School Psychologists' Job Satisfaction: Ten Years Later

by

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(ABSTRACT)

This study was designed to replicate nationwide surveys completed in 1982 and 1992. The purpose was to examine and describe the levels of job satisfaction and the relationship between the variables in a national sample of school psychologists belonging to the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). The sample for this study consisted of respondents who reported being full-time school practitioners.

Data were collected through mailed survey packets including a data form and a modified version of the 1977 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Packets were mailed to 500 randomly selected members of the National Association of School Psychologists. Of the 308 packets returned, 234 were full-time school practitioners and were included in the analysis.

Results indicated that 90% of school psychologists were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. The findings showed a gradual increase in overall job satisfaction when compared to the 85.7% in 1982 and the 86% in 1992 who reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Participants in the current sample were more satisfied with their job security, independence, and creativity. The only variables demonstrating a significant relationship with job satisfaction were the intent to remain in current position and supervisor certification.

Several recommendations and implications were drawn from the study. Trends in the field relating to gender, psychologist-to-student ratio, salary, degree status, and numerous other factors were discussed along with recommendations for future research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Chapter I

Introduction

For almost one hundred years, employee job satisfaction has been targeted by research. The origin of these studies dates back to at least 1911, when Taylor began to study employees and their job duties to develop better ways to train workers (Taylor, 1911). Seven years later, the interest in job satisfaction had clearly arrived when Edward Thorndike examined the link between work and satisfaction in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* in 1918. Some experts in the field suggest that the study of job satisfaction can be traced back almost 200 years, when the industrial revolution had begun to blossom in the United States. However, these initial studies were focused on maximizing worker productivity and the data was often muddled with vague constructs such as "morale" which provided little conceptual clarity and results that were marginally useful.

By 1927, the study of employee's positive or negative reaction to their jobs had fully begun to take hold when Elton Mayo first studied the effect of lighting at the Western Electric Hawthorne Works in Chicago (Bruce & Walton, 1992). These studies showed that lighting had little connection to worker productivity, creating the fundamental groundwork for future studies that asked about other factors that may have an impact on employees. The Hawthorne Studies continued until 1932, and in the five-year interval, the research widened to include factors such as temperature, fatigue, breaks, and working hours. Mayo's work may seem marginally relevant to job satisfaction today, but he discovered that the mere act of studying workers and providing them with more attention increased their motivation and productivity. Mayo had stumbled upon the essence of human motivation, marking a new era of humanistic job satisfaction research, and revolutionizing the research and theories of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction studies continue to emerge, and the results are often valued for both humanistic and financial benefits. When employees are satisfied, they tend to care more about the quality of their work, they are more committed to the organization, they have higher retention rates, and they are generally more productive (Bravendam Research Incorporated, 2002). Spector (1997) suggests that job satisfaction data is helpful in evaluating the emotional wellness and mental fitness of employees and that organizations can use the information to improve departmental policies and practices where dissatisfaction is expressed. Training programs at higher learning institutions also value the research for evaluating their practices and addressing areas of dissatisfaction with practicing professionals in the field.

The practice of school psychology also began to emerge in the late 1800's, as Dr. Lightner Witmer studied morally and mentally deficient children in the Cattell psychological laboratory (Merchant, 1983). His studies prompted him to approach the American Psychological Association (APA), to advocate a "new profession" in the field of psychology (Cutts, 1955). Witmer's vision of psychological experts in the schools became a reality in 1899, when the Chicago Public Schools first employed psychologists. New York, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, and St. Louis all followed suit, and in 1915, Connecticut hired the first official "School Psychologist" (Cutts, 1955). In these early years of school psychology, practitioners were mainly used to administer individual intelligence tests for the mentally disabled. Although the occupation would evolve considerably over the next one hundred years, this aspect of the career would become the most enduring element of the job (Merchant, 1983).

The growth and development of special education programs and services would have a major impact on the field of school psychology, as students with disabilities would be identified and placed in special classes. These assessments and placements were often mandated by state

boards, as were other standards of practice for school psychologists. In the 1950's, the

therapeutic element of the job would emerge as juvenile delinquency was on the rise, and schools

were viewed as critical preventive agencies (Fein, 1974). School psychologists set their sights at

understanding the emotional needs of students, and psychoanalytic methods and treatments were

often employed. With the more expanded and challenging job responsibilities came a need for

standardized training programs and job qualifications. This was the aim of the Thayer

Conference of 1955, and the "New Directions in School Psychology Conference" in 1964. Both

concluded that school psychologists need to be aware of and address the broader societal issues,

utilizing clinical, research, learning-theory, and consultation skills.

Within the last 25 years, governing bodies have become heavily involved, with

legislation identifying more and more areas of disabilities that must be served by the schools.

Well-trained school psychologists became frustrated with their heavy assessment responsibilities,

and most desired to diversify their roles to include consultative and direct interventions with

students (Smith, 1984). As school psychologists expressed more and more dissatisfaction with

their roles within the school system, job satisfaction studies in the field began to emerge.

Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown completed one study on the job satisfaction of school

psychologists in 1982. This research surveyed a nationwide sample of school psychologists and

found that 85 percent of surveyed National Organization of School Psychologists (NASP)

members were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Brown (1998) replicated the study ten

years later, with results again showing that 85 percent of practicing school psychologists who

were members of NASP were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Both studies used a

modified version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), and on both the 1982 and

1992 studies, respondents were satisfied with 18 of the 20 subscales of the MSQ.

Job satisfaction studies have also been completed on the state level, and findings seem to again be consistent with national estimates. For example, 84.27 percent of Virginia school psychologists reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (Levinson, 1983). Similarly, 84.5 percent of Pennsylvania school psychologists reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (Levinson, 1989). North Carolina yielded similar job satisfaction results, with 79.83 percent of the respondents reporting being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. A survey of West Virginia school psychologists showed less overall satisfaction, with 64.1 percent being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs.

Levine (1995) has stated that there is an on-going need for research in the area of job satisfaction. The study of job satisfaction is clearly pertinent to the field of school psychology, and the moderate body of research in this area speaks to its relevance. In the past ten years, educational and health care reforms, state mandated testing programs, and budget cuts have all contributed to the restructuring of schools and other public agencies (Lowry, 1998). In 1990, Public Law 94-142 (The Education for All Handicapped Children Act) was updated and renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The amended law mandates expanded services that must be included in a student's Individualized Educational Plan (IEP), and Levinson (1993) predicted a direct impact on the roles and functions of school psychologists. Furthermore, Arnold & Dodge (1994) noted that because of IDEA's provisions for serving children in the "least restrictive environment", schools nationwide will move toward an inclusion model of education. All of these factors have direct implications for the roles and functions of school psychologists nationwide. The impact that educational reforms and workplace changes have had on the job satisfaction of school psychologists was the focus of this study. The results were compared to those from Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown (1984) and Brown, Hohenshil &

Brown (1998). Few would argue that students, school practices, and societal influences are different than they were a decade ago, and a re-investigation of job satisfaction of school psychologists in this new century seemed appropriate at this time.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate and describe the job satisfaction of a national sample of NASP registered practicing school psychologists. This replication study not only documented current overall job satisfaction levels, but also reported findings of the 20 individual subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire that examine the sources of job satisfaction. Demographic data were also reported as it related to job satisfaction and the specific subscales of the MSQ. This study was descriptive in nature, and addressed the following research questions.

Research Question 1:

What is the overall level of job satisfaction reported by the national sample of school psychologists?

Research Question 2:

What degree of job satisfaction do school psychologists report on each of the 20 subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire?

Research Question 3:

What relationship, if any, do job satisfaction and the selected demographic variables share?

Research Question 4

How do the current levels of school psychologists' job satisfaction compare to the levels reported in the 1982 and 1992 national surveys?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were used in this study.

1. School psychologist--The term "school psychologist" generally refers to a psychologist with training and experience in education who uses specialized knowledge of assessment, learning and interpersonal relationships to identify exceptional children and to assist school personnel to enrich the experience and growth of all children (Cutts, 1955). According to the National Association of School Psychologists, a school psychologist is someone with specialized training in both psychology and education who uses their training and skills to team with educators, parents, and other mental health professionals to ensure that every child learns in a safe, healthy and supportive environment (NASP, 2004). For purposes of this study, the term is used to describe full-time, public school practitioners who are currently members of the National Association of School Psychologists.

2. Job satisfaction--The term "job satisfaction" has been defined in many ways. However, for the purposes of this study, the term is defined as a subjective quality that is measured in the form of an overall job satisfaction score on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

3. National certification--The term "national certification" refers to school psychologists who have completed the requirements of the National School Psychology Certification Board (NSPCB).

4. Private practice—The term "private practice" for purposes of this study refers to the delivery of independent psychological services in a setting other than the employing school district. These services may include private counseling, behavior management, diagnostic testing, and other related activities.

Limitations of the Study

The present study was limited by the following:

1.   The present study was confined to an analysis of school psychologists who were full-time, public school practitioners who were also members of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). Therefore, the results may not generalize to school psychologists employed in other settings, or to school psychologists who are not members of NASP.

2.   The survey instruments were mailed to potential respondents and follow-up interviews were not conducted with non-respondents.

3.   The survey instruments contained selected lists of role functions, job duties, and professional concerns of school psychologists, and were not all-inclusive.

4.   The conclusions based on the results of this study were dependant on the views expressed by those who chose to respond to the survey. It was assumed that the respondents were willing to openly reveal attitudes and responses which, from their perspectives, represented the best answers to the survey questions.

Significance of the Study

Schools have always been complex environments of teaching, learning, and personal growth. Schools of the new millennium are no different, and because schools often mirror society, and the prevalence of violence, drugs, alcohol, and teenage risk taking seem to be at an all-time high (ACA, 1999; Facundo, 1999). Students today regularly face issues that were rare or virtually non-existent in earlier generations. Access to the Internet and the World Wide Web is arguably the most significant change in recent years. Television and movie depictions have also become much more graphic. Parents now face enormous responsibilities raising their children

and providing proper supervision and guidance. Children are also more vulnerable to these influences due to decreased parent supervision in the home, an increase in single-parent families, and soaring poverty rates. Educating these children effectively is becoming more and more difficult, and indeed, the challenges and responsibilities of school personnel are tremendous.

Working within this complex paradigm, school psychologists play a key role in the effective school system. They interact with parents, teachers, and students, and their duties often reach beyond their basic job description. Aside from their traditional assessment duties, school psychologists may work as liaisons between school and community services, run workshops and in-services, coordinate testing programs, and perhaps even perform administrative duties. In addition to these services, school psychologists also have the daunting task of helping children and adolescents through times of crisis or personal dilemma.

If job satisfaction levels impact work quality, organizational commitment, motivation, absenteeism, burnout, and achievement, then it goes without saying that school divisions need to facilitate meaningful work experiences for their school psychologists. School psychologists play a fundamental role in the educational process, and maximizing their contribution and services to the children should be paramount. The work in this study was designed to provide school divisions, university training programs, and national organizations with valuable information on the current levels of job satisfaction of school psychologists across the United States.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

The purpose of this chapter was to serve as an introduction that presented the problem, and detailed the purpose, objectives, and significance of the study. Relevant definitions were also included, along with a discussion of the limitations of the investigation. Chapter II examines pertinent literature relevant to job satisfaction and school psychology. Chapter III will

describe the investigative techniques used to obtain data for the study, and Chapter IV will

present the findings of the research. Chapter V will provide an interpretation and a discussion of

the results.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

The general purpose of this study was to document job satisfaction of school

psychologists. The primary goal of this chapter is to review and summarize literature that is

relevant to the understanding job satisfaction among school psychologists. Current views

concerning definition and measurement of job satisfaction will be discussed, and selected job

satisfaction theories will be reviewed. Studies exploring job satisfaction of school psychologists

will also be addressed, with specific focus being placed on job satisfaction variables specific to

school psychology.

Definition of Job Satisfaction

To begin a discussion on job satisfaction, one might logically begin with a definition.

According to *Webster's Dictionary* (1986), job satisfaction refers to how well a job provides

fulfillment of a need or want, or how well it serves as a source or means of enjoyment. Job

satisfaction is defined more specifically in the literature, and several theorists have generated

their own workable definitions. Of those researchers, Robert Hoppock is perhaps the most

widely cited, although others have emerged with definitions reflecting more current theoretical

underpinnings of job satisfaction. Some of the versions use the terms job attitudes, work

satisfaction, and job morale interchangeably, which may explain the lack of a standardized job

satisfaction definition.

Within the literature, Hoppock offered one of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction

when he described the construct as being any number of psychological, physiological, and

environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job

(Hoppock, 1935). Smith et. al.(1969) defined job satisfaction as the feeling an individual has

about his or her job. Locke (1969) suggested that job satisfaction was a positive or pleasurable

reaction resulting from the appraisal of one's job, job achievement, or job experiences. Vroom

(1982) defined job satisfaction as workers' emotional orientation toward their current job roles.

Similarly, Schultz (1982) stated that job satisfaction is essentially the psychological disposition

of people toward their work. Siegal and Lance (1987) stated simply that job satisfaction is an

emotional response defining the degree to which people like their job. Finally, Lofquist and

Davis (1991), defined job satisfaction as "an individual's positive affective reaction of the target

environment...as a result of the individual's appraisal of the extent to which his or her needs are

fulfilled by the environment" (p.27).

The definition of job satisfaction has visibly evolved through the decades, but most

versions share the belief that job satisfaction is a work-related positive affective reaction. There

seems to be less consistency when talking about the causes of job satisfaction. Wexley and

Yukl (1984) stated that job satisfaction is influenced by many factors, including personal traits

and characteristics of the job. To better understand these employee and job characteristics and

their relationship to job satisfaction, various theories have emerged and provided the vital

framework for future job satisfaction studies. Early traditional theories suggested that a single

bipolar continuum, with satisfaction on one end and dissatisfaction on the other, could be used to

conceptualize job satisfaction. Later revisions of the theory included a two-continuum model that

placed job satisfaction on the first scale, and job dissatisfaction on the second (Brown, 1998).

These later theories focused more on the presence or absence of certain intrinsic and extrinsic job

factors that could determine one's satisfaction level. Intrinsic factors are based on personal

perceptions and internal feelings, and include factors such as recognition, advancement, and

responsibility. These factors have been strongly linked to job satisfaction according to

O'Driscoll and Randall (1999). Extrinsic factors are external job related variables that would

include salary, supervision, and working conditions. These extrinsic factors have also been

found to have a significant influence on job satisfaction levels according to Martin and Schinke

(1998).

<div align="center">Theories of Job Satisfaction</div>

There are numerous theories attempting to explain job satisfaction, but three conceptual

frameworks seem to be more prominent in the literature. The first is content theory, which

suggests that job satisfaction occurs when one's need for growth and self-actualization are met

by the individual's job. The second conceptual framework is often referred to as process theory,

which attempts to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's

expectations and values. The third conceptual group includes situational theories, which

proposes that job satisfaction is a product of how well an individual's personal characteristics

interact or mesh with the organizational characteristics. Each of the three theoretical frameworks

has been explored and reviewed by countless scholars and researchers, and the purpose of this

chapter is not to provide an exhaustive review of job satisfaction theories. Instead, a highlight of

the main theories and theorists from each framework will be offered, to provide clarity, relevance

and direction to this study of job satisfaction.

Content Theories

When discussing human needs, growth, and self-actualization, one cannot look far before

finding Abraham Maslow and his "hierarchy of needs". Maslow's (1954) traditionalist views of

job satisfaction were based on his five-tier model of human needs. At the lowest tier, basic life

sustaining needs such as water, food, and shelter were identified. The next level consisted of

physical and financial security, while the third tier included needs of social acceptance,

belonging, and love. The fourth tier incorporated self-esteem needs and recognition by one's peers, and at the top of the pyramid was reserved for self-actualization needs such as personal autonomy and self-direction. According to Maslow, the needs of an individual exist in a logical order and that the basic lower level needs must be satisfied before those at higher levels. Then, once the basic needs are fulfilled, they no longer serve as motivators for the individual. The more a job allows for growth and acquisition of higher level needs, the more likely the individual is to report satisfaction with his or her job. Furthermore, the success of motivating people depends on recognizing the needs that are unsatisfied and helping the individual to meet those needs.

Building on the theories of Maslow, Frederick Hertzburg (1974) suggested that the work itself could serve as a principal source of job satisfaction. His approach led to the aforementioned two-continuum model of job satisfaction where job satisfaction was placed on one continuum and job dissatisfaction was placed on a second. Hertzberg's theory recognized that work characteristics generated by dissatisfaction were quite different from those created by satisfaction. He identified the factors that contribute to each dimension as "motivators" and "hygienes". The motivators are intrinsic factors that influence satisfaction based on fulfillment of higher level needs such as achievement, recognition, and opportunity for growth. The hygiene factors are extrinsic variables that such as work conditions, pay, and interpersonal relationships that must be met to prevent dissatisfaction. When hygiene factors are poor, work will be dissatisfying. However, simply removing the poor hygienes does not equate to satisfaction. Similarly, when people are satisfied with their job, motivators are present, but removing the motivators does not automatically lead to dissatisfaction. Essentially, job satisfaction depends on the extrinsic characteristics of the job, in relation to the job's ability to fulfill ones higher level

needs of self-actualization.   Hence the two continuum model of Hertzberg's Motivator-Hygiene theory.

Process Theories

Process theories attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at expectancies and values (Gruneberg, 1979). This theory of job satisfaction suggests that workers' select their behaviors in order to meet their needs. Within this framework, Adams' (1963) and Vroom (1982) have become the most prominent theorists. J. Stacy Adams' suggested that people perceive their job as a series of inputs and outcomes. Inputs are factors such as experience, ability, and effort, while outcomes include things like salary, recognition, and opportunity. The theory is based on the premise that job satisfaction is a direct result of individuals' perceptions of how fairly they are treated in comparison to others. This "equity theory" proposes that people seek social equity in the rewards they expect for performance. In other words, people feel satisfied at work when the input or contribution to a job and the resulting outcome are commensurate to that of their co-workers. According to Milkovich and Newman (1990), this social equity is not limited to others within the same workplace, and the equity comparisons often reach into other organizations that are viewed as similar places of employment.

Vroom's (1964) theory of job satisfaction was similar in that it looked at the interaction between personal and workplace variables; however, he also incorporated the element of workers' expectations into his theory. The essence of this theory is that if workers put forth more effort and perform better at work, then they will be compensated accordingly. Discrepancies that occur between expected compensation and actual outcome lead to dissatisfaction. If employees receive less than they expect or otherwise feel as if they have been treaded unfairly, then dissatisfaction may occur. Conversely, overcompensation may also lead to

dissatisfaction and the employee may experience feelings of guilt. The compensation does not have to be monetary, but pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of outcome. Salary also has significance beyond monetary value and the potential to acquire material items, and Gruneberg (1979) notes that it is also an indication of personal achievement, organizational status, and recognition.

Vroom's theory also goes one step further to incorporate an individual's personal decision making within the work-place. Vroom (1982) explained that employees would choose to do or not do job tasks based on their perceived ability to carry out the task and earn fair compensation. To illustrate and clarify his ideas, Vroom generated a three-variable equation for scientifically determining job satisfaction. Expectancy is the first variable, and this is the individual's perception of how well he or she can carry out the given task. Instrumentality is the second variable of the equation, and this refers to the individual's confidence that he or she will be compensated fairly for performing the task. Valence is the third variable, which considers the value of the expected reward to the employee. In Vroom's formula each variable is given a probability value, and when all three factors are high, workers will be more satisfied and have more motivation. If any of the factors are low, work performance and employee motivation will decline.

Situational Theories

The situational occurrences theory emerged in 1992, when Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman stated that job satisfaction is determined by two factors: situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Situational characteristics are things such as pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies that typically are considered by the employee before accepting the job. The situational occurrences are things that occur after taking a job that may be tangible or intangible, positive or negative. Positive occurrences might include

extra vacation time, while negative occurrences might entail faulty equipment or strained co-worker relationships. Within this theoretical framework, job satisfaction is a product of both situational factors and situational occurrences.

<div align="center">Measurement of Job Satisfaction</div>

Measuring job satisfaction is difficult, for it is an abstract personal cognition that exists only in an individual's mind. To measure job satisfaction, one must have a conceptual understanding of the construct in order to decide what indirect factors to measure. Since there is no single agreed upon definition of job satisfaction, and no widely accepted theory to explain it, it is no surprise that there is also no general consensus on the best way to measure job satisfaction (Wanous & Lawler, 1972). The most basic forms of measurement might include an interview, a single-item measure, or a workplace observation; however, most researchers opt for a more objective and in-depth survey instrument (Spector, 1997). Questionnaires are easily distributed, have less room for bias, have increased likelihood of confidentiality, and require much less time and money than one-on-one interviews (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Job satisfaction questionnaires also can examine any number of facets that have hypothesized impact on job satisfaction, although the lack of common agreement with definition and theory can present challenges when weighting each facet and interpreting the results (Evans, 1969). The most widely cited survey instruments found in the literature include The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

The Job Satisfaction Survey

The Job Satisfaction Survey was developed by Paul E. Spector to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. The JSS is a 36 item questionnaire that targets nine separate facets of job satisfaction. Those facets include pay, promotion, benefits, supervision,

contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Each

of these facets is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all 36 items.

Responses to each question range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", and questions are

written in both directions.

Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was first discussed in Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's

publication of the Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (1969).   This 90-item

scale is designed to measure employees' satisfaction with their jobs by looking at five important

aspects or facets of job satisfaction which are present job, present pay, opportunities for

promotion, supervision, and coworkers. It has been widely used and researched for over 40

years, and it has become one of the most popular job satisfaction survey instruments (DeMeuse,

1985; Zedeck, 1987). In fact, more than 12,000 research studies are currently archived by the JDI

Research Group.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Developed in 1967 by Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, the *Minnesota Satisfaction*

Questionnaire (MSQ) has become a widely used instrument to evaluate job satisfaction. Three

forms of the MSQ have been developed, two 100-item long forms (1977 version and 1967

version) and a 20-item short form.   The MSQ is designed to measure specific aspects of an

employee's satisfaction with his or her job, and it provides more information on the rewarding

aspects of a job than do more general measures of job satisfaction. The MSQ has been widely

used in studies exploring client vocational needs, in counseling follow-up studies, and in

generating information about the reinforcers in jobs (Vocational Psychology Research, 2002).

The MSQ is a gender-neutral, self-administered paper-and-pencil inventory that is written on a fifth-grade level. The short form can be completed in about 5 minutes while the long form can be completed in 15 to 20 minutes. Although both the short and long forms provide job satisfaction estimates, the long form provides much more information for the short additional administration time required. The MSQ can be used in an individual or group setting, and standardized instructions for administration are provided. The 1977 revision of the MSQ (originally copyrighted in 1963) uses a standard five-point response scale. Response choices are "Very Satisfied", "Satisfied", "N" (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied), "Dissatisfied" and "Very Dissatisfied." This response format was found to have a ceiling effect which caused the scale score distributions to be negatively skewed. The 1967 version adjusted for this by changing the response options to "Not Satisfied," "Somewhat Satisfied," "Satisfied," "Very Satisfied," and "Extremely Satisfied. This modification resulted in a symmetrical scale score distribution that centered on the "satisfied" category and evidenced larger item variance. Although researchers often prefer this format, the normative data for the 1967 version of the MSQ is more limited. Thus, the 1967 version is recommended for prediction studies or for comparisons within organizations where normative data is unnecessary (Vocational Psychology Research, 2002).

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

A review of the literature shows that numerous variables have been investigated in their relationship to job satisfaction. These variables include demographic data (e.g. age, gender, and race), intrinsic features of the job (e.g. recognition, advancement, and responsibility), and extrinsic variables (e.g. salary, supervision, and working conditions).

Demographic Variables

Research has often focused on age as a factor influencing job satisfaction. Available

literature is somewhat inconclusive however, with some studies showing no significant impact

(Miller, 1985: Brown, 1998), some showing a gradual linear increase of satisfaction as age

increases (Hulin, 1963; Weaver, 1980; Anderson, Hohenshil & Brown, 1984; Sutter, 1994), and

some suggesting that satisfaction is curvilinear and changes throughout the lifespan of the

employee (Hertzberg et. al., 1957). Generally speaking, job satisfaction tends to increase

gradually with age (Spector, 1997). Hertzberg et. al, (1957) attributes this trend to the fact that

job expectations tend to become more realistic as employees age and mature. This pattern may

change to show a relative decline in satisfaction after age 55 (Jewel, 1990), but this may be

linked to the decreased physical energy and enthusiasm that may accompany the aging process.

Still, many studies fail to show this late-career job satisfaction drop-off, and Quinn, Staines, and

McCullough (1974) reported that older workers remain satisfied because of promotions and

acquiring more desirable positions within organizations. Others justify the findings by noting

that people change jobs 6-7 times in a lifetime, and as people get older, they become more aware

of their needs and make better choices. This incongruence of literature is likely due to

situational job variances, and Zeitz (1990) supported this logic by demonstrating significant

differences between satisfaction levels of federal employees based on their positions as elite

professionals, non-elite professionals, and non-professionals.

Gender has also received a great deal of attention in job satisfaction studies, but again the

research is inconclusive. In 1997, Thompson and McNamara reviewed all job satisfaction

studies published in the Educational Administration Quarterly over the past six years and showed

no significant difference between male and female satisfaction levels. Other studies that have

shown no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction levels include Barbash (1976), D'Arcy, Syrotuik, & Siddique (1984), and Iiacqua et. al. (1995). Smith, Smitz, and Hoy, (1998) arrived at similar insignificant findings until they compared the gender of the employee to the gender of the employer. They found that women were more significantly more satisfied than men in small companies with female supervision, while males were significantly more satisfied in larger companies with male supervisors. Studies suggesting that gender does affect job satisfaction are available, and data can be found to suggest that either men are more satisfied (Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Black & Holden, 1998, Weaver, 1977) or that women are generally more satisfied (Kramen-Kahn & Hansen, 1998, Chapman & Lower, 1982). The inconsistencies, according to Gruneberg (1979), are closely linked to differences among expectations, respect, promotional prospects, salary, social interactions, and coping strategies of males and females and the jobs they often hold. Others suggest that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women because of unequal treatments in the workplace, and that under equal work conditions, women are more satisfied with their jobs than men.

Race has also been investigated in job satisfaction studies, and once again, data is inconclusive. Brush, Moch, and Pooyan (1987) found no significant racial differences when comparing fifteen job satisfaction studies; however, Weaver (1980) reports that non-whites are consistently less satisfied than Caucasian employees. Some researchers agree that a racial difference does exist, but that whites are more satisfied with their jobs primarily because of unequal treatment in the workplace. Regardless of the specific demographic variable, be it age, gender, or race, Landy and Trumbo (1980) suggest that job satisfaction variances may exist, but they are very small (2-5 percent). Weaver (1978) agrees, and goes on to say that any differences that do exist, seem to disappear when factors such as education, salary, and status are controlled.

Salary

Many researchers have identified salary as a fundamental variable in the study of job satisfaction (Miller, 1985; Derlin and Schnieder, 1994; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986) Furthermore, the relationship between salary and job satisfaction has been addressed by virtually all job satisfaction studies in the last 80 years. Although the earliest research suggested that salary was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935; Hertzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell, 1957), later studies began to suggest that salary was a factor up to a certain point in an employee's career (Hertzberg, 1966). By the 1970's, salary was being viewed as a more significant factor in job satisfaction, and in studies such as the one conducted by Dyer and Theriault (1976) salary was found to be the most significant factor in determining job satisfaction.   Other researchers of the 1970's also spoke to the significant relationship between salary and satisfaction, but they argued that although low salary was a cause of dissatisfaction, high salary was not necessarily related to satisfaction (Lawler, 1971). More recent studies have generally shown a positive relationship between pay and job satisfaction (Lucas et. al, 1990; Lee and Wilbur, 1985; Rhodes, 1983; Kanungo, 1982), but the relationship seems to be linked more to perceptions of equity and fairness than actual dollar amount (Hulin and Smith, 1965; Spector, 1997). Social comparison appears to be a key factor when looking at the relationship between satisfaction and salary, but employee expectations are also fundamental. According to Adams (1965), employees must feel that there is an equitable balance between the amount of work performed and the compensation received. In other words, if a worker feels that the compensation is either too large or too small for the amount of work performed, dissatisfaction may occur.

Rural vs. Urban Work Site

In urban areas workers often have more job opportunities, better schools, more public transportation, better salary, higher prestige, and greater opportunities for spousal employment. Perhaps it is these factors that explained Arnold, Seekins, & Nelson's (1997) and Finley's (1991) findings that showed higher levels of job satisfaction in urban educational professionals when compared to those in rural settings. On the other hand, rural settings and smaller communities can provide family-oriented settings, lower crime rates, recreational access and overall enhanced "quality of life". Two of the most commonly mentioned disadvantages to rural settings have been professional isolation and lack of opportunity for professional development. However, recent advancements in telecommunications and interactive networking through the Internet may decrease feelings of isolation and improve rural job satisfaction levels in the future.

Interpersonal Factors

Within the context of job satisfaction research, interpersonal relationships are the elements that make up the social and support network of the employee. These elements include the relationship with one's supervisor, the social interaction with co-workers, and even the interactions with clients and/or customers. According to Brown (1998), employee supervision and interaction have been found to be the two most significant interpersonal factors when looking at job satisfaction.

The importance of co-worker social support has been investigated for decades. As far back as the Hawthorne Studies of the 1920's, research has shown that workers who belong to a social group and have friendships on the job tend to be more satisfied (Maynard, 1986). Maynard

suggests further that employees who lack social support at work experience more stress, have less coping techniques, and are generally less satisfied.   Fellow employees can satisfy many social needs, and sympathetic and supportive co-workers can increase job satisfaction (Green, 2000). Co-workers are also vital for evaluating the equity and fairness of ones pay and work requirements, and social needs studies have shown that co-worker job satisfaction can influence one's own job satisfaction (Brown, 1998).

The nature of supervision provided can also have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Studies have shown that employees who have positive interactions with supervisors are generally more satisfied at work (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992; Vroom, 1982). Positive interactions tend to include constructive feedback, effective communication, and a focus on quality rather than quantity (Schroffel, 1999). Positive supervisory relationships are also those that treat the employees with respect, those that promote staff cohesion but allow for individual thinking, and those that fulfill employee's functional and interpersonal needs (Locke, 1970). Supervision is a complex variable however, and it is unrealistic to assume that job satisfaction can be guaranteed as long as supervisors interact positively with their employees. Individual personality characteristics may, for example, affect the employee's needs and management expectations. For example, Schroffel (1999) suggests that employees who have more experience desire less supervision and employees with less experience prefer more supervision. Also, studies have shown that organizational setting can affect the employee's desired supervisory relationship. In chaotic, ambiguous, or otherwise unstructured job settings, employees tend to prefer more structured supervision. Conversely, in jobs where tasks are clearly defined and workers are well trained, a less structured supervisory style is preferred (House and Mitchell, 1974).

Intrinsic factors

  Work is unquestionably an intrinsic part of peoples' lives. "It is often our source of identity and at times our reason for being" (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992, p. 4). Aside from decent pay, economic security, and other extrinsic and tangible rewards of employment, the intrinsic aspects of work are also relevant to the study of job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors are employees' affective reactions to the job, such as their satisfaction with the freedom they have to choose their own methods of working, the recognition that they receive for good work, and the opportunity they have to use their ability. Intrinsic factors may also include perceived respect and responsibility, task variety, and meaningful work. These personally rewarding intrinsic factors have demonstrated a significant impact on job satisfaction in many studies (Hertzberg et. al., 1957; O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999, Locke, 1976, Valentine, Valentine & Dick, 1988). Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996) found that job satisfaction is enhanced by the value placed on one's professional role and identification with that role, but negatively affected by choosing the job because rewards are extrinsic (external to the work itself, such as fellow workers, salary, or promotion opportunities). Martinez-Ponz (1990) found that intrinsic rewards were more effective in increasing job satisfaction and commitment among teachers than were financial incentives. Similarly, Reyes, Madsen, and Taylor (1989) found that intrinsic rewards had more influence on educators than any organizational rewards.

  Stewart (2000) suggested that helping to make workers feel independent had large positive effects on both performance and satisfaction outcomes. Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) work also spoke to the importance of worker autonomy and it's positive relationship with job satisfaction and performance. Cappelli (2000) highlighted the importance of intrinsic rewards when participants rated interesting work, open communications, and opportunities for

advancement as the top three things they desire in their jobs. Tatsapaugh (1994) suggested that the lack of advancement on the job is a frequent factor influencing resignation. When employee's feel their work is meaningful and that they are responsible for their outcomes, Thomas & Tymon, (1997) state that workers show higher levels of effort and attention to doing tasks well.

<div align="center">Job Satisfaction in School Psychology</div>

Since the enactment of Public Law 94-142 or the Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), the number of school psychologists in the United States has been on the rise. IDEA increased the range of disabilities served by special education programs and created more demand for school psychological services. Unfortunately, the needed services are primarily testing related, which may significantly limit the roles and functions of practicing school psychologists to just one aspect of their training. This role diversity has been a factor in earlier job satisfaction studies (Levinson, 1989) along with other variables such as supervision, demographic differences, responsibility, caseload, etc. This section of the literature review will look at the job satisfaction studies of school psychologists, and discuss the findings in relation to the various factors that have been found to impact job satisfaction levels.

Overall Job Satisfaction Levels

To date, only two nationwide job satisfaction surveys have been completed in the field of school psychology. In both studies, random samples of school psychologists from NASP member lists were surveyed using a modified version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. In both the Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown (1984) study and the Brown, Hohenshil & Brown (1998) study, 85 percent of school psychologists indicated that they were satisfied with their jobs.

State-wide job satisfaction studies have also yielded similar findings, and Levinson, Fetchkan and Hohenshil (1998) reported that 84 percent of Virginia school psychologists were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, 84.5 percent of Pennsylvania school psychologists reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (Levinson, 1989). North Carolina yielded similar job satisfaction results, with 79.83 percent of the respondents reporting being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (South, 1990). A survey of West Virginia school psychologists showed less overall satisfaction, with 64.1 percent being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (Solly and Hohenshil, 1986).

Demographic Variables

Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown (1984) suggest that a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction exists, perhaps because school psychologists learn to modify their job or their needs as they gain experience and grow older. Other studies such as Brown, Hohenshil & Brown (1998) and Levinson, Fetchkan and Hohenshil (1988) have not found a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction, although the age of the participants in the surveys tended to be younger.

Gender

Although gender has typically not proved to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction either in school psychologists (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984) or in business settings, Brown, Hohenshil & Brown (1998) reported that female school psychologists were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Brown et. al. hypothesized that females view school psychology as an attractive career because of the work hours and because the job offers some women the opportunity to advance into a higher paying, non-teaching position. Brown et. al also speculated

that men have more difficulty accepting the lack of power that may accompany the support personnel positions in education.

Salary

The relationship between pay and job satisfaction seems to be dynamic in the field of school psychology, and the existing literature is inconsistent. Initially, satisfaction levels were thought to be positive correlated with pay (Solly, 1983; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986; South, 1990); however, other studies found no relationship between salary and job satisfaction (Anderson, 1982; Levinson, 1983; Brown et. al., 1998). The inconsistency of the findings may be due to the fact that some school systems place school psychologists on a teacher pay scale while others place them on an administrative salary schedule. Alternatively, length of contract may be at the root of the discrepancy due to the fact that considerable salary variation exists between the common ten and twelve month positions.

Supervision

Professional supervision is fundamental component of school psychologist training (NASP, 2003). Unfortunately, many practicing school psychologists did not have adequate supervision while in training and many currently have insufficiently trained supervisors (Zins, Murphy, & Wess, 1989; South, 1990). Just as adequate supervision is correlated with higher levels of job satisfaction (South, 1990; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986), school psychologists with inadequate supervision have been found to experience lower levels of job satisfaction (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Levinson, 1983; Levinson, Fetchkan & Hohenshil, 1988, Solly, 1983; South, 1990; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986).

Urban vs. Rural Work site

School psychologists in rural areas have generally expressed higher satisfaction with their job than those working in more urban settings (Solly and Hohenshil, 1986). This is perhaps due to the fact that rural school psychologists have more diverse roles in the school system, have better relationships with their supervisors, and are more satisfied with their work environments (Ehly & Reimers, 1986). Barker (1986) speculates that the smaller schools that are often found in rural settings tend to provide workers with closer relationships between faculty, staff, students, and administrators. Some studies have not supported the rural work site and higher job satisfaction relationship, and instead found that rural school psychologists expressed twice as much dissatisfaction with their jobs (Solly and Hohenshil, 1986). This may be related to the fact that rural school psychologists tend to have less job experience and larger caseloads than those do in urban settings (Hughes, 1982).

Professional Affiliation

Previous studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between national professional organization membership and job satisfaction levels, while membership in state and local organizations have shown to be negatively related to job satisfaction. (Levinson, Fetchkan & Hohenshil, 1998). While both national and local professional organizations provide support for school psychologists, Brown (1998) speculates that dissatisfied workers are more likely to join local organizations that are more capable at making changes to school policies and practices.

Case Load

Heavy case loads have been linked to lower job satisfaction, more role conflict, more stress, and higher rates of burnout (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Jorde, 1982; Reiner & Hartshorne, 1982, Ahrens, 1977, Wright& Gutkin, 1981). As psychologist-to-student ratio

increases, role diversity, boundary spanning activities and direct and indirect interventions decline (Jerrell, 1984; Keith, Brown, & Oberman, 1992). O'Day (1998) reported that NASP recommends one school psychologist for every one thousand students, and when this ratio is exceeded school psychologists' roles and functions often become restricted. To keep up with the special education testing, school psychologists with heavy case loads get confined by their assessment responsibilities, and likely become dissatisfied because they have less time to counsel children, fewer opportunities to consult with parents and teachers, and limited room to perform boundary role activities (Smith, 1984).

Boundary Spanning Activities

School psychologists engage in boundary spanning activities when they serve as community liaisons or engage in tasks such as program development that require them to work with other agencies, organizations or departments. In most studies of school psychologists, boundary-spanning activities have been associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. (Jerrell, 1984; South, 1990).

Opportunities for Advancement

A review of the literature evidenced no support for a significant relationship between advancement opportunities and high levels of job satisfaction. In studies of school counselors, Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995) found that out of 20 scales contributing to job satisfaction, advancement opportunities ranked nineteenth. Findings are available however, which suggest that poor opportunity for advancement is related to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell 1957; Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Levinson, 1983; Levinson, Fetchkan & Hohenshil, 1988, South, 1990; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986). Brown, Hohenshil, and Brown (1998) explained that certification requirements of the position may limit school

psychologists from moving into administrative or other special service positions. Levinson et. al (1998) spoke to this point by explaining that the position of the school psychologist is both an entry and a terminal position. Levison (1991) also explains that the dissatisfaction is even more pronounced in larger school divisions, although the dissatisfaction tends to decline as pay increases.

Role Diversity

In a recent study completed in Virginia by Lowry (1998), school psychologists reported spending most of their time performing special education testing, participating in eligibility committee meetings, and meeting with parents, teacher, and administrators. Smith (1984) reported similarly that school psychologists spend approximately 70 percent of their time evaluating children for disabilities, 20 percent of their time meeting with parents and school colleagues, and only 10 percent of their time in counseling activities. Reschly & Wilson (1995) add that in surveys completed in 1986 and 1991, more than half of the school psychologists surveyed estimated that they spent at least 75% of their time psychological testing activities. In both studies, practitioners desired to reduce their traditional testing roles in favor of more direct services with children and problem solving consultation (Reschly & Wilson, 1995).

When a large discrepancy exists between desired and actual roles, school psychologists have consistently demonstrated lower levels of job satisfaction (Levinson, 1990). Furthermore, when the roles of school psychologists are restricted, satisfaction levels decreases (Jerrell, 1984; South, 1990). A lack of role diversity has also been shown to limit the effectiveness of services and increase the likelihood of burnout (Huberty and Huebner, 1988). The reason for the actual and desired role discrepancy is largely related to special education laws such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) which dictate equality for children with disabilities.

These laws define the role of the school psychologist to include assessment, consultation, and parent training. As a result, Jenkins and Crumbly (1986) report that special education duties of school psychologists increased 30% after the enactment of Public Law 94-142 (Education of the Handicapped Act). It seems ironic that the legislation that caused a surge in the need for school psychologists (Dwyer & Gorin, 1996), is also one of the primary sources of role restriction and dissatisfaction within the profession.

System Policies and Practices

Studies related to job satisfaction have demonstrated that local and state administrative policies influence satisfaction with work (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell, 1957; Bacharach, Bamberger, & Mitchell, 1990; Kendrick, Chandler, & Hatcher, 1994; Ponec & Brock, 2000). School system policies have also been shown to have a direct effect on employee morale (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). When school psychologists are dissatisfied with school system policies and practices, they tend to have lower job satisfaction (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Levinson, 1989, Levinson, Fetchkan & Hohenshil, 1988; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986). Levinson (1990) explains that local and state administrative policies are often decided without input from the psychologists, and these policies may ultimately restrict the roles of school psychologists. Levinson's study also showed that this dissatisfaction with system policies and practices tends to be more significant in larger school districts where political bureaucracy may be more prevalent.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

The purpose of this chapter was to present literature relevant to job satisfaction and school psychology. Varying definitions and prominent theories were presented, along with a discussion of the instrumentation frequently employed to measure job satisfaction. To date, there

have been two comprehensive national surveys of school psychologists. Completed in 1982 and 1992, ten years have now elapsed since a nationwide survey has been conducted. In the dawn of the new millennium, school psychologists are faced with extreme challenges on a daily basis. Completing a national replication survey was not only appropriate at this time, but also vital to school divisions, university training programs, and national organizations. Job satisfaction affects work quality, organizational commitment, motivation, absenteeism, burnout, and achievement, and this research provides valuable insight into the status of school psychologists today.

Chapter III

Methodology

This chapter specifies the methodological strategy and procedures chosen for this study. The population sample is described and the participant selection process is explained. The methods used for distribution and collection of the survey are discussed. Statistical treatments of the survey data are outlined.

Research Questions

The procedures described in this chapter were devised to answer each of the following research questions:

Research Question 1:

What is the overall level of job satisfaction reported by the national sample of school psychologists?

Research Question 2:

What degree of job satisfaction do school psychologists report on each of the 20 subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire?

Research Question 3:

What relationship, if any, do job satisfaction and the selected demographic variables share?

Research Question 4

How do the current levels of school psychologists' job satisfaction compare to the levels reported in the 1982 and 1992 national surveys?

Participants

The participants for this study were a sample of school psychologists who are members of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). NASP was founded in 1969 with 455 members, and by June 2000, membership totals were listed in the September *Communiqué* as 21,942. NASP members hail from all fifty states, and represent significant demographic and geographic diversity. A random sample of 500 participants was obtained through Alex Hyman of NASP. The sample size was felt to be sufficient for representing the members of NASP once the student members were excluded from the total number of NASP members.

Instrumentation

Each participant for this replication study was asked to complete a demographic data form and a modified 1977 version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The data form (appendix A) was used to identify the respondent's demographic information such as age, sex, education, and professional affiliations. Additionally, job characteristics were targeted by questions about the number of students served, salary and contract lengths, role functions, and intent to remain in their job or in the field of school psychology.

As with the original 1982 study completed by Anderson, Hohenshil, and Brown, and again in the 1992 Brown research, the modified 1977 version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was again employed for data collection. The MSQ has been used in many job satisfaction surveys, and Anderson (1982) reports strong reliability and concurrent validity estimates. The MSQ was designed to examine the sources of work reinforcement and job satisfaction by evaluating 20 domains of job satisfaction. The 20 subdomains of the MSQ that were used to comprise the overall job satisfaction estimates are as follows:

1. Ability Utilization – opportunity to use abilities

2. Achievement – feeling of accomplishment from work

3. Activity – keeping busy

4. Advancement – opportunity for promotion

5. Authority – being in-charge of others

6. System policies and practices – school policy implementation

7. Compensation – perceived balance of work performed to salary received

8. Co-Workers – relationships with co-workers

9. Creativity – flexibility to try one's own methods

10. Independence – opportunity to work alone

11. Moral Values – opportunity to act in ways that do not go against beliefs

12. Recognition - acknowledgment for a job well done

13. Responsibility – freedom to use personal judgement

14. Security – anticipation of steady employment

15. Social Service – being able to help others

16. Social Status – being respected in the community

17. Supervision-human relations – relationship between employee and supervisors

18. Supervision-technical – the technical quality of the supervision

19. Variety – the opportunity to do different things

20. Working Conditions – physical aspects of the work environment

Each of the above subscales is composed of five questions that are rated on a four-point scale. Respondents were asked to rate their job on each question by checking that they are Very Satisfied, Satisfied, Dissatisfied or Very Dissatisfied. All 100 responses from the twenty subscales were combined to obtain an overall job satisfaction score.

Data Collection Process

All survey materials were distributed and returned by U.S. mail. There were five steps in the data collection process; a pre-letter, the initial survey distribution, a postcard reminder, and two follow-up mailings.

Pre-Letter

One week prior to the first mailing of survey materials a pre-letter was sent to all participants. The letter was endorsed by several members of the author's dissertation committee and described the purpose of the study and confidentiality of responses, and encouraged participation in the study.

First Mailing

The first mailing included an explanatory letter and survey materials with a stamped, self-addressed envelope for the return of the materials. Each packet was coded to facilitate follow-up of non-respondents.

Postcard Reminder

Two weeks after the initial survey mailing a postcard reminder was sent to all participants asking for their cooperation and urging them to complete the survey materials. Participants who had not received a survey were asked to call or email the author to have the materials sent to them.

First Follow-up

Approximately six weeks after the initial survey mailing a second mailing was sent to all participants who had not yet responded. An accompanying letter assured participants of confidentiality and urged their response using the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope.

Second Follow-up

Fifteen weeks after the initial mailing a third packet was mailed to those persons who had not responded. The packet included a letter from the chairman of the dissertation committee and a set of survey materials with a stamped self-addressed envelope.

Data Analysis

Returned surveys were hand scored and the responses were entered into a SPSS data file.

Data Form

For each of the categories of demographic information on the data form, sums, averages, and percentages were calculated as appropriate. Monthly salary was adjusted according to the length of contract specified by the respondent. Gender, intention to remain in current position and field for the next five years, and other demographic questions answered with either a yes or a no were treated as dichotomous nominal variables. All of the remaining demographic variables, such as age and years of service were treated as ordinal variables, except for salary, which was converted into a new variable by dividing yearly income by contract length.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Each of the items on the modified MSQ had four possible response items, each assigned an ordinal weight. Very Dissatisfied (VDS) was given an ordinal weight of 1, Dissatisfied (DS) was assigned an ordinal weight of 2, Satisfied (S) was given an ordinal weight of 3, and Very Satisfied (VS) was assigned an ordinal weight of 4. Thus, higher scores indicated higher levels of job satisfaction. With five questions per subscale, totals for each of the 20 areas could range from 5 to 20. Incomplete items were filled in using the modal score for the other four questions within the subscale. If two items are left blank in any of the 20 subscales, then the scale was not scored.

Following the data analysis procedures used in the Brown (1998) study, each response option was assumed to represent the midpoint of an interval instead of an absolute score. For example, a response of 3 (satisfied) was interpreted to indicate a midpoint of the interval 2.5 to 3.5. Four satisfaction categories were obtained by multiplying the interval ranges by the number of items in each subscale. For instance, a score of 5-7.5 indicated a Very Dissatisfied score for the subscale, whereas a subscale score of 17.5 or above yielded a Very Satisfied rating. This same procedure was used for the overall sums of the 100 MSQ items, creating ranges for total job satisfaction scores. Therefore, total sums of 100-150 indicate that the respondent is Very Dissatisfied, 151-250 represented the Dissatisfied Range, 251-350 indicated Satisfied results, and scores between 351 and 400 indicated that the participant was Very Satisfied.

To answer the research questions presented earlier, the following statistical analyses were performed.

1. A frequency count based on the number of respondents in each overall job satisfaction category was used to describe the overall level of job satisfaction of school psychologists.

2. Means and 95% confidence intervals were used for each of the 20 subscales on the MSQ to conduct a hierarchy of job satisfaction sub-factors for the national sample of school psychologists.

3. A multiple regression model was constructed to describe the relationships between the selected demographic variables and overall job satisfaction.

4. A series of t-tests was used to compare the level of job satisfaction of school psychologists in the 2002 and 1992 samples with the various subfactors of job satisfaction measured by the MSQ.

5. Levels of overall job satisfaction of both groups were compared using a chi-square goodness of fit test.

Summary

This chapter provided a description of the research methods and the rationale for their use in this study. Methodological strategies relating to participants, instrumentation, and data collection procedures were discussed. Finally, the statistical treatments of the survey data were detailed.

Chapter IV

Results of the Study

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis procedures that were described in

Chapter III. The results of the data collection procedures are described in the first section. The

demographic description of the sample, as collected from the Data Form, is delineated in the

second. The third section describes the statistical properties of the Minnesota Satisfaction

Questionnaire. The fourth section is devoted to the description of school psychologists' job

satisfaction, which will restate the research questions and be followed by the analysis that

answers them. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings for each research question.

Survey Responses

Data were collected through a five-step process that included: (1) a pre-letter; (2) the

initial survey mailing; (3) a postcard reminder; (4) the first follow-up mailing of the survey

materials; (5) the second follow-up mailing of the survey materials. Five hundred survey packets

were mailed initially.

Return percentages for each step in the data collection process are presented in Table 1

along with those from Brown's 1992 study. The final response rate of 61.6% included 16

incomplete or otherwise unusable surveys.

Demographic Data

Responses to items on the data form were used to describe the characteristics of the

sample, and to develop demographic variables for the study of relationships between

demographic variables and job satisfaction. All demographic characteristics are descriptive of

those respondents who identified themselves as full-time practitioners employed in schools

($\underline{n}$=234).

Table 1

Survey Response Rates

Step	2004			1992	
	Number	% Total		Number	% Total
Initial Mailing	227	45.4		250	56.81
First Follow-up	60	12		53	12.04
Second Follow-up	21	4.2		56	12.72
Total	308	61.6		359	81.57

Primary Role Designation

Two hundred and thirty four respondents identified their primary roles as a full-time practitioner and were included in the analysis. This group comprised 79.3% of the useable responses to the survey. A breakdown of the role designations of all respondents along with that of Brown's 1992 sample is presented in Table 2.

Gender

Twenty-two percent of the survey sample was comprised of males ($\underline{n}$ =54), while females made up 76.8 % of the sample ($\underline{n}$ =179).

Age

The number of respondents in each age category is presented in Table 3 along with that of Brown's 1992 and Anderson's 1982 sample. The largest percentage of respondents in the present sample was in the 50-55 year-old range, making up 24.7% ($\underline{n}$ =58) of the survey sample. In fact, almost half of all respondents (46.9 %; $\underline{n}$ =110) indicated that they were 50 years-old or over.

Degree Status

The percentage of respondents at each level of degree is shown in Table 4. The majority of the participants (67.6 %; $\underline{n}$ =159) reported holding the Masters degree plus 30 semester hours or an Educational Specialist degree, while 26% of the respondents reported holding the doctorate degree ($\underline{n}$ =60).

Co-Workers

Of the 235 persons responding to this item, less than 1% indicated they worked in a school system employing no full-time school psychologists ($\underline{n}$ =2). Twenty-five percent of

Table 2

Primary Role Designation

	2004		1992	
Category	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Practitioner	234	79.3	228	66.7
Administrator/Supervisor	25	8.5	27	7.9
Student	0	0	--	--
Full Time Intern	0	0	--	--
Trainer of School Psychologists	5	1.7	15	4.4
Private Practitioner	11	3.7	21	6.1
Retired/ Not Practicing/ Other	20	6.8	45	13.2
Total	308	100	359	100.0

Table 3

Age Distribution

	2004		1992		1982	
Range	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
20-25	0	0	0	0%	1	.4%
26-31	18	8.1%	26	11.5%	61	25.0%
32-37	35	14.9%	34	15.0%	75	30.7%
38-43	31	13.2%	71	31.4%	38	15.6%
44-49	40	17.1%	60	26.5%	27	11.0%
50-55	58	24.7%	16	7.1%	19	7.8%
56-61	39	16.6%	15	6.6%	17	7.0%
Over 62	13	5.6%	4	1.8%	6	2.5%
Total	235	100%	226	100%	244	100%

Note. Two respondents failed to complete this item for 1992 and one respondent failed to answer this item for 1982.

Table 4

Degree Status

	2004			1992			1982		
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Degree	Number	% Total		Number	% Total		Number	% Total
BS	1	.4%		0	0%		0	0%
MS	15	6.4%		20	8.8%		29	11.8%
MS + 30	103	43.8%		111	48.9%		151	61.6%
Ed.S./CAGS	56	23.8%		44	19.4%		35	14.3%
Doctorate	60	25.5%		52	22.9%		30	12.2%
Total	235	100%		227	100%		245	100.0%

respondents reported working in a school system employing 1 to 3 full-time school psychologists (n =60), and 19.6% persons indicated that they worked with 4-6 other school psychologists (n=46). School systems employing 7-10 school psychologists made up 15.3% of the survey sample, while 7.7% of respondents reported working with 11-14 other school psychologists. Respondents who indicated working with more than 15 other school psychologists made up 30% of the survey sample (n=72).

District

More than half (n =118, 50.6%) of the survey participants indicated that they were employed in a suburban school district. Those working in rural areas made up 26.6% of the sample, and 22.7% of the respondents reported working in urban areas.

Supervisor Certification Status

Of the 232 persons who responded to this item, 66.8% (n =155) indicated that their supervisor was not certified as a school psychologist. The remaining 33.2% of respondents reported that their supervisor was certified.

DSM-IV Importance and Usage

The majority of practicing school psychologists in this study 67.8% (n =160) reported that it is important for school psychologists to use the DSM-IV in their jobs. Slightly less (66.5%, n =157) respondents indicated that they actually use the diagnostic manual in their school service. The three participants who thought it was important to use the DSM-IV but indicated that they did not, also reported that they were not allowed to do so in their school division.

Computer Based Report Writers

Only 25.1% of the school psychologists surveyed indicated that they use computer based report writer programs in their jobs. The majority (74.9%, $\underline{n}$ =173) indicated that they do not utilize report writer programs.

Curriculum Based Assessment

The majority of survey participants (72%) rely on traditional standardized tests to evaluate children in their schools. Only 25.4% ($\underline{n}$ =60) of respondents indicated that they utilize curriculum based measurement practices for evaluating students. Hand-written comments on the data forms often suggested that practitioners desired this form of assessment, but limitations placed on them by special education laws and their individual school policies often prevented them form doing so.

Psychologist-to-Student Ratios

Of the 231 persons responding to this item, 25% indicated that they work in school districts that have a psychologist-to-student ratio of 1:1000 or less ($\underline{n}$ =59). Twenty-four percent of respondents ($\underline{n}$ =58) reported a psychologist-to-student ratio between 1:1000 and 1:1500, while 20% reported a ratio between 1:1500 and 1:2000 ($\underline{n}$ =58). The remaining 30% of respondents reported psychologist-to-student of more than 1:2000 and the entire breakdown of responses to this item are presented in Table 5.

Annual Salary

The annual salary distribution is presented in Table 6 along with the salary data gathered in 1992 and 1982. To maintain consistency, the top salary bracket is presented in the table as $50,000 and over. With that in mind, the largest group of respondents earned over $50,000

Table 5

Psychologist-to-Student Ratio

	2004		1992		1982	
Ratio	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
1:1000 or less	59	25.1%	31	13.7%	33	13.6%
1:1000 to 1:1500	58	24.7%	36	15.9%	29	12.0%
1:1500 to 1:2000	48	20.4%	60	26.5%	45	18.6%
1:2000 to 1:2500	35	14.9%	35	15.5%	43	17.8%
1:2500 to 1:3000	12	5.1%	33	14.6%	35	14.5%
1:3000 to 1:3500	7	3.0%	14	6.2%	21	8.7%
1:3500 to 1:4000	3	1.3%	9	4.0%	11	4.5%
1:4000 or over	10	4.3%	8	3.5%	25	10.3%
Total	232	100%	228	100%	242	100.0%

Note. Three respondents failed to complete this item in 2004 and in 1982.

Table 6

Annual Salary

Range	2004		1992		1982	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
28,000 or less	0	0%	15	6.6%	193	80.1%
28,001 to 30,000	0	0%	20	8.8%	22	9.1%
30,001 to 32,000	0	0%	12	5.3%	15	6.2%
32,001 to 34,000	2	0.9%	17	7.5%	4	1.7%
34,001 to 36,000	1	0.4%	11	4.8%	1	.4%
36,001 to 38,000	1	0.4%	12	5.3%	1	.4%
38,001 to 40,000	1	0.4%	19	8.3%	5	2.1%
40,000 to 50,000	20	8.5%	80	35.1%	0	0.0%
50,000 or over	208	89.2%	42	18.4%	0	0.0%
Total	232	100%	228	100%	241	100.0%

Note. Two respondents failed to complete this item in 2004 and four respondents failed to complete this item in 1982.

annually (89.2%, $\underline{n}$ =208) while 8.5% of the sample earned between $40,000 and $50,000 per year ($\underline{n}$ =20). Only 2.1% of the respondents made less than $40,000 annually.

To characterize the top salary bracket more specifically, 15.8% ($\underline{n}$ =37) of the respondents reported earning between $50,000 and $60,000 per year, while 24.6% ($\underline{n}$ =58) of the survey sample indicated that they earned between $60,000 and $70,000 per year. The remaining 15.7% of respondents ($\underline{n}$ =37) reported earning more than $71,000 per year.

Administrative Roles

Most participants in this study (82.7%, $\underline{n}$ =191), reported that they did not seek an administrative position. When asked about teaching requirements for administrative roles in their systems, 17% indicated that they were unsure of whether or not one must be a teacher before advancing into administration. Of those who did respond to the question, 53%(=125), thought that teaching experience was not a prerequisite for an administrative position in their school divisions.

Contract Length

Sixty-one percent ($\underline{n}$ =145) of the persons responding to this item indicated that they were employed for 10 month contracts, while 16.6% of the survey sample reported working for a 9 month contract ($\underline{n}$ =39). Eleven month contracts were held by 11.1% of the survey sample ($\underline{n}$=26), and 12 month contracts were held by 10% of the respondents ($\underline{n}$=24).

Years of Experience

The number of years of experience as a school psychologist ranged from 1 to 37, with 50% reporting less than 14 years of experience. The complete breakdown of this item is reported in Table 7.

Table 7

Years of Experience

	2004		1992		1982	
Years	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
0 – 5	29	12.3	60	26.5	103	42.9
6-10	47	20.2	47	20.8	79	32.9
11-15	53	22.9	53	23.5	33	13.8
16-20	34	14.6	43	19.0	20	8.3
21-25	26	15.3	22	9.7	3	1.3
26-30	34	14.6	1	0.4	2	0.8
Total	233	100.0	226	100.0	240	100.0

Note. Two respondents failed to complete this item in 2004 and 1992, and five respondents failed to complete this item in 1982.

National Certification Status

Of the 232 persons responding to this item, 53% reported holding the National Certified School Psychologist designation (n=123), while 47% indicated that they did not hold the national certification (n=109).

Psychology Licensure

The majority of the respondents (n=145, 62.2%) indicated that they were not licensed as a school psychologist. Those reporting that they were licensed to practice psychology made up 37.8% of the survey sample (n=88), while one respondent failed to answer this item.

Private Practice

Of the 233 persons responding to this item, only 20.4% (n=48) reported providing private practice services in addition to their employment in the school systems

Remain in Current Position

When asked if they intended to stay in their current employment position for at least five more years, 70.2% of the survey sample (n=165) indicated that they plan to do so. Only 28.1% (n=66) reported that they did not plan to remain in their position, while four persons failed to answer this item.

Remain in the Profession

The data form also asked participants if they planned to remain in the field of school psychology for the next five years. The majority of the respondents indicated that they do intend to say in the profession (n=195, 83.0%), whereas only 15.3% (n=36) plan to leave the profession within the next five years. Of the 235 survey respondents, four failed to answer this question.

Teaching Experience

The majority of respondents in this sample (n=139, 59.9%) indicated that they had no teaching experience. Respondents who reported having 1-5 years of teaching experience made up 24.5% (n=57) of the sample, while 10.4% of the participants reported having 6-10 years of service as a teacher. Just over three percent had between 11-15 years of teaching experience, and 1.6 % (n=4) indicated that they had taught for more than 15 years.

<div align="center">Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)</div>

Survey participants returned 234 completed Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaires. The questionnaire has been shown to provide both reliable and valid information about job satisfaction of school psychologists.

Questionnaire Reliability

The internal consistency of the 20 scales of the MSQ is very good, and the median reliability coefficients range from .78 to .93 (Weiss et. al., 1967). The internal consistency estimates provided by the authors are presented in Table 8 along with Brown's 1992 reliability coefficients for each of the 20 scales of the MSQ.

Concurrent Validity

Concurrent validity was tested by using the overall job satisfaction rating from item 27 on the data form and the job satisfaction scores on the modified MSQ. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated, and a moderate correlation that was significant was found (r^2=.381, p>.01). Thus job satisfaction scores on the MSQ were related to personal estimates of job satisfaction.

Table 8

Reliability Coefficients for MSQ scales

Scale	MSQ Median Reliability Coefficient	1992 Reliability Coefficient
Ability Utilization	.91	.95
Achievement	.84	.85
Activity	.86 .	.86
Advancement	.93	.93
Authority	.85	.79
System Policies and Practices	.90	.90
Compensation	.91	.92
Co-Workers	.85	.88
Creativity	.87	.93
Independence	.85	.82
Moral Values	.81	.84
Recognition	.93	.92
Responsibility	.78	.77
Security	.80	.89
Social Service	.89	.92
Social Status	.79	.88
Supervision-Human Relations	.89	.90
Supervision-Technical	.86	.92
Variety	.86	.89
Working Conditions	.89	.95

Job Satisfaction Among School Psychologists

The modified 1977 version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to measure job satisfaction among the national sample of NASP registered school psychologists. The responses on the data forms, the summated MSQ scores, and the 20 scales that were described in Chapter III form the basis of the results discussed below. The research questions organize the following sections for ease of interpretation.

Overall Job Satisfaction

Research Question 1: What is the overall level of job satisfaction reported by the national sample of school psychologists?

Two measures were used to determine job satisfaction in this study. The first was obtained from the last question on the data form that asked participants to rate their overall level of job satisfaction on a scale of 1 to 4, with one being very dissatisfied and four being very satisfied. Of the 234 survey participants, only 12 (5.1%) reported being very dissatisfied with their position. Twenty-five (10.6%) of the respondents indicated that they were dissatisfied with their current job. The majority of the sample ($\underline{n}$=149; 63.7%) expressed that they were satisfied, and forty-eight persons (20.5%) reported that they were very satisfied with their current position.

The second measure of job satisfaction was obtained by summing response rates across all 100 items of the modified MSQ. This score was then converted into categorical data by creating four satisfaction categories based on score intervals explained in Chapter III. Total sums of 100-150 indicated that the respondent was Very Dissatisfied, 151-250 represented the Dissatisfied interval range, 251-350 indicated Satisfied results, and scores between 351 and 400 indicated that the participant was Very Satisfied. Of the 233 survey participants, less than 1%

(n=1) fell in the very dissatisfied range. Nine percent of the respondents' (n=21) scores fell in the dissatisfied range, while 83% (n=195) of the scores were within the satisfied range. The remaining 7% (n=16) of the participants' scores fell in the very satisfied range.

Sources of Job Satisfaction

Research Question 2: What degree of job satisfaction do school psychologists report on each of the 20 subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire?

Creating a hierarchy of the 20 scales of the modified MSQ allowed the investigation of the sources of job satisfaction among the sample of school psychologists. Respondents expressed satisfaction with 19 out of 20 areas (areas with mean ratings above 12.5). Only ratings on school system policies and practices fell below this range, indicating that the participants as a whole were dissatisfied with this aspect of their jobs. The detailed breakdown of the twenty modified MSQ scales is provided in Table 9.

Job Satisfaction and Demographic Variables

Research Question 3: What relationship, if any, do job satisfaction and the selected demographic variables share?

As in Brown's 1992 study, multiple regression was used to determine the relationship between selected demographic variables and overall job satisfaction. The regression model was generated with SPSS v.9.0 (1988). The regression analysis incorporated a step-wise variable selection process that utilized the eleven variables of gender, age, degree status, co-workers, psychologist-to-student ratio, supervisor certification, national certification, psychology licensure, private practice, intention to remain in the profession, and intent to remain in current position.

Table 9

Hierarchy of MSQ scales

Scale	N	Mean	SD	95%CI
Social Service	233	16.704	2.888	16.33--17.08
Independence	229	16.013	2.053	15.75--16.28
Moral Values	231	16.013	2.219	15.73--16.30
Activity	233	15.953	2.388	15.65--16.26
Co-workers	233	15.931	2.656	15.59--16.27
Security	231	15.892	2.711	15.54--16.24
Responsibility	231	15.615	2.498	15.29--15.94
Achievement	233	15.571	2.870	15.20--15.94
Ability Utilization	233	15.485	3.500	15.03--15.94
Variety	233	15.142	2.870	14.77--15.51
Creativity	233	15.000	3.177	14.59--15.41
Authority	229	14.633	2.295	14.33--14.93
Social Status	228	14.491	2.353	14.18--14.80
Compensation	232	14.095	3.258	13.67--14.51
Supervision-Human Relations	232	13.961	3.730	13.48--14.44
Recognition	233	13.944	3.322	13.52--14.57
Working Conditions	233	13.794	3.327	13.37--14.22
Supervision-Technical	233	13.588	3.549	13.13--14.05
Advancement	225	12.636	3.000	12.24--13.03
Policies and Practices	233	12.305	3.177	11.90--12.72

The variables of gender, age, supervisor certification, national certification, psychology licensure, private practice, intent to remain in the profession, and intent to remain in current position are categorical, and were coded 0 or 1. Membership in a particular category was signified with a 1, while 0 signified a no response or no membership to the group. The remaining variables of degree status, co-workers, and psychologist-to-student ratio were also treated as categorical, but each was comprised of more than two categories. All variables were dropped out of the step-wise regression except the intent to remain in position and supervisor certification. These two demographic variables were found to be related to increased job satisfaction, explaining 8.9% of the total variance. The resulting model and the excluded variables are summarized in Table 10.

In keeping with the 1982 and 1992 data analysis procedures, supplemental comparisons of overall job satisfaction scores and selected demographic variables were also completed. These comparisons utilized simple t tests and one-way analysis of variance to determine if there was a significant difference in mean scores of variables relative to the overall levels of job satisfaction. For example, using a standard t test, the job satisfaction mean of certified respondents ($\underline{n}$ = 294.074) was compared to the mean job satisfaction score of non-certified participants ($\underline{n}$ = 300.661). The resulting t score of –1.3 ($\underline{df}$=228) was not significant, suggesting that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups. During this phase of analysis, only the intent to remain in the profession was significant. The resulting t score of - 2.274 ($\underline{df}$=228, sig.=.024) suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups. This variable was dropped out of the step-wise regression however, which likely means that intent to remain in the position and intent to remain in the profession account for a similar or overlapping portion of the overall variance.

Table 10

Multiple Regression Summary

Source	Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Sq.	F.	Sig.
Regression	29184.670	2	14592.335	10.721	.000
Residual	299450.4	220	1361.138		
Total	328635.1	222			

Variable	B	SE of B	t	Sig.
Intercept	278.909	4.952	56.323	.000
Remain in Position	18.762	5.462	3.435	.001
Supervisor Certification	16.582	5.247	3.160	.002

R-Square=   .089

Excluded Variables

Variable	Beta In	t	Sig.
Gender	-.030	-.462	.645
Age	.016	.248	.804
Degree	-.028	-.429	.668
Co-Workers	-.009	-.139	.889
Psych to Student Ratio	-.128	-1.967	.051
Nationally Certified	-.104	-1.616	.108
Licensed	-.040	-.620	.536
Private Practice	.040	.610	.542
Intent to Remain Profession	.075	.949	.344

School Psychologists Job Satisfaction: Ten Years Later

Research Question 4: How do the current levels of school psychologists' job satisfaction compare to the levels reported in the 1982 and 1992 national surveys?

Current job satisfaction levels of the national sample of NASP registered school psychologists were compared to levels reported by Brown in 1992 and Anderson in 1982. Selected demographic variables were examined along with the 20 subfactors of the modified MSQ. Overall job satisfaction scores were also noted for the current sample, and comparisons were also made to job satisfaction findings in the previous two studies.

The regression model used in 1992 to compare relationships between overall job satisfaction scores and demographic variables was replicated in the current study. To complete this analysis procedure, the previously significant variables of gender, private practice, national certification, and intent to remain in position were recalculated using the current data set. Table 11 summarizes Brown's regression model, while the replication of the model using the current data is provided in Table 12. Using Brown's 1992 model, only 6% of the total variance in job satisfaction was explained.

The hierarchy of the 20 MSQ subfactors was very similar to the hierarchy generated from Brown in 1992 and Anderson in 1982. In fact, the top three areas of job satisfaction were identical to those in 1982, indicating that social service, moral values, and independence remain the areas of highest satisfaction. Areas of dissatisfaction were also commensurate to previous findings, and although the order varied, the seven lowest subfactors were the same as those reported in 1982 and 1992. These areas of dissatisfaction included policies and practices, advancement, supervision-technical, working conditions, recognition, supervision-human relations, and compensation.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Summary: Brown 1992

Source	df	Sum of Sq.	Mean Sq.	F.	Sig.
Regression	4	29333.3060	7333.3265	5.82*	not available
Error	197	248049.5454	1259.1347		
Total	201	277382.8514			

Variable	B	SE of B	F
Intercept	287.33	15.62	338.33
Gender	16.33	5.11	10.19
National Certification	9.82	5.80	2.87
Private Practice	-9.95	6.04	2.71
Remain in Position	-16.00	5.81	7.57

R-Square= .1057

*$p = .01$

Table 12

Replication of Brown 1992 model with 2004 data

Source	Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Sq.	F.	Sig.
Regression	18901.964	4	4725.491	3.317	.012
Residual	317647.8	223	1424.429		
Total	336549.7	227			

Variable	B	SE of B	t	Sig.
Intercept	287.005	5.686	50.478	.000
Gender	-3.141	6.015	-.522	.602
National Certification	-5.416	5.027	-1.077	.283
Private Practice	6.369	6.349	1.003	.317
Remain in Position	17.902	5.524	3.241	.001

R-Square=   .056

Subfactors of the modified MSQ were compared using a series of t-tests. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 13. When compared to the 1992 sample, the current group of school psychologists was more satisfied with their opportunities to be creative on the job, the independence they have, and also the level of job security they feel in their positions.

Current levels of overall job satisfaction were also compared to those reported by Brown in 1992 and Anderson in 1982. The overall levels of job satisfaction from all three samples are presented in Table 14 for ease of comparison. To determine if current overall job satisfaction scores are a good fit to the expected frequencies of job satisfaction scores found in Brown's 1992 study, a one-way ANOVA would have been preferable. However, because the actual data set from the 1992 study was not available, a chi-square analysis was completed by hand The resulting chi-square of 5.604 suggests that the current data are a good fit to the data evidenced in Brown's 1992 study. The results of this analysis are summarized in Table 15.

Summary

The results of the study were presented in this chapter. The data collection procedures yielded a 61.6% total response rate. Demographic findings from the Data Form were discussed, followed by a description of the statistical properties of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.   School psychologists' job satisfaction was then addressed, and the results indicated that 90.6% of the survey participants were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Within the 20 scales of the MSQ, overall dissatisfaction was only observed on the school system policies and practices scale.

Specific variables found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction included the intent to remain in current position and the supervisor certification status. Respondents indicating that

Table 13

t-test Analysis of 2004 and 1992 Studies' Scale Scores

Scale	2004 Mean	1992 Mean	1982 Mean	1992 vs 2004 t'
Ability Utilization	15.485	14.853	14.513	1.96
Achievement	15.571	14.815	14.895	2.96
Activity	15.953	15.422	15.681	2.44
Advancement	12.636	12.039	11.248	2.13
Authority	14.633	14.672	14.134	.208
Policies and Practices	12.305	11.849	11.651	1.64
Compensation	14.095	13.293	13.277	2.55
Co-workers	15.931	15.151	15.565	3.10
Creativity	15.000	14.621	14.239	4.03*
Independence	16.013	15.793	15.365	5.71*
Moral Values	16.013	15.789	16.004	1.05
Recognition	13.944	13.716	13.508	.765
Responsibility	15.615	15.586	15.294	.130
Security	15.892	14.996	13.735	3.40*
Social Service	16.704	16.190	16.256	1.93
Social Status	14.491	14.216	14.156	1.14
Supervision-Technical	13.588	13.379	12.689	.60
Supervision-Human Relations	13.961	13.776	13.497	.525
Variety	15.142	14.513	14.256	2.16
Working Conditions	13.794	12.897	13.147	2.78

Note. CV=3.02, twenty comparison t test, alpha =.05 (Howell, 1997).

Table 14

Overall Job Satisfaction Scores utilizing 20 MSQ scales

	2004		1992		1982	
Range	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Very Dissatisfied	1	.4	0	0	0	0
Dissatisfied	21	9.0	32	14	34	14.3
Satisfied	195	83.7	184	80.7	192	80.7
Very Satisfied	16	6.9	12	5.3	11	5.0
Total	232	100%	228	100.0%	237	100%

Note. Three respondents failed to complete all 20 scales in 2004

Table 15

Goodness of Fit Comparison of Current and 1992 Data

Category	Observed	Expected	Residual
Very Dissatisfied	1	0	---
Dissatisfied	21	32.6	-11.6
Satisfied	195	187.2	7.8
Very Satisfied	16	12.2	3.8

x^2= 5.604 (<u>df</u>=3).

they planned on remaining in their position for at least five more years were more satisfied with their jobs, as were those participants who reported that their immediate supervisor was a certified school psychologist. These two variables accounted for approximately 9% of the total variance. Finally, the results of the current study were compared to results found in 1982 and 1992. In general, the current group of participants expressed very similar views of job satisfaction to those in the earlier nationwide studies. Overall levels of job satisfaction and specific areas of satisfaction/dissatisfaction were both quite consistent with the previous data. In comparison to the 1982 and 1992 studies, school psychologists in the current sample are more satisfied with their job security, independence, and their opportunities to be creative on the job. A discussion of the current findings in relation to the results from the previous two studies is included in Chapter V.

Chapter V

Discussion and Recommendations

The findings are discussed in this chapter. Chapter V includes a review the research questions, methodology employed, implications of the results for the profession of school psychology, and recommendations for future research.

Review of the Research Questions and Methodology

The purpose of this study was to measure the job satisfaction of a national sample of NASP affiliated school psychologists. The procedures employed were devised to answer each of the following research questions:

1. What is the overall level of job satisfaction reported by the national sample of school psychologists?

2. What degree of job satisfaction do school psychologists report on each of the 20 subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire?

3. What relationship, if any, do job satisfaction and the selected demographic variables share?

4. How do the current levels of school psychologists' job satisfaction compare to the levels reported in the 1982 and 1992 national surveys?

A random sample of 500 participants was selected from the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) database. Data collection was completed through a demographic data form and a modified form of the 1977 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) that was distributed via U.S. Mail. After completing all five stages of mailings and follow-up, 308 persons (61.6%) had returned the materials. Of this total, 234 were useable responses representing full-time school practitioners.

The 100 questions of the MSQ provided overall job satisfaction scores and 20 separate subfactors of job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction estimates were generated by converting total scores into four intervals ranging from very dissatisfied to very satisfied. A hierarchy of the 20 subfactors was then constructed to determine specific aspects of job satisfaction of the current sample. Then, step-wise multiple regression was used to examine relationships between coded demographic data and overall job satisfaction. Next, overall job satisfaction levels from the current sample were compared to those reported in 1982 and 1992. Finally, a series of t-tests were employed to test for differences between the 1992 and the current sample on each of the 20 subfactors of the MSQ.

Summary of Results and Conclusions

The results of this study are summarized in the following section for each of the research questions that formed the basis of this study.

1. What is the overall level of job satisfaction reported by the national sample of school psychologists?

The current findings suggest that the majority of full-time, practicing school psychologists are either satisfied or very satisfied with their current positions. These data were gathered through two separate measures. The first was a question on the demographic data form that asked each participant to rate their overall job satisfaction on a scale of 1-4. Then, overall job satisfaction scores were obtained by summing the converted responses on the MSQ to an interval range. Self ratings from the data form indicated that 63.7% of the respondents were satisfied, and 20.5% were very satisfied with their positions. Overall job satisfaction scores generated from the MSQ were similar, with 83.7% of the respondents being satisfied, and 6.9 % being very satisfied. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed and found to be .381

(p=.0001), pointing to a moderate statistical relationship between the two measures of job satisfaction.

    2. What degree of job satisfaction do school psychologists report on each of the 20 subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire?

Participants in this study were satisfied with 19 of the 20 subfactors of the modified MSQ. School system policies and practices was the only subfactor that fell in the dissatisfied range.

    3. What relationship, if any, do job satisfaction and the selected demographic variables share?

To evaluate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and eleven demographic variables included on the data form, step-wise multiple regression was employed. Although the variables of gender, certification, private practice, and intent to remain in current position were found to explain a significant portion of the overall variance in the 1992 study, the intent to remain in current position and supervisor certification status were the only significant predictors of job satisfaction in the current study. Females and non-certified professionals were more satisfied with their jobs; however, the differences were minimal and far from reaching significance.

    4. How do the current levels of school psychologists' job satisfaction compare to the levels reported in the 1982 and 1992 national surveys?

Overall levels of job satisfaction are high, and have remained stable over the past twenty years (Reschly, 2000). Ninety percent of school psychologists in this study were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs, showing little change from the 86% of scores in the 1992 study and the 85.7% of scores in this range reported in 1982. The percentages of respondents who

reported being dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their jobs was also similar, making up approximately 10% of the current sample, 14% in the 1992 study, and 14.3% in the 1982 research. The vast majority of school psychologists in all three studies were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs.

Specific aspects of job satisfaction have also changed very little two decades, and all three studies indicated that school psychologists were most satisfied with social service, moral values, independence, responsibility, co-workers and activity. In fact, participants were satisfied or very satisfied with 19 out of 20 MSQ scales in the current sample. In both 1982 and 1992, 18 out of the 20 scales fell in the satisfied or very satisfied range. Subfactors evidencing the lowest satisfaction scores were also consistent to the 1992 and 1982 studies, and policies and practices, advancement, working conditions, compensation, recognition, supervision-human relations, and supervision-technical continue to be the least satisfying aspects of the school psychologists' job. The current sample is more satisfied with their job security, their independence, and their opportunities to be creative on the job than the sample groups in 1982 and 1992.

<div align="center">Discussion</div>

Overall Job Satisfaction

There is a good explanation for the on-going investigations of job satisfaction. Aside from the humanistic and financial benefits of job satisfaction studies, it has been shown that when employees are satisfied, they tend to care more about work quality, they show higher levels of organizational commitment, they have higher retention rates, and they are generally more productive (Bravendam Research Incorporated, 2002). Spector (1997) suggested that job satisfaction data is fundamental in evaluating the emotional wellness and mental fitness of employees. In school systems, school psychologists play a fundamental role in the educational

process, and maximizing their contributions and maintaining first rate services to the children is extremely important.

Job satisfaction estimates for American workers typically indicate that 80 to 90 percent are either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (Blanchflower & Oswald, 1999; Levinson & Dematteo,1998; Brown, 1992). On the other hand, a very small portion of U.S. workers report that they are very dissatisfied with their jobs.

To evaluate job satisfaction, a popular instrument has been the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The 1977 version of the MSQ has been modified in many of the studies of school psychology to enhance the scale score distribution and to more accurately target the school psychologist's job. This modified MSQ was used by both Brown in 1992 and Anderson in 1982 when they completed nationwide job satisfaction studies of school psychologists. Their results were very similar to the general job satisfaction scores of American workers, and they suggested that more than 85% of school psychologists in their samples were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Their findings of dissatisfaction were also consistent with the overall job satisfaction estimates in the United States, and no respondents' job satisfaction score fell in the very dissatisfied range in the 1992 or 1982 samples.

Studies of school psychologists' job satisfaction have also been completed on a state-wide level and the findings have again been consistent with the national estimates. For example, previous studies in Virginia and Pennsylvania have shown an 84% satisfaction rate (Levinson, 1983). Estimates have been similar from North Carolina, with 79.83 % of the respondents reporting being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (South, 1990).

Reschly (2000) reported that overall job satisfaction of school psychologists is well above the midpoint on Likert scale items. The current findings support this statement, showing 84.2%

satisfied or very satisfied ratings on the Likert scale overall job satisfaction question included on the data form. Most respondents (84%) indicated that they planned on staying in the profession of school psychology for at least five more years, showing high similarity to the 91.9% evidenced in the 1982 national study. Seventy-two percent of the current participants reported that they planned on staying in their current position for at least five more years, which is again consistent with the 73.2% yielded in 1982

The findings from this research correspond well to findings from other national job satisfaction studies of school psychologists, which consistently show high levels of career satisfaction. The current estimate of 90% being satisfied or very satisfied is very similar to the 86% that was reported in 1992 and 1982 by Brown and Anderson respectively. State-wide studies have also shown high satisfaction scores, although the range (64%-85%) has typically been broader (Solly and Hohenshil, 1986; Levinson, Fetchkan, & Hohenshil, 1988). The explanation for the higher variability on state-wide studies is likely linked to the economic conditions, legal requirements related to serving and/or evaluating children with disabilities, and roles of other personnel within the school systems of the individual states (Lund et. al., 1998). For example, Reschly (2000) reported that Texas, New Mexico, and Missouri all use educational diagnosticians and school counselors to perform many services often provided by school psychologists. This leads to less demand for school psychologists in some states, which in turn increases psychologist-to-student ratio and deflates overall job satisfaction as illustrated by Anderson (1982).

Factors Contributing to Job Satisfaction

Most job satisfaction studies evaluate numerous factors that may contribute to one's affective appraisal of their work. These studies typically look at both the intrinsic features of a

job (e.g. recognition, advancement, and responsibility) and the extrinsic variables (e.g. salary, supervision, and working conditions).   In school psychology, being able to perform a social service, being independent, performing a job that does not challenge one's moral values, being able to stay active, and feeling accepted and appreciated by one's co-workers have been associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Brown, 1992; Anderson, 1982). The same holds true for the current study, which shared these top five areas of satisfaction with the previous nationwide studies.

In comparison to the earlier nationwide studies, school psychologists in the current sample are more satisfied with their job security, independence, and their opportunities to be creative on the job. This improvement is likely related to the fact that the demand for school psychologists has increased with legal provisions associated with special education. Job security is also improved by the shortage of school psychologists that has been documented since 1976 (Lund et. al.,1998). Security will likely rise even higher as the shortage becomes more pronounced as a result of the existing population of school psychologists maturing and retiring from their positions. The increase in creativity scores is perhaps related to the fact that school psychologists are gradually being allowed to consider alternative practices instead of traditional roles. Reschly (2000) comments that these alternative roles and practices are emerging and gaining prominence.

Although the current findings and the findings from the previous two nationwide studies suggest high satisfaction levels with most aspects of the school psychologists' job, specific areas of dissatisfaction consistently emerge. Reschly (2000) suggested that the lack of promotional opportunity or career advancement is the primary source of dissatisfaction among school psychologists, and this was true for Anderson's 1982 sample. However, current data and

findings from the 1992 study show that lack of career advancement is secondary to policies and practices when evaluating areas contributing to the most dissatisfaction of school psychologists. The difference between the two factors has been negligible, and because both aspects are repeatedly shown to be areas of dissatisfaction, each warrants additional discussion.

Previous studies have repeatedly shown that local and state administrative policies influence satisfaction with work (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell, 1957; Bacharach, Bamberger, & Mitchell, 1990; Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Kendrick, Chandler, & Hatcher, 1994; Ponec & Brock, 2000). When school psychologists are dissatisfied with school system policies and practices, they tend to have lower job satisfaction (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Levinson, 1989, Levinson, Fetchkan & Hohenshil, 1988; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986).

When examining school system policies and practices, the dissatisfaction appears to be linked to the fact that local and state administrative policies are often decided without input from the psychologists, and these policies may ultimately restrict the roles of school psychologists Levinson (1990).   Perhaps more importantly to the dissatisfaction with polices and practices is the discrepancy between what school psychologists are trained to do, and what they actually are expected or required to do by the school system. For example, school psychologists entering the field in the new millennium may be expecting a broad job role that allows them to provide one-on-one counseling services or permits them to perform curriculum based assessments instead of traditional standardized tests. However, special education legislation and litigation, stringent local budgets, and poor communication often seem to dictate the roles of the practicing school psychologist. The resulting discrepancy between ideal role and actual role has been addressed in literature and discussed in training programs for almost 50 years, and the role preferences appear

to have changed very little over time. Reschly (1998) suggested that as a whole, school psychologists desire to perform fewer traditional psycho-educational assessments, and instead focus more time on direct intervention, problem-solving consultation, organizational consultation and applied research.

Many studies have shown that poor opportunity for advancement is related to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell 1957; Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Levinson, 1983; Levinson, Fetchkan & Hohenshil, 1988, South, 1990; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986). In studies of school counselors, Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995) found that advancement opportunity ranked 19th out of 20 scales contributing to job satisfaction. In the current study, opportunity for advancement also ranked 19th out of 20 scales, as it did in Brown's 1992 research. In studies of job satisfaction in Virginia (Levinson, Fetchkin & Hohenshil, 1988) also reported advancement as a primary source of dissatisfaction. Merchant (1983) reported that school psychologists who indicated they were dissatisfied with their jobs often commented that their role was limited to that of a psychometrician.

The source of this on-going dissatisfaction with promotional opportunities stems partially from the fact that the position of school psychologist is considered both an entry level and terminal position ((Brown, 1992; Anderson, 1982; Levinson & Hohenshil, 1987). In larger school systems where a team of school psychologists may be employed, some school psychologists may have the opportunity to advance into a director role. However, school districts employing more than seven school psychologists that would perhaps require a supervisor make up only 23% of the sample surveyed. A second opportunity for advancement for the school psychologist may be to an administrative position. Yet this option may require teaching experience, a prerequisite that the majority of the current sample do not have.

Furthermore, most school psychologists surveyed (82.2%) indicated that they did not desire to hold an administrative position in the future.

Some studies have speculated that administrative duties are perhaps too far detached from the practice of school psychology, while others suggest that the teaching requirement hinders the advancement of school psychologists into these administrative roles. Although the current study did not investigate the rationale behind the dissatisfied advancement ratings, the lack of promotional options was not significantly related to overall job satisfaction. What's more, the impact of these advancement issues inherent to the position do not appear to be great; an assumption drawn from the 84% of the current sample who wish to remain school psychologists despite being generally dissatisfied with this aspect of the job.

Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction

In the 1992 nationwide job satisfaction studies of school psychologists, gender, intent to remain in position, national certification, and private practice combined to account for a small but significant portion of the overall variance (10.5%). In the 1982 study, age and psychologist-to-student ratio combined to account for 8.6% of the total variance. In the current study, only intent to remain in position and supervisor certification were found to be significant, accounting for a small but significant 8.9% of the total variance. When the current data was inserted into the regression model used in 1992, 5.6% of the total variance was explained, with intent to remain in position being the only significant variable, accounting for 4.7% of the total variance in Brown's model. The lack of significant findings in most demographic areas in the current study is not alarming. When the vast majority of overall satisfaction scores fall in the satisfied or very satisfied range, it is often challenging to identify individual factors that account for the overall positive satisfaction ratings.

Despite the fact that gender showed no significant relationship to job satisfaction, the frequency of males to females appears to be a trend worthy of discussion. In the previous two nationwide studies, the ratio of women to men was approximately 60:40. The current sample was much more skewed, with 76.8% of respondents being female and 22% being male. This may simply suggest that women were more likely to take the time to participate in the survey, or it may point to a significant gender shift in the profession. Women in the study were more likely to have teaching experience, possibly suggesting that more teachers are choosing to advance into a higher paying, non-teaching, and perhaps central office based job. Men on the other hand, may be frustrated with the lack of advancement or the lack of power that often is associated with a support services type position, and may instead be choosing to move into private practice or some other non-school setting.

One demographic that appears unchanged in the past decade is private practice providers. Twenty percent of both the 1992 and the current survey sample reported providing some private practice services. These services are likely sought to supplement school psychologists income, but some would suggest that these services allow practitioners to function more within their ideal role, and enable them to try creative new ideas or to provide more counseling services.

<center>School Psychologists Job Satisfaction-Past and Present</center>

Overall job satisfaction has changed very little over the past twenty years. Consistent with the previous two estimates of 85%, current findings indicate that 90.6% of the survey participants reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, 19 out of the 20 MSQ subscales fell in the satisfied or very satisfied range, which is not unlike the participants in the 1982 and 1992 studies that were satisfied with 18 out of 20 scales. The current hierarchy of MSQ scales is also virtually identical to the earlier findings, with social service, independence,

moral values, activity, and co-workers consistently being the top five areas of satisfaction. The areas of dissatisfaction are also remarkably consistent, and the bottom seven scales in each study included policies and practices, advancement, compensation, supervision-technical, working conditions, recognition, and supervision-human relations.

Specific demographic variables were generally not found to be predictive of overall job satisfaction, although intent to remain in position and supervisor certification status did account for a small but significant portion of the overall variance. The frequency of respondents indicating that they did plan to remain in their position was essentially the same as it was a decade ago, from 73% in 1992, to 72% in the current sample. Intent to remain in the profession was also very similar, with 84% answering yes in 1982, 91% in 1992, and 84% in the current study.

The distribution of gender seems to be much more skewed than it has in the past, perhaps indicating a shifting trend in the field. Reschly (2000) speaks to this issue, and suggests that increasing proportions of women have entered the field in the past two decades. He states further that in the 1970's, gender distribution was relatively even, but since then the proportion of women in the field has grown about 10% per decade. The current distribution showing 76% women is very close to his estimation of 80% that was derived from evaluating graduate students entering the profession. The current finding is also quite consistent with the data reported by Curtis et. al.(2002) which suggests that approximately 70% of all school psychologists and 72% of all school practitioners were female.

Another change appears to be in the area of supervision. Whereas 42% of the 1992 sample reported being supervised by a certified school psychologist, only 33.2% of the respondents in the present study answered yes to this question. In the 1982 study the

qualifications of participants' supervisor was not included on the data form. Because the number

of certified supervisors have decreased since 1992 while overall satisfaction ratings have

increased, it is possible that Brown's assumption that school psychologists are growing more

satisfied perhaps because more and more supervisors are becoming certified, is inaccurate.

Age seems to be another variable that is evolving in the field of school psychology.

Reschly (2000) suggests that the median age of practitioners has increased dramatically in the

past 15 years. This assumption is supported by the current findings, which also demonstrate the

continuing advancement in the chronological maturity of the field. In 1982, 56% of the sample

was less than 37 years old. In 1992, only 26% of the respondents were younger than 37, and in

the current group only 22.1% fell in this age range. Practitioners over age 50 constituted only

15% of the 1992 sample, whereas 46.9% of the current sample reported being over 50 years old.

Curtis et. al (1999) suggested that this increasing age trend is moderate, and his findings showed

less than a 5% increase in practitioners over age 50 between 1990 and 1995 (from 20% to

23.4%). Curtis et. al.(2002) later reported that practitioners above 50 years of age increased

12.6% (from 20.2% to 32.8%) between 1990 and 2000. The current study supports Reschly's

notion that the increase in age of practitioners is a significant trend in the field. The population

of the United States is also growing older however, and this pattern may not be limited to the

field of school psychology. Regarding age and its relationship to job satisfaction, Brown's

assumption that older employees are more satisfied may be supported by the current findings that

show an older population and higher satisfaction scores.

Salary seems to vary substantially depending on the employer of the school psychologist.

Those working in the private sector may earn much more than practitioners in public schools.

Reschly (2000) suggests that about 85% of school psychologists are employed by public schools,

an estimate that is very close to the 79.3% evidenced in the current study. Reschly goes on

estimate that the median salary for a school psychologist in the United States is approximately

$50,000 per year.   When considering salary, increases are generally inevitable when looking at

numbers ten or twenty years ago. In the current study, the salary question on the demographic

data form was expanded from $50,000+ in 1992 to $71,000 and over in the current study.

However, the response pattern suggests that this category expansion should have been broader.

In 1982, no survey participants reported earning more than $50,000 per year, whereas 18.4% of

the 1992 study made at least $50,000 yearly. In the current sample, 89.2% made more than

$50,000, with 15% making in excess of $71,000 per year.

Trends in degree status initially showed significant increases from 1982 to 1992. Brown

reported that 41% of his sample held the educational specialist or doctorate, indicating a

significant increase from the 26% noted by Anderson in 1982. Similar increases were noted

when looking only at doctorate level respondents, increasing from approximately 12% in 1982 to

25% in 1992. These findings would lead many to predict that a majority of school psychologists

would hold the doctorate in the near future (Brown, 1989). Fagan (1986) agreed with the

prediction, and further speculated that by 2010, one-half of practitioners would hold the

doctorate degree. For that prediction to be accurate, the number of doctorate level school

psychologists would have to double in the next six years. This is highly unlikely when

considering that doctorate level practitioners have only increased 2.5% in the past 12 years.

Licensure as a psychologist was reported to be held by 35.5% of all respondents in a

study by Curtis et. al.(2002). This estimate was again supported by the current research findings

in which 37.3% indicated holding licensure. In 1992, only 26.9% of the sample was licensed,

perhaps showing an increasing rate of licensure among practicing school psychologists.

Psychologist-to-student ratio appears to be another changing trend in the field of school psychology. Although this factor did not have a significant relationship with job satisfaction, it was also insignificant in the 1992 data. In 1982, only 61% of the sample worked in school divisions with psychologist-to-student ratio of 1:2500 or less. This increased to 71% in 1992 and current data suggests that 85.1% of the current sample has a psychologist-to-student ratio of 1:2500 or less. Reschly (2000) indicates that the national average for psychologist-to-student ratio in public school settings is 1:1930, but that vast differences exist in state-to-state comparisons. He also reports that this factor has a vital influence on school psychology practices in public schools.

Implications of the Study

The results of this study have implications that may prove to be valuable to school psychologists, university training programs, school divisions, and professional organizations. The following section is devoted to these implications.

1. The overwhelming majority of school psychologists in this study were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. There were also satisfied with 19 out of the 20 scales on the modified MSQ. In comparison with the two previous nationwide studies, school psychologists' overall job satisfaction appears to be equal to or higher than levels reported in the 1992 or 1982. Specific areas of satisfaction targeted by the m-MSQ have also remained virtually identical, and therefore school psychology appears to remain a profession that provides practitioners with a satisfying occupational role.

2. The majority of school psychologists surveyed indicated that they plan to remain in their position for at least five more years. An even greater portion of the respondents

reported that they planned on staying in the profession of school psychology for at

least five more years. The estimates are very similar to those evidenced in 1992,

suggesting that most school psychologists employed in public school settings are

pleased with their careers, and plan to remain in their current position for at least five

more years.

3. Opportunities for advancement in the field of school psychology continue to be an

    area of dissatisfaction. However, the lack of promotional options available do not

    significantly contribute to job dissatisfaction as they once did. Some may argue that

    this is due to more practitioners providing outside services such as private practice

    that allows them to do more of the things they find satisfying. This theory was not

    supported by the fact that overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with opportunities

    for advancement both increased since 1992, yet less than a one percent increase of

    private practice services was noted. Another argument might be that more

    practitioners are transitioning into administrative roles that lead to higher overall

    satisfaction and also satisfaction with their opportunities for advancement. This was

    again unlikely, due to the insignificant change of those seeking administrative roles,

    and the consistency of those desiring to stay in their current position and the

    profession. Perhaps the consistently lower scores on opportunities for advancement

    in previous studies have stimulated discussion in university training programs. It is

    possible that school psychologists emerging from training programs are more aware

    and informed of the limited opportunities that their career may hold. Based on this

    assumption, school psychologists may continue to indicate that they do not like this

aspect of their job, but their awareness of the issue before they entered the field has led them to not use this factor as a basis for overall job satisfaction.

4. School psychologists continue to be dissatisfied with their school system policies and practices. Since the mid 1970's mandatory special education legislation has arguably had the most significant impact on the roles and functions of school psychologists. This legislation is generally decided by federal and state governments, and school systems are often forced to implement changes with little or no input from the school psychologist. These forced role changes associated with educational legislation may be at the root of the dissatisfaction expressed in this area. Another possibility for the dissatisfaction with policies and practices may also be related to the fact that the majority of school psychologists are not supervised by a certified school psychologist. The results of this study show that job satisfaction increases when a supervisor is a certified school psychologist. When an immediate supervisor is not operating within the same profession, it is possible that their professional priorities and values are different. An administrator may operate with the assumption that the parents and taxpayers are the clients, whereas the school psychologist may feel that children are the top priority. Regardless of the source, school psychologists' dissatisfaction with polices and practices needs further investigation. If the cause is primarily the on-going legislation changes that will be difficult to manipulate, then perhaps university training programs should focus on education and awareness, and encourage flexibility to adjust to the ever-changing roles that are often associated with legislation and school system policies.

5. The demographic make-up of school psychologists in the United States shows several
   changing trends. First, the amount of women in the field of school psychology
   continues to increase, and the current ratio of women to men is approximately 4 to 1.
   Secondly, school psychologists as a whole are growing older, and a disproportionate
   percentage of the population is approaching retirement. Thirdly, more school
   psychologists are becoming licensed than they have in the past, yet no real change in
   private practice services was noted. Finally, less school psychologists report being
   supervised by a certified school psychologist than they did ten years ago. This is
   noteworthy and perhaps even contradictory, because this factor was significantly
   positively related to overall job satisfaction, yet even though the number of certified
   supervisors decreased, the overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction with the various
   aspects of supervision targeted by the MSQ all increased.

6. No significant increase in educational level was noted in the current study despite
   predictions ten or twenty years ago that suggested practitioners holding the doctorate
   degree would dramatically increase. About one out of four school psychologists in
   the public school setting hold the doctorate degree and this remains essentially
   unchanged in the past 10 years.

7. The school psychologist-to-student ratio appears to be improving over time. Although
   most school systems still exceed the NASP recommended ratio of 1000:1, the
   improvements are steady at a rate of about 1% per year. Utilizing the current
   findings, one might speculate that by the year 2030, the majority of school
   psychologists will be employed in schools that have the ideal 1:1000 ratio. However,
   some researchers speculate that the ratio improvements will subside and possibly

reverse in the coming years due to an anticipated shortage of school psychologists. This predicted shortage is logical when considering the increasing legal requirements related to children with disabilities, the aging population of school psychologists who are approaching retirement, and the insufficient number of school psychologists currently entering the field.

Recommendations for the Profession

1. The vast majority of school psychologists continue to be satisfied with their jobs. With anticipated workforce shortages and a seemingly constant flow of legislation that increases demand for school psychology services, professional organizations and university training programs should use these findings for recruitment purposes. The findings may also be helpful to high school counselors who often educate and help guide college-bound students into promising careers. With a predicted shortage of school psychologists, it could also be predicted that the ratio of students to school psychologists could increase. The higher the ratio, the less time a school psychologist can devote to preferred professional practices. Therefore, in addition to recruitment, these findings should be shared with legislators and policymakers who may be unaware of the importance of the ratio of students to school psychologists as a determinant of the nature of the services that school psychologists provide.

2. The limited opportunities for advancement are an on-going source of dissatisfaction for school psychologists. Although no significant increases in promotional options have been noted in the field, practitioners are reporting less dissatisfaction with this aspect of their jobs. The change perhaps is the product of university training programs that discuss pitfalls of the profession before the students become

practitioners. Some may argue that career ladders and job enrichment practices are needed to increase the satisfaction in this area, but conveying and embracing the notion that school psychology is generally an entry level and terminal position may be the most viable option at this time.

3. School system policies and practices is another consistent source of job dissatisfaction. Perhaps more research in this domain is needed to determine why this aspect of the job is one of the most problematic for school psychologists. Communication may be a significant factor in this domain, and maybe practitioners would be more satisfied if they felt included in local policy making decisions. Perhaps school board or administrative meetings discussing the implementation of new special education laws should include school psychologists. Better yet, school psychologist lobbying groups should perhaps inform lawmakers of the implications of their decisions before they become laws. However, it appears that changes related to special education laws and other educational aspects are inevitable, and school divisions will likely be forced to change as well. Communication will certainly be helpful in making and implementing any change, but the changes will likely be made regardless. Thus, it seems logical to prepare future school psychologists for the inevitable. Perhaps new school psychologists would express less frustration in this area if they had been prepared for the reality of the profession. Change will undoubtedly come, and legal requirements and local economics will exert tremendous influence on the roles and functions of the school psychologists. The prospective school psychologist should understand that one week may be consumed with traditional standardized testing, and the passing of a law may mean the next week will

include only functional assessments or assessments based on the curriculum. The scenario is not an exaggerated fairy-tale, but a reality that some localities have experienced. In these specific localities, Reschly (2000) stated that a "revolution" of school psychology roles has occurred. Thus, university training programs may want to encourage flexibility and creativity, and stress the importance of being able to adapt to the changing demands that will most certainly be faced in the dynamic profession of school psychology.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. This research marks the third nationwide study of school psychologists. The past two decades of school psychologists have been sampled, and a solid baseline of job satisfaction has emerged. As school systems evolve through the new millennium and legislation becomes increasingly more prevalent, it will be interesting to evaluate job satisfaction in another ten years.

2. Research on the growing disproportion of women to men in the field may be helpful to training programs, professional organizations, and recruiting agencies. The trend is far too pronounced to be a product of chance, and it would be interesting to investigate why this ratio continues to diverge.

3. Investigation into desired promotional scales or career ladder programs within the field of school psychology may enable future psychologists to ultimately put to rest the issue of dissatisfaction with advancement opportunities.

4. Reschly (2000) said that "no data exists on job satisfaction of school psychologists in non-school settings" (p.512). In this replication study, only school practitioners were

included. This disregarded more than 20% of the returned survey materials. There is an enormous amount of information that remains unused and the data may hold valuable information about job satisfaction of other facets of school psychology. To illustrate, a t-test was used to compare the overall job satisfaction of school practitioners versus the remaining six service categories listed on the data form. Although no significant differences were found in most areas, respondents who classified their primary role as "other" were significantly more satisfied with their jobs. Further analysis may reveal the reason for this finding, and the future research possibilities are immense.

5. In the current study, roles were evaluated by asking the respondent to estimate the approximate number of hours per week they spend performing each task. The resulting data is difficult to compare to other research findings due to the structure of the question. In the future, research should ask about the number of evaluations completed per week or per year instead of asking the number of hours allocated each week to the given task. For example, knowing that a respondent performs ten psycho-educational assessments per week would be much more helpful and relevant to the existing body of literature than knowing that they spend 10 hours per week testing students.

Summary

This chapter has provided a discussion of the results from this nationwide study of NASP registered school psychologists. The research replicated studies from 1982 and 1992, and the data shows that most school psychologists continue to be satisfied with their profession and their

jobs. Implications of the findings were discussed, followed by recommendations for training programs, departments of education, professional organizations, and school systems. Finally, recommendations for future studies were offered for consideration.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY LETTERS

Dear NASP Member:

We are writing to urge your participation a study being completed by Travis Worrell, a doctoral candidate in the doctoral program at Virginia Tech.

The study is designed to determine the degree of job satisfaction of school psychologists. Additionally, the study will compare the current level of job satisfaction with the levels of job satisfaction of school psychologists ten and twenty years ago. It is an exciting study that will provide both current and longitudinal information that will be disseminated both to practitioners and to training programs.

In the next week you will receive a copy of the survey materials. We hope that you will assist Travis Worrell and the profession of school psychology by taking the 15-20 minutes necessary to complete the survey and return the materials. His study will generate valuable data to assist in the future development of the school psychology profession.

Thomas H. Hohenshil   Michael B. Brown
Professor and Dissertation Chair   Associate Professor
                                           East Carolina University
                                           Dissertation Committee Member

October 29, 2003

Dear NASP Member:

      As a school psychologist working on my dissertation in the Virginia Tech Doctoral Program, I am asking for your help in collecting data for a national study of school psychologists' job satisfaction.

      Enclosed with this letter is an information form and a questionnaire regarding your satisfaction with your job. The materials I am asking you to complete will require about 15-20 minutes of your time.

      This study is directed primarily toward practitioners. Those of you who are administrators, faculty, or students should complete all of the questions that pertain to you. Your response is necessary to aid in follow up activities.

      Practitioners and others who complete the materials are urged to do so as soon as possible and before November 21, 2003. All information will be kept confidential. You will not, at any time, be identified with your responses. The number which appears on the forms is used only to keep materials together and aid in follow up. Only group scores will be reported.

      Thank you in advance for your assistance. The success of this study depends on your help.

                Sincerely,

                Travis G. Worrell
                School Psychologist
                Doctoral Candidate

Dear NASP Member:

By this time you should have received all of the survey materials for the national job satisfaction survey. If you have already completed and returned the survey, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please take a few moments to complete the survey and return it as soon as possible but before December 15. If you are still missing the materials please call collect at 276-632-8439 or email me at tworrell@adelphia.net and I will mail you another packet immediately.

This study would not be possible without your assistance. Thank you again for your timely assistance.

Travis G. Worrell

January 3, 2004

Dear NASP Member:

I am writing to follow-up my national survey of school psychologists' job satisfaction. To date, more than 45% of your fellow school psychologists have returned their completed survey materials.

My records indicate that you have not yet responded to my request for information. Perhaps you have misplaced the materials, or have put them aside to complete at a less busy time. Won't you please take a few minutes to complete the materials? I have enclosed a duplicate set of materials in case you misplaced the first set.

Your individual response, while confidential, is essential to the success of my study. Representativeness and validity of my results depend on the largest possible response rate. Please respond by January 13. I look forward to your response.

Sincerely,

Travis G. Worrell
School Psychologist
Doctoral Candidate

P.S.   If you have already responded to my request, please disregard this letter and accept my thanks for your help.

February 4, 2004

Dear Colleague:

      Several months ago 500 NASP members in the United States were asked to participate in a study conducted by Travis Worrell. The response has been tremendous, with over 57% having responded by completing and returning the survey materials.

According to Travis' records, he has not yet received your completed materials. Since we want the highest possible rate of participation, I will appreciate very much if you will assist Travis with his study. Your responses are vital to his findings. The results are intended to provide information on school psychologists' job satisfaction across the nation. All individual responses will be held in strictest confidence.

Enclosed are duplicate survey forms and a stamped self-addressed envelope. Won't you please take a few minutes to complete and forward the information to Travis?

      Thank you for your help.

      Sincerely,

      Thomas H. Hohenshil
      Professor and Dissertation Chair

APPENDIX B

DATA FORM

DATA FORM   No. _____

The following is needed from all NASP members cooperating with this study.

1. What is your <u>primary</u> role designation?
    ___ Practitioner employed by public schools   ___ Trainer of school psychologists
    ___ Supervisor/Administrator   ___ Private Practitioner
    ___ Student (Full-time)   ___ Other (please specify)
    ___ Intern (Full-time)
                                                    _____

2. What is your sex? ___ Male ___ Female

3. What is your age? ___

4. What is your current degree status?
    ___ BA. or B.S   ___ Masters plus 30 semester or (45 quarter) hours
    ___ Masters   ___ Ed.S.   ___ Doctorate

5. How many school psychologists are employed by your school system?
    ___ 0   ___ 4-6   ___ 11-14
    ___ 1-3   ___ 7-10   ___ 15 or more

6. What is the approximate psychologist to student ratio in your system?
    ___ 1:1000 or less   ___ 1:2000 to 1:2500   ___ 1:3500 to 1:4000
    ___ 1:1000 to 1:1500   ___ 1:2500 to 1:3000   ___ 1:4000 to 1:4500
    ___ 1:1500 to 1:2000   ___ 1:3000 to 1:3500   ___ 1:4500 and over

7. Please estimate the approximate number of hours during an average week you spend working within each area listed below:
    ___ Psychoeducational assessment and report writing
    ___ Multidisciplinary team meetings (placement, review, etc.)
    ___ Direct intervention (individual or group counseling of students or parents)
    ___ Indirect intervention (developing programs implemented by others, teacher consultation)
    ___ Professional development activities
    ___ Administrative duties
    ___ Networking or interacting with other community agencies (public relations, providing or exchanging information, community task forces, interagency program development, etc.)

8. How would you describe the community which your school district is in?
    ___ Rural   ___ Suburban   ___ Urban

9. Is your immediate supervisor a certified school psychologist?
    ___ Yes   ___ No

10. Please check your <u>annual</u> salary.
    ___ 14,000 or less   ___ 24,001 to 26,000   ___ 36,001 to 38,000   ___48,001 to 50,000
    ___ 14,001 to 16,000 ___ 26,001 to 28,000   ___ 38,001 to 40,000   ___50,001 to 55,000
    ___ 16,001 to 18,000 ___ 28,001 to 30,000   ___ 40,000 to 42,000   ___55,001 to 60,000
    ___ 18,001 to 20,000 ___ 30,001 to 32,000   ___ 42,001 to 44,000   ___60,001 to 65,000
    ___ 20,001 to 22,000 ___ 32,001 to 34,000   ___ 44,001 to 46,000   ___65,001 to 70,000
    ___ 22,001 to 24,000 ___ 34,001 to 36,000   ___ 46,001 to 48,000   ___71,000 and over

11. What is your current contract length?
    ___ 9 months   ___ 10 months   ___ 11 months   ___ 12 months

PLEASE CONTINUE ON BACK

12.   How many years experience do you have as a school psychologist?   ___ years

13.   How many years of teaching experience do you have?   ___ years

14.   In what year were you first state certified as a school psychologist?   _____

15.   Where did you receive the majority of your training in school psychology? _____

16.   Are you a National Certified School Psychologist?   ___ yes   ___ no

17.   Are you licensed as a psychologist?   ___ yes   ___ no

18.   Do you provide any private practice services?   ___ yes   ___ no

19.   Do you use the DSM-IV in your work in the schools?   ___ yes   ___ no

20.   Do you think it is important for school psychologists
      to use the DSM-IV in their work in the schools?   ___ yes   ___ no

21.   Do you use computerized report writing systems for your school reports?   ___ yes   ___ no

22.   Do you use curriculum based assessment procedures regularly in
      psychoeducational assessments?   ___ yes   ___ no

23.   Do you plan to remain in your <u>current position</u> for 5 more years?   ___ yes   ___ no

24.   Do you plan to remain in the <u>profession</u> of school psychology for
      5 more years?   ___ yes   ___ no

25.   Does your state require teaching experience for promotion to administrator? ___ yes   ___ no

26.   Are you interested in promotion to an administrative position?   ___ yes   ___ no

27.   Overall, how satisfied are you with your present position?

      ___Very Dissatisfied   ___ Dissatisfied   ___ Satisfied   ___ Very Satisfied

APPENDIX C

MODIFIED MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Instructions

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell how you feel about your present job, what things are <u>satisfied</u> with, and what things you are <u>not</u> <u>satisfied</u> with. On the basis of your answers and those of other school psychologists throughout the nation, we hope to get a better understanding of the things individuals <u>like</u> <u>and</u> <u>dislike</u> <u>about</u> <u>their</u> <u>jobs</u>.

On the following page, you will find statements about your present job. Please read each statement carefully, and decide how satisfied you are with that aspect of your job. Keeping the statement in mind:

_ If you feel the job gives you <u>more than you expected</u>, check the blank under "VS" (Very Satisfied)
_ If you feel the job gives you <u>what you expected</u>, check the blank under "S" (Satisfied)
_ If you feel the job gives you <u>less than what you expected</u>, check the blank under "DS"
 (Dissatisfied)
_ If you feel the job gives you <u>much less than what you expected</u>, check the blank under "VDS"
 (Very Dissatisfied)

* Keep the statement in mind when you decide how satisfied you feel with that aspect of your job.
* Please do this for <u>all</u> statements, and please answer <u>every</u> item.

- Be <u>frank</u> <u>and</u> <u>honest</u>. Give a true picture of your feelings about your present job.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?   No. _____

VS	means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.
S	means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.
DS	means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.
VDS	means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about…..	VDS	DS	S	VS
1. The chance to be of service to others……………………………..………….	___	___	___	___
2. The chance to try out some of my own ideas…………………….....……….	___	___	___	___
3. Being able to do the job without feeling it is morally wrong……………….	___	___	___	___
4. The chance to work by myself…………….. ………………………………….	___	___	___	___
5. The variety in my work…………………………………………………….	___	___	___	___
6. The chance to have others look to me for direction………………………….	___	___	___	___
7. The chance to do the kind of work that I do best…………………………..	___	___	___	___
8. The social position in the community that goes with the job………………..	___	___	___	___
9. The policies and practices toward employees of this school system………..	___	___	___	___
10. The way my supervisor and I understand each other………………………….	___	___	___	___
11. My job security……………………………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
12. The amount of pay for the work I do………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
13. The physical working conditions (heating, lighting, etc) in the position…….	___	___	___	___
14. The opportunities for advancement in this position………………………….	___	___	___	___
15. The technical "know how" of my supervisor………………………………..	___	___	___	___
16. The spirit of cooperation among my co-workers…………………………….	___	___	___	___
17. The chance to be responsible planning my work…………………………….	___	___	___	___
18. The way I am noticed when I do a good job…………………………………	___	___	___	___
19. Being able to see the results of the job I do………………………………..	___	___	___	___
20. The chance to be active most of the time……………………………………	___	___	___	___
21. The chance to be of service to people………………………………………	___	___	___	___
22. The chance to do new and original things on my own……………..............	___	___	___	___
23. The chance to work alone on the job……………………………………….	___	___	___	___
24. Being able to do things that don't go against my religious beliefs………….	___	___	___	___
25. The chance to do different things from time to time…………………........	___	___	___	___
26. The chance to tell other staff members how to do things…………….…….	___	___	___	___
27. The chance to do work that is well suited to my abilities………………….	___	___	___	___
28. The chance to be "somebody" in the community……………………. ……..	___	___	___	___
29. School system policies and the way in which they are administered………..	___	___	___	___
30. The way my supervisor handles employees……………………………….	___	___	___	___
31. The way my job provides for a secure future………………………....……..	___	___	___	___
32. The chance to make as much money as my friends………………………….	___	___	___	___
33. The physical surroundings where I work………………………………….	___	___	___	___
34. The chance for getting ahead in this position……………………………...	___	___	___	___
35. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions…………..............	___	___	___	___
36. The chance to develop close friendships with my peers…………………….	___	___	___	___
37. The chance to make decisions on my own………………………………	___	___	___	___
38. The way I get full credit for the work I do………………………………..	___	___	___	___
39. Being able to take pride in a job well done………………………………..	___	___	___	___
40. Being able to do something much of the time…………………..…………..	___	___	___	___
41. The chance to help others……………………………………..……………	___	___	___	___
42. The chance to try something different………………………………………	___	___	___	___
43. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience..……………	___	___	___	___
44. The chance to be alone on the job……………………………..……………	___	___	___	___
45. The routine in my work………………………………………………..……	___	___	___	___
46. The chance to supervise other people………………………………………	___	___	___	___
47. The chance to make use of my best abilities……………………………….	___	___	___	___
48. The chance to "rub elbows" with important people………………………….	___	___	___	___
49. The way employees are informed about school policies…………..………..	___	___	___	___
50. The way my supervisor backs employees up with the administration………	___	___	___	___

PLEASE CONTINUE ON BACK

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?   No. _____

VS   means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.
S   means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.
DS   means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.
VDS   means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about…..	VDS	DS	S	VS
51. The way my job provides for steady employment………………………..…	___	___	___	___
52. How my pay compares with that for similar positions in other school systems..	___	___	___	___
53. The pleasantness of the working conditions……………………………………	___	___	___	___
54. The way promotions are given out in this position……………………………	___	___	___	___
55. The way my supervisor delegates work to staff members…………………….	___	___	___	___
56. The friendliness of my co-workers………………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
57. The chance to be responsible for the work of others…………………………..	___	___	___	___
58. The recognition I get for the work I do…………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
59. Being able to do something worthwhile………………………………………….	___	___	___	___
60. Being able to stay busy…………………………………………………………….	___	___	___	___
61. The chance to do things for other people……………………………………..	___	___	___	___
62. The chance to develop new and better ways to do the job…………………….	___	___	___	___
63. The chance to do things that don't harm other people…………………………	___	___	___	___
64. The chance to work independently of others…………………………………..	___	___	___	___
65. The chance to do something different every day………………………………	___	___	___	___
66. The chance to tell people what to do…………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
67. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities……………………	___	___	___	___
68. The chance to be important in the eyes of others………………………………	___	___	___	___
69. The way the school system policies are put into practices……………………	___	___	___	___
70. The way my supervisor takes care of complaints brought up by employees….	___	___	___	___
71. How steady my job is………………………………………………………………	___	___	___	___
72. My pay and the amount of work I do…………………………………………….	___	___	___	___
73. The physical conditions of the job………………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
74. The chances for advancement in the position…………………………………..	___	___	___	___
75. The way my supervisor provides help on hard problems………………………	___	___	___	___
76. The way my co-workers are easy to make friends with……………………….	___	___	___	___
77. The freedom to use my own judgment……………………………………………	___	___	___	___
78. The way they usually tell me when I do my job well…………………………...	___	___	___	___
79. The chance to do my best at all times……………………………………………	___	___	___	___
80. The chance to be "on the go" all of the time…………………………………..	___	___	___	___
81. The chance to be of some small service to other people………………………	___	___	___	___
82. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job………………………….	___	___	___	___
83. The chance to do the job without feeling I am cheating someone……………..	___	___	___	___
84. The chance to work away from others……………………………………………	___	___	___	___
85. The chance to do many different things on the job…………………………….	___	___	___	___
86. The chance to tell others what to do……………………………………………	___	___	___	___
87. The chance to make use of my abilities and skills……………………………	___	___	___	___
88. The chance to have a definite place in the community…………………………	___	___	___	___
89. The way the school system treats its employees………………………………	___	___	___	___
90. The personal relationship between my supervisor and his/her employees…….	___	___	___	___
91. The way that layoffs and transfers are avoided in my job…………………….	___	___	___	___
92. How my pay compares with that of other school psychologists……………..…	___	___	___	___
93. The working conditions………………………………………………………….	___	___	___	___
94. My chances for advancement……………………………………………………..	___	___	___	___
95. The way my supervisor trains employees………………………………………	___	___	___	___
96. The way my co-workers get along with each other……………………………	___	___	___	___
97. The responsibility of my job……………………………………………………	___	___	___	___
98. The praise I get for doing a good job……………………………………………	___	___	___	___
99. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job……………………………	___	___	___	___
100. Being able to keep busy all of the time………………………………………	___	___	___	___

END OF SURVEY

VITA

Travis Gleason Worrell was born in Winston-Salem, North Carolina on May 2, 1972. He was the second born child of Mr. and Mrs. Gleason H. Worrell. He attended public schools in both Forsyth County, NC and Henry County, VA. He graduated from Magna Vista High School in 1990. He then attended Radford University for seven years, earning a Bachelor of Science in Psychology in 1993, a Master of Science in school psychology in 1996, and an Educational Specialist Degree in 1997.

The author completed his school psychology internship in the Martinsville City Public Schools, where he was hired on as a full-time school psychologist. He has been employed as a school psychologist in Martinsville from July 1997 to the present time. In 1998, Travis entered the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Doctoral Training Program in Counselor Education. He is married to Cynthia Renee Worrell, his high school sweetheart and devoted wife since 1994.