or

others' emotions increases job and psychological stress and decreases job satisfaction.

She further observed that high demand and low control jobs create the most stress for

workers.

Many physical and psychological features have been associated with burnout,

such as physical exhaustion, cynicism, attempts to distance oneself from clients, and

feelings of a lack of personal accomplishment (Kottkamp & Mansfield, 1985). In a

longitudinal study conducted by Wolpin, Burk, and Greenglass (1991), burnout appeared

to cause decreased job satisfaction. Um and Harrison (1998) studied the effects of

burnout and job satisfaction on clinical social workers. The randomly sampled 165 social

workers in the study were administered instruments that measured role conflict and role

ambiguity, burnout, social support, and job satisfaction. The results of their study

revealed that role conflict added to burnout, but social support from co-workers was

instrumental in moderating the impact of burnout on job satisfaction. Cummings and Nall

(1983) surveyed 300 school counselors to investigate the relationship between their felt

degree of burnout and their perceptions of school leadership style, their jobs, themselves, and their clients. Findings showed that as burnout levels increased, counselors assigned more negative meaning to their jobs, themselves, and their clients. In a study of burnout among school psychologists, Huebner (1993) found that demographic factors related modestly to burnout, whereas job-related stressors (lack of resources, interpersonal conflict, crisis cases) related more substantially to burnout. Burnout was also related to school psychologists' perceptions of their caseloads, overall job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, and the desire to leave the profession, although some findings are conflicting. For example, Anderson and Hohenshil (1984) found that job satisfaction was related to psychologist-to-student ratio, while Ahrens (1977) did not.

Personality Variables

The dispositional hypothesis has been used in recent years to explain job satisfaction and has received empirical support (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Steel & Rentsch, 1997). This approach was based on the premise that a person's character influences his or her job satisfaction apart from the job or environment (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). According to Judge et al. (1998), value judgments or "core evaluations" represented the way individuals view themselves, other people, and the world. A 1998 study by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger investigated core self-evaluations (which included the concepts of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism) to estimate their effects on job and life satisfaction. Judge et al. (1998) found that core evaluations of the self had consistent effects on job satisfaction which

were independent of the job attributes. Thus, Judge et al. (1998) argued that people with positive core self-evaluations viewed their lives and jobs in a better light because their internal make-up enabled them to do so.

Likewise, other researchers have suggested that personality variables contribute to the prediction of occupational stress (e.g., Huebner & Mills, 1994; Mills & Huebner, 1998) and that occupational stress contributes to low job satisfaction (Huebner, 1994). For teachers, Flett, Hewill, and Hallett (1995) found those who considered themselves to be perfectionists had significantly lower self-reported job satisfaction than their less perfectionist peers. Mills and Huebner (1998) found that the more neurotic, the more extroverted, and the more agreeable a school psychologist, the lower their job satisfaction.

Work Content Variables: Extrinsic and Intrinsic Factors

The intrinsic factors of work, or how people feel about the job tasks, have been found to be important in producing job satisfaction (Bockman, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Among the intrinsic factors frequently associated with job satisfaction have been acquiring success and recognition, being able to apply skills, and feeling worthwhile and involved on the job (Gruneberg, 1979). In an extensive job satisfaction literature review, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) found that the intrinsic nature of the job was cited most frequently as a contributing factor to job satisfaction. A study of 500 workers from a national longitudinal sample was

conducted by Valentine, Valentine, and Dick (1998) to determine the association between job attitudes and various job motivators. Results from the study showed that intrinsic factors, such as high involvement and enhanced self-esteem, were significant predictors of job attitudes among older workers.

Many researchers have concluded that intrinsic factors are the key motivators for teachers. Although teachers care about their salaries and fringe benefits, researchers have found that they tend to be motivated more by intrinsic rewards, such as self-respect, responsibility, and a sense of accomplishment than by extrinsic rewards, such as job security, salaries, and fringe benefits (Macmillan, 1999). Sergiovanni (1969) identified the three key factors as autonomy, variety, and use of valued skills. According to Brodinsky (1984), professional autonomy, recognition, and involvement in decision-making were key factors in building teacher morale. Rydell (1986) found that service to others was identified by teachers as the most satisfying aspect of their work. In a study of kindergarten teaches in Israel, Avi-Hzhak (1983) attempted to apply Maslow's theories to teacher satisfaction. She confirmed Maslow's central thesis that since lower needs, security and affiliation, are satisfied first, higher needs – esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization- are most in need of fulfillment. This may indicate that teachers are highly motivated intrinsically because lower needs have been satisfied. A 1991 Gallup Poll of American workers found that while Americans were more satisfied with the interest level of their work and the amount of contact with other people, many more were dissatisfied with fringe benefits and opportunities for promotion (Hugick & Leonard, 1991).

In terms of job satisfaction of teachers, Perie, Baker, and Whitener (1997) found that although certain intrinsic variables are related to teacher satisfaction, they are not nearly as significant in explaining the different levels of satisfaction as are extrinsic factors like workplace conditions, administrative support and teacher control over classroom procedures. Although Ornstein (1983) suggested that intrinsic factors were very important motivators, his studies found that extrinsic factors were also very powerful: time off, job security, pay, advancement, and prestige. Kleinfeld and McDiarmid (1986) found that although the intrinsic factor of relationships with students was very important to teacher satisfaction, so was the extrinsic factor, pay benefits. Similarly, Farber and Heifetz (1981) concluded that while the intrinsic factor of student involvement is important to teacher satisfaction, so too is the time that teaching affords for friends, family, and outside activities. Also, Chissom, Chukabarah, Buttery, and Henson (1986) found that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors were important to teacher satisfaction. The intrinsic factors were the desire to help youth, moral obligation, and personal growth, while the extrinsic factors were faculty cooperation, curriculum, working conditions, and community and family support (Chissom, Chukabarah, Buttery, & Henson, 1986). Interestingly, the most dissatisfying characteristics identified by the study were all extrinsic and included working conditions, poor professional prestige, student behavior, bureaucracy, inadequate materials, administration, and job stress.

Perceived control over role functioning.

The role and functions of everyday school psychology practice have been dictated by the employment setting and other demographic features of the area (Jackson, 1997). Other major influences have been special and regular education rules and standards, as well as federal and state laws governing public schools. With the passage of 94-142, The Education of All Handicapped Children's Act (U.S. Congress, 1975), school psychologists have been primarily involved in assessment of and intervention with handicapped children, offering counseling and consultation to their teachers and families (Jackson, 1997). Bahr (1996) indicated that school psychologists' continuing struggle with roles and functions is an enduring characteristic of the field. The domains of school psychology training and practice were expanded in 1997, with the publication of *A Blueprint for Training and Practice II* (Ysseldyke, Dawson, Lehr, Reschly, Reynolds, & Telzrow). Given such domains, it has been shown that a discrepancy between actual and desired role functioning has been associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. For example, Levinson (1990) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and actual/desired role functioning among 362 school psychologists. Discrepancy between actual and desired role functioning was significantly associated with job satisfaction. In fact, role functioning and perceived control over role functioning variables accounted for almost half of the job satisfaction variance. Similarly, many studies of counselors have found that counselors are more satisfied with their jobs when they are performing their

preferred activities (Gade & Houdek, 1993; Hansen, 1967; Miller, 1989; Morse & Russell, 1988).

Also, Fischer, Jenkins, and Crumbley (1986) investigated the congruency between school psychologists' perceptions about their present job and preferred role. The results of the indicated that school psychologists spend more time in assessment activities than they desired, and less time in consultation, counseling, and research than they desired. However, Fischer, Jenkins, and Crumbley (1986) did not investigate the how the time spent in various roles affected job satisfaction.

Although there has been much research on the factors that motivate teachers and counselors to remain in the profession and it is likely that many such findings generalize to school psychologists, there is little research specific to school psychologists on this topic. The following study is an attempt to better understand the job satisfaction of school psychologists and the types of motivators involved in keeping them in the profession.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine the job satisfaction, personality, work content, and motivation of school psychologists. Specific research questions included:

1.   Is job satisfaction of school psychologists affected by differences in sex, race, highest educational degree earned, annual salary, importance of income to family, age, hours worked per week, number of contract days worked per year, number of miles traveled each year, years of experience, number of

psychoeducational evaluations completed each year, or geographical state in which they work?

2.   What personality variables (extroversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience) are associated with job satisfaction of school psychologists?

3.   What factors, intrinsic or extrinsic, motivate school psychologists to continue their career in school psychology?

4.   If there is a discrepancy between desired amount of time spent in certain activities and actual time spent in such activities, is job satisfaction affected?

Method

Participants. All certified school psychologists (545) working in public and private schools in Iowa and Nebraska during the 2001-2002 school year were surveyed. The names of school psychologists were obtained from the Iowa and Nebraska Departments of Education. It should be noted that a comprehensive survey of two states was conducted rather than sampling from a national pool (e.g., random sample of National Association of School Psychologists [NASP] members); the decision was based on research by Smith (1984). Smith (1984) reported no differences in statistical comparisons of survey respondents selected from NASP membership rolls and other respondents selected from state lists of practitioners. Although a small segment of practitioners, e.g., those hired on a contract testing basis, may not have appeared on either of the kinds of lists used by Smith (1984), the number of such persons is sufficiently small to discount any possible effects on these results. In theory, the sample of Iowa and Nebraska school psychologists is likely to be typical of school psychologists in the United States. However, there are considerable regional differences in state statutes and rules that may not have been detected by the methodology of the Smith (1984) study. Therefore, caution should be used when applying the results of the present study in areas other than Iowa and Nebraska.

In Iowa, all 338 school psychologists were employed by Area Education Agencies (AEAs), regional agencies which provide school psychology and other special

services to Iowa school districts. In Nebraska, the 207 school psychologists included those employed by AEAs, as well as those employed by individual school districts.

Respondent Sample. A total of 400 school psychologists responded to the three mailings for a response rate of 73.39%. The response rate for the state of Nebraska (160 out of 207 responded, or 77.29%) was higher than the response rate for Iowa (240 out of 338, or 71.0%). Of the respondents, one was eliminated because of the extremely high number of psychoeducational evaluations reported (450); ten were eliminated because of incomplete or unclear responses to questionnaire items. This left a usable sample of 389 or 71.38% of the sample.

Survey Procedure.

Subjects were mailed a packet which included a cover letter (see Appendix D) explaining the project, the questionnaire (see Appendices A, B, and C), and a self-addressed, stamped envelope. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study and the intended use of the collected data. Participants were instructed to complete the questionnaire only if they were currently employed as practitioners in school settings. To emphasize the importance of each response, each cover letter was signed individually. Recipients were assured that all responses would be confidential and informed that a code number would be assigned to each questionnaire for the purpose of determining its return. Reminder postcards (see Appendix E) were sent ten days later and, to nonrespondents, three weeks after the original questionnaire was mailed (see Appendix F). The postcard reminder gave a telephone number to call if a new copy of the survey

was needed or if there were questions about the survey. While postcard reminders were an additional expense, the return for this investment in additional questionnaires received is usually substantial (Anastas, 1999). Although in the present study data were not kept showing the percentage of additional questionnaires returned after each postcard reminder, the high return rate in the present study suggests that the postcards were likely effective. Five weeks and nine weeks after the original instrument was mailed, the entire process was repeated (i.e., questionnaire mailed followed by two postcards). This resulted in three full survey packet mailings and six reminder post card mailings (see Appendices G & H).

Instrument, Section I. The first part of the questionnaire requested the following demographic and personal data: sex, race, highest educational degree earned, gross annual salary range, importance of income, number of contract days, overall job satisfaction, age, hours worked per week, miles commuting from home to work, miles commuting between schools, years of work experience, and number of psychoeducational evaluations conducted per year (see Appendix A).

Instrument, Section II. Section II (see Appendix A) was designed to help answer the following question: What personality variables (extroversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience) are associated with job satisfaction in school psychologists? Questions were based upon the Big Five personality traits (Costa & McRae, 1990; Huebner & Mills, 1994; John, 1990). The reason for studying personality variables in terms of how they are associated with job satisfaction of

school psychologists is that perhaps high school or college academic advisers could use the data to help students decide if they wish to pursue the study of school psychology.

Instrument, Section III. In the third section, the respondent rated fourteen statements about their decision to continue to work in the field of School Psychology (see Appendix B). Each statement reflected one of two factors: intrinsic or extrinsic. There were seven statements for each factor. The statements were based upon the factors identified in the research as those that motivate teachers to continue to teach; they were modified to apply to school psychologists. The first seven statements below are extrinsic factors statements; the second seven statements are intrinsic factor statements. In the actual questionnaire, the statements were presented in random order. The statements follow:

Extrinsic Factor Statements

1. I have control over the time I spend in various roles (assessment, consultation, research, etc).

2. The administration I work with is supportive and encouraging.

3 . I enjoy the freedom of planning my own daily schedule.

4. The schedule, including the winter/spring breaks and summer vacation, is compatible with my lifestyle and family responsibilities.

5. The profession of school psychology is a respected one.

6. Practicing school psychology is the best career opportunity for me at this time.

7. The salary and benefits are very important to me.

Intrinsic Factor Statements

1. I enjoy the challenge of developing and refining my skills as a school psychologist.

2. I can make an important contribution to society through my work.

3. I feel I am an effective and successful school psychologist.

4. I like the autonomy to find ways to meet students' needs.

5. My competence as a school psychologist gives me a sense of accomplishment.

6. Practicing school psychology helps me grow as a person.

7. My job fulfills my desire to help youth.

Instrument, Section IV. The fourth section of the questionnaire was designed to investigate the following question: If there is a discrepancy between desired amount of time spent in certain activities and actual time spent in such activities, is job satisfaction affected? Respondents were asked to assume that they were going to work a forty (40) hour week as a school psychologist. Respondents were then asked to assign a specific number of hours to each of nine activities: once for a typical week, and once for a desired week (see Appendix C).

Results

Demographic Characteristics

The gender composition of the respondent sample was 64% female; 36% male.

The respondent sample was primarily Caucasian (99.5%). There was also one Hispanic

respondent and one respondent who indicated "other" for her race. There were no

African, Asian, or Native American respondents. The mean age of the respondent sample

was 43.23 years; $\underline{SD}$ = .54.

Descriptive statistics, including the means and standard deviations of the

continuous variables of interest are shown in Table I. Chi-square analyses were

performed on categorical variables to test for significant differences in job satisfaction. A

simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed to control for the effects of the

continuous variables on job satisfaction.

Relative frequency distribution data for categorical variables (degree, salary

range, importance of income, and satisfaction) are presented in Tables II - V. The sample

of Nebraska and Iowa school psychologists indicated that most practice at the

Educational Specialist (or equivalent) level. Of the surveys returned, only about 7%

(n=29) practice with a Master's, while approximately 79% (n=306) practice with a

Specialist's or equivalent degree. Thirteen percent (n=52) practice with a Doctoral

degree. Two respondents did not indicate their degree on the survey. As shown in Table

II, the above trend holds true (that most school psychologists practice with a Specialist

degree) when examining Iowa and Nebraska data separately, as well. However, a higher

Table I

Means, Standard Errors of the Means, and Standard Deviations

Variable	*M*	*SEM*	*SD*
Days Wk	188.55	1.33	25.78
Age	43.23	.54	10.58
Hrs Week	42.58	.42	8.17
Commute	107.75	6.75	132.35
Travel	68.04	4.64	89.29
Experience	13.11	.46	9.10
# Evals	61.59	2.16	42.26

Note: SEM = standard error of the mean; Days Wk = contract days worked; Hrs Week = hours worked weekly; Commute = number of miles traveled from home to work and back each week; Travel = number of miles traveled between schools/sites each week; Experience = number of years of experience as a school psychologist; # Evals = number of special education evaluations (including reevaluations) conducted each year.

Table II

Mean Percentage Distribution of Responses to Highest Degree Earned

Variable	Iowa and Nebraska	Iowa Only	Nebraska Only
Master's	7.49	10.30	3.27
Ed.S. (or MS +30)	79.07	78.54	80.39
Doctorate	13.44	11.16	16.34

percentage of school psychologists are practicing with a Master's as the highest degree earned in Iowa than in Nebraska (3% versus 10%). With regard to salary range, the category chosen by the most respondents was the $40,001 to $50,000 range. Specifically, about 23% (n=146) of respondents indicated they earn between $40,001 and $50,000 annually. As Table III shows, this trend held true even when examining Iowa and Nebraska separately. However, the second most-chosen category for Iowa respondents was the $30,001 - $40,000 range, while the second most-chosen category for Nebraska respondents was the $50,001 - $60,000 range. Specifically, about 31% (n=73) of Iowa respondents reported a salary between $30,001 and $40,000, while only 25% (n=38) of Nebraska respondents reported such a salary; and about 28% (n=42) of Nebraska respondents indicated that they earn between $50,001 and $60,000, while only about 22% (n=51) of Iowa respondents indicated such.

The majority of respondents indicated that their income was important or extremely important to their family's overall economic status. Specifically, approximately 48% (n=185) reported that their income was extremely important to their family's overall economic status; about 40% (n=153) reported that their income was important to their family's overall economic status. When examined separately, the above trend held true for Iowa and Nebraska. Table IV shows the distribution of income importance scores. No respondents indicated that their salary was not at all important to their family's overall economic status, and only 2% (n= 8) of respondents reported that their income was not important.

Table III

Mean Percentage Distribution of Responses to Salary Range

Salary	Iowa and Nebraska	Iowa Only	Nebraska Only
Below $30,000	5.94	4.72	7.89
$30,001 - $40,000	28.68	31.33	25.00
$40,001 - $50,000	37.73	39.91	34.87
$50,001 - $60,000	24.03	21.89	27.63
$60,001 - $70,000	1.81	.86	3.29
$70,001 - $80,000+	1.60	1.29	1.32

Table IV

Mean Percentage Distribution of Responses to Income Importance

Income Importance	Iowa and Nebraska	Iowa Only	Nebraska Only
Not at all important	0.00	0.00	0.00
Not important	2.07	3.00	.66
Somewhat important	10.59	9.83	11.84
Important	39.53	38.03	42.11
Extremely important	47.80	49.15	45.39

Job Satisfaction

In terms of overall job satisfaction, the majority of respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their current school psychology positions. Approximately 74% of respondents indicated that they were either satisfied or highly satisfied with their present positions. Specifically, approximately 57% (n=221) reported that they were satisfied with their current position; and 17% (n = 66) indicated that they were highly satisfied. Only about 5% (n=20) indicated they were dissatisfied with their current position, and less than 1% (n=3) reported that they were highly dissatisfied. Inspection of Table V shows that theabove trends generally hold true for Iowa and Nebraska, even when examined separately.

A chi-square analysis of the proportion of respondents reporting various levels of overall job satisfaction indicated a significant difference between Iowa and Nebraska. A greater percentage of Nebraska respondents were highly satisfied [X^2 (3, $N = 386$) = 9.01, $p < .05$]. A chi-square analysis of the proportion of respondents reporting various levels of overall job satisfaction also indicated a significant difference for salary range. Specifically, those respondents who reported that they earned over $50,000 annually had higher overall job satisfaction scores than their lower-earning respondents [X^2(6, $N = 385$) = 13.34, $p < .05$].

Chi-square comparisons revealed no significant differences in overall job satisfaction as a function of gender, highest degree earned, or importance of income to the family's overall economic status.

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed with job satisfaction as the dependent variable. Although job satisfaction is not a continuous variable, it is based on a Likert scale and the job satisfaction scores formed a bell shaped (normal) distribution; thus, job satisfaction was treated like a continuous variable for the purpose of the regression analysis. Categorical variables were dummy coded. [Coding of data was as follows: Gender was coded as 0 = female, 1 = male; race was dummy coded as 1 = Caucasian, 2 = African American, 3 = Hispanic, 4 = Asian American, 5 = Native American, 6 = Other; highest educational degree was also dummy coded as 1 = Master's, 2 = Specialist, and 3 = Doctorate].

Two significant results were found. Table VI reports the regression coefficients and t values. Nebraska respondents reported significantly higher satisfaction than did Iowa respondents and older respondents reported higher satisfaction than did younger respondents. Table VI reports the regression coefficients and t values.

Inspection of Table VII shows the percentage of respondents agreeing or disagreeing with the personality statements. The majority of respondents agreed with the following statements: "In general, I am affectionate, talkative, active, fun loving, passionate (nearly 63% agreed, n = 242); In general, I am hardworking, well-organized, punctual, ambitious, persevering (about 56% agreed, n = 217); In general, I am softhearted, trusting, generous, acquiescent, lenient, and good-natured (about 59% agreed, n = 228); In general I am imaginative, creative, original, prefer variety, curious, liberal (approximately 52% agreed, n = 201)." The majority (about 53%, n = 204)

Table V

Mean Percentage Distribution of Responses to Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Iowa and Nebraska	Iowa Only	Nebraska Only
Highly dissatisfied	.78	.86	.65
Dissatisfied	5.17	5.58	4.58
Moderate	19.90	20.60	18.30
Satisfied	57.11	60.52	52.29
Highly satisfied	17.05	12.45	24.18

disagreed with the statement, "In general, I am a worrier, temperamental, self-pitying, self-conscious, emotional, vulnerable." Chi-square analyses of the proportion of respondents reporting various levels of overall job satisfaction indicated significant differences for three out of five of the variables. First, those respondents who reported that they strongly agreed with the statement, "In general, I am affectionate, talkative, active, fun loving, passionate" had significantly higher overall job satisfaction scores than the other respondents [X^2(6, $N = 382$) = 15.45, $p < .05$]. Second, those respondents who reported that they strongly agreed with the statement, "In general, I am softhearted, trusting, generous, acquiescent, lenient, and good-natured" had significantly higher overall job satisfaction scores than the other respondents [X^2(6, $N = 382$) = 15.08, $p < .05$]. Third, significantly more respondents who agreed with the statement, "In general, I

am a worrier, temperamental, self-pitying, self-conscious, emotional, vulnerable" were

found both at the low and high ends of the satisfaction scale than were expected [X^2 (9, N

= 382) = 18.89, $p < .05$].

Table VI

Simultaneous Regression Analysis of Job Satisfaction /Coefficients and t Values

Independent Variable	Coefficient	t value
State	.24	*2.26
Gender	-.10	-.88
Degree 1	.10	.46
Degree 2	.24	1.73
Salary 1	-.47	-.87
Salary 2	-.19	-.39
Salary 3	-.33	-.70
Salary 4	-.48	-1.02
Salary 5	.02	.04
Days Wk	.00	.26
Age	.02	*2.50
Hrs Week	-.01	-.73
Commute	.00	1.19
Travel	-.00	-.34
Experience	.00	.02
# Eval	-.00	-1.36

Note: *Significant at $\alpha = .05$. $R^2 = .067$. Days Wk = contract days worked; Hrs Week = hours worked weekly; Commute = number of miles traveled from home to work and back each week; Travel = number of miles traveled between schools/sites each week; Experience = number of years of experience as a school psychologist; # Evals = number of special education evaluations (including reevaluations) conducted each year.

Table VII

Mean Percentage Distribution of Responses to Personality Items

Variable	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Affectionate	0	2.84	6.23	62.79	26.87
Worrier	24.80	52.71	9.04	11.89	.26
Hardworking	0	1.29	3.88	56.07	37.47
Softhearted	.26	08.27	13.70	58.91	17.57
Imaginative	.26	08.79	17.05	51.94	20.41

Chi-square comparisons revealed no significant differences in overall job satisfaction for the statements, "In general, I am hardworking, well organized, punctual, ambitious, persevering" and "In general, I am imaginative, creative, original, prefer variety, curious, liberal."

To examine whether respondents were more likely to continue practicing school psychology for extrinsic or intrinsic reasons, summary statistics were computed and results were analyzed with a t-test. A total extrinsic score was computed for each respondent based on the seven questions he or she answered about how important each extrinsic factor was to his or her decision to continue practicing school psychology. Likewise, a total intrinsic score was computed for each respondent based on the seven

questions he or she answered about how important each intrinsic factor was to his or her decision to continue practicing school psychology. Of the respondents, 224 had a higher intrinsic than extrinsic score; 89 had a higher extrinsic than intrinsic score; 64 had intrinsic and extrinsic scores that were equal to one another. A significant difference was found between the mean extrinsic score ($M = 27.98$, SD 3.34) and the mean intrinsic score ($M = 29.08$, SD 3.49), t (376) = -7.06, $p = .05$.

Section IV of the questionnaire asked respondents to assume that they were going to work a 40-hour week as a school psychologist; then they were to assign a specific number of hours to each of nine activities, once for a typical week and once for a desired week. To examine whether or not a discrepancy between desired amount of time spent in certain activities and actual time spent in such activities affects job satisfaction affected, the absolute value of the difference between the desired and actual times for each of the nine activities was calculated for each respondent. Then, the correlation between the sum of the absolute differences and job satisfaction was computed. Results of this analysis indicated that a greater discrepancy between the actual and desired times positively related to overall job satisfaction ($r = -.35$, t (356) = -6.93, p < .05).

Discussion

Along with teacher shortages, nationwide shortages in school support staff, including school psychologists, have been indicated (Fagan, 1988). The need for school psychologists is expected to grow. Because the need for school psychologists is expected to increase, attracting and retaining qualified school psychologists is becoming more important.

Highly satisfied school psychologists are less likely to change schools or to leave the profession altogether than those who are dissatisfied, reducing disruption to the school environment, and reducing the need for costly staff replacement efforts (Brown, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1998; Solly & Hohenshil, 1986). Also, researchers have shown that the level of job satisfaction contributes to how effectively an individual performs at his or her job (Ma & Macmillan, 1999), so the quality of services to children is likely affected by school psychologists' job satisfaction. Therefore, it would seem prudent for school districts to address those factors that motivate school psychologists to continue working in their schools.

Results of the study indicated that the majority of respondents were satisfied with their current school psychologist positions. Approximately 74% of respondents indicated that they were either satisfied or highly satisfied with their present positions; about 20% indicated that they were moderately satisfied; only about 5% reported that they were dissatisfied; less than 1% indicated that they were highly dissatisfied. Results were consistent with other studies of school psychologists in which it has been found that the

overwhelming majority of school psychologists have indicated high overall job satisfaction (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Huebner, 1993; Huebner, McLeskey, & Cummings, 1984; Levinson, Fetchkan, & Hohenshil, 1988; Reschly & Connolly, 1990; Reschly & Wilson, 1995; Williams, Williams, & Ryer, 1990; Wilson & Reschly, 1995).

Many different variables and their relation to job satisfaction have been examined by research. Demographic variables are often interrelated and not easy to isolate to determine their overall impact on job satisfaction (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Motowidlo, 1996). In the present study, age was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction. Results were consistent with many studies that have shown that workers become more satisfied with their jobs as they get older (Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998; Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Solly & Hohenshil, 1986).

A significantly greater percentage of Nebraska respondents were highly satisfied than were Iowa respondents. Although Iowa respondents reported that they performed fewer evaluations per year than Nebraska respondents, Nebraska respondents reported higher job satisfaction. One of the reasons that Iowa respondents performed fewer traditional evaluations is that they used the problem-solving model of assessment, in which non-traditional methods of assessment (i.e., curriculum-based assessment,

portfolio assessment) are used more frequently than traditional methods (intelligence and other standardized tests).

The problem-solving model is relatively new, and may not be endorsed as strongly in other states. It is possible that many school psychologists who were trained under a more traditional model have been forced to use a less familiar model; such could have affected job satisfaction in that, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks." This, perhaps, could explain the difference in job satisfaction between the two states. Another explanation is that the number of evaluations may not be a sensitive index of a school psychologist workload. School psychologists are often involved in other activities such as social skills training, individual and group counseling, parent training, in-service activities, and consultation. A more reasonable index of workload may be psychologist to pupil ratios, which were not addressed in the present study. If ratios are relatively low, it might be assumed that school psychologists have sufficient time to perform a variety of preferred tasks. If ratios are too high, job dissatisfaction could result simply because school psychologists may be overworked.

In fact, the present study found that a discrepancy between desired amount of time spent in certain work activities and actual time spent in such activities significantly affected job satisfaction. As the discrepancy became larger, job satisfaction declined. The finding was consistent with a finding reported by Levinson (1990), namely that a discrepancy between actual and desired role functioning was significantly related to job satisfaction for school psychologists.

The present study sought to examine whether personality variables have a relationship with job satisfaction for school psychologists. It was found that those respondents who reported that they strongly agree with the statement, "In general, I am affectionate, talkative, active, fun loving," had significantly higher overall job satisfaction than the other respondents. Likewise, those respondents who indicated that they strongly agree with the statement, "In general, I am softhearted, trusting, generous, acquiescent, lenient, and good-natured" had significantly higher overall job satisfaction scores that the other respondents. Perhaps college academic advisers could use college candidates' self-reported personality characteristics to help them decide if school psychology would be a good possible career choice.

Results of this study were consistent with a 1998 study by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger which investigated core self-evaluations (which included the concepts of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism) to see their effects on job and life satisfaction. Judge et al. found that core evaluations of the self had consistent effects on job satisfaction which were independent of the job attributes. Thus, Judge et al. argued that people with positive core self-evaluations view their lives and jobs in a better light because their internal make-up enables them to do so. Finally, significantly more respondents who agreed with the statement, "In general, I am a worrier, temperamental, self-pitying, self-conscious, emotional, vulnerable" were found both at the low and high ends of the satisfaction scale than were expected.

It is reasonable to expect that worriers would have low levels of job satisfaction because they experience much anxiety. A similar finding was reported by Flett, Hewill, and Hallett (1995), namely that teachers who considered themselves to be perfectionists had significantly lower self-reported job satisfaction than their less perfectionist peers. The finding that some worriers were found at the high end of the job satisfaction scale could be explained by the fact that worriers probably are very conscientious workers as well. Worriers may do a good job and then get rewarded for jobs well done, which could translate into job satisfaction.

This study found that school psychologists seem motivated to remain in the profession for intrinsic reasons significantly more than for extrinsic reasons. This finding is consistent with the 1991 Gallup poll that also showed that American workers in general were happier with the intrinsic aspects related to their jobs (Hugick & Leondard, 1991). Several other studies have supported the contention that the intrinsic features of work are instrumental in producing job satisfaction (Bockman, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Valentine, Valentine, & Dick, 1998). For teachers, Macmillan (1999) reported that they tend to be motivated by intrinsic rewards, such as self-respect, responsibility, and a sense of accomplishment.

The reason for the finding that school psychologists are motivated more by intrinsic rewards could be that the majority of respondents in the present study are women (64% women versus 36% men). The finding that more women are school psychologists than men is consistent with previous studies (Fagan & Wise, 2000; Reschly

& Wilson, 1995; Wilson & Reschly, 1995; Woody & Davenport, 1998). Specifically, Woody and Davenport (1998) found that women comprise about 58% of school psychology practitioners; Fagan and Wise (2000) found that women comprise 70% of school psychology practitioners. Many women are likely working for the second income in the household, and while it is important, it may be that lower extrinsic needs have already been satisfied by their spouse's income, leaving intrinsic needs as the basis for their desire to work as school psychologists.

It is surprising that the schedule (an extrinsic factor) was not rated higher by school psychologists as a reason for continuing to work in the field. Jackson (1997) indicated that the profession of school psychology is an excellent choice for both men and women who want to marry and raise a family (due to the close ties of the employment contract with the school work day and school terms). However, Jackson offered no data to confirm that the above concept is indeed related to job satisfaction.

The gender composition of the respondent sample was 64% female and 36% male. This finding is fairly consistent with 1999-2000 school year data from the NASP research committee, in which 69.9% of school psychologists were female and 30.4% male (Curtis, Grier, Abshier, & Sutton, 2001).

No significant differences in job satisfaction were found in the present study for gender. This is consistent with Maynard's (1986) study of 338 employees' satisfaction levels with work and related support networks, no significant differences were found in

regards to gender. The finding was also consistent with Reschly and Wilson's (1995) study, in which job satisfaction was high for both male and female school psychologists.

Many studies have found that women have lower job satisfaction than men, but often this was related to the fact that women often believe that they have to work harder and be more outstanding in their work to get the same pay (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1986). However, the school psychologists in the present study worked for public schools or educational service units in which workers are on a salary schedule in which everyone is paid the same based on degree and years of service.

The present study found that 79% of school psychologists practice with a specialist's degree or equivalent. This was consistent with a study by Reschly and McMaster-Beyer (1991) in which 80% of the graduates in school psychology training programs are at the specialist level. Since the mid-1970s, the accepted level for education and training for practice in the schools has advanced from the master's level to the specialist level (Phillips, 1990; Reschly & McMaster-Beyer, 1991). The present study found no significant differences in overall job satisfaction based on the highest degree earned.

The category for salary range chosen by the most respondents in the present study was the $40,001 to $50,000 range. This was consistent with findings by Fagan and Wise (2000), who report that the average school psychologist who belongs to the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) earned $49,000 in 1999.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of the present study deserve mention. Although the present study found that the majority of school psychologists are satisfied with their jobs, it is possible that the most strongly dissatisfied young school psychologists have dropped out of the labor force or change jobs so frequently that they are no longer included in surveys. This would mean that the older workers studied, the fewer dissatisfied people are likely to be among them. Also, older workers may have had more opportunities to find fulfillment and self-actualization in their jobs than do workers who are just starting out.

It is reasonable to expect that age and experience on the job usually bring greater competence, self-confidence, esteem, and a higher level of responsibility in which a person may feel a greater sense of accomplishment. Because age and years of experience are highly correlated, it is difficult to determine their impact on each other and on overall job satisfaction. In this study, both age and years of experience were included as predictors of job satisfaction.

The use of mail surveys allowed for relatively large amounts of data to be collected efficiently and confidentially; however, the reliance on volunteers may have influenced the results in that nonrespondents may have responded differently. Also, the participants represented only two states in the Midwest, possibly limiting the generalizability of the findings. Furthermore, the reliance on self-report measures of job satisfaction and personality variables requires some caution with respect to validity.

The list of activities in Section IV of the present study's survey instrument may have been confusing or unfamiliar to many respondents. A sheet of definitions was not provided, but would have likely been helpful to respondents. In fact, several respondents wrote comments next to the items on the survey indicating that they thought the activities "overlapped" or were "unclear."

Implications for Future Research

School psychologists have become vital assets to the children in school systems; therefore, it is important to periodically monitor their job satisfaction. Job dissatisfaction negatively affects job performance and may contribute to burnout and turnover. With another round of growth in the school age population, nationwide shortages in school support staff (including many school psychologists nearing retirement), and more and more children starting school "at risk" for academic, social, and emotional problems, attracting and retaining school psychologists must become a priority. Therefore, future research concerning the specific mechanisms through which demographic variables, personality variables, and situational variables interact to affect the job satisfaction of school psychologists is warranted. Other research that may be valuable is the study of whether preservice training to address well-being issues, including knowledge of stress management techniques, could increase the job satisfaction of school psychologists.

Concluding Comments

The majority of school psychologists in this study reported that they are satisfied with their current positions. "If you're looking for a job where you'll make a difference

and have great security for the next 25 years, this is it," says Ted Feinberg of the

National Association of School Psychologists (Mulrine, 2002).

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APPENDIX A

Survey, Page 1

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY   Code _____

SECTION I: Please complete the following multiple choice/short answer questions.

1. Sex: _____ female   _____ male

2. Race: _____ Caucasian   _____ African American   _____ Hispanic
          _____ Asian American   _____ Native American   _____ Other(specify) _____

3. Highest educational degree earned: _____ Master's   _____ Ed. S. (or Master's +30)   _____ Doctorate

4. Gross annual salary range: _____ Below $30,000   _____ $30,001-$40,000   _____ $40,001-$50,000
          _____ $50,001-$60,000   _____ $60,001-$70,000   _____ $70,001-$80,000+

5. Considering all factors, select how important your income is to your family's overall economic status: .

   _____   _____   _____   _____   _____
   Not at   Not Important   Somewhat   Important   Extremely
   all Important   Important   Important

6. I work _____ contract days per year.

7. Considering all factors, select your overall job satisfaction with your current position:

   _____   _____   _____   _____   _____
   Highly   Dissatisfied   Moderate   Satisfied   Highly
   Dissatisfied   Satisfied

8. I am _____ years old (to the nearest year).

9. I work approximately _____ hours per week (to the nearest hour).

10. My work requires me to travel approximately _____ miles each year (do not include mileage to
    and from work – include only on-the-job mileage).

11. I have _____ years of work experience in School Psychology (include internship year and include current year).

12. I complete approximately _____ psychoeducational evaluations each year (include reevaluations).

SECTION II: Please use the following scale to rate these statements about your personality in general. Circle the appropriate abbreviation after each statement.

(SD)	(D)	(UN)	(A)	(SA)
STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE

13. In general, I am affectionate, talkative, active, fun-loving, passionate.
              SD   D   U   A   SA

14. In general, I am a worrier, temperamental, self-pitying, self-conscious, emotional, vulnerable.
              SD   D   U   A   SA

15. In general, I am hardworking, well-organized, punctual, ambitious, persevering.
              SD   D   U   A   SA

16. In general, I am soft-hearted, trusting, generous, acquiescent, lenient, good-natured.
              SD   D   U   A   SA

17. In general, I am imaginative, creative, original, prefer variety, curious, liberal.
              SD   D   U   A   SA

APPENDIX B

Survey, Page 2

SECTION III: Please use the following scale to rate the following statements about your decision to practice School Psychology. Circle the appropriate abbreviation after each statement.

I AM LIKELY TO CONTINUE PRACTICING SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY BECAUSE...

(SD) STRONGLY DISAGREE	(D) DISAGREE	(UN) UNDECIDED	(A) AGREE	(SA) STRONGLY AGREE

18. Practicing school psychology is the best career opportunity for me at this time.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

19. Practicing school psychology helps me grow as a person.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

20. I enjoy the challenge of developing and refining my skills as a school psychologist.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

21. The administration I work with is supportive and encouraging.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

22. The schedule, including the winter/spring breaks and summer vacation, is compatible with my personal/family lifestyle and responsibilities.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

23. I believe I am an effective and successful school psychologist.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

24. I like the autonomy to find ways to meet students' needs.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

25. The profession of school psychology is a respected one.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

26. My competence as a school psychologist gives me a sense of accomplishment.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

27. The salary and benefits are very important to me.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

28. I can make an important contribution to society through my work.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

29. I have control over the time I spend in various roles (assessment, consultation, etc.).
        SD   D   U   A   SA

30. My job fulfills my desire to help youth.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

31. I enjoy the freedom of planning my own daily schedule.
        SD   D   U   A   SA

APPENDIX C

Survey, Page 3

SECTION IV: Please assume that you are going to work a forty (40) hour week as a school psychologist. Assign a specific number of hours to each of the following nine activities. Please be sure that the total for all nine activities equals forty (40) hours. Do this once for a typical week, and once for a desired week.

32. Data-based decision-making and accountability.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

33. Consultation and collaboration.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

34. Socialization and development of life skills.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

35. Student diversity in development and learning.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

36. School and systems organization.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

37. Prevention, crisis intervention, and mental health.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

38. Home/school/community collaboration.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

39. Research and program evaluation.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

40. Effective instruction and development of cognitive/academic skills.   ACTUAL HOURS SPENT _____ DESIRED HOURS SPENT _____

TOTAL 40   TOTAL 40

Thank you for completing this survey!

If you would like the results of the study sent to you, please indicate so here.

_____ Please email the results to me. My email address is _____.

_____ Please mail the results to me.

Nebraska
UNIVERSITY OF
Omaha

APPENDIX D

Initial Letter

February 25, 2002

Dear School Psychologist:

The following questionnaire is a part of a research project investigating the job satisfaction, personality characteristics, and motivation of school psychologists.

Directions for completing the questionnaire are given in the heading for each section. The code number on the questionnaire is solely for the purpose of tabulating data. Your responses will be kept confidential. If you are not currently a practicing school psychologist, please write, "not applicable" on the survey and return it in the stamped envelope provided.

It is essential to the successful completion of these projects that there is a high return rate. Therefore, please complete the questionnaire at your earliest convenience and return it promptly – hopefully by March 8, 2002. Please note that we have enclosed a self addressed stamped envelope.

Thank you very much for your time and participation. We greatly appreciate your help.

Sincerely,

Jodi Breci

Jodi Breci
Student, University of Nebraska at Omaha

Robert H. Woody

Robert H. Woody
Professor of Psychology and
Director of School Psychology Training

APPENDIX E

Initial Postcard

IRB # 016-02-EX

Dear School Psychologist:

Approximately ten days ago you received a questionnaire for a research project investigating the job satisfaction, personality characteristics, and motivation of school psychologists.

If you have already returned your questionnaire, please disregard this notice and thank you for your participation.

If you have not returned the questionnaire, please do so at your earliest convenience. Your response is very important to our project. If you need an additional questionnaire mailed to you, if you have lost your return envelope, or if you have questions, please notify Jodi Breci via email at jbreci2@mail.esu2.org or call her at 402-727-3021.

Thanks!
-Jodi

APPENDIX F

Second Follow-up Postcard

IRB # 016-02-EX

Dear School Psychologist:

Approximately three weeks ago you received a questionnaire for a research project investigating the job satisfaction, personality characteristics, and motivation of school psychologists.

If you have already returned your questionnaire, please disregard this notice and thank you for your participation.

If you have not returned the questionnaire, please do so at your earliest convenience. Your response is very important to our project. If you need an additional questionnaire mailed to you, if you have lost your return envelope, or if you have questions, please notify Jodi Breci via email at jbreci2@mail.esu2.org or call her at 402-727-3021.

Thanks!
- Jodi

Nebraska
UNIVERSITY OF
Omaha

APPENDIX G

First Follow-Up Letter

March 26, 2002

Dear School Psychologist:

Approximately one month ago you received a questionnaire for a research project investigating the job satisfaction, personality and motivation of school psychologists. If you are not currently employed as a practitioner in a school setting, please write, "not applicable" on the survey and return it in the stamped envelope provided.

Your response is very important to our project. Thus, at this time we are following up with a second questionnaire. Directions for completing the questionnaire are given in the heading for each section. The code number on the questionnaire is solely for the purpose of tabulating data. Your responses will be kept confidential.

It is essential to the successful completion of our project that there is a high return rate. Therefore, please complete the questionnaire at your earliest convenience and return it promptly. Please note that we have enclosed another self addressed stamped envelope.

Thank you very much for your time and participation. We greatly appreciate your help.

Sincerely,

Jodi Breci
School Psychology Student, University of Nebraska at Omaha

Robert H. Woody
Professor of Psychology and
Director of School Psychology Training

6001 Dodge Street
Omaha, NE 68182-0274
PH: 402-554-2592
FX: 402-554-2556

APPENDIX H

N_{UNIVERSITY OF}**ebraska**
Omaha

Second Follow-Up Letter

April 11, 2002

Dear School Psychologist:

We have twice sent you a questionnaire as a part of a research project investigating the job satisfaction, personality characteristics, and motivation of school psychologists.
We realize that completing this takes time away from your busy schedule; however, your response is of great importance to our project. Thus, at this time we are following up with another copy of the questionnaire.

Directions for completing the questionnaire are given in the heading for each section. The code number on the questionnaire is solely for the purpose of tabulating data. Your responses will be kept confidential.

It is essential to the successful completion of these projects that there is a high return rate. Therefore, please complete the questionnaire at your earliest convenience and return it promptly. Please note that we have enclosed a self addressed stamped envelope.

Thank you very much for your time and participation. We greatly appreciate your help.

Sincerely,

Jodi Breci

Jodi Breci
School Psychology Student, University of Nebraska at Omaha

Robert H. Woody

Robert H. Woody
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