

**PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP IN THE ACCOUNTABILITY ERA: INFLUENCE OF
EXPANDING JOB RESPONSIBILITIES ON FUNCTIONAL WORK PERFORMANCE,
STRESS MANAGEMENT, AND OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION**

by

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This study examined the relationship of stress, burnout, and coping strategies among middle school principals in Western Pennsylvania. This study assessed coping skill preferences among middle school principals, especially regarding their age, gender, marital status, experience, and school enrollment. A review of the literature included studies regarding moderate to high levels of stress and the principal. Researchers indicated that the middle school principal's job is very stressful due to the scope of responsibilities at that level (Cusack, 1982; Fogelson, 1992; Foster, 1986; Heinze, 1987; Saffer, 1984; Thompson, 1985). Studies of principals support the proposition that specific stress levels can affect these individuals. This study confirms the kinds of stress middle school principals face and to some extent, how they prefer to cope with it. The work world of principals has expanded in both complexity and quantity. Principals are spending more time on the job than they had in the past, and they are navigating ways to be successful in the high stakes work context that has permeated the job. This changing nature of the principalship has required more time, political savvy, stress, accountability measures, legal expertise, and the ability to deal with health concerns. This particular theme is not well researched in school leadership.

The intent of this study was a step on the way to developing a framework for the type of work that is done by middle school principals in Western Pennsylvania, while also reviewing the

physical and emotional costs that are derived from the competitive nature of increased accountability along with the myriad of responsibilities faced by these school leaders. The purpose was also to measure the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals. Data were collected by an online questionnaire and followed by semi-structured interviews by volunteer participants. Data were analyzed throughout the study to guide decisions and determine emergent themes. By studying the phenomenon of work demands on principals in the 21st Century, the educational community gains insight into the functional work-related behaviors of leaders and their level of job satisfaction.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The impact of strong leaders on the work environment has been documented as the cornerstone of success for decades. The literature on leadership is quite extensive and specific interpretations of that research often differ among researchers (Charan 2007; Collins, 2001; Daniels & Daniels, 2004; Drucker, 1973; Guiliani, 2002; Rath, 2007; Senge, 1990; Welch & Welch, 2005). Charan (2007) writes that successful leaders are those who take what they have learned and convert it into action. Those leaders who are successful for a sustained period of time “are disciplined, determined, consistent, and persist in developing [their skills] (Charan, 2007). Daniels (2004) explored that although many leaders are charismatic, there are three factors that are judged in their success: (a) the magnitude of their impact, (b) the duration of their impact, and (c) the number of followers (p. 7). Whereas, Guiliani (2002) wrote about how he felt that there was a privilege of leading others, but knowing how to bring out the best in others in order to take risks was essential in forming a stronger team. Regardless of the researcher or style, many will agree that “leaders and managers alike are essential to the effective functioning of organizations” (Daniels & Daniels, 2004).

Analyzing research into school leadership in particular is not a new endeavor. Conversely, exploring the work-related habits of school principals involves not only the dramatic change in the job description for school leaders in the last decade, but also their capacity for juggling societal demands, personal goals, familial priorities, and professional responsibilities in

a healthy and productive manner. This particular theme is not well researched in school leadership.

Successful principals are often measured by their ability to do quality work that ultimately affects the young people in their school. Within that limited description, there exists a variety of skills that aid the principal in functionally performing his job. Thus, borrowing from Haynes and O'Brien's (1990) definition of functional analysis, functional behavior can be assessed by, "The identification of important, controllable, causal functional relationships applicable to a specific set of target behaviors for an individual" (p. 654). Principals who are demonstrating functional performance in their job should be able to perform skills in areas of how they engage in their (a) daily responsibilities, (b) professional knowledge and leadership skills, (c) educational processes, and (d) enact organizational outcomes (Goldring, Cravens, Murphy, Porter, Elliott, & Carson, 2009). Often, these skills or skill sets are measured by assessments or performance evaluations during a school year. In fact, it is not unusual to see similarities regarding these expectations, but some researchers use greater detail in the expected functions of the job, while others leave wider latitude.

The work world of principals has expanded in both complexity and quantity. Principals are spending more time on the job than they had in the past, and they are navigating ways to be successful in the high stakes work context that has permeated the job. This changing nature of the principalship has required more time, political savvy, stress management, accountability measures, legal expertise, and the ability to deal with health concerns. Thus, the employment pool for educational leaders is shrinking.

In other employment contexts, there have been numerous studies exploring the phenomenon of work addiction and the effects of job burnout. These studies have explored the

perceptions of how other employment groups manage their use of time, develop and sustain relationships, and handle a variety of physical and emotional concerns. Exploring the work characteristics of principals in these contexts is valuable to the profession. Understanding the nature of expectations placed upon principals and how tasks are manifested into a work profile will provide a clearer interpretation of why teachers are not seeking the principalship as frequently as in the past, why principals are choosing to leave the profession, and how those who remain on the job view their work and balance these ever-increasing expectations.

According to the 2002 National Conference of State Legislatures, *The Role of School Leadership in Improving Student Achievement*, studies indicate that principals are dealing with a myriad of issues during the workday. They are navigating the bureaucracy of new federal and state legislation, while also completing more paperwork than the job ever required in the past. The complexities of school safety, public relations, curriculum reforms, student activities, and so much more have created a job that appears to extend far beyond the normal work hours. “School principals have profound responsibilities for educating future leaders. A daunting task, it is compounded with dwindling resources, increasing responsibilities, and growing public scrutiny” (Brock and Grady, 2002, p. 1). Yet, schools require strong educational leaders to get these jobs done. There is little doubt that finding congruence between school leadership and most educational reform issues will have a positive consequence on students. Second only to classroom instruction, leadership can strengthen student achievement (Leithwood, Mulford, and Silins, 2004). This alone is reason to explore how a manageable work profile of principals will influence the students and staff in a school.

When I began my initial research looking into the work habits of professionals, I was easily pulled into the darker world of work addiction and the voluminous problems related to it.

Serving as an educator for 19 years, I have worked as a teacher, a middle school principal, and most currently as Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum. All of my experiences have been in suburban, high performing school districts. The challenges that I have encountered, as well as the daily challenges that my colleagues endured have often caused me to pause and wonder how and why we remain employed in a position which has become so challenging and often politically fueled. Shmidt (2008) concurs when she notes that the “avalanche of new mandates and research on teaching and learning has caused smart principals [to succumb to the facts] that the in-box never sleeps, and they can work 24-7 and that the little red voice mail light will still blink relentlessly” (p. 25). These societal pressures are changing the attraction of the principal to new candidates. Furthermore, Lawrence, Santiago, Zamora, Bertani, & Bocchino (2008) recognize that “principals often learn alone, on the job, and in the full view of the public” (p. 36). Finally, demonstrating a need to look more closely at the job expectations of principals, a six-year study was commissioned by the Wallace Foundation in order to identify the nature of successful educational leadership and to better understand how such leadership can improve educational practices and student learning (Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010). The Wallace Foundation deemed this research necessary because “research of this sort has done little to clarify how leaders achieve the effects in question, and its implications for leadership practice are, therefore, limited” (Louis et al., 2010, p. 8).

Pilot Study

In an initial pilot study of principals serving in positions in high performing school districts in 2007, I surveyed and interviewed eight principals to look at their perceptions of the work that they do and how the demands of accountability have changed their jobs and the way

that they lead their schools each day. The data showed that although many of the participants were indeed behaving like “workaholics,” those who have been classified as a workaholic have an uncontrollable need to work that permanently disturbs one’s health, happiness, and relationships. Yet, they enjoyed their work and were enthusiastic for the good things that they could potentially do to engage teachers and students. Unfortunately, many of them demonstrated health-related problems related to stress, marital and family dysfunction, and an inability to stop working even after leaving their schools for the day (See Appendix E). This phenomenon for performing a job at the level that is presumed to be unhealthy, but engaging it with vigor and enthusiasm, remains complex. This dissertation explores this phenomenon more deeply and provides an in-depth look at the work profile of middle level principals in Western Pennsylvania during the era of increased accountability.

Principals represent a decreasing workforce, and there is little empirical attention given to their ability to compete successfully and survive in a high-stakes educational climate. Coupled with a consideration that functional behavior is not new to education or psychology, a study into the nature of why and how principals do what they do, will provide a deeper understanding of this profession and the ramifications for doing it successfully and functionally.

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

As I begin to consider the research questions for my dissertation, I selected to gather data through a mixed data approach using a survey as a quantitative method and one-on-one interviews as a qualitative method. This study focuses on the role of the principal in modern schools, while exploring how the presence of workaholic tendencies affect a principal's perception of his or her job performance, health, and interpersonal relationships. One aspect of the study contributes to the understanding of how the work of an educational leader has expanded this decade throughout an era of accountability especially in schools that are typified, defined, and ranked by the results of high stakes testing and legislative requirements. Further, exploring how principals perceive, react to, and are motivated by the pressures of reform and accountability provides a greater insight into the intrinsic satisfaction that may or may not be drawn by this newly, competitive environment.

All behaviors have a function, and understanding that function is a key to developing ways to support the principal. Gathering data about how principals' leadership styles complement or deter from their work-related behavior provided a more accurate picture of their functional work performance and their possible need for intervention. I enjoyed the challenge of serving my professional community in this capacity and offering informative research into the principalship and the exploration into the job explosion within the job, work addictive tendencies, and the long-term effects on principals in Western Pennsylvania.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The pressures of high stakes testing, increased accountability, and societal demands have made the principalship a challenging profession to choose. In fact, those who do seek the post are often surprised that the time that they had planned for working with teachers and students, reviewing curriculum, and even serving parents in need has turned into a job which demands constant attention to the political landscape with very little time left for daily interactions with those whom one serves. Yet, educational leaders emerge each day to take on this role and help students succeed and advance in their educational pathways. A closer look at how this ever-expanding job is accomplished is very important. This analysis reflects upon collegiate preparation and the health and well-being of the principal. It also provides superintendents with a fresh look at those who serve as middle school principals and how they are thriving or, at the very least, surviving.

Each day consists of 1,440 minutes. How middle school principals spend those minutes will help to develop their work profile and provide an in-depth look at how they respond to stressful situations, how they cope, and how they manage the numerous needs of all parties. “Although a few of them may withdraw, give up, and suffer burnout, others appear to tolerate the stress, if not thrive on it” (Brock & Grady, 2002, p. 1). Information related to the work-related, functional behaviors of school principals and how the demands of the job positively and negatively affect job satisfaction, work-related behaviors, and the number of individuals joining the profession in the era of increased accountability will help to inform the educational community.

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What are middle level principals' perceptions of their work-related behaviors?
2. To what degree has increased accountability impacted the work-related behaviors of middle level principals?
3. What are the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals?

1.3 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Burnout Is a state an employee feels when work is no longer rewarding and he/she are emotionally, psychologically, and/or physically exhausted. Burnout is not the result of an obstacle or the occasional feelings of sadness or discouragement, it is multifaceted and symptoms are often exhibited in five areas: physical, intellectual, social, emotional, and spiritual (Cedoline, 1982; Farber, 1991; Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Flow An almost automatic, effortless, yet highly focused state of consciousness that an individual can experience when devoting himself/herself to a meaningful challenge (Csikszentmihaly, 1990).

Functional Work Behaviors of Principals Principals who are demonstrating functional performance in their job should be able to demonstrate skills in areas where they can be assessed on the following job performances (Goldring, Cravens, Murphy, Porter, Elliott, & Carson, 2009):

1. *Daily responsibilities* – For example, managing school programs, pupil personnel, community relations, physical facilities, student behaviors, and coordinating professional development;
2. *Professional knowledge and leadership skills* – For example, good listening and presentation skills, and participative decision-making style;
3. *Educational processes* – For example, the presence of items that are best practices in the principal's school: reviewing curriculum, evaluating teachers, and hiring staff;

4. *Enact organizational outcomes* – These might include improved student achievement, better attendance, and a lower dropout rate.

Functional Behavioral Assessment comes from what is called a "Functional Assessment" or "Functional Analysis" in the field of applied behavior analysis. This is the process of determining the cause (or "function") of behavior before developing an intervention. The intervention must be based on the hypothesized cause (function) of behavior.

High-stakes Testing The use of standardized testing measures to determine the quality of a school, its students, its teachers, and curriculum. High-stakes testing is often associated with the accountability movement and standards-based education recently equated with the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001.

Job Satisfaction One of the key measures of job satisfaction is the belief that the work one does is both meaningful to and valued by an employer and an employee. Satisfaction can be experienced at a higher degree when one's contributions to an organization are recognized and accepted as valuable to the group and to the individual. Satisfaction serves as a function of the extent to which one's job is perceived as fulfilling important value and perceived job characteristics match the desired characteristics.

Work Addiction Mudrack and Naughton (2001) considered workaholics to be those employees who work hard to maintain a clear focus on their tasks during work hours, but are unable to forget about it during the hours after work. The most common definition that is being used this decade labels workaholism as "a socially atypical focus on work" (McMillan, O'Driscoll, Marsh, & Brady, 2001).

Work Characteristics Hackman and Oldham (1980) developed job characteristics that examined the motivational forces that pertain to one's work; interpersonal characteristics that

explored relationships with others; role stress that explored the pressures in the employment position; and identified five psychological states that investigated the experiences that one gains from the work itself.

Workaholism Oates (1968) provided the first scientific definition of workaholism. He defined it as an excessive uncontrollable need to work that permanently disturbs health, happiness, and relationships.

2.0 A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To business that we love we eagerly arise, and go to with delight.

William Shakespeare

The intent of this review of literature is step on the way in developing a framework for reviewing the type of work that is done by educational leaders in the 21st Century, while also reviewing the physical and emotional costs that derived from the competitive nature of high stakes testing along with the myriad of other responsibilities faced by middle school principals. As the research grew into a rich exploration into the phenomenon of the work performance of middle school principals in an era of increased accountability, the review of literature began to take a new form and new questions emerged. Hence, this review begins with an exploration of the expectations placed upon school principals and the styles of leadership which enhance the interworking of a successful school staff. This is followed by research into the declining number of individuals seeking positions in educational leadership due to the demands that are placed upon principals who are asked to become “superleaders “ in order to meet the needs of students and staff. While research varies on the best leadership approaches, the aim of this review is not to reach a consensus on the style of leadership, but rather to illustrate the work-related pressures placed upon principals to functionally perform the job and their risk for burnout and work addictive behaviors while doing so. The review of literature then moves into an in-depth look into the leadership responsibilities of principals and the effects that they have on the health, relationships,

and job performance of those affected. Finally, the review will conclude with an exploration into “flow” and how it may in turn positively affect the ability of principals to functionally perform their duties and discover true job satisfaction.

2.1 LEADERSHIP IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Educational leaders of the 21st Century are faced with numerous challenges related to increasing student achievement, maintaining fiscal responsibility, and meeting community expectations. The growing pressures related to educational accountability based on high stakes standardized test results have caused a reaction and focus points for schools. Strategic plans have been altered and the general framework for teaching and learning is being dictated by state and federal mandates more than ever before. “While the ‘No Child Left Behind’ (NCLB) Act, President George W. Bush’s reauthorization of President Lyndon Johnson’s Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, is not cause for daily unhappiness, it is still capable of taking its toll on staff morale” (Million, 2005, p. 16). The emphasis on data driven decision making has shifted the pendulum of educational philosophy in a more technical and didactic direction. The passage of the federal NCLB Act has contributed to an enhanced focus on standards-based education and student achievement, especially as it pertains to student performance on standardized math and reading assessments. In Pennsylvania, the Pennsylvania System of School Assessments (PSSA) is used as the primary tool for measuring student proficiency and school success. Not only are all students expected to perform at the proficient level by 2014, but all schools are expected to meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) in each year, including any disaggregated sub groups (e.g., students with an Individual Education Plan (I.E.P)).

Sergiovanni (1992) observed the success of schools measured by a simple management rule. This rule was summarized by the “expect and inspect” rule by which compliance was

required and noncompliance was followed by punitive measures. Sergiovanni (1992) describes the tendency of school leaders to continue practicing technical, rational leadership in a bureaucratic setting under these conditions. These decisions can be attributed to the general acceptance of the public to this more traditional model of school leadership and governance, which appears to fit into the demands of current legislation and educational policy. Yet, more current dialogues related to educational leadership propose that successful leadership, often underestimated, can play an important role in improving student learning (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Walstrom, 2004). Hence, building leadership capacity into school improvement efforts may have greater impact than once expected.

The high stakes nature of the federal legislation and its interpretation at the state level has been perceived by groups of educators as a shift toward more bureaucratic and technical rational leadership in schools. The high degree of accountability placed on schools, superintendents, and building-level principals has placed the emphasis more towards “doing things right” than making sure that we are “doing the right things” (Sergiovanni, 1989, p. 186). NCLB’s emphasis on high standards for all has changed the dynamics of public education and created a level of competition among schools and school leaders that was never quite evident before. Instead, work that was once done with unity and collegiality is now approached with secrecy and can breed disrespect and dysfunction within a school district and among school districts. In fact, “a noncompetitive administrator in one of today’s schools is generally deemed to be lackluster and misplaced” (Tyson, 2008, p. 46). Administrators who feel compelled to compete in this high-stakes testing environment demonstrate dysfunction and lack the ability to collaborate, communicate, and build consensus (Tyson, 2008).

School leadership in the 21st Century will require some changing or adding to the repertoire of principals. The basics for successful leadership as describe by Leithwood et al. (2004) are comprised of three core practices including (a) setting directions, (b) developing people, and (c) redesigning the organization to develop one that supports the performance of administrators, teachers, and students. Therefore, it is suggested that it is important for principals to participate in “high-quality leadership development programs that blend knowing what to do-declarative knowledge - with knowing how and when to do it – procedural and contextual knowledge” (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003, p. 36). There is little doubt that finding congruence between school leadership and most educational reform issues will have a positive consequence on students. Second only to classroom instruction, leadership can strengthen student achievement (Leithwood et al., 2004).

Leadership has two core functions: providing direction and exercising influence (Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, and Anderson, 2010). These functions can be carried out in different ways, depending on the leader. During their research for the Wallace Foundation in 2010, Louis et al identified 21 approaches to leadership. The one that they based most of their research was first established by Follett in 1924 and strongly affirmed by Bowers and Seashore in 1966. Both studies established the groundwork for “peer sources of leadership” within larger organizations (Louis et al., 2010, 17). This shared ideal of leadership has come to be known as distributed leadership, and Spillane et al. (2004) are convinced that it offers substantial theoretical leverage in studying leadership activity. They further stated that “if expertise is distributed, then the school rather than the individual leader may be the most appropriate unit for thinking about the development of leadership expertise” (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 29). It offers the ability to empower others and taking leadership practices beyond that of an individual leader, but focuses

on how leadership practices can be distributed among both positional and informal leaders (e.g. teachers, parents, and community members). “The collective properties of the group of leaders working together to enact a particular task...lead to the evolution of a leadership practice that is potentially more than the sum of each individual’s practice” (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001, p. 25). The skills that are needed for success in the 21st Century differ from those in the past. This is true for leadership. “Leadership practice (both thinking and activity) emerges in and through the interaction of leaders, followers, and situations” (Spillane et al., 2001, p. 27).

2.2 STYLES OF LEADERSHIP

The literature is saturated with a variety of perspectives on leadership, such as “personality,” “political,” “cultural,” “transformation,” “moral,” and “instructional” leadership (Sergiovanni, 1991, Fidler, 1997). Although a research question based upon leadership styles was not part of the original design, it has become apparent that leadership emerged as an important aspect of this research. All of these styles of leadership call for the maximum engagement of principals to focus staff attention and produce quality student outcomes. The traditional management recipe in times of high accountability include: (1) state your objectives, (2) decide what needs to be done to achieve those objectives, (3) translate work requirements into role expectations, (4) communicate these expectations, (5) provide the necessary training, (6) put people to work, (7) monitor the work, (8) make corrections when needed, and (9) practice human relations leadership to maintain morale (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 69). “Schools must become, from top to bottom, places where everyone is respected for what is possible from within” (Kee, Andreson, Dearing, Harris, & Shuster, 2010).

The old recipe for leadership that Sergiovanni (1992) described has had to change. Lasting change will be very elusive, if school principals do not develop skills to elicit the best from their staff to help lead. The quick list for leadership does not have the same chance for success as it once had. Public schools and the students within their walls have changed. Parents have changed. The situations and the complexity of the laws have changed. A bureaucratic authority which espoused hierarchy and rules, coupled with psychological authority that was based on rewards and fulfilling human needs, once had a place in the management and leadership

approach that principals used. Sadly, it created schools which had leaders and subordinates. The authority structure was in place, and everything had its place (Sergiovanni, 1992). The work became perfunctory. Although tasks were completed and lesson plans were created and submitted on time each week, the concept of commitment on the part of teachers was weak at best.

This lack of commitment and shared vision becomes a larger issue with student achievement, because Louis et al note that “collective leadership has a stronger influence on student achievement than individual leadership” (2010, p. 19). In fact, they did further study about collective leadership, which refers to the extent of influence that organizational members and stakeholders exert on decisions in their schools, and determined that “a special environment within which teachers work together to improve their practice and student learning” is strongly associated with student achievement (Louis et al., 2010, p. 37).

David Gergen, an advisor to four U.S. Presidents, said “The 20th Century taught us that progress is inevitable. Whether America moves forward will hinge in significant degree upon the quality and number of those who lead” (Million, 2005, p. 16). This places quite a large responsibility upon the shoulders of principals. Perhaps this is why educational leaders are in demand, and their well-being is often on the fringe. The evolution of leadership styles has moved itself right out of the boardrooms and right into the classrooms. Lee and et al. (2010) share that leaders are facilitators of a new mindset that is critically needed in schools today.

Researchers are spending a tremendous amount of time looking at why some leaders are successful and others are not. Recognizing the stressors that are present in schools and for principals is simply not enough. International studies (PISA and TIMSS, e.g.) have identified secondary schools as the “weakest link” in public education (Louis et al., 2010, p. 2). So the

Wallace Foundation used their study to set the stage for asking school districts to design new programs to support secondary principals as a “policy priority” (Louis et al., 2010, p. 52).

Sergiovanni also believes that finding a more appropriate leadership practice in schools is critical for school districts, teachers, and ultimately students. Value-added leadership as explained by Sergiovanni (1990) is the importance of building “followership” in the schools. Nearly all workplaces function with some form of subordination. Schools are no different. Everyone has to have some necessary responsibilities and standards which need to be fulfilled. Teachers are observed and supervised by principals; principals are evaluated by assistant superintendents, and so forth. However, the concept and practice of followership goes beyond the basis of subordination. Sustained and committed performance, which is self-managed without rewards or constant monitoring, is cultivated in followership (Sergiovanni, 1992). Followers work well without constant supervision. They assess their needs and often make decisions on their own. Sergiovanni (1988) goes so far as to say “when both the value of vision and the value-added dimension of covenant are present, teachers and students respond with increased motivation and commitment, and their performance is well beyond the ordinary” (p. 73).

As the level of accountability increases and the fear of sanctions for failure to meet AYP, Sergiovanni (1999) suggests that collegiality, based on shared work and common goals, leads to a natural interdependence among teachers who in turn are able to create communities where they become self-managers and professionals. When a structure for continuous improvement where everyone performs better because of collective efforts and shared accountability is the focus, a competent system which closes the gap between a shared vision and current practices can exist (Zmuda, Kuklis, & Kline, 2004).

Sergiovanni expresses that the connections and interactions that are required of this type of leader occurs when the heart (what is believed), the head (the mindscape of how the world works), and the hand (the decisions, actions, and behaviors) of everyone involved compel everyone to respond from within when decisions are made or in the process of being made. Sergiovanni (1992) believes that while the more traditional aspects of leadership have received the most support, future leaders must also possess the more affective, cultural, and moral components of leadership. The appropriate leader is not the end, but part of the means to helping a school maximize the potential of its people and work toward a shared goal. Competent leaders understand that the most important and significant resource in any organization is people. This is a long way from traditional top-down management methods of the past.

Although many leadership theorists believe that it is still effective to incorporate aspects of the “traditional management model” described earlier (e.g., clear objective, roles, action steps, and monitoring results), they also believe that the shared style and process to develop this plan are completely different. Change is challenging in organizations, especially in schools. When a valued, shared purpose leads teachers toward a change, it will become easier to tolerate and collegiality will build. Dufour and Eaker (1998) explain how moving toward this new method of school leadership can be challenging.

Members of a professional learning community must be prepared to slosh around together in the mess, to endure temporary discomfort, to accept uncertainty, to celebrate their discoveries, and to move quickly beyond their mistakes. They must recognize that even with the most careful planning, misunderstandings will occur occasionally, uncertainty will prevail, people will resort to old habits, and things will go wrong (p. 283).

Once established in a school, the professional ideal, combined with community norms, becomes a powerful substitute for leadership. According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders are able to then inspire subordinates to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of their

school and its students. Robert E. Kelly (1988) wrote that “followers” are committed to a purpose, a cause, a vision of what a school can become, beliefs about teaching and learning, values and standards to which they adhere, and convictions. Once this is in place, the leadership model shifts and “leaders and followers alike are attracted to and compelled by ideas, values, and commitments” (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 71). “Relying solely on leadership strategies, without giving thought to purposing, puts people in the position of having to follow someone else’s script. This forces them to be subordinates, rather than followers” (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 81). This is often even more challenging when principals turn over at a rapid rate. Building and sustaining a leadership model with a clear vision can be lost when a principal is moved or leaves the post. It is up to the principals in most cases to establish followership and the leadership basis in the school. Succession planning can be a helpful component to this dilemma, because principals cannot be “viewed by teachers, parents, and students as merely interchangeable messengers of agents external to the school. Incorporating succession plans and processes into all school improvement plans and processes will push all administrators and those around them to take the long-term challenges of sustainability more seriously” (Fink & Brayman, 2006, p. 86). The long-term goals for everyone involved with school improvement are far more successful for schools that take these options into account when making changes in hierarchy of leadership.

In order to achieve a higher level of performance, many principals will experiment with different leadership styles during their career in order to be flexible during different situations. Transformational leadership provides a leadership style which principals can employ in order to implement school improvement reform efforts with minimal costs, both personally and professionally. Transformational leadership seeks to influence behavior by appealing to “higher ideals and moral values such as liberty, justice, equality, peace, and humanitarianism”

(Kowawalski, 1989, p. 210). It entails the pursuit by both the leader and the followers of commonly held higher-level goals. Components of transformational leadership include: a commitment to a common goal; the pursuit of higher levels of morality; and a reliance on higher-order needs. The leader focuses on more advanced human needs when considering motivations (Burns, 1985). Yet, so much more is required of principals. Newly-appointed principals are often required to base much of their success on their ability to be good managers (Parkay et al., 1992). Basic, managerial tasks allow novice principals with an arena for survival, but that does not allow for the long-term success of the school, its students, and the staff. The coupling of these styles can help a principal reach higher levels of success.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) has created an assessment tool to diagnose a principal's capacity for school leadership and the skills necessary to build success in schools. The measurement serves as a tool which was developed to help leaders assess their own skills and capacity for effective leadership. NASSP (Kinney, 2008, p. 60) suggest that these ten dimensions can predict the functional success of a school leader.

1. Setting instructional direction
2. Teamwork
3. Sensitivity
4. Judgment
5. Results orientation
6. Organizational ability
7. Oral communication
8. Written communication
9. Development of others

10. Understanding personal strengths and weaknesses

Furthermore, Schwahn and Spady (2000) explain that total leaders must be authentic to establish a deep and compelling organizational purpose. Thus, describing the comprehensive and inclusive nature of leadership. This is evident in the Wallace Foundation's *Learning from Leadership Project*. Louis et al. (2010) state,

While public policy and community opinion increasingly put pressures on principals to increase student performance, it is equally important to expect that principals also take such actions that support instructional and shared leadership which lead to improved student learning. Increasing teachers' involvement in the difficult task of making good decisions and introducing improved practices must be at the heart of school leadership. There is no simple shot-cut (p. 53).

In other words, true credibility is only established when the core values of authentic leaders are pure. Through a visionary outlook, these leaders create an inspirational and concrete picture of the organization's preferred future. As cultural leaders, they work to establish a positive and productive culture based on shared norms, values, and principles. The quality and service strands of leadership help establish efficient and effective policies that support the core values of the organization. This also provides the reward and recognition structure for all stakeholders.

2.3 PRINCIPALS SERVING AS SUPERLEADERS

The burden of school improvement, building renovations, special education compliance, and much more are ever-present for the principal. In some circumstances, heavy doses of command leadership are required. Unfortunately, if the leadership does not evolve from this style, teachers will rely upon the management and avoid moving into the role of self-management. The constant pressure to be the ‘headmaster’ or ‘instructional’ leader can be exhausting for one person. Thus, the job of principal is not appealing to many and is often difficult to achieve by a traditional leader. “Half of America’s public school teachers will leave the profession over the next decade and the same holds true for principals” (Malone & Caddell, 2000, p.162). Furthermore, Farkas and Harris (2001) indicate that the dissatisfaction that many principals have for their jobs and the pressures of accountability will spark greater than anticipated principal shortages. This is a crisis for American schools and educational leaders. Professionalism can flourish when command leadership is de-emphasized (Sergiovanni, 1999). Creating a culture where principals become leaders of leaders will build the capacity of teachers and decrease the need for direct, command leadership. “This can be achieved through team building, leadership development, shared decision making, and striving to establish the value of collegiality” (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 123).

The role of principals is defined by many with expectations that are unattainable. Perhaps that is why so few people want the job. The “superleader” as referred to by Hurley (2001) is hard to find and the job does not appear to be “doable”. Principals need to possess a wide array of skills and the “reasonability for practically everything in the school” (Hurely, 2001, p.3). Parents expect the principal to serve as a manager to stabilize the building, yet superintendents want

educational leaders who increase student achievement. The demand balance is overwhelming. To create a better job balance for the principal, the notion of shared leadership permits teachers to manage themselves and participate in an environment which learns together as a community. “It is nevertheless incumbent on principals to ensure that leadership and coordination are indeed happening at all levels and that they are allocating sufficient time to the role, relative to other roles, such as administration, the management of personnel, student welfare issues, and so on” (Fullan, Hill, & Crevola, 2006, p. 95). Some schools are trying co-principal models, so there is always another leader to share ideas with or take the front line when appropriate. Other schools employ lead teachers or deans to alleviate that pressure. These individuals are often not certified principals, but they are able to process more managerial tasks in the building. It is obvious that schools are looking for options. Therefore, as principals begin to look at their role differently, the evolution to a new leadership style may serve to guide schools through this century.

2.4 THE PRESSURES AND DEMANDS ON PRINCIPALS

The demands of assessments and a decade rich with increased accountability have placed additional pressures on principals. Hence, the recruitment of principals is a challenging task for superintendents. Once that principal is hired, his/her ability to keep a school at the top of its game and competitive against neighboring towns brings along economic and political stressors. Even prior to the stress of high accountability brought on by NCLB, Peter Vaill (1984) stated that there are ‘workaholic’ administrators who put in extensive time at work who lack focus or feeling. This could be because the comprehensive need to rank higher than others on tests supersedes the intrinsic motivation to care for and help the whole child. Vaill does note that when time is combined with focus and feeling, high-performing leaders emerge. On the other hand, “time and feeling without focus often leads to dissipated energy and disappointment” for leaders (Sergiovanni, 1999, p. 36). Implicit in traditional conceptions of leadership is the idea that schools cannot be improved from within: school communities neither have the wit nor the will to lead themselves; instead, principals and teachers are considered pawns, awaiting the play of a master or the game plan of an expert to provide solutions for school problems (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 120). Sadly, aspiring principals who believe that they will receive many accolades for a job well done, are often greeted with an understanding that the job is demanding and difficult and does not offer the same rewards as those in the business sector. This disconnection may be the reason for a principal’s feeling of helplessness when they get buried under daily problems and expectations with little time to improve what is happening in the classroom (Schiff, 2001). This disillusionment strengthens the managerial abilities of the principals, but often negates the

time for an instructional leader who can serve as the catalyst for better teaching and learning (Berkey, 2008).

By developing the ability of the people in the school building to understand the vision and work toward a common goal, shared leadership becomes an incredible resource that can be utilized. Businesses (organizations) must learn to use and capitalize on the unique strengths of their employees, just as employees must continually reassess their capabilities, talents, and potential contributions to their organization (Schwahn & Spady, 2000, p. 5). If schools are to be effective learning organizations, they can find ways to create structures that continuously support teaching and learning and enhance organizational adaptation; develop organizational cultures and climates that are open, collaborative, and self-regulating; attract individuals who are secure, efficacious and open to change; and prevent vicious and illegitimate politics from displacing the legitimate activities of learning and teaching (Hoy & Miskel, 2005, p. 33). Unfortunately, “if more people in the organization are taking on responsibilities nominally held by principals, the principal’s role as ‘leaders of leaders’ may have an unforeseen potential negative impact on the attractiveness of the job” (Coggshall, Stewart, & Bhatt, 2008, p. 4). The constant pulling of strings makes the changing nature of the principalship a juggernaut for school districts.

2.5 REDEFINING THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Shifts from traditional leadership models accentuate the importance of developing and maintaining a professional learning community in a school and the school district. By developing and maintaining a professional community in a school system, the staff is afforded the opportunity to work together to improve learning for all students. In their book, *Professional Learning Communities at Work: Best Practices for Improving Student Achievement*, Richard Dufour and Robert Eaker (1998) make the following comment, “The most promising strategy for sustained, substantive school improvement is developing the ability of school personnel to function as professional learning communities” (1998, p. xi).

In order to create this type of learning organization, it is necessary for our school leaders to have a detailed understanding of the change process, anticipate the problems associated with change, and demonstrate the leadership qualities necessary to lead a dynamic organization into the next century (Collins, 2001; Covey, 2004; Schwahn & Spady, 2002; Sergiovanni, 1992). The principal-leader in the high stakes era should be open to learning communities as an option. “Principals, who are formal leaders closest to the classroom, are most effective when they see themselves as working collaboratively towards clear, common goals...higher-performing schools generally ask for more input and engagement from a wider variety of stakeholders” (Louis et al., 2010, p. 282).

Additionally, by creating curricula that are equitable for all cultural groups and that respect the way each individual demonstrates improvement or mastery, authentic student learning is realized. Effective principals must be skilled change agents and managers as well as

extraordinary educational leaders. This is quite a change from the extraordinary management skills that were required of principals of the past. School improvement is a non-linear path requiring both leadership and management. The transition of traditional, hierarchical teams in schools into more transformational teams is often a difficult journey. “Instructional leaders ensure that the importance of school goals is understood by discussing and reviewing them with staff periodically during the school year. This leadership style is unlikely to work for novice principals” (Oplatka, 2004, p. 47). Principals who want to survive in this educational environment will have to establish a culture which embraces time, focus, and feeling and invites participating leadership into the fold.

The evolving role of the principal has received significant attention in the last few decades. The key to school improvement is often based upon the people who are helping to change the organization. If this premise is accurate, the principal possesses the fundamental role to create a school which can reach its goals more successfully. Being able to facilitate meaningful change is quite an impressive task and one that requires a vision of where the students and school will be at one point in the future. Drucker (1992) said that the successful organizations of the twenty-first century will be learning communities that build continuous learning into jobs at all levels. This is a mind shift for older principals and a new learning curve for those just entering the profession. Principals have navigated beyond master schedule builders and disciplinarians and are now being asked to serve as facilitators, supporters, and encouragers of new programs and staff accomplishments. Often that means stepping back from the front of the auditorium and allowing staff members to take risks and lead from within. Shared values in school improvement are well established in research (Sergiovanni, 1984) and adds a new dimension to those seeking the post of principal. Dufour and Berkey (1995) write:

Principals must encourage teachers to acquire new skills, support them during the inevitable frustrations, and recognize their efforts. Procedures must be in place to gather data on the impact of initiatives, and principals must publicly celebrate indicators of improvement in order to help sustain those initiatives. Principals must model an unwavering faith in the ability of the staff to improve conditions for teaching and learning. They will believe in the admonition of John Gardner (1988, p. 23): ‘To help others believe in themselves is one of the leader’s highest duties’ (p. 3).

In addition, Deal and Peterson (1999) write about leadership roles that should be taken on by principals to establish and reinforce a school’s underlying norms, values, and beliefs. One of those critical and symbolic roles that they describe is that of a visionary. This visionary “works with other leaders and the community to define a deeply value-focused picture of the future of the school [and] has a constantly evolving vision” (p. 87). School leadership in the 21st Century will require some changing or adding to the repertoire of principals. The basics for successful leadership as described by Leithwood et al. (2004) are comprised of three core practices including: (a) Setting directions, (b) Developing people, and (c) Redesigning the organization to develop one that supports the performance of administrators, teachers, and students. Therefore, it is suggested that it is important for principals to participate in “high-quality leadership development programs that blend knowing what to do-declarative knowledge - with knowing how and when to do it – procedural and contextual knowledge” (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003, p. 36). A more conceptual look at the work-profile of administrators can enhance these programs. Louis et al. (2010) suggest that although school boards have their primary roles in creating and maintaining policies, they can play a critical part in creating and promoting more democratic structures in schools that help leaders to involve a wide array of people who engage in participatory environments. Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2004) further share that “Schools with...norms of collaboration and a sense of collective responsibility for student

success create incentives for teachers to improve their practice” (p. 3). Student achievement is the overwhelming goal of education.

School districts have a very complicated job ahead of them as they go forth to recruit and retain quality principals. The role of principal has shifted, and the leadership styles of those who are called to task must shift as well. The image of the principal at the helm of the ship alone in a hierarchical division of labor is unrealistic. There is a need to research alternatives to this image and structure. Grubb and Flessa (2006) wrote,

Alternative approaches have the potential for resolving the overload on principals, the impossibility of a job with increasing responsibilities, a job too big for one person. If these alternatives could reduce the turnover in principals, or make the principalship more attractive to teachers, this alone might be worth the costs to reform (p. 543).

Creating a school culture that has more internal accountability in which teachers share more the responsibilities for their teaching in concert with the principal is more advantageous (Carnoy, Elmore, & Siskin, 2003). Perhaps the hero-principal can no longer exist in this century of massive school reform. Coggshall, Stewart, and Bhatt (2008) concur and suggest that dividing the role of principals between instructional and managerial responsibilities, creating networks of support, and pairing empowerment with accountability will broaden the array of interested young principals and help embed reform in quality leadership. Distributive leadership practices may help this challenging job become more realistic with more applicants in the future. This practice can take many forms, yet it is critical to review leadership and the creation of learning community options to avoid burn-out, shortages, health risks, and workaholism among principals all over this country. Ultimately, schools will have a greater chance for success when the principal’s role in the 21st Century is examined and perhaps, redefined.

2.6 BURNOUT AND WORK ADDICTION

Individuals who suffer from unyielding stress over a long period of time are setting themselves up for job burnout. In 1974, psychiatrist Herbert Freudenberger coined the term burnout. His early work characterized burnout in individuals who were employed in emotionally charged situations with colleagues or clients (Brock & Grady, 2000). In the 1980's burnout became a buzzword and often overused when people discussed stress in the workplace (Carruth, 1997). Brock and Grady (2002) wrote that "burnout occurs when our heart is in one place and our work is in another...work is no longer rewarding...we are emotionally, psychologically, or physically exhausted" (p. 6). Brock and Grady (2002) further claim that burnout is not the result of an obstacle or the occasional feelings of sadness or discouragement, it is multifaceted and symptoms are often exhibited in five areas: physical, intellectual, social, emotional, and spiritual (Cedoline, 1982; Farber, 1991; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Brock and Grady (2002) further describe burnout as a detriment to one's health and career. They suggest that early warning signs include

- Feelings of mental and physical exhaustion
- Feeling out of control, overwhelmed
- An increase in negative thinking
- Increased isolation from family, friends, and colleagues
- A sense of declining productivity or lack of accomplishment
- Dreading going to work in the morning (2002, p. 9):

Burnout is considered a syndrome which encompasses three significant issues. These issues are measured by the instrument's three subscales, which include emotional exhaustion

(EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Feelings of emotional exhaustion occur when there is a depletion of a principal's emotional resources. They are no longer able to give to others on a psychological level. The next aspect of burnout syndrome is the development of depersonalization. This is characterized by a principal's feelings about his or her clientele. This perception can be manifested in callous or even negative feelings about their clients. In fact, Wills (1978) documented that the human services workers that he studied often responded that their clients deserved their troubles. Coupled with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization seems to be related to that emotional exhaustion and is correlated as such. The final aspect of burnout syndrome is reduced personal accomplishment. Principals in this stage often provide negative feedback about their performance and often demonstrate dissatisfaction with accomplishments and feel unhappy about themselves and their work with their clients (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). In Figure 1, Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) show an example of a process model of burnout that depicts predictors for the subscales: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment.

Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) contend the importance of measuring the presence of burnout in educators directly impacts students. When principals' energies are drained and they are feeling fatigued, "those feelings (of emotional exhaustion) become chronic, (and) educators find that they can no longer give of themselves to students as they once could" (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 28). In addition, when positive feelings no longer exist about students or when indifference becomes prevalent, principals demonstrate depersonalization and often withdrawal psychologically from the closeness and interest that once existed with students. Finally, when principals develop a low feeling of personal accomplishment, they become

vulnerable to disappointment and lose their dedication to helping students learn and grow into productive citizens. They find it harder to find the intrinsic rewards that were once present in their careers and replaced it with a desire to work simply for money or other extrinsic rewards (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). In Figure 1, the three constructs of burnout are explained through the affects that are experienced and the costs that are later absorbed.

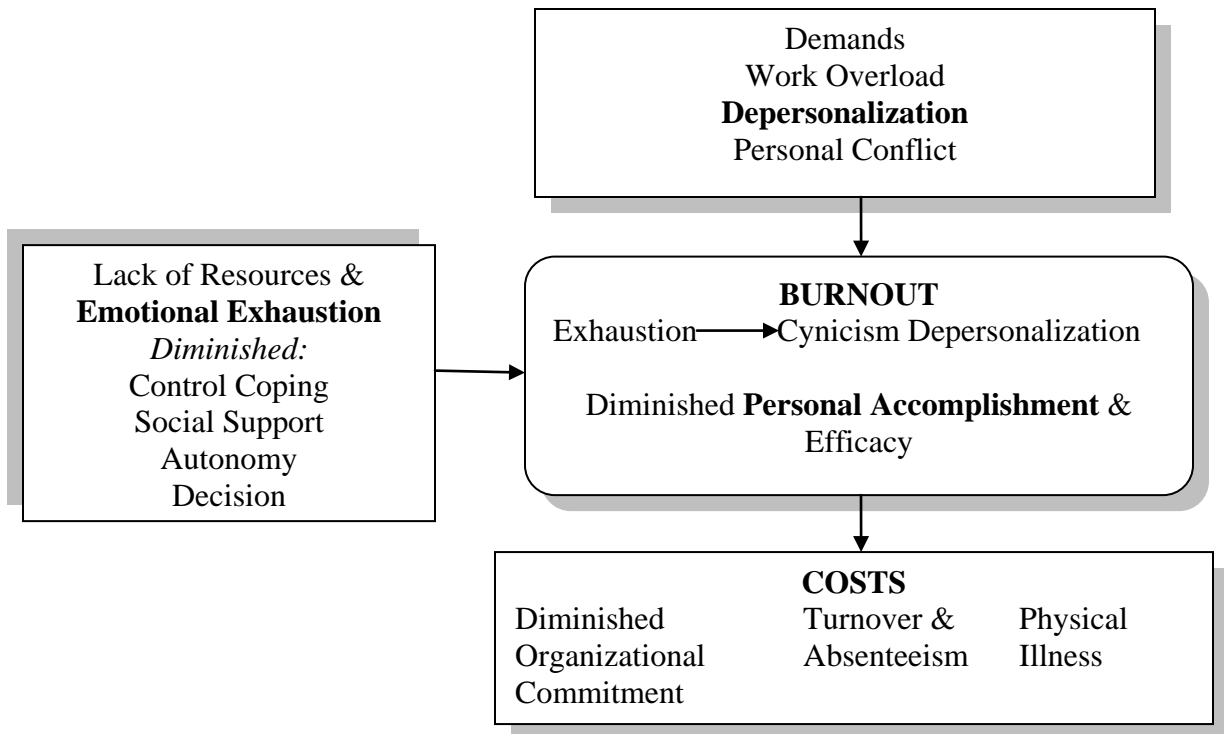


Figure 1. Effects of Burnout

Work Addictive Behaviors

Described by many as the only acceptable addiction (Porter, 2005), workaholism manifests itself in many of the work-related behaviors of principals. The term workaholism was first defined by Oates (1968) as an excessive uncontrollable need to work that permanently disturbs health, happiness, and relationships. Despite the widespread use of the word workaholism, most of the empirical research is focused on the long-term effects on workers in the private sector. Patterned

after the word alcoholism, Oates (1968) provided the first scientific definition of workaholism. He defined it as an excessive uncontrollable need to work that permanently disturbs health, happiness, and relationships. Since that early definition, other researchers have categorized workaholics as those “people who work more than 50 hours per week” (Harpaz & Snir, 2003). In addition, Mudrack and Naughton (2001) considered workaholics to be those employees who work hard and maintain a clear focus on their tasks during work hours and are unable to forget about it during the hours after work (2001). The most common definition that is being used this decade labels workaholism as “a socially atypical focus on work” (McMillan, O’Driscoll, Marsh, & Brady, 2001). The term, socially, varies among cultures including both work cultures and geography. Employers thrive on workers who possess this “good-looking” addiction. Therefore, the pressure to do more research has not been in as high of demand as that of gambling, alcoholism, drug abuse, and even eating disorders (Stein, 2006). The research on workaholism is paltry in comparison to that of other addictions (Stein, 2006). As the economy suffers and as organizations look more closely at how they do business, research into the problems that affect workers has become more critical. Empirical, employment studies that have focused primarily on corporations and other private sector economies have left a gap in the effects of work addiction on educational leaders in the public arena.

A few years ago, a person who worked 50 hours a week was considered a workaholic. Today, many people think working 60 hours a week is not very much (Harpaz & Snir, 2003). Most employers celebrate employees who work long hours and dedicate themselves fully to their work. Extended work hours and sacrifices to get tasks completed are commonplace in order to reach success and advancement in current employment culture (Harpaz & Snir, 2003). CareerCast.com created a top 10 list of the most stressful jobs in America in 2010. Although

these jobs may be some of the most high sought after jobs, their work demands and performance risks cause them to be ranked in this unique list. This list includes the following: 1) Firefighter; 2) Corporate Executive; 3) Taxi Driver; 4) Surgeon; 5) Police Officer; 6) Commercial Pilot; 7) Highway Patrol Officer; 8) Public Relations Officer; 9) Advertising Executive; and 10) Realtor.

Using a scoring range that measured five different areas – Job Environment, Income, Hiring Outlook, Physical Demands, and Stress – CareerCast.com studied 200 jobs which had a range of risk, work environments, and competitiveness. Strangely enough, this study excluded military soldiers, teachers, and nurses. Responses to the website by readers noted that the omission of these jobs led to an overall fault in this survey. One reader even wrote, “It seems safe to say that the most stressful jobs are those that fill a public need, but have the least respect in our society” (Pollack, 2010). Therefore, it would be hard to delineate exactly which jobs are the most stressful, or which ones are prone to feeding into the obsessions of a workaholic. But it is obvious to note that certain jobs which test human strength, demand 24-hour connection, and create large level of stress exist and bring upon life pressures to the employee.

The notion of 24-hour connectiveness has been exacerbated by technology. In fact, technology has become instrumental in extending the workday beyond the confines of an office. Through the use of top-notch technology, workers can readily find computer access, beam information through their handheld devices, send faxes and emails, get updated news and make calls on a cellular phone. All types of employees are able to stay in closer contact with their work than ever before in history. Home was once considered an escape from work, but since workers have been enabled to work there and virtually everywhere that has some type of wireless capacity, the “home-as-workplace trend” allows people to work around the clock (Robinson, 1998, p. 20). But the more people become connected through technology, the more they can

become disconnected from the more human elements of life (Robinson, 1998). This can cause significant difficulties creating a balance between their work lives and their daily private lives (Porter, 2001).

Moreover, workaholics suffer through the highs and lows of their addiction. Usually they are able to draw a high from their work, but eventually, similar to alcohol and other drugs, they need more and more to feel satisfied. Before long, they cannot live without the high or euphoria, and there is loss of control. Work can then be used to avoid responsibilities and real feelings. What begins as the need for perfectionism and approval from others eventually becomes a compulsion and a pursuit for self-glorification. Eventually, chronic fatigue, guilt, and fear of inadequacy become overwhelming components in a workaholic's life (Fassel, 1990). Prolonged absenteeism, withdrawal, low productivity, and on the job accidents replace what was once considered by many as simply a strong work ethic or sincere dedication (Robinson, 2000).

The virtue of hard work is taught to many of us as children. But, if a work schedule has come to rule one's life, there may be a harmful side to health and relationships. Therefore, it remains concerning that society condemns an addiction like alcoholism, but finds workaholism acceptable (Burwell & Chen, 2002). The work addiction has the potential to erode the worker's life. If workaholism is actually equated to that of an addiction like alcoholism, one's happiness and productivity in life could be threatened by an uncontrollable drive for work (Seybold & Salomone, 1994).

2.7 IDENTIFYING AND ESTABLISHING THE TYPES OF WORKAHOLICS

For more than the last two decades, several researchers have shown an interest in looking into the phenomenon of work addiction. The largest research in workaholism comes out of the private sector. Early research by Naughton (1987) proposed that there were four types of workaholics based on their commitment to work and their obsessive compulsive behaviors. They included: Job Involved Workaholics, Compulsive Workaholics, Non-Workaholics, and Compulsive Non-Workaholics. Much later, Scott, Moore, and Miceli (1997) proposed that there were three types of workaholic behavior patterns that included: Compulsive-Dependent, Perfectionist, and Achievement-Oriented. Although the titles and headings are different according to each researcher, the qualities of the individuals moving through work addiction are rather similar. The most compelling and validated research was done by Spence and Robbins (1992) and followed by Robinson (1999). Nearly all research on workaholism stems from their initial data collection tools and recommendations.

Spence and Robbins' (1992) research has become the model for many studies about workaholism. They developed three self-report scales that were used to identify the profile of the workaholic, the work enthusiast, and any other work group. They also studied the amount of time devoted to job-related duties and created additional self-report scales in the assessment areas of "Job Stress, Job Involvement, Perfectionism, Nondelegation of Responsibility, and Time Commitment" (p. 163). Spence and Robbins (1992) identified three workaholism components based on extensive review of empirical research, which included: Work Involvement, Drivenness, and Work Enjoyment.

Their research further expounded upon the properties of the workaholic by contrasting three workaholic types: compulsives, perfectionists, and work enthusiasts. The work enthusiast is highly work involved, but has high enjoyment for work, and is not driven. Enthusiasts find intrinsic motivation for their work, enjoy the process, and take great pride in the outcome and in task completion. Spence and Robbins (1992) characterized the work enthusiast further by explaining that he devotes himself completely to projects, while also using time constructively. Conversely, the compulsives are demanding, controlling, unable to delegate, and obsessive about work. Situated between both poles, the perfectionists find themselves in a world where sharing control is difficult because the goal for high standards and perfection is seen as the only option. They want things to be “just right,” and the lesser efforts of others often prevent them from being involved with groups or team-related jobs. Their study showed that workaholics who demonstrated more perfectionist behaviors and less willing to delegate or share tasks (Spence & Robbins, 1992) than that of the work enthusiast. The difference becomes clear, because the workaholic is incapable of demonstrating the characteristics of an enthusiast, but gets trapped in the other ranges for the workaholic types. Hence, they predicted that workaholics experience more stress than the work enthusiasts and possibly report more physical symptoms or illnesses than their counterparts. In fact, in their original study, Spence and Robbins (1992) did not seem to categorize the work enthusiast as an actual ‘workaholic type’. This was just the opposite. It appeared that their assessment of the concept of workaholism was based upon the contrasting profile of that of the ‘work enthusiast’. Finally, their hypotheses that the workaholic’s work performance would be of “lesser quality” than that of the work enthusiasts (Cherrington, 1980; Taylor & Martin, 1987) proved accurate.

Building upon this research of Spence and Robbins, Robinson (1999) developed the Work Addiction Risk Test (WART), a validated instrument used by clinicians to identify people who meet the criteria for workaholism. The 25-item survey with confirmed validity and reliability (Robinson 1996; Robinson & Phillips, 1995; Robinson & Post, 1994, 1995) provides a discriminate analysis of the multi-dimensional construct of workaholism characterized by the following: a) Compulsive Tendencies, b) Inability to Control Work Habits, c) Impaired Communication/Self-Absorption, d) Inability to Delegate, and e) Impaired Self-Worth (Flowers & Robinson, 2002). Using the WART, workaholics were characterized to possess less effective problem solving and communication skills, less effective involvement with others, and lower family functioning behaviors (Robinson, 1998). Using WART scores, participants' can be categorized into Not Work Addicted, Mildly Work Addicted, and Highly Work Addicted. Those falling into the category of High-Risk were more likely to have dysfunctional families, health problems, and problems with general life functions (Robinson, 2001).

2.8 EFFECTS OF WORKAHOLISM

Many people spend hours on airplanes traveling for extended periods of time, but long work hours do not simply constitute workaholism. Harpaz and Snir (2003) contend that understanding why a workaholic spends so much time in the workplace at the expense of their private life is the real issue. The addiction to work and the uncontrollable need to work constitutes the social, emotional, and health related problems related to workaholism (Robinson, 1998). Machlowitz (1980) contends that these workaholics actually draw pleasure from their work and rarely have negative physical reactions. Spence and Robbins disagreed with that assessment (1992).

Furthermore, the irrational commitment to work that is demonstrated by work addiction, can also include side effects including mood swings, compulsiveness, anxiety, sleeplessness, and interpersonal conflicts. This is similar to people suffering from other types of addictions. Workaholics use their work to escape family responsibilities, financial concerns, and health problems (Fassel, 1990). Hence, addiction can manifest itself in many ways. Deacon (1991), like other psychologists, believed that a workaholic's pursuit of on-the-job perfection actually results in a reduction of productivity (Deacon, 1991). These psychologists report that workaholics begin to lose control over their work and their lives. They experience mood swings involving rage and alienation from loved ones. Treatment has been used to aid the struggling workaholic, allowing him to recognize that these symptoms are all part of the work addiction.

There is little social stigma attached to work addiction. Workaholic bosses seek workaholic employees and create a 24/7 workplace that requires crisis-like reactions and 100% dedication. On the outside it may look like efficient, hard work. Unfortunately, the work

addiction begins to manifest itself in most cases as mild depression or a symptom of obsessive-compulsive disorder (Stein, 2006). Similar to alcoholism, workaholism is defined as a disease of excess, which creates an imbalance in a person's life and is associated with dysfunction (Bellinger, 1998). Health-related conditions often go undiagnosed or unrecognized, because the symptoms are rarely attributed to the addiction. As the addiction progresses into health-related concerns, workaholics can also experience interpersonal problems which may include a sterile lifestyle of work without normal, interpersonal interactions. This further strains or inhibits quality communication with loved ones. Hence, workaholics find that they cannot continue to work indefinitely at such a high pace without their personal lives eventually suffering (Robinson, 1998).

The largest problem dealing with family issues relating to work addiction is the fact that Western society rewards this type of work behavior. Misdiagnosis of work addiction due to lack of awareness is commonplace (Robinson, 1998), as many medical professionals still delegate work addiction to pop psychology. Workaholics may not identify their need for help until much too late, because they are keeping a pace that is expected and even celebrated by their supervisors. If they recognize how their addiction has harmed their family and friends, there is hope. Unfortunately, some psychotherapists actually suggest spending more time working as a treatment for other types of emotional ailments. Recovery for work addicts is not nearly as clear-cut as it may be for other types of addicts. There is usually no visible or tangible object like a bottle or a drug to stay away from, so workers need to begin with turning off the phone, ignoring the email, and sharing tasks with others.

The assessments of human and long-term effects of work addiction have been extensively researched by Fassel (1990) and Robinson (1998). Fassel's identification of the characteristics

and types of workaholics in her book *Working Ourselves to Death: The High Cost of Workaholism and the Rewards of Recovery* has been fashioned and supported by recovery groups like Workaholics Anonymous. Through years of qualitative studies, Fassel (1990) offers data that explores productivity, obsessiveness, and recovery of workaholics.

In Robinson's (1998) book, *Chained to the Desk: A Guidebook for Workaholics, Their Partners and Children, and the Clinicians Who Treat Them*, he explores his experiences as a psychotherapist in private practice dealing with workaholics and the families, friends, and colleagues who live and work with them. He explores the damages related to the identification of work addiction and the societal impact on our work-driven economy. Both researchers take a very empathic and pragmatic view of the treatment and recovery options of workaholics. Identifying the behaviors and characteristics of workaholics has become a significant piece of research into the recovery of work addicts. Fassel (1990) identifies the following characteristics of workaholics. They include:

1. Multiple addictions
2. Denial
3. Self-esteem problems
4. External referenting
5. Inability to relax
6. Obsessiveness (p. 26)

She also writes that relapses are frequent, because normal work deadlines and new tasks can bring on the same old compulsive behaviors (Fassel, 1990). Through extensive interviews, Fassel (1990) notes that workaholics do not choose to work long hours; the work addict has lost control, and is obsessed with work. In her efforts to guide work addicts into recovery, she has

noted that most workaholics report that they have demonstrated or suffered from one or more of the following: “dishonesty, self-centeredness, isolation, (pervasive) control, perfectionism, and/or piles and files of (accumulated) work” (Fassel, 1990, p. 38). The workaholic’s need and obsession for work even prevents him from enjoying his accomplishments along the way. Workaholics are not working this way for the money; there are unresolved psychological issues dangerously at work (Fassel, 1990). Further, the health problems, emotional needs, and reduced productivity of workaholics actually becomes a liability to a company (Robinson, 1998). Workaholics Anonymous can be a place for workaholics who desire to stop working compulsively and seek the message of recovery (Ryan & Ryan, 1993).

The review of literature has demonstrated that work of Spence and Robbins (1992) remains the standard from which most studies during the last decade and a half are based. Although Burke and Mattiesen’s (2004) research placed a focus on professional efficacy and absenteeism, the basis for their quantitative work examined the correlates of workaholism among Norwegian journalists based predominantly on the measures developed by Spence and Robbins (1992). Kart’s (2005) study of 175 Turkish, university graduates also aimed to test the reliability and validity of a new Workaholism Battery based upon the original work of Spence and Robbins (1992). Moreover, additional research based upon the work of Spence and Robbins (1992) by Kanai, Wakabayashi, and Fling (1996) and McMillan, Brady, O’Driscoll, and Marsh (2002) challenged their Work Involvement factor to favor a two-factor structure of workaholism, supporting Enjoyment and Drive as the only confirmed two-scaled model for workaholism. Regardless of the hypotheses, it appears that Spence and Robbins (1992) research remains the basis for much of the global research on work addiction.

The concept of being a workaholic is often used in jest. Yet, it is in fact a recognized addiction characterized by a person whose need to work has become so excessive that it demonstrates three properties: “the workaholic is highly involved, feels compelled or driven to work because of inner pressures, and has low enjoyment in his/her work” (Spence & Robbins, 1992, p. 162). Work addiction can disturb one’s physical health, personal happiness, interpersonal relations, or the ability to function socially. Yet work addicts should not be confused with people who are simply hard workers, say some experts. Some people simply love their work and are willing to go the extra mile to meet deadlines and exceed expectations. Fassel (1990) reminds us that “workaholics can also be unemployed, underemployed, or retired. ‘Work addict’ is a broad term that covers rushaholics, careaholics, busyaholics – any person who is driven too much to do too much” (p. 4). Workaholism is an addiction to action, and this action can take many forms.

“Workaholism is the best-dressed problem of the twentieth century” (Robinson, 1998, p. 6). The workaholic thoroughly believes that the work and even the world at times will fall apart without them. In some circles, it is prestigious to be celled, faxed, and emailed at all hours of the day, but in reality this can feed the addiction and even reward it. Some people are proud they are working so much. Some members of society view workaholism as a positive thing. It must be noted that workaholics do not choose to work long hours; they have lost control and are obsessed with work. They even feel guilty when they are not working. They prefer to work alone and focus on every small detail, as their ego is directly equated with their work (Robinson, 1998). Those who really suffer from workaholism generally do not like the label. They fear the reality of the addiction.

2.9 IMPACT ON FUNCTIONAL WORK-RELATED PERFORMANCE OF PRINCIPALS

The pace of education today may further perpetuate the problem of work addiction. With the pressures of No Child Left Behind and high stakes testing, special education documentation, and the myriad of other responsibilities facing educational leaders, it is not unusual to find school principals and superintendents with feelings of exhaustion and stress. As the job and its expectations expand, it is often a challenge to know when to work harder and when to draw back. There is a chance that many principals will fail when they are faced with the challenges of this leadership role. Leithwood et al. (2004) explored the multiple levels at which leadership should be exercised in education. They noted that “[leadership] efforts will be increasingly productive as research provides us with more robust understandings of how successful leaders make sense of and productively respond to both external policy initiatives and local needs and priorities” (p. 12). Although educational reform is “lively and messy” and educators must wrestle with many demands, Louis et al. (2010) notes that “leadership matters on all levels” and is more effective when district personnel, principals, and teachers work collaboratively to reach common goals (p. 283).

The number of educational leaders in this country is diminishing (Lehrer, 2001). The job expectations and pressures lead many away from the field, but there are those who remain. There are principals who love the job and its many responsibilities, while there are others who stay in the job because of an uncontrollable urge to maintain control. Yet, there are still those like Elmore and Fuhrman (2001) who study accountability and concede that external accountability

has made people work harder at the same old tasks. The research into work addiction and motivation as they relate to educational leaders is compelling.

Getting better acquainted with how principals' leadership styles complement or deter from their work-related behavior provides a more accurate picture of their functional work performance and their possible need for intervention. The term Functional Behavioral Assessment has found its way into educational nomenclature based upon requirements of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1997 (IDEA). The term Functional Behavioral Assessment is used when a student's behavioral problems require a team of educators to work on a plan to address those behaviors. The term "Functional Behavioral Assessment" comes from what is called a "Functional Assessment" or "Functional Analysis" in the field of applied behavior analysis. This is the process of determining the cause [or "function"] of behavior before developing an intervention. The intervention must be based on the hypothesized cause [function] of behavior (Starin, 2007). Transferring the use of this term when researching the functional work performance in principals will allow for an extensive look at how principals relate to their work, how it affects their social, physical, and emotional well-being, and how it ultimately affects the continuum of tasks required by their job. Meeting the expectations of an employment performance evaluation or how one *function on the job* can uncover the functional behaviors and purpose that a principal has for doing it and the ecological context [schools] where it exists.

In order to perform the job of school principal, he must perform many tasks. Some duties utilize a large amount of time, while others are managerial responsibilities that require less effort but must serve the needs of others. Understanding how a principal uses time and why it becomes either an enemy or best friend is an important step toward understanding and often transforming leadership. Since 2006, the University of Houston-Victoria has interviewed principals, reviewed

their daily planners, and spoken to their secretaries to find out how they spend their time on a *typical day* (Berkey, 2008). These daily activities contribute to a continuum of expectations that await a principal and demand their functional performance. Berkey (2008) has found that a day of work for a principal includes the following categories of activity, but it does not notate a principals' perception on the value of each and the possible need to triage the amount of time that they consume during a single day:

1. Safe and orderly environment
2. Fiscal management
3. Communication
4. Event supervision
5. Parents and community
6. Staff issues
7. Facilities and services management
8. Special education/504 meetings
9. Instructional leadership
10. 'Adminstrivia' (e.g., compiling reports for central office) (p. 24)

It is not surprising that when asked, most principals would shift time away from student-related and managerial tasks to strategic [e.g., vision, mission, and shared commitment] and instructional matters (Kellog, 2005), but feel a disconnect with the ability to do so (Berkey, 2008). Furthermore, Newkirk (2009) notes that this disconnect even erodes a sense of efficacy and can make educators feel miserable. This struggle to balance one's work and one's home life requirements still clouds one's decision to enter into the profession and to stay in it for a long period of time. Although many educators do not draw the large salaries that many of their

managerial cohorts do in other professions, their workaholic drive for a “psychic income,” which equates to “responsibility, meaning, and opportunity [and] recognition” (Seybold & Salomone, 1994, p. 6), is what keeps them motivated to work incessantly. There is significant, current research on the shrinking population of school principals and superintendents, yet there have not been any studies as it relates to work and life balance within this work sector. Although self-report questionnaires related to workaholism are found in various employment circles, analyses of their validity coupled with a correlation of the consequences of dysfunctional feelings about work in school leaders are lacking. Furthermore, the empirical research that identifies the types of workaholics (Spence & Robbins, 2002) does not examine professional educators. Therefore, the lack of research studies which examine the work life of principals and other educational leaders since the enactment of the NCLB Act has left a void in this professional realm.

Unfortunately for schools around the country, there are fewer people interested in becoming a principal than ever before. This shortage occurs, while the pressure to do a better job of educating students continues to build. In fact, “leaders thinking about their work is largely ignored in behavioral studies of leadership, (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004, p. 7). The principal’s job is considered one of mobility, fragmentation, and urgency. At times it is viewed with discontent quite soon after an eager new principal is hired (Daresh, 1986). The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) has created an assessment tool used to diagnose a principal’s capacity for school leadership and the skills necessary to build success in schools. The measurement reviews the principal’s capacity for (a) instructional leadership, (b) resolution of complex problems, (c) oral and written communication, and (d) developing personal strengths and the strengths of others (Kinney, 2008). These skills, recognized by the NASSP, are just one perspective on how principals can function successfully in schools during

this decade of high standards and accountability. This assessment further exemplifies the numerous expectations and pressures associated with the job.

According to Spillane et al. (2004), “Leadership is thought critical to innovation in schools” (p. 3). So what if schools are faced with a smaller number of leaders ready to take the role? The shortage of those teachers who desire to move into the principalship has hit big urban schools the hardest, but it is a problem nationwide, happening in suburban and rural schools, elementary and middle schools, as well as high schools (Lehrer, 2001). Demographics are one factor. Retirees are leaving the profession in large groups. During this decade, 40 percent of the principals will retire (Lehrer, 2001). This new world of educational leaders as Gardner (2006 in Lee et al., 2010) has described is “not like any we have ever known” (p. 14). Preparing students for the 22nd Century require teachers and leaders to learn and grow and “create systems that continuously invent and reinvent teaching and learning across career spans and...the principal is the catalyst to make the positive results happen” (Lee et al., 2010).

Could the demands for change cause the number of principals to decline even more? Beyond the instructional demands, there may be other reasons for principals to avoid the job. There could be issues when workaholicism among principals may also be the cause for a decline in the health and well-being of these educational leaders. “Can we expect that a stagnated principal who depersonalizes his staff (as part of burnout) will share decision-making with them...while he or she in reality is in need of support and energy to cope?” (Oplatka, 2004, p. 52).

Gronn and Lacey (2004) studied the feelings of vulnerability among aspiring school principals and their ability to cope with such feelings. They viewed the movement of teachers into the principalship as a “process of occupational identity change” (Gronn & Lacey, 2004, p. 406). During this identity change, new principals in their study found uncertainties associated

with their new role and work that appeared “boundary-less.” Gronn’s (2003) data identified the principalship as a job with “huge leadership expectations...(which) has become a form of ‘greedy work’ or a role occupying an ever-expanding space and requiring intensified and sustained 24/7 performance-driven levels of individual engagement” (p. 406). Their ability to reflect and learn about their new job required a socialization process into a new community of practitioners and the creation or molding of a new identity. The twenty-one aspiring principals who participated in Gronn and Lacey’s (2004) study used journaling as a way to gauge their feelings of engagement and tension as part of what was viewed as a challenging, yet transitory status. The support of mentors was seen as a positive way to navigate the new principal through his or his journey, but Gronn and Lacey (2004) explained that the aspiring principals were always aware that they were indeed on a journey. Thus, they experienced different levels of vulnerability associated with prospective leadership expectations. This is not dissimilar to the interview transcripts from workaholics who indicate that they suffer from fears related to inferiority and failure and unresolved anxiety (Pietropinto, 1986; Spruell, 1987).

Spence and Robbins (1992) focused one sample of their study on the work behaviors of social workers. Social work may draw some similarities to that of school administrators, because their duties can be considered random and vary from case-to-case and are often unrestricted by a set location or jobsite. There are also no restrictions as to the amount of work that each social worker or administrator can do each day, and direct supervision by a superior is infrequent because the job happens in the field or in a school building. Evaluators and supervisors are often based at a separate location and visits are infrequent or unplanned. Although similar in those regards, the jobs are certainly different between the social worker and school principals. Therefore, the data from Spence and Robbins (1992) may not be able to be replicated with

school principals. Both professions are quite demanding, yet the implications of increased accountability have left school administrators and their students in a volatile position. There is very little, if any research that measures the ability of principals and educational leaders to sustain a high level of functional performance and maintain a healthy life balance in the public school setting in the United States. Therefore, the research that does exist can serve as the foundation for this and other studies.

2.10 IMPACTS OF WORK ADDICTION ON HEALTH AND FAMILY

The most poignant research into work addiction focuses “mainly on the implications for the workplace, work productivity, and career counseling and development” (e.g., Matthews & Halbrook, 1990; Naughton, 1987; Porter, 1996, 1998). Empirical studies confirm that workaholics suffer from a variety of health complaints and dysfunction within their families. Although people may brag that they are a workaholic as a compliment about their work ethic, work addiction is less than a positive quality. Males who suffer from work addiction outnumber the number of females (Robinson, 2001). Symptoms become evident in teens and in individuals in their twenties, but may also emerge when someone is well into their forties or fifties (Killinger, 1991). A workplace that has a leader who is a workaholic often suffers from low morale, interpersonal conflicts, stress-related illnesses, and a lack of esprit de corps (Robinson, 1998). The workaholic suffers from a compulsive disorder which manifests itself in low self-worth and lack of intimacy. Hence, people around the workaholic suffer right along with him. Furthermore, due to their perceived level of stress and desire for perfection, they tend to suffer from anxiety, anger, and bouts of depression (Spence & Robbins, 1992).

It is also noted that the spouses of workaholics also suffer from loneliness, isolation, emotional abandonment, and resentment. Workaholics and their family members suffer from constant conflicts. The workaholic feels pressured and defensive about slowing down at work, whereas the family becomes obsessive about getting the workaholic to spend more time with them. The challenge to curb the compulsive behaviors often only makes the relationships more dysfunctional. Many large cities have chapters of Workaholics Anonymous that can provide help

to families and a 12-step program to help the workaholic to face their compulsive disorder and seek a more balanced life.

Fassel (1990) and Robinson (1998) conducted significant qualitative research on the ramifications associated with work addictive behaviors and the steps needed for recovery. Their research combined the scientific issues and clinical implications related to work addiction. Robinson contends that there are indeed different degrees of workaholism (1998). Suffering from exhaustion, being emotionally disconnected, creating crises, delusion, and suffering from stress, are not always the prerequisite for work addiction. Long hours and career commitment alone do not always constitute long-term problems either. If an employee can manage these negative results and work to increase a healthy attitude and life balance, the situation needs not progress into an addiction that requires treatment. Establishing a healthy perspective and perception of work is the best hope for individuals falling into this obsession.

Robinson (1998) also closely examined instability in families as a result of work addiction. His research as a therapist painted a vivid picture of how family members suffer through the problems associated with workaholism similar to the suffering that occurs with other addictions. He notes that conflict runs very high in a workaholic's family. Focus groups and intense therapy have also been used in the attempt to help the workaholic and guide his family members through the addiction (Robinson, 1998).

Family members are negatively impacted and have the potential to develop mental health problems also. These family members are also at a high risk for cardiovascular disease (Robinson, 2000). Spence and Robbins (1992) concur on the issues of health risks related to unhealthy work patterns. Much like the families of alcoholics, the workaholic's family becomes consumed with trying to end the compulsive behaviors. The disappointments that occur with

empty promises and absences from family events further erode the relationships among family members. Even when the workaholic parent is physically present, children still feel emotionally disconnected (Robinson, 1998). Hence, children develop feelings of inadequacy, loneliness, irritability, and depression long before a parent ever considers treatment as necessary. Children may even become workaholics themselves and become lonely, self-critical, demanding, and egotistical without even noticing the long-term negative effects (Robinson, 1998).

Moreover, Robinson (1998) conducted research on the long-term effects on the spouses of workaholics. He reported they too often feel lonely, unloved, and abandoned. Frequently, they often must serve as a single parent due to the workload the workaholic chooses to take. There is often verbal complaining on both sides, followed by marital resentment. The brittle family unit of the workaholic suffers from severe dysfunction, reduced communication, decreased problem solving, and little interest in building relationships (Robinson, 1998). The American Academy of Matrimonial Lawyers identified the preoccupation with one's work as one of top four reasons for divorce in this country (Robinson, 1998).

Work addiction was identified as a serious and legitimate compulsive disorder related to family dysfunction (Pietropinto, 1986; Robinson, 1989; Spruell, 1987). Similar to the symptoms that are suffered by alcoholics, workaholics medicate emotional pain by overworking. Evidence does suggest that workplace environments and modern technology may feed a work addiction, but they are not the root cause of this psychological problem (Robinson, 1998). Robinson's (1998) work with workaholics has documented behaviors which are characterized by withdrawal, irritability, anxiety, and depression regardless of their successes in the work arena. Their careers soar during adrenaline highs which are fueled through work binges, while their marriages and friendships deteriorate (Robinson, 1998). Furthermore, the family of workaholics live through a

firm set of work habits and rules, which ultimately affect intergenerational cycles and are passed on through family dynamics. “The overabundance of work takes precedence over everyone and everything else in the lives of workaholics. Excessive work habits prevent workaholics from forming and maintaining intimate relationships and close friendships” (Robinson, 1989, p. 42). Robinson’s research (1998) shows that hundreds of self-professed workaholics report pattern of failed marriages and weak social interactions.

Matthews and Halbrook (1990) even suggest that adults who suffered in households where workaholism was present for one or both parents actually seek high-stress jobs which replicate their own family stories, time limits, and the like. Therefore, recovery from workaholism becomes a family recovery as well as the workaholic’s recovery. In fact, those second and third generation workaholics seek stressful and chaotic workplaces, because they appear to have developed a higher tolerance for them. Furthermore, nearly four decades ago, Oates (1971) identified four symptoms that suggested that workaholism could negatively impact the development of children. Through qualitative interviews, the children of workaholics shared that their parents demonstrated some level of preoccupation and having something else on their minds. They also agreed upon haste as a second symptom, because the workaholic was always rushing around to the next work-related task. Thirdly, the children felt that their parent(s) was often irritable or even cross when family activities took them away from their work. Finally, the children recognized the absence of humor and the presence of seriousness in the home. This can be validated, because most workaholics exhibit a greater disposition for depression, stress, and perfectionism than that of their non-workaholic counterparts (Spence & Robbins, 1992).

Research suggests that workaholics have a higher disposition to die from heart attacks or become debilitated by strokes (Fassel, 1990). There are even chances for blackouts, sleep

disorders, exhaustion, ulcers, headaches, and other illnesses related to poor diet and exercise (Fassel, 1990). The slow-burn of this addiction causes stress to deteriorate the victim's health and relationships, regardless of social institutions constant affirmation that workaholic styles and work-related behaviors are helping the organization to get ahead.

2.11 COPING AND TREATMENT FOR WORK ADDICTED EMPLOYEES

Treating work addiction is rarely a simple task. As with other addictions, an individual must seek help and the desire to change. Clinicians look at three key areas when treating a workaholic (Robinson, 1998). First, they ask their patients to address their problems with setting boundaries. This is because a workaholic is challenged to define limits to their work patterns and their frequent excuses for going beyond them. Denial is complicated and runs rampant with work addicts who quickly justify their behaviors with these excuses. Next, clinicians help their patients to look closely at time management, unrealistic deadlines, and priorities. It is not unrealistic for a workaholic to forget to eat or spend time with family members. Small gains for making time to watch television or work out at the gym are rewarded during treatment. Finally, clinicians try to teach workaholics to “blend work with play and labor with leisure” (Robinson, 1998, p. 41). This can backfire and at times exacerbate the problem, when the workaholic replaces work addiction for a competitive type of sport or highly structured activity. It simply relocates the behavior to a new part in the individual’s life. Although not a medical treatment per se, a clinician asks the workaholic to find more ways to introduce humor into his life and into the lives of those around him. Since laughter releases endorphins, it can mitigate the pains and stressors that are plaguing the workaholic. “Anger can kill workaholics; laughter can heal and sustain them” (Robinson, 1998, p. 112).

The field of education situates itself appropriately into work addiction. There are several examples related to why this portends a suitable breeding environment for dysfunction. For

example, most tasks are required as a whole group (staff), but delivered by one (principal or teacher). This lack of intimacy with others is harmful to the workplace. Another example

includes an environment where there is a climate of frenzy and tension that is critical or intolerant of mistakes (Robinson, 1998). This could involve a situation when parents want satisfaction. They can be intolerant and only want to speak to the person in charge (principal). This erratic behavior of blame and pressure exacerbates work addiction. Also, the accumulation of academic degrees and diplomas is expected and required of the life-long learner in academia. Society seems to measure people by our accomplishments; these external measures begin to define self-worth in the eyes of the workaholic. This compulsion to solve unsolvable problems or reach one unreachable goal after another is significant to a workaholic.

Schaefer (1989) explains that there are “ingestive” addictions like alcohol, nicotine, drugs, food, and sugar which we consume to “numb out.” These addictions can be visibly apparent and can cause community dismay and dismissal for principals. Conversely, there are “process addictions” that are processes to numb out like work, gambling, sex, and over-spending. Principals can find themselves hiding a process addiction like workaholism to satisfy their own compulsions and to meet the numerous expectations of others. When psychologically and physically compromised, a workaholic is headed for disaster. Organizations need to set boundaries to help their employees avoid this disastrous path.

The demanding desire for the hero-principal who can manage the extensive work expectations of today’s educational era of external accountability, is creating the potential for many in the profession who may be in need of treatment or future care. Whether or not a principal would seek out a 12-step program or an employee assistance program to solve their work addictive behaviors and reconnect relationships with their families and society is unknown.

Moreover, teachers are suffering from work addiction along side of their principals. Nogg and Davies (1985) studied elementary and junior high teachers. Using two different scales, 56% had tendencies toward workaholism. Both groups also experienced burnout due to their perceived school climate and feelings of depersonalization. If teachers are affected along with principals, what is the future going to be like for students? Workaholism is still taken lightly in most workplaces, this cannot include the schools.

(It is) the acceptable face of addiction. Employers love it. Schools encourage it. Professional men and women often depend on it for self-esteem. High achievers accept it as a road to success. Entire communities – from corporations to newly industrialized nations – are proud of their indulgence in it. But let us be clear. Workaholism is a weakness, not a strength. It funnels experience, robbing the victim of all the rest that life has to offer. No particular group is spared. It afflicts business executive, academics, politicians, consultants and professional men and women without discrimination (Thorne & Johnson, 1988, p. vii).

“Many principals are unable to cope with the growing demands and the resulting (job) stress. Exhausted, they are retiring silently. Many of those who remain are increasingly weary” (Brown, 2006, p. 525) and make several on the job mistakes. Most principals operate in an isolating environment that offers only intrinsic rewards or satisfaction primarily from their own vantage point (Malone & Caddell, 2000).

Bureaucracy, parent problems, union complaints, decreases in funding, changing in special education, and test score accountability are just some of the frustrations facing principals today. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) 1998 study showed the typical principal working ten hours a day, while also devoting eight hours a week to school-related activities which often occurred in the evenings. The principal serves as the ambassador to their school. The compendium of skills that are needed to make school meaningful for students often comes at a price.

Understanding that work addiction exists will offer another avenue for schools to recruit and retain principals who offer a more balanced outlook on work and optimal performance without stress and health complaints. Recognizing that workaholics are indeed suffering in the mix will help schools and businesses to grow. Robinson (1998) suggests that workaholics need consistency and moderation to thrive. It is similar to the tortoise and the hare. The hare (workaholic) rushes through bursts of energy and highs and lows. Whereas, the successful tortoise (work enthusiast) can plod along with high-performance over time with delayed gratification and teamwork. Learning the art of prioritizing, delegating, and negotiating will offer the benefits for greater rewards in the principal's career trajectory (Robinson, 1998). It is a lifelong process to recover from work addiction. Principals who can create a balance between life and work are needed more than ever to meet the high standards that the nation has set for our children and our schools.

2.12 REACHING OPTIMAL EXPERIENCES AT WORK

There is the age old question asked related to whether a leader is born or made. Many theorists will say that it is easier to teach someone to be a manager than a leader (Giuliani, 2002). There are day-to-day tasks that need to be completed to help the workplace run more smoothly. Those tasks are unavoidable, but creating a capacity for effective leadership where followers seek to achieve a mission and vision in tandem is vital. In fact, “effective leaders are, consciously or unconsciously, practicing leadership skills everyday” (Daniels & Daniels, 2007, p. 37). They rely on a blend of management and leadership to reinforce behaviors that are asked for and deliver the reinforcements for the behaviors when they do or do not occur. Daniels & Daniels (2007) further write that “you don’t lead by results; you lead to results” (p. 52). Leaders shoulder the responsibility for creating positive work environments that cause people to do their best every day and reach to meet and exceed the vision. It is their job to “define the path and align the resources, actions, and energy to accomplish the goals” (Charan, 2007, p. 274).

There are indeed more workers (teachers) than there are leaders (principals), hence keeping these workers occupied and engrossed in meaningful activity is essential for those leaders at the helm (Sergiovanni, 1992). Keeping test scores up; making sure a curriculum is well articulated; monitoring safety practices; balancing social development with pop culture; and so much more are allocated to the job of school leaders. “Because principal leadership is the second most significant factor influencing student achievement (Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004), leadership development is a strategic investment for transforming teaching and learning” (Lawrence, Santiago, Zamora, Bertani, & Bocchino, 2008). A principal’s ability to

align his values and behaviors with a vision, while also reinforcing the critical behaviors of others, will move closer to reaching goals for student achievement and “thrive on even more challenging goals and objectives in the future” (Daniels & Daniels, 2007, p. 34).

Finding contentment and happiness in the midst of the paperwork and student discipline may be a challenge for some, but “meaningful work is not determined by what people do, but rather what happens to them when they do it” (Daniels & Daniels, 2007, p. 112). So, what happens to an enthusiastic principal who demonstrates work addictive behaviors, but manages to keep a school running smoothly and continues to come back to work day after day and year after year? Determining the principal’s level of job satisfaction, fulfillment, and the happiness he reaps while performing the daily tasks, can be a clarifying look into the job and the people who do it.

Our energies are divided among production, maintenance, and leisure activities (Csikszentmihaly, 1997). Out of those three areas, most of our time is spent working and interacting with others. This is certainly true for principals. There are numerous conflicts, responsibilities, and other tasks that dominate the usage of time, yet there is research that demonstrates that there are ways in which people enjoy life despite the adversity. Being knowledgeable about how one uses time and how one successfully manages stress, anxiousness, boredom, loneliness, and leisure can provide insight on how some people find positive, peak moments through their own focused energy, while others do not. The passage of time has a great deal to do with our responsibilities, but how we experience these events is even more important. There are some people who avoid burn-out, the depletion of mental resources, and feel energetic and engaged with the demands of their job (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, Jackson, 1996). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) define this form of work engagement as positive

state of mind that allows for one to feel dedication, vigor, and absorption in one's work. This absorption allows for a person to feel engrossed in their work. In fact, this absorption seems to make a person sense that time passes very quickly, and it is so pleasurable that it is often difficult to detach from the work. This absorption is close to what has come to be known as "flow" (Csikszentmihaly, 1990). If principals find happiness in their work and what they are feeling, wishing, and thinking are in perfect harmony, they can be inspired by the experience of "flow" (Csikszentmihaly, 1997).

"Flow" was introduced and researched by Croatian psychologist Mihaly Csikszentmihaly (1992). He has spent his life researching "flow" and describes it as being completely involved in an activity for its own sake. His research describes "flow" as a feeling of total engagement and genuine satisfaction. The ego falls away and time flies. Every action, movement, and thought follow inevitably from the previous one, and a person's whole being is involved. Skills are used to the utmost and "consciousness is controlled" (Csikszentmihaly, 1990, p. 6). There are people who experience "flow" and regardless of their condition or situation, are happy and satisfied with the world around them, and manage to make those around them happier as well. Csikszentmihaly (1990) wrote the following:

Such individuals lead vigorous lives, are open to a variety of experiences, keep on learning until the day they die, and have strong ties and commitments to other people and to the environment in which they live. They enjoy whatever they do, even if tedious or difficult; they are hardly ever bored, and they can take in stride anything that comes their way. Perhaps their greatest strength is that they are in control of their lives. (p. 10)

In light of the amount of work that it takes educational leaders to accomplish the goals for their school, it could be asked by an observer if the job is worth the stress. If "flow" is present for principals in their daily tasks, it would be valuable to determine if the amount of satisfaction that is gained is enough to outweigh the costs of the job. Furthermore, it would also be prudent to

explore if the desire for “flow” actually accentuates the principals’ vulnerability to demonstrate work addictive behaviors. Finding happiness and contentment in life and in one’s work has been studied with vigor in the last two decades (Csikszentmihaly, 1997). Happiness related to the work lives of principals has received little attention, but may indeed assist in the increased concern about the limited number of individuals seeking this profession.

Although Csikszentmihaly’s (1990) research into “flow” started with those in artistic fields and moved swiftly to dancers and athletes, he and his contemporaries began studying mothers, chess players, nurses, white collar and blue collar workers, and more. His dedication to studying over 400,000 people and their experiences with “flow” was documented using an experience sampling method (Csikszentmihaly, 2007) that measured moment-by-moment typology and intensity for behaviors and motivations. Asking participants to provide self-reports to questions following a random buzzing method throughout the day, afforded Csikszentmihaly (2007) and his team with the ability to capture daily events in life and an opportunity to examine the fluctuations in participants’ streams of consciousness about queries focused on “physical context (location, time of day), social context (number and description of others sharing the moment), activities, thoughts, feelings, and cognitive and motivational self reports” (p. 6). This method replaced diaries and interviews, because Csikszentmihaly’s team preferred the prospect of receiving data that was unbiased, spontaneous, and would not provide enough time or interest in giving responses that would only be perceived as socially desirable. Given the 15-50 random snapshots during the day for participants, the experience sampling method was deemed the scientific way to determine the amount of “flow” present and under what conditions.

As shared earlier in this work, “flow” is the feeling of being completely involved in an activity for its own sake. It is described as a feeling of total engagement and that is genuinely

satisfying. Through exhaustive data collection, Csikszentmihaly and his team from the University of Chicago in the early 1970's noted that when a person was in "flow," there was no 'excess psychic energy left over' to process any information but what the activity had to offer. People are absorbed in their tasks and energy flows smoothly and that energy is heightened. Csikszentmihaly (1990) calls "flow" the optimal experience. When one considers a rock climber or a champion equestrian in "flow," it may appear effortless. This is not the case; it happens with concentration and skill, the absence of doubt, uncertainty, or negative reflection.

The most universal and distinctive features of the optimal experience takes place (when) people become so involved in what they are doing that the activity becomes spontaneous, almost automatic; they stop being aware of themselves as separate from the actions they are performing. (p. 53)

Since "flow" is aligned with happiness, freedom, and enjoyment, it is able to resolve the tensions between anxiety and boredom. "Flow" finds the better balance between challenge and skill when goals are clear and feedback is available and often immediate. Even when feedback is delayed, a person who learns how to set goals and gauges that feedback discovers that enjoyment can occur. Hence, "flow" can occur when a person begins to realize goals and manage feedback that is logically related to progress toward those goals. Sometimes this optimal experience, even if initiated for some reason like financial rewards or a promotion, may become consuming and intrinsically motivating. Some individuals would say that they would do their work even if they didn't get paid, or they would work hard and spend a lot of money on a hobby, because they so enjoy the way they feel while pursuing it.

Csikszentmihaly (1990) defines the word 'autoletic' as a self-contained activity that is not done with an expectation of a future reward, rather for the reward of actually doing it. The word comes from the two Greek words, *auto* meaning self, and *telos* meaning goal (p. 67). Most people find that things that they do are a blend of autoletic and exoletic (doing something

for an external reason only) reasons. “Flow” is experienced when those things move into the full autoletic realm.

In simple terms Csikszentmihaly’s (1992) research showed that most people are generally unhappy ‘doing nothing.’ After 250,000 surveys in several countries, he noted that there is no correlation between intelligence and “flow.” It did not matter what type of salary someone received or did not receive; most people long for happiness and complete engagement in achieving their goals. People reflect that work is a major factor in our productive lives. Therefore if we spend the most amount of time at work or letting work define our worth and productivity, would it not be a better experience if we were happy and in “flow” during that time? Olympic athletes are not the only ones who can reach “flow” when they push beyond their own boundaries. Even those activities that are limited in physical or psychological skill can become more enjoyable when they are able to produce “flow.” Csikszentmihaly (1997) wrote,

The essential steps in the process are: (a) to set an overall goal, and as many subgoals as are realistically feasible; (b) to find ways of measuring progress in terms of the goals chosen; (c) to keep concentrating on what one is doing, and to keep making finer and finer distinctions in the challenges involved in the activity; (d) to develop the skills necessary to interact with the opportunities available; and (e) to keep raising the stakes if the activity becomes boring (p. 97).

2.13 PARADOX: HAVING MORE FREE TIME OR HAVING MORE WORK?

There is no specific number or formula that exists that delineates the correct amount of time a person should or should not work. Some cultures spend more time working than those of us in the United States, while others spend less. In fact, different types of jobs and when in history those jobs were done paint a very unique look at how much time people actually worked. Although varied, work is a common endeavor to all of us. The level of contentment that we each have for the way we make a living is often radically divergent. Sigmund Freud (1921) believed that the only true recipe for happiness is “work and love”. In Csikszentmihaly’s (1990) interviews with people, he asked them if they would rather be doing something else besides working. He found a paradox to be present; it appeared that when people were on the job, they expressed feelings of challenge, happiness, creativity, and satisfaction. In their free time, they often expressed feelings of boredom, sadness, and dissatisfaction. Yet on nearly every occasion, people said that they would prefer to have more free time and work less.

The results showed that people wished to be doing something else to a much greater extent when working than when at leisure, and this regardless of whether they were in “flow.” In other words, motivation was low at work even when it provided “flow,” and it was high in leisure even when the quality of the experience was low (p. 159)

With this contradiction present, it appears evident that people experience work-related stress differently and manage their conflicts, expectations, and pressures in very personal ways. They struggle with their responsibilities when balancing home and work life regardless of the type of work that they do. The pressure imposed from the outside world to work and do good work can be considered a burden. “It could be argued that although “flow” at work is enjoyable,

people cannot stand high levels of challenge all of the time. They need to recover at home.” (Csikszentmihaly, 1990, p. 160). Csikszentmihaly (1990) finds that people, who develop a way to enjoy their work and do not waste their free time, end up feeling that life becomes more worthwhile. This can be a life-long journey to some to reach this level of happiness and balance. Reaching that balance or not reaching the balance does not eliminate the responsibilities for working. Therefore, exploring how “flow” can maximize happiness and satisfaction may be the key to keep principals seeking the job and doing it successfully for longer periods of time.

One aspect in the literature explores the work-related, functional behaviors that relate to the principalship and how the demands of the job positively and negatively affect the number of individuals seeking the profession in the future. Functional psychology was first addressed by early psychologists John Dewey and G. Stanley Hall Boring (1957). Functionalism is at its core concerned with cause and prediction. Boring (1957) wrote that to be a functionalist was to be "more interested in the future than the past, to prefer to ride facing forward on the train" (p. 551). Thus, borrowing from Haynes and O'Brien's (1990) definition of functional analysis, functional behavior can be assessed by, "the identification of important, controllable, causal functional relationships applicable to a specific set of target behaviors for an individual" (p. 654). Regardless of the tool or measurement device, it is clear that the effectiveness of the educational leader in a school building is paramount to determine why so few seek the job, how they can remain in the position, and how they can functionally perform the myriad of duties.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

Exploring the impacts of high-stakes accountability measures, as embodied in the NCLB legislation, on the work-related habits of principals is an area of research that has received little attention. In fact, discovering why there is a shrinking pool of administrators and such a high attrition rate in the educational workforce is critical to the future of schools and the education of young people today. Examining the educational leader's capacity for dealing with societal demands, personal goals, familial priorities, and professional responsibilities in a healthy and productive manner may shed greater light onto these issues. Aspiring principals are all too aware of the drawbacks of the job. In a study by the National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality (2008), those new to the principalship cited accountability pressures, lack of parental support, politics and bureaucracy, less job security, and lack of quality time with students as some of their reasons for not moving forward with their career aspirations. Yet for those who do move forward and become principals, questions remain about the type of work and lifestyle that awaits them when they take their post.

This study provides research into the work characteristics of middle level principals in Western Pennsylvania. Utilizing data that explored job characteristics, interpersonal relationships on the job, and the presence of job stressors, a job profile of these principals was established. Furthermore, data demonstrated the extent burnout has impacted these principals and the reasons

they give for remaining or ultimately, planning to leave their post. “Although a few of them may withdraw, give up, and suffer burnout, others appear to tolerate the stress, if not thrive on it”

(Brock & Grady, 2002, p. 1). Professional organizations in the field of education have used the media to report the shortages of principals and superintendents around the country, but few have shared specific reasons for this phenomenon. This research explored the relationships that exist between work addictive subgroup behaviors as defined by Spence and Robbins (1992) and the demands that are instilled by increased accountability and other job expectations for school principals. My former role as a middle school principal for more than thirteen years permitted me to see the significant, potential value of this research for my colleagues and the educational community. Working in a suburban, high achieving school district, I bring my own beliefs related to high stakes testing and work demands. Although my own work experiences may or may not have been similar to the middle level colleagues who participated in the study, it was possible for me to review the data with an informed and inquisitive perspective.

The information gathered in this study related to the work-related, functional behaviors of school principals and how the demands of the job positively and negatively affect job satisfaction, work characteristics, and the number of individuals joining the profession in the era of increased accountability will help to inform the educational community. This is a critical time in the field of education as state and federal regulations increase and the candidate pool for administrators is decreasing.

Research Questions

1. What are middle level principals’ perceptions of their work-related behaviors?
2. To what degree has increased accountability impacted the work-related behaviors of middle level principals?
3. What are the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals?

Study Limitations

This study is limited by the following:

1. The sample included only those participants who elected to respond to a survey and/or an interview.
2. The sample was limited to represent middle school principals from the region of Western Pennsylvania.
3. The following situations would presumably influence or reflect a principal's job satisfaction: Annual Yearly Progress; the school district's socio-economic structure; and the size of the district.
4. The largest urban school district in the region was not permitted to participate. A study with principals from this district may have yielded different results.
5. Although all efforts were made to assure confidentiality, responses were perhaps subject to socially desirable effects.
6. Due to the requirement of full confidentiality established by the Internal Review Board (IRB) at the University of Pittsburgh, it was not possible to link participant responses and data results from different instruments.

3.1 DATA COLLECTION

Data for this study were collected by combining the quantitative method of a survey questionnaire and the qualitative method of personal interviews. According to Mertens (2005), the order of quantitative, then qualitative data collection, qualifies this as a sequential mixed methods design. Mertens (2005) points out that mixed methods are valuable for solving “a problem that is present in a complex educational or social context” (p. 293). The value is created by the multiple approaches to data collection which allows the researcher to draw conclusions and obtain a more complete picture about the complex issue. The complex nature of leadership and the role of principals and the dynamics of human behavior, with regards to work-related behavior and psychology, made a mixed methods design appropriate for this study.

Utilizing a survey coupled with a qualitative approach provided for first-hand feedback from practicing school administrators. Gathering data in a mixed methods approach offered a better understanding of the participants’ beliefs, lifestyles, motivations, and stressors in relation to their work and the demands for student achievement and accountability. Gathering data that demonstrated how practicing principals managed their jobs both professionally and personally was prudent and useful in order to better understand a constellation of their work behaviors and self-perceptions of those activities.

3.1.1 SAMPLE

Middle level principals representing 141 schools were invited to participate in this study. This group of principals from Western Pennsylvania was employed by their school district to work in a school building that serviced students in grade configurations that range developmentally from grades 4-9, but specifically included eighth (8th) grade students.

The principals were representative of urban, suburban, and rural school districts in Western Pennsylvania. The use of this subset of middle school principals provided for a more plausible enumeration of the population of K-12 principals, while also focusing more specifically on the expectations of a middle school principal versus those tasks related to elementary and high school principals. Middle school principals in Pennsylvania include the largest subset of tested students on the PSSA. These tests are given in all grade levels and in the subjects of Writing, Reading, Mathematics, and Science. The study may have included principals who were not serving in their current capacity last year, but are now serving as that school's building current principal. Assistant principals were not invited to participate in the study. The populations included only those middle level administrators who were employed in Western Pennsylvania. This particular population was selected because they work directly with a group of children in grade levels that are all assessed by the PSSA exams consistently. In addition, these principals do work that is often affected by adolescent, developmental needs of their students.

The participants were provided with a consent to participate and confidentiality was explained and guaranteed (See Appendix A). Participants completed a self-report, online

questionnaire (See Appendix B). This questionnaire gathered demographic data and asked participants to questions related to their own experiences in their current workplace.

Instrumentation

Following the retrieval of demographic data, participants were invited to continue with an electronic, survey tool through *SurveyMonkey*. There were three instruments combined to gather data for this study. These instruments were used to gather both quantitative and qualitative data and offered a thorough approach to provide rich, thoughtful data. The third instrument was not used in its original entirety, and questions related to the instrument were used as probes during follow-up interviews. These instruments included the following:

1. Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey (1980) JDS

Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1980) was originally used as the most influential paradigm in job research design and was deemed applicable in administrative jobs in educational settings (Eckman, 2000; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Tongues, 1997). This instrument has aided researchers in determining the effects of job characteristics, interpersonal characteristics, and role stressors in the context of secondary school administration.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) developed job characteristics that examined the motivational forces that pertain to one's work; interpersonal characteristics that explored relationships with others; role stress that explored the pressures in the employment position; and identified five psychological states that investigated the experiences that one gains from the work itself (See Appendix C). Their conceptualization of each variable is included below:

Job Characteristics

Skill Variety is the extent to which a job requires an employee's special skills and talents. This is measured by three items.

Task Identity is the degree to which one completes projects from beginning to end with an outcome. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Task Significance is the degree to which the job has substantial impact on people. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Autonomy is the degree of independence and discretion the employee is provided. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Feedback from Job is the degree of direct and clear information that an employee is given regarding performance. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Interpersonal Characteristics

Social Integration is the degree to which a person has close friends among colleagues. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Feedback from Supervisor is the extent that an individual receives feedback from a supervisor. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Role Stress

Role Conflict was defined by Bacharach et al. (1990) as the incompatibility of demands. There are seven items assessed in this category.

Role Ambiguity was also conceptualized by Bacharach et al. (1990), and is defined by a lack of specificity in the job responsibilities. This characteristic is measured by five items.

Role Overload was defined by Kahn (1980) as the pressure to do more work than hours permit and the feeling that quantity interferes with quality. This characteristic is measured by three items.

2. Maslach's Burnout Inventory (2001) MBI

Conceptualized as a syndrome in response to chronic stressors on the job, burnout was operationally measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory (2001). Burnout is considered to encompass three significant issues. These issues are measured by the instrument's three subscales, which include emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Also included in Thomas-Shaw's (2004) research, these three dimensions were considered applicable in administrative jobs in educational settings (See Appendix C).

Feelings of emotional exhaustion occur when there is a depletion of a principal's emotional resources. They are no longer able to give to others on a psychological level. The next aspect of burnout syndrome is the development of depersonalization. This is characterized by a principal's feelings about his or her clientele. This perception can be manifested in callous or even negative feelings about their clients. In fact, Wills (1978) documented about human services workers often feel their clients deserve their troubles in this aspect. Coupled with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization seems to be related to that emotional exhaustion and is correlated as such. The final aspect of burnout syndrome is reduced personal accomplishment. Principals in this stage often provide negative feedback about their performance and often demonstrate dissatisfaction with accomplishments and feel unhappy about themselves and their work with their clients (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Permission to use the MBI was granted February 8, 2010 CPP # 18482 (See Appendix F).

Burnout

Emotional Exhaustion describes feelings of being emotionally exhausted because of the work and is measured by eight items from Maslach (2001).

Depersonalization describes detached and impersonal treatment of participants and is measured by five items from Maslach (2001).

Personal Accomplishment describes beliefs of competence and successful achievement at work and is measured by seven items from Maslach (2001).

Psychological States

Experienced Meaningfulness is the work that has personal significance to the person doing it. This characteristic is measured by four items.

Experienced Responsibility is the degree to which a person's outcomes depend upon their own efforts and decisions. This characteristic is measured by five items.

Knowledge of Results of the Work is a feedback measure to provide knowledge about one's work performance. This characteristic is measured by four items.

Experienced Attachment to Co-Workers is defined by Tonges (1996) as the degree to which someone feels a sense of connection to others in their local work group. This characteristic is measured by two items.

Experienced Stress in the Workplace was conceptualized by Motowildo et al. (1986) and cited in Tonges (1996) as the strain a person experiences as a reaction to job stressors. This characteristic is measured by four items.

Job Satisfaction is the opportunity of the job holder to associate their own work as personally satisfying. This characteristic is measured by five items.

3. Robinson's Work Addiction Risk Test (1990) WART

Robinson (1999) developed the Work Addiction Risk Test (WART), a validated instrument used by clinicians to identify people who meet the criteria for workaholism. When used in its entirety with confirmed validity and reliability (Robinson 1996; Robinson & Phillips, 1995; Robinson & Post, 1994, 1995), the 25-item survey provides a discriminate analysis of the multi-dimensional construct of workaholism characterized by the following: a) Compulsive Tendencies, b) Inability to Control Work Habits, c) Impaired Communication/Self-Absorption, d) Inability to Delegate, and e) Impaired Self-Worth (Flowers & Robinson, 2002). Constructs for *Compulsive Tendencies* were used in this study (See Appendix E). WART questions were used during interviews with participants who volunteered for additional study.

Table 1. The Five Factors and Corresponding Items from the Work Addiction Risk Test

Factor	Items
Compulsive Tendencies	3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 15, 18, 19, and 20
Control	2, 4, 11, 12, 16, 17, and 22
Impaired Communication/Self Absorption	13, 21, 23, 24, and 25
Inability to Delegate	1
Self-Worth	9 and 10

Table 2. Use of measures to support the research questions

<p>1. <i>What are middle level principals' perceptions of their work-related behaviors?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic Data and Workplace Questionnaire (See Appendix B) • Interview questions including selected questions from the WART (1999) • Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980)
<p>2. <i>To what degree has increased accountability impacted the work-related behaviors of middle level principals?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview questions including selected questions from the WART (1999) • Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980)
<p>3. <i>What are the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview questions including selected questions from the WART (1999) • Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980) • Maslach's Burnout Inventory (2001)

3.1.2 COLLECTION PROCESS

The collection process for the quantitative data consisted of two emails to the specified population of principals in Western Pennsylvania. The initial e-mail invitation introduced potential candidates to the study and asked for their willingness to participate. Informed consent was explained prior to conducting any research procedures and participants were aware that they could withdraw from participation at any time. The University of Pittsburgh's Internal Review Board granted permission to continue with this study on March 10, 2010 (See Appendix B).

This initial email included the consent to participate and contained a link to the electronic survey that gathered demographic data and responses to closed-ended survey questions. An electronic medium, *SurveyMonkey*, was used because it offered both efficient way to reach the 141 potential participants and cost-effective means for collecting survey data. Principals also have the ease of computer access and Internet through their school district or home Internet services making the electronic survey a less burdensome exercise for completion. Approximately three weeks after the electronic mailing of the link to the survey instrument, a follow-up electronic mail message was sent to the sample population. This message encouraged those who had not completed the survey to do so. A total of 59 middle level principals completed the survey.

At the end of the survey, participants were asked if they would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview. Thirty-two participants volunteered to do so. A randomized sampling of those volunteers was conducted using Research Randomizer. In an effort to select participants so that all of the members of the sample had an equal chance of being selected, a random sample was deemed appropriate. Since its release in 1997, Research Randomizer has been used to

generate number sets over 10.5 million times. This service is part of Social Psychology Network. Nine interviews were scheduled with this random group of participants. These interviews were designed to provide additional data, clarity, and specificity to the quantitative data. The interviews were scheduled and took place in the participant's school, by telephone, or in a convenient location of the participant's choice. This smaller, sample group allowed the researcher to capture a deeper understanding of the work characteristics.

Sample Summary

Survey Population =

- 141 Middle School Principals identified through the *Pittsburgh Business Times* 2009
 - 45% (n=59) completed the entire online survey

Interview Population =

- Selected from volunteers using *Research Randomizer*
 - 54% (n=32) volunteered and 31% (n=10) of those volunteers were selected for interviews
 - 90% (n=9) of selected volunteers completed the full interview process

The Study Flow Chart is included on the next page. It demonstrates a review of literature that occurred in 2009, data collection processes in early 2010, and data analysis and discussion in late 2010.

Overview Defense December 2009

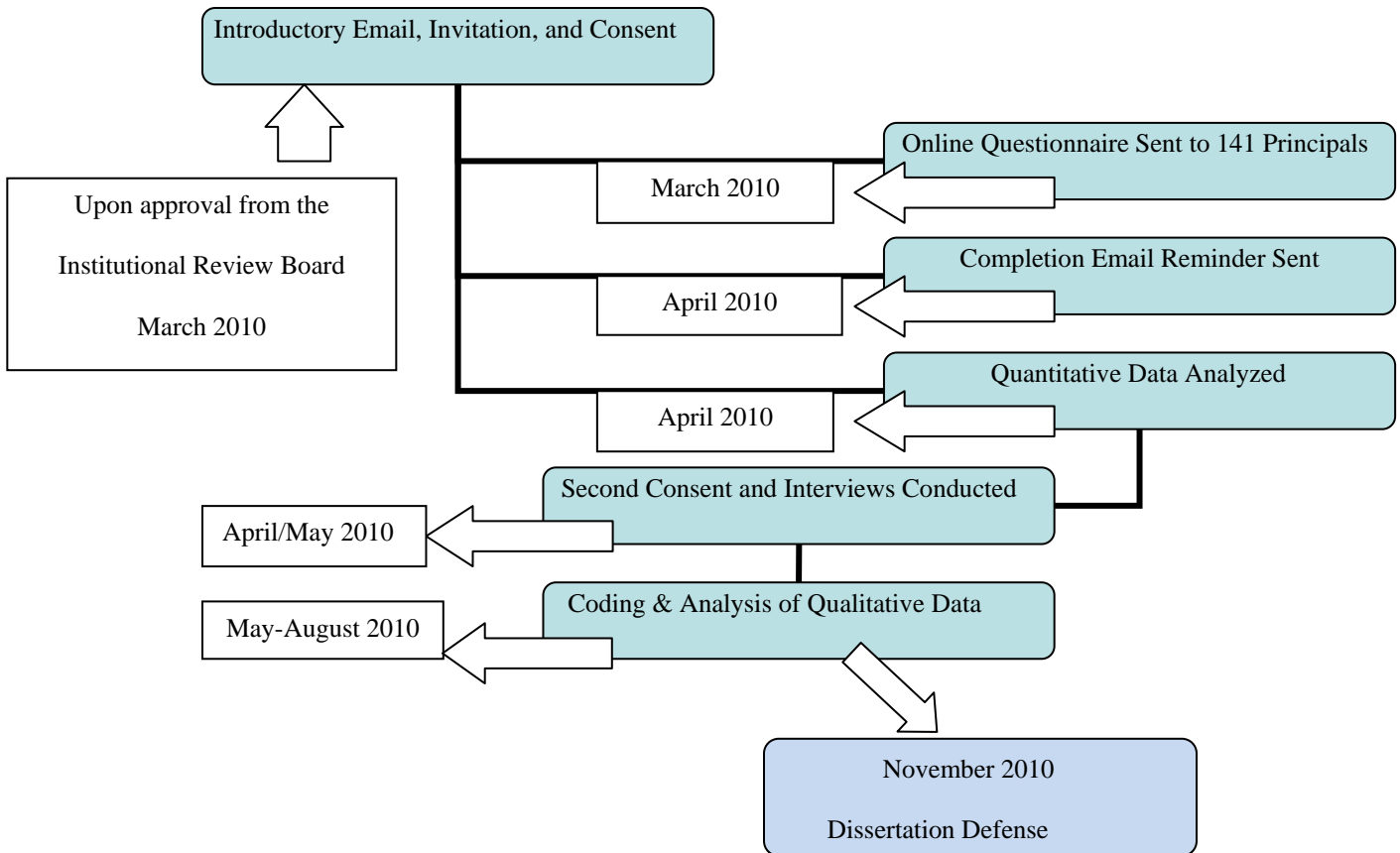


Figure 2. Study Flow Chart

3.1.3 MEASURES

After the questionnaires were completed and survey data were collected, frequency distributions across the responses were tabulated. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with principals who volunteered during their survey. A random sample based upon those participants who volunteered was identified. These nine principals represented a mixed gender population. The questions that were used in the interviews included a reduced portion of the WART coupled with questions related to levels of accountability in middle schools in Western Pennsylvania. In addition, there were additional questions used to examine the impact of amplified job expectations in an era of increased accountability (See Appendix E). The inclusion of the WART questions related to *compulsion* (See Table 1) as indicated by Spence and Robbins (1992) included the following sample statements:

- I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.
- I stay busy and keep many "irons in the fire".
- I find myself doing two or three things at one time, such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the telephone.
- I overly commit myself by biting off more than I can chew.
- I feel guilty when I am not working on something.
- It is important that I see the concrete results of what I do.
- I get angry when people don't meet my standards of perfection.
- It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working.
- I spend more time working than on socializing with friends, on hobbies, or on leisure activities.

The survey data were augmented by personal interviews with random, volunteer principals to gain even more information about their work-related behaviors. An outline of questions from the semi-structured, personal interviews is included in Appendix E. These in-depth questions provided clarification and probed this population of principals to gain more specific data about whether optimal work experiences like “flow” are enough for principals who suffer from burnout to stay enthusiastically engaged in their work, or does the lack of “flow” contribute negatively to the participants’ well-being and functional performance. These qualitative interviews were conducted after the survey data were analyzed, so that the interviews could focus on specific findings from the quantitative data analysis. Notes were taken during the interviews to allow for specific thoughts to be captured at the time of the interview.

Systematic coding (See Appendix I) was used to further evaluate the results of the interviews and iterative coding (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was employed with the transcripts of the interviews as they were reviewed. This provided for confirmation of the initial hypotheses and to reexamine patterns that emerged. It became evident that using Glaser and Strauss’ (1967) constant comparative method as a component of the Grounded Theory Method was beneficial when observations among interviews were compared to one another and when evolving inductive theory was explored. By reviewing each category and comparing incidents applicable to each, evidence of similar phenomenon from case to case emerged. This conceptualization allowed any imprecise notions or concepts to become more specific and precise (Babbie, 2007). Linking both forms of data offered greater detail and the opportunity for corroboration across data sources.

The semi-structured interviews, which included approximately twenty questions, provided an opportunity for participants to describe their own, unique issues relating to their work as a school principal during the era of increased accountability (See Appendix E). These questions included topics such as: *To what do you attribute your need to work beyond 40 hours each week?; How do the accountability expectations of increased accountability alter the types of staff development options you choose?; Tell me about a job or a task that is so engaging in your work that you lose all track of time, give it 100% attention, and use your skills to a satisfying outcome?; and What circumstances would cause you to leave the principalship?*

Follow-up probes were used, when specificity or better understanding were required. The interviews lasted approximately 30-40 minutes in length, and notes and transcripts were available for the participants' review, if they so desired to read them for accuracy and clarification.

3.2 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis began with a report on the number of returns and non-returns of the survey instrument. After capturing this information about survey response, the data analysis required a descriptive analysis of information collected by this survey instrument. Demographic and descriptive data were analyzed by measuring the frequency distributions for the responses using SPSS software. Data were cross tabulated in order to see how variables inter-related and which patterns were discovered for interaction. The cross tabulated data focused on the participant's age and gender. Semi-structured interviews were analyzed by reviewing notes from interviews and categorizing the various topics that were revealed.

Although a significant amount of the data analyses is based upon Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1980), Maslach's Burnout Inventory (2001), and Robinson's Work Addiction Risk Test (1990), it became necessary to employ a more qualitative approach to "convey an argument and an [inform] context as to how these details and facts interweave" (VanMaanen, 1988, p. 30). As VanMaanen (1979) put it, the task is to, "uncover and explicate the ways in which people in particular (work) settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their day-to-day situation" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.8). The interviews provided rich details that uncovered specific characteristics to create a more detailed work profile of these principals.

One significant aspect of the research explored a principal's perceptions of his or her own work habits, while looking into how work addictive their behaviors present themselves. In addition, presuming that they demonstrate those negative behavior traits, but enjoy their work, it

was interesting to see if their enthusiasm is driven through “flow” experiences and how often those occur. Viewing “flow” as an intrinsic reward of the job may or may not influence a principal’s capacity for staying in a post for a long period of time. Collecting data to develop a work-life profile allowed me to explore an inventory of how principals manage their many job responsibilities, find “flow,” and develop and maintain interpersonal relationships.

3.2.1 CONFIDENTIALITY

The proposal for this dissertation received Expedited Approval from the Internal Review Board (IRB) at the University of Pittsburgh. Because the data collection methods included interviews, audio-taping, and a secured record of participants needed to exist, it was necessary to pursue expedited review from the IRB. The need was exemplified because CPP, Inc., the company that maintains the copyright on the MBI instrument, required all data to be submitted to their company. To satisfy this requirement, while also maintaining the confidentiality of participants, no identifying information was gathered that could tie participants to their survey responses. Confidentiality was also addressed within the participant consent form (See Appendix A). As a component of the IRB procedural safeguards, the confidentiality of participants was paramount.

Given that all participants are eighteen years of age or older, informed consent was explained to each participant but a waiver was obtained in order to continue with the electronic study without a written signature from participants. Throughout the research study, confidentiality was assured with all participants. In developing a culture of trust and rapport, it was critical that participants understand that their comments were not shared with others except through the written completion of the dissertation. Pseudonyms were assigned to those who participated in interviews and school building and/or school district identifiers were removed.

3.2.2 DATA SOURCES AND COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

The selected principals served as primary sources of data. Using both survey data and one on one interviews offered an opportunity to test the findings through data corroboration. These techniques were necessary to elicit data and gain an understanding of the phenomenon in question, to contribute different perspectives on the issue, and to make the effective use of the time available for data-collection (Glesne, 2006). There was an advantage to linking both qualitative and quantitative data. Rossman and Wilson (1984; 1991) suggested three broad reasons for doing this:

1. To offer confirmation and or corroboration of each other through triangulation
2. To provide detail rich data that elaborates or provides analysis
3. To offer new thinking by allowing for “fresh ideas” and surprises

Green, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) were also in favor of mixed method approaches, because there is sequential assistance by allowing the first method to inform and expand the second. Sieber (1973) concurs and states that combining methods will supply background data, overlooked details, and verifies findings, while expanding monolithic judgments about a case.

Therefore, transcripts from the interview sessions and observation notes were reviewed, coded, segregated in themes/clusters, and further analyzed (Glesne, 2006). As a means for extracting useful information from the study, I “categorize(d), synthesize(d), search(ed) for patterns, and interpret(ed) the data” that had been collected (Glesne, 2006, p. 147). As an example of this process, I developed and used a field notebook to document my perceptions to interview responses and to the participants’ nonverbal reactions. Nonverbal responses to questions added another layer of interest to the verbal responses provided by participants.

The codes found in Appendix I were developed in my pilot study in 2007 and were validated through analysis of inter-rater reliability. Coffey and Atkinson (1996) describe the process when they write, “Coding qualitative data enables the researcher to recognize and re-contextualize data, allowing a fresh view of what is there. Because coding inevitably involves the reading and re-reading of data and making selections from the data, it involves interpreting the data set” (p. 46). During the pilot study, the categorizing and coding the data led to a more detailed process that connects the findings to the theoretical framework. The larger sample provided more clarification, better reliability of emerging themes, and more conclusive data.

Coding was used as “a progressive process of sorting and defining and sorting those scraps of data...that (were) relevant to (my) research purpose” (Glesne, 2006, p.152). It was possible to identify work-related behaviors and characteristics of middle level principals and if they demonstrate a tendency for burnout as categorized by the WART and MBI in the analysis, so that there was flexibility to recombine or group items later in the study (Delamont, 2002). After reviewing the interview transcriptions during the later early stages of the study, it was possible to identify the early emergence of themes.

It was anticipated that there would be at least a 70% response rate to the on-line questionnaire and survey. This would have yielded at least 99 principals. During the survey, I became aware that at least ten schools were not permitted to participate in a research study that did not originate within their school district due to their administrative procedures. Therefore, out of the original 141 invited participants, only 131 were eligible for the study. The actual number of participants was 60, demonstrating a 46% response rate, but one participant did not complete the entire survey. Hence, there were 59 surveys completed in entirety yielding a 45% response rate.

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter. The presentation of the data begins with a description of the demographic information collected from those who participated in this study followed by data and analysis of each.

Demographic Data Findings

Tables 4-10, represent the demographic data. Out of the 60 respondents, the data indicated that 28 (46.7%) were female and 32 (53.3%) were male. The data showed that 25 (41.7%) of the respondents in this study are 39 years of age or younger and 35 (58.4%) are 40 years of age or older. Only one (1.7%) participant was 60 years of age or older. Of the 60 respondents, 16 (26.7%) had five years of experience as a school administrator, whereas, 21 (35%) respondents had six to ten years of experience, and 19 (31.7%) had 11 to 15 years of experience. Those respondents with 16 to 30 years of experience included four (6.7%) principals. The years of service were grouped into five year intervals.

Table 3. What is your gender?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	32	53.3	53.3	53.3
Female	28	46.7	46.7	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Table 4. What is your age?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	30-39	24	40.0	40.0	40.0
	40-49	22	36.7	36.7	76.7
	50-59	12	20.0	20.0	96.7
	29 or younger	1	1.7	1.7	98.3
	60 or older	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Table 5. How many years have you been employed in the field of education?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	16-20	24	40.0	40.0	40.0
	11-15	16	26.7	26.7	66.7
	31-40	9	15.0	15.0	81.7
	6-10	8	13.3	13.3	95.0
	21-25	2	3.3	3.3	98.3
	26-30	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Table 6. How many years have you served as a school administrator?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	6-10	21	35.0	35.0	35.0
	11-15	19	31.7	31.7	66.7
	1-5	16	26.7	26.7	93.3
	16-20	2	3.3	3.3	96.7
	21-25	1	1.7	1.7	98.3
	26-30	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The academic preparation for principals can vary from state to state, but the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania requires teachers to teach in a classroom environment for five years before becoming a principal. Nearly all administrators complete a masters degree program in school administration to receive their certification, yet emergency certifications can be granted by the Pennsylvania Department of Education in special circumstances. These data supported that academic pathway as demonstrated in Table 7. Thus showing that 47 (78%) of all participants have at the minimum completed a masters degree and/or taken additional coursework, while nine (15%) participants have complete doctoral studies.

Table 7. What is your highest level of completed coursework?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Masters Degree + additional coursework	44	73.3	73.3	73.3
Doctorate	9	15.0	15.0	88.3
Bachelors Degree + additional coursework	4	6.7	6.7	95.0
Masters Degree	3	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Although the participants in this study responded that they supervise a variety of different staff sizes, the largest population of principals 21 (35%) supervise between 61-90 staff members. Whereas, 17 (28.3%) indicated that they supervised between 31 and 60 teachers. Twelve (20%) indicated that they supervised between 91 and 120 teachers. Six (10%) indicated that they supervised between 121 and 150. Four (6.7%) principals indicated that they supervised between 10 and 30 as indicated in Table 8. Furthermore, in response to a question related to marital status in Table 10, nine (15%) of the principals indicated that they are single, 47 (78.3%) indicated that they are married, and four (6.6%) indicated that they are separated or divorced.

Table 8. How many teachers and staff do you supervise?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	61-90	21	35.0	35.0	35.0
	31-60	17	28.3	28.3	63.3
	91-120	12	20.0	20.0	83.3
	121-150	6	10.0	10.0	93.3
	10-30	4	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Table 9. What is your marital status?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Married	47	78.3	78.3	78.3
	Single	9	15.0	15.0	93.3
	Separated	2	3.3	3.3	96.7
	Divorced	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Survey and Interview Findings

The results will be demonstrated in two ways. First, it is important to return to the original research questions to determine if the data provides new insight into the work profile among middle level principals. In addition, it is also critical to examine emerging themes as they relate to the reliability between the closed-ended questionnaires based upon the Maslach's Burnout Inventory (2001) and the Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey (1980) and the open-ended survey questions that included selected questions from the WART. Through the data

derived by the survey and interviews, four additional themes emerged. They included the following: 1) principals draw job satisfaction in the amount of challenge that is found in their job; 2) collaboration is critical to the principal's sense of accomplishment; 3) principals recognize their inability to complete all job responsibilities; and 4) the amount of stress experienced by a principal has an impact on their level of burnout in the workplace. These themes integrated well into the research questions pertaining to this study.

Research Question Number 1

What are middle level principals' perceptions of their work-related behaviors?

- Demographic Data and Workplace Questionnaire (See Appendix D)
- Interview questions including selected questions from the WART (1999)
- Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980)

Job Satisfaction

Principals admit that they possess an inner compulsion and obligation to work hard, even when they are not enthusiastic about the task at hand. They also believe that they demonstrate a work ethic that out-performs that of their other colleagues. The participants in this study very clearly shared that their enjoyment for their work and their personal efforts to do more for children and for the teachers in their building gave them tremendous satisfaction. In fact, although in many questions they responded that they had frustration or lack of resources to complete a task, they still demonstrated a strong sense of accomplishment from doing the job of principal. This is clearly demonstrated in Table 10, which shows that 86.4% of the principals are satisfied by a feeling of accomplishment in their role, while only 6.8% showed some form of dissatisfaction.

Table 10. How satisfied are you with the feeling of worth-while accomplishment I get from my job.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely Satisfied	24	40.0	40.7	40.7
	Satisfied	27	45.0	45.8	86.4
	Neutral	4	6.7	6.8	93.2
	Dissatisfied	2	3.3	3.4	96.6
	Extremely Dissatisfied	2	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

The satisfaction that the principals who were later interviewed demonstrated indeed supported this data as well. When Byron explained his workload, he continued to reflect upon the importance of his job and the satisfaction that he draws from a job well done. He responded,

I do love what I do. Of all the responsibility, I am still able to serve as the key leader in creating an environment for adults and children that is positive, that is focused on the right things which in school the teaching and learning process, where kids are engaged in activities. I mean I don't ever leave work, even on my worst day, and not know that I'm working in a field that has meaning.

The most common work-related messages according to the principals were geared toward their collective belief that their job in public education is interesting and pleurably challenging. The themes that seemed most common in qualitative findings were quite similar to those found in the quantitative measures. There was consistent evidence that supported that all participants found their work to be time-consuming, but enjoyable. These responses suggested the presence of “flow” in the principalship. There are numerous conflicts, responsibilities, and other tasks that

dominate the usage of time, yet “flow” is exemplified by characterizing that there are ways in which people enjoy life despite the adversity. Principals in their responses were able to find positive, peak moments through their own focused energy.

Table 11. How satisfied are you with the amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely Satisfied	18	30.0	30.5	30.5
	Satisfied	29	48.3	49.2	79.7
	Neutral	5	8.3	8.5	88.1
	Dissatisfied	6	10.0	10.2	98.3
	Extremely Dissatisfied	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Kathy explains this personal growth by saying,

I want to perform well, I want to be able to do the best that I can for my position. I feel that’s part of who I am...my beliefs and values are to do good work and to always move things forward as efficiently and effectively as possible. Just having that challenge waking up and knowing that day you’re actually going to be engaged in active work that is not boring or redundant.

Jackie further explained her satisfaction,

I like keeping up with it (the job), because it’s overwhelming. If I can walk into 100 e-mails and tackle them...I feel needed. If I get through them all, I feel like I won a marathon. This job always stretches me!

Kathy also responded that,

I have always been a hard worker. If there are certain initiatives that are being assigned, it is understood that I will get them done. I

actually want to complete them. I am motivated to achieve and to complete tasks. I take great joy in completing my tasks successfully.

In Csikszentmihaly's (1990) interviews with people, he asked them if they would rather be doing something else besides working. He found a paradox to be present; it appeared that when people were on the job, they expressed feelings of challenge, happiness, creativity, and satisfaction. In their free time, they often expressed feelings of boredom, sadness, and dissatisfaction. The presence of job challenge appears ever-present for principals. They respond that 91.5% are satisfied by the daily challenges in their job. So, in light of the amount of work that it takes educational leaders to accomplish the goals for their school, it could be asked by an observer if the job is worth the stress. It appears that if "flow" and satisfaction are present for these principals in their daily tasks, it would then appear that amount of satisfaction that is gained is enough to outweigh the costs of their job. In fact, it also demonstrates that the challenge of the work would supersede that desire for free time as explained by Csikszentmihaly (1990).

Table 12. How satisfied are you with the amount of challenge in my job.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely Satisfied	21	35.0	35.6	35.6
	Satisfied	33	55.0	55.9	91.5
	Neutral	4	6.7	6.8	98.3
	Dissatisfied	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Finding happiness and contentment in life and in one's work has been studied with vigor in the last two decades (Csikszentmihaly, 1997). Although happiness related to the work lives of principals has received little attention, it is clear that the participants in this study are satisfied with their challenges and their opportunities to think and act in their job. It is also evident that the principals in this study positively respond to the amount of independent thought that they are able to utilize on a daily basis. Even though they work directly with teachers, students, parents, and other administrators, they are able to find the ability to operate independently and take action on decisions. This is demonstrated by more than 76% of the participants who positively responded to that question, while 14% feel either neutral or dissatisfied with their ability to make decisions and act without always checking with a superior. There are numerous conflicts, responsibilities, and other tasks that dominate the usage of time, yet Csikszentmihaly's (1997) research further demonstrated that there are ways in which people enjoy life despite the adversity.

Table 13. How satisfied are you with the amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely Satisfied	18	30.0	30.5	30.5
	Satisfied	27	45.0	45.8	76.3
	Neutral	8	13.3	13.6	89.8
	Dissatisfied	6	10.0	10.2	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Byron responded,

Whatever job I am involved in, I would probably do more than was expected of me. That's the way I do things. I am given a lot of autonomy to do my job. I spend my time how I want to spend it. I am an instructional leader and that's what I base everything on. Fortunately, I have a superintendent who trusts me to make good decisions. He isn't always second-guessing me.

Leadership and Collaboration

In order to achieve a higher level of performance, many principals will experiment with different leadership styles during their career. Transformational leadership provides a leadership style which principals can employ in order to implement school improvement reform efforts with minimal costs, both personally and professionally. Transformational leadership seeks to influence behavior by appealing to “higher ideals and moral values such as liberty, justice, equality, peace, and humanitarianism” (Kowawalski, 1989, p. 210). It entails the pursuit by both the leader and the followers of commonly held higher-level goals. Components of transformational leadership include: a commitment to a common goal; the pursuit of higher levels of morality; and a reliance on higher-order needs. The leader focuses on more advanced human needs when considering motivations (Burns, 1985). In fact, the ability to collaborate with others is the cornerstone of professional learning communities and a far cry from authoritative practices of the past.

When asked about their level of authority or the efficiency of the collaboration that occurs within their work groups, the principals began to note some difference in the way their schools or school districts function. For 66% of the group, they were very aware of their level of authority, yet the other 34% of participants responded that they were uncertain to some degree as

to their level of authority as demonstrated by Table 14. This may be evident in the way their school districts operate and the level to which site-based decision making is present.

Table 14. I feel certain about how much authority I have.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	12	20.0	20.3	20.3
	True	27	45.0	45.8	66.1
	Uncertain	9	15.0	15.3	81.4
	False	8	13.3	13.6	94.9
	Very False	3	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

This is exemplified by a response by Kaitlyn who explains her decisions are made independently, but she is ultimately accountable to those around her. She responded,

I'm detail oriented. Sometimes that hurts me but when I say it hurts me it creates more hours...but the people appreciate it. I can think about things and act. I don't always have to check with someone, but I know that I am accountable in the end.

A lot of it is personal; I don't want to let myself down; I don't want to let my superintendent down; I don't want to let the district down, because I feel they hired me to do a job and if I don't do it I feel that it will reflect poorly in not necessarily my evaluation but the perception that they have of me, was I qualified. This is a high achieving district, and I don't want to let the kids down or the parents. Ultimately, decisions are my own, and I appreciate that. But, I always know that someone on the (school) board is watching over me.

During this era of accountability where principals are required to know more about data and ways to increase student achievement, managerial tasks become secondary. David also

expressed his belief that his authority is based on instructional leadership and that is very clear to him. He responded,

...really it has changed in the last three years because there's been much more intense focus on being an instructional leader. I think when I first started studying about administration, while I was teaching, I thought I'd be dealing more with discipline and problems and scheduling and budgeting. I think I'm consumed now with raising the bar instructionally and having high expectations for both the teachers and the students. My father was a principal before No Child Left Behind came into action. When I talk to him about his job and his role as a principal compared to what my role is now, there is a tremendous difference. Again it's the instructional focus...he didn't even know what a subgroup was and there was never talk of math coaching or reading coaching. We didn't put as much emphasis on what value they are and what specific areas of improvement they need. So yeah, I think that's all a direct result of No Child Left Behind. It has changed the way I run my school.

Creating a collaborative learning environment has changed older leadership practices. Building a school culture that has more internal accountability in which teachers share more the responsibilities for their teaching in concert with the principal is more advantageous (Carnoy, Elmore, & Siskin, 2003). Perhaps the hero-principal can no longer exist in this century of massive school reform. Coggshall, Stewart, and Bhatt (2008) concur and suggest that dividing the role of principals between instructional and managerial responsibilities, creating networks of support, and pairing empowerment with accountability will broaden the array of interested young principals and help embed reform in quality leadership. Distributive leadership practices may help this challenging job become more realistic with more applicants in the future. The responses show that this is quite a problem for principals, because they are operating within work groups that operate differently or within different parameters. In fact, 76.3% of the principals in this study find it true that they work with two or more groups who operate quite differently. These

differing practices can hold up group progress and ultimately affect the initiatives within a school district (See Table 15). Richard responded,

But what I've noticed is there's very little information that helps us interact with our teachers. When we look at our teachers we look at the union environment, you look at contract times that have been established, there are many teachers I've noticed that they're working within the contract and then leaving. You cannot expect them to arrive any earlier or work any additional hours and there are always excuses why these individuals can't work beyond that contractual day. And I think that's a big concern where you don't see that in the business environment. The expectation is there that you know that what you don't finish in the time that you have, you are still required to do it...even if it is beyond the event, or the work day. They (teachers) have a very different, ingrained, perspective on work hours.

Table 15. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	14	23.3	23.7	23.7
	True	31	51.7	52.5	76.3
	Uncertain	2	3.3	3.4	79.7
	False	8	13.3	13.6	93.2
	Very False	4	6.7	6.8	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 16. Explanation is clear of what is to be done.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	6	10.0	10.2	10.2
	True	31	51.7	52.5	62.7
	Uncertain	11	18.3	18.6	81.4
	False	9	15.0	15.3	96.6
	Very False	2	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Adam responded,

Actually expectations here are not very clearly defined. So there's nothing that says you have to be at every game or you have to be at this activity. It's just kind of understood that you'll be at certain things you know you'll be at the dances and you know you'll be at graduation, when there's game, when there's a PTA meeting and those sorts of things, it's just understood that you will be there. So those are the responsibilities. It's understood that if you get a phone call from somebody it will be returned within 24 to 36 hours.

Katie also responded,

Nothing is directly said. I think sometimes it's implied that principals help students 24/7. Or if we're sending out an e-mail, everyone should get some kind of an immediate response. You know there are nights that I'm getting e-mails and it's dinner on the weekend with my husband and I'm checking and responding to someone's e-mail about something and my family has told me in the evenings, 'you're not on the clock, put that away, quit doing work,' so it happens all the time.

With 72.9% of principals responded that that they have clear explanations as to what is to be done, it is possible to suggest that they may operate on a level of “flow” that Csikszentmihaly (1998) describes as activities that are clear and compatible.

Table 17. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	6	10.0	10.2	10.2
	True	25	41.7	42.4	52.5
	Uncertain	9	15.0	15.3	67.8
	False	14	23.3	23.7	91.5
	Very False	5	8.3	8.5	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Byron responded,

Based upon my experiences, I’m given very little direction. I’m given very much autonomy when doing the job spending my time as I want to spend it. I’m not ever able to recall a time that I was given an expectation to do something outside of the work day or work on particular issues. But if I were to take a day off work, I would still feel that guilty if the kids and the teachers were in the building needed me...even though there’s not a single person anywhere who doesn’t think I shouldn’t take a day off for my own reasons and to do something productive but just to recoup, recharge or whatever.

Since “flow” is aligned with happiness, freedom, and enjoyment, it helps to resolve the tensions between anxiety and boredom. “Flow” indicates the better balance between challenge and skill when goals are clear and feedback is available and often immediate. Even when feedback is delayed, a person who learns how to set goals and gauge that feedback discovers that

enjoyment can occur. Hence, “flow” can occur when a person begins to realize goals and manage feedback that is logically related to progress toward those goals. Csikszentmihaly (1998) further explains that although people may be go for long periods of time doing chores at home or tasks on the job without knowing how one in doing, while in “flow” one can usually tell because “flow” activities provide feedback. Richard responded,

I do receive feedback from teachers on the work ethic and energy level that I bring to the position. They always comment that I’m always around. I’m always there; I’m always visible in the building. And they compliment you on that job act. It’s almost like that is what they expect a good principal to do. I like to work out and I was always into fitness and things like that. And I hate to say it but I don’t do it as much as I used to because as soon as I got into administration I didn’t have the time.

Although all of the participants responded that they are working harder now than they have ever done in the past, they still feel able to separate work-life and home-life successfully. In fact, there were only a few circumstances when the participants said that they were unable to leave their job pressures at work. Those pressures included conflicts with staff members, and problems with parents of students with special needs. Adam responded,

I agree with that 100% because there are factors that are at play as an administrator that don’t occur in other fields. In other fields you have employees and you have bosses. So you have those levels of people below you who you supervise and above you so that would be the equivalent of the teachers and the central administration. But when you factor in the students and the parents it is a whole other level of people that you are responsible to deal with and the issues are so great that come from that group of people that it creates a whole other level I guess of things that you need to just be aware of and take into account. It’s like instead of pressure from two sides it’s really pressure from four.

There appears to be a divided opinion among respondents regarding their feelings about the amount of work that they are asked to do and their ability to complete those jobs or responsibilities. More than half (57.6%) responded that the amount of work that they have to do is fair. On the other hand, 62.7 responded that they have too much work to do what is required

well. Csikszentmihaly (1998) cautions that when the challenges are too high, or even too low, and one gets too anxious or frustrated and perhaps even apathetic, they often go into an ordinary life and stray away from “flow.” “Flow” tends to be “when a person’s skills are fully involved in overcoming a challenge that is manageable (Csikszentmihaly, 1998, p.30). Therefore, it appears that these optimal work-related experiences involve a fine balance between one’s actions and the available opportunities for action (Csikszentmihaly, 1998). This research seems to coincide with a mixed reaction from the respondents in this study. Kathy responded,

I constantly have a running tab to do list in my head of things that I am going to be starting the next day or working on or towards. Some years are worse than others. I check my e-mail constantly when I’m at home and try to respond to pick up the ends of communication that I can from home that is not something that I don’t necessarily need to be in the building for.

There are certainly times when the principals in this study indicate that they feel increased frustration and draw little satisfaction from their work and their personal performance. In fact, they seem to absorb the pressure placed upon them by others and indicated a sense of being overwhelmed by the challenges presented. The data demonstrates that principals are divergent in their belief that their level of work is *fair*.

Table 18. The amount of work I am asked to do is fair.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	5	8.3	8.5	8.5
	True	29	48.3	49.2	57.6
	Uncertain	11	18.3	18.6	76.3
	False	12	20.0	20.3	96.6
	Very False	2	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

In addition, Mona responded,

The fact that I have a school cell phone that the school pays for you know it's almost a hidden expectation that when they call me they are going to get a hold of me. The fact that even though I don't want to I tend to check my school e-mail even when I'm at home. It's just something we got accustomed to, and it's almost like if I don't check them at home...oh boy...I don't want to walk into 65 e-mails tomorrow morning when I get to my office. Everyone wants a piece of me. It is hard to please everyone at times.

Byron also responded,

I usually arrive at work at 6:45 and a typical day I return home probably around 5:00. Lunch is on a typical day no more than 10 or 15 minutes during the day which is a combination of paper work, meetings students, and telephone calls with parents, classroom observations, department meetings, things of that nature. I work at a pretty good intensity pace in the time that I work. I would say at home on a typical day or night I made the decision to stay longer at work if something has to be done than having to finish it at home. So, I normally do not do work once I get home. On the weekend I probably spend 4-6 total hours of work time but I would say on the weekends especially that is doctoral work not primarily school work.

Table 19. I have too much work to do everything well.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	14	23.3	23.7	23.7
	True	23	38.3	39.0	62.7
	Uncertain	8	13.3	13.6	76.3
	False	11	18.3	18.6	94.9
	Very False	3	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

The work addiction has the potential to erode the worker's life. If workaholism is actually equated to that of an addiction like alcoholism, one's happiness and productivity in life could be threatened by an uncontrollable drive for work (Seybold & Salomone, 1994). Kaitlyn responded,

Women are expected to do it all and do it well. Make it look easy; don't complain about it. We're supposed to have a wonderful home, a wonderful marriage, give our kids all the attentions, but if you do that and you don't work then you're viewed a certain way and if you do work and you have kids then you're viewed that you're not giving the kids, I mean I don't see how some women do it. I think that it's a demanding job. I don't think there's no denying that. I don't see how people can do this job 40 hours a week. I don't think they would last very long. I think that they would be let go or replaced quickly. If you're going to do it right is the bottom line you could do it 40 hours a week but then are you giving is it getting done what needs to occur. I don't see how it can be and if it can be then someone could let me know.

Byron also responded,

I'd say most of the time, I can leave it here. I can leave the problems at school, until it involves something like a threat of a law suit or the media, or a school board member, or a due process hearing. Some issues are totally out of our control. These are the things that drain my energy, and I lose patience. You can't let the parents or the kids see that, so it is just something that I have to absorb somehow. When those things happen, nothing else gets done.

Sadly, aspiring principals who believe that they will receive many accolades for a job well done, are often greeted with an understanding that the job is demanding and difficult and does not offer the time to get tasks completed in a timely fashion. This disconnect may be the reason for a principal's feeling of helplessness when they get buried under daily problems and expectations with little time to improve what is happening in the classroom (Schiff, 2001). This disillusionment strengthens the managerial abilities of the principals, but often negates the time for and instructional leader who can serve as the catalyst for better teaching and learning (Berkey, 2008). On the contrary, there are many people who can operate without constant feedback and still not feel isolated or disappointed with their job choice. Csikszentmihaly (1996) found that there are individuals who keep doing creative work without a field of judgment to the extent that they are able to give feedback to themselves, without the assistance of others. This proves the case with authors, scientists, and other fields where the typical end to a task or a job cycle does not occur in the immediate future. This may also be true for a middle school principal who does not see the end *product* of their work, until long after the child graduates from high school...or ever. David responded,

Well, I'll tell you the truth in my new position the job or task that is never ending is improving instruction. You know that has really been placed upon my shoulders with all the responsibilities and I have a district that did not have an instructional leader in place as an administrator for the last seven years and people were free to do whatever they wanted to do. So as I fix one problem there seems to be another problem emerges. Again my instructional focus is to increase the academic rigor in our middle school because I know at the end of the year it will make AYP.

Kaitlyn responded,

Work differently in the sense of how hard I work, no, but the focus of my work I think is much different in the sense that like I said when we get the numbers I'm immediately looking at the number of proficient or advanced and I notice that I'm immediately always focused on the basic and the below basic and not sometimes the

whole student body. I tend to focus on only those who are non proficient and rather than looking at how all of the kids in our building are doing. Sometimes, I just wonder if all of my work now helps them later on their SAT's whether or not they graduate and get into a good college.

When principals were asked about the amount of work coupled with the availability of manpower and/or resources to complete it, they demonstrated once again a mixed opinion. With nearly half, (50.8%) responding that they have job assignments that are understaffed and nearly 40% agreeing that they lack the materials or resources to do it, some principals are at risk of not finding “flow” in their work. This is due to the fact that Csikszentmihaly’s (1998) research shows that “the quality of life improves immensely when there is at least one other person who is willing to support us...the presence of the other imposes goals and provides feedback (pp. 42-43).

Table 20. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	5	8.3	8.5	8.5
	True	25	41.7	42.4	50.8
	Uncertain	8	13.3	13.6	64.4
	False	19	31.7	32.2	96.6
	Very False	2	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 21. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very True	7	11.7	12.1	12.1
	True	15	25.0	25.9	37.9
	Uncertain	7	11.7	12.1	50.0
	False	23	38.3	39.7	89.7
	Very False	6	10.0	10.3	100.0
	Total	58	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	3.3		
Total		60	100.0		

“Flow,” for these respondents, may be more within reach if the work was more balanced and solitude was available for enjoyment rather than as added pressure. Adam responded,

I kind of like to say people by day and paper by night so I like to devote as much time as I can to students and teachers being in their classrooms and meeting with them and handling issues and having meetings with parents and doing all the people side the interactions with people and supervising of teachers during the school day and then all of the paper work and write ups and things that follow occur after 3:00 so whether that’s signing every check to every referee of every athletic event that takes place in the high school and every activity and every something that gets purchased for every activity to every field trip request and conference request form that has to be signed and reviewed to going through the mail everyday and sorting the useful from the things that can be discarded preparing things for my secretary to file returning phone calls answering e-mail I would say those are the biggest things that are cause for time outside the school day.

Jackie responded,

It is a tremendous amount of time. My biggest problem is that there are only 24 hours in a day. With the addition of No Child Left Behind and more technology, it just seems to come at me 24 hours a day. Keeping up with the testing demands, where the state calls the shots...and when district, central office administrators, including assistant superintendent, superintendent all the way down to the parents add to the pressure...it is hard to do it alone. What you’re responsible for requires a lot of hard work and

communication. The work is lonely and constant most of the school year. Thank goodness for my secretary; she is the only one who can really help me.

The legislation known as No Child Left Behind has caused overwhelming changes to public education. What became enlightening in this study was the lack of specific knowledge of the Act by the participants. Although they have all been working in public education for at least the last five years, their working knowledge of NCLB was focused on only two areas. Those included Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and the Highly Qualified (HQ) status of teachers. Otherwise, their responses to the Act in its entirety were thoughtful, but superficial and general. Indeed, AYP status seemed the motivating force for the job that principals were spending the most time doing. Some reluctant, some striving, while others consumed, all of the participants felt that their job has been altered by accountability pressures. Adam responded,

It's caused me to do a lot of things differently and requires more private meetings with parents with respect to graduation, because when a child is not proficient there are a whole lot of mechanisms that are in place that take my time and the teachers' time to make sure that the student shows progress and passes the local assessment to graduate...then, throw in special education. There is a whole other set of circumstances there for me to do with that.

The data also revealed trends related to the emotional issues and physical problems that may occur due to a principal's workload and ability to deal with the demands of the job. This will be addressed more fully in the next research question. In fact, a review of participant responses also provided for common and divergent themes for analysis. The outcome of this mixed-methods approach provided for some complementary and overlapping data, while it also detected inconsistencies between survey responses and face to face interviews. The data showed that principals draw job satisfaction in the amount of challenge that is found in their job, while also requiring collaboration by both supervisors and teacher-colleagues to generate a sense of accomplishment or job completion.

Research Question Number 2

To what degree has increased accountability impacted the work-related behaviors of middle level principals?

- Interview questions including selected questions from the WART (1999)
- Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980)

Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1976; 1980) was originally used as the most influential paradigm in job research design and was deemed applicable in administrative jobs in educational settings (Eckman, 2000; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Tongues, 1997). This instrument has aided researchers in determining the effects of job characteristics, interpersonal characteristics, and role stressors in the context of secondary school administration. These job characteristics examined the motivational forces that pertain to one's work; interpersonal characteristics that explored relationships with others; role stress that explored the pressures in the employment position; and identified five psychological states that investigated the experiences that one gains from the work itself (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). This has been the theoretical framework for understanding and employee's reaction to the core dimensions of their job for decades.

The emotional reaction that one has for one's work is considered job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is crucial to happiness and fulfillment at work. This overall impression of one's job can be based upon many aspects of work (e.g., collegial relationships, salary, independence, feedback). Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model proposes that any job can be analyzed utilizing five dimensions for its motivating potential. In fact, if there is a problem within one of these areas, correcting it will bring more job satisfaction. Those five dimensions (skill variety; task

identity; task significance; autonomy; and feedback) produce three critical psychological states including: experienced meaningfulness of the work; experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work; and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities that increase the opportunity for positive, personal and professional outcomes (Hackman & Oldman, 1976).

Using cumulative frequency percents and interpreting the results based on the distribution of the responses, three specific sections of the Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980) were analyzed in order to respond to this research question. The cumulative frequency analysis was used because the frequency of occurrence of values in most questions was a phenomenon less than the reference value. It provided a broader view of responses across the Likert-type response categories by looking at collapsed categories. Rather than specifying a fine-detail analysis, each of the two ends of the categories was collapsed to examine frequencies in the three categories. This provided the ability to describe the categorical data in more general terms, as the finer gradations were not crucial to the study. The sections of the survey that were evaluated in this way were titled *Job Characteristics and Engagement*, *Feelings about the Job*, and *Your Role at Work*. The original JDS survey (1980) reported data with a wider range of possible responses by participants in order to create a conceptual model intended to guide further research and aid in planning for changes in work systems. In order to see the expanded distribution of the categorical data as it was obtained in this study, please see Appendix H.

Utilizing the JDS survey (1980), it was evident that three themes continued to emerge. They included: 1) principals draw job satisfaction in the amount of challenge that is found in their job; 2) collaboration is critical to the principal's sense of accomplishment; and 3) principals recognize their inability to complete all job responsibilities.

Job Characteristics and Engagement

The means in Tables 22 and 23 indicate that principals view their jobs as very complex and important, and they requiring a high degree of judgment. They also report that the job cannot be done in isolation, and it provides feedback in most circumstances from colleagues and/or a supervisor.

In the original instrument, Very Inaccurate received a value of 1; Mostly Inaccurate received a value of 2; Slightly Inaccurate received a value of 3; Uncertain received a value of 4; and Slightly Accurate received a value of 5; Mostly Accurate received a value of 6; and Very Accurate received a value of 7 in order to complete data analysis using SPSS. For this analysis, three category groups were reorganized. Group one included response choices Very Inaccurate and Mostly Inaccurate; Group two included Slightly Inaccurate, Uncertain, and Slightly Accurate; Group three included Mostly Accurate and Very Accurate.

Nearly all of the principals in this study agree that the job requires *complex or high level skills*. There is very little deviation from their responses, indicating their acknowledgement that their positions are not *simple or require routine decisions*, yet demands difficult decisions and under most circumstances brings new challenges on a regular basis. In fact 85% of the principals report that this job is important in the *broader scheme of things*. This may indicate that principals demonstrate a passion for children and reap the responsibility for their futures. Eighty percent (80%) also respond that their job provides them with a *chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work*.

Table 22. Job Characteristics and Engagement

	(n) / Very or Mostly Inaccurate	(n) / Slightly Inaccurate, Neutral, or Slightly Accurate	(n) / Mostly or Very Accurate	(n) / Mean	Std. Dev.
1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.	(0) / .0%	(0) / .0%	(60) / 100%	(60) / 6.6	.490
2. The job is quite simple and repetitive.	(54) / 91.5%	(5) / 8.5%	(0) / .0%	(59) / 1.5	.816
3. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	(48) / 80%	(7) / 11.7%	(5) / 8.3%	(60) / 2.2	1.513
4. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.	(51) / 85%	(4) / 6.7%	(5) / 8.3%	(60) / 1.9	1.778

The principals who participated in this study recognized and responded on many occasions that there is a high level of cooperation required in their job. This may include working with children, teachers, supervisors, trainers, parents, media, and more. This was indicated by 100% of participants saying that it is accurate to assume that this job *requires a lot of cooperative work with other people*, while only 3.4% *felt that their job could be done adequately alone – without checking with other people* (See Table 23).

There is concern in the data in the area of the amount of supervision provided to a principal. The research showed earlier that feedback is critical for “flow,” as well as the necessity for mentorship for new or aspiring educational leaders. Therefore, it is regretful that there is significant deviation among the responses that these principals make in regard to the feedback that they receive. Of the 96.6% that report that others are *affected by how well the work gets done*, only 38.3% say that it is accurate that their *supervisors often let (them) know how well they think I am performing the job*. Less than 50% of the principals receive regular feedback on how well they are performing in their school leadership position. Data in this study alluded to female principals having a greater need for this feedback on a regular basis. This is further

supported by Csikszentmihaly (1998) who wrote that “it is possible to improve the quality of life by making sure that clear goals, immediate feedback, skills balanced with opportunities, and the remaining conditions of “flow” are as much as possible a constant part of everyday life” (p. 34). Further research on gender differences in relation to these issues is recommended.

Feelings about the Job and People

The means in Tables 24 and 25 indicate a very high degree of agreement that the principals in this study are satisfied with their job and respond positively to the amount of responsibility that the post requires. There is also strong job fidelity by the middle level principals in Western Pennsylvania.

In the original JDS instrument, the *Feelings about the Job* section Strongly Disagree received a value of 1; Disagree received a value of 2; Slightly Disagree received a value of 3; Neutral received a value of 4; and Slightly Agree received a value of 5; Strongly Agree received a value of 6; and Strongly Agree received a value of 7 in order to complete data analysis using SPSS. For this analysis three, categorical groups were reorganized. Group one included Strongly Disagree and Disagree; Group two included Slightly Disagree, Neutral, and Slightly Agree; Group three include Agree and Strongly Agree.

Table 23. Job Characteristics and Engagement

	(n) / Very or Mostly Inaccurate	(n) / Slightly Inaccurate, Neutral, or Slightly Accurate	(n) / Mostly or Very Accurate	(n) / Mean	Std. Dev.
1. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.	(0) / .0%	(0) / .0%	(60) / 100%	(60) / 6.9	.279
2. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone - without talking or checking with other people.	(54) / 90%	(4) / 6.6%	(2) / 3.4%	(60) / 1.5	1.255
3. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.	(29) / 48.3%	(20) / 33.4%	(11) / 18.3%	(60) / 3.2	1.927
4. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	(0) / .0%	(2) / 3.3%	(58) / 96.6%	(60) / 6.6	.547
5. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.	(17) / 28.4%	(20) / 33.4%	(23) / 38.3%	(60) / 4.4	1.938
6. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.	(32) / 54.2%	(19) / 32.2%	(8) / 13.6%	(59) / 2.9	1.696

Job satisfaction is measured in a myriad of different work-related studies. The principals in this demonstrate a mean of 6.2 and 84.8% agreement that they are *Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job*. They further indicate a mean of 6.2 and 81.4% agreement that I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job. This data is further extended to review the value and the potential for “flow” that is exhibited by performance as a mean of 6.5 and further reported that 88.1% of principals agree that *The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me*. Although it demonstrates the largest standard deviation in this section at 1.551, 74.2% indicate that they disagree that they *Frequently think of quitting this job* (See Tables 24 & 25).

In the literature review, there was significant research that showed that the job of principal has expanded over the years and demands accountability from many client groups. Regardless of the job responsibilities, the loyalty of these groups is evidenced by their responses

to questions related to their level of their responsibility and their willingness to accept it. The data indicates that 98.3% of the principals agree that they *Feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on the job*, and 84.5% of the principals agree that *Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly my responsibility*. Although the national research shows that educators are not seeking the job of principal as they did in the past, partly due to the increased demands, expectations, and accountability, this group of principals responded that they willingly shoulder the responsibilities of the job by 67.8% agreeing that *I feel I should personally take credit or blame for the results of my work on this job* (See Tables 24 & 25).

Table 24. Feeling about the Job and People

	(n) / Strongly Disagree or Disagree	(n) / Slightly Disagree, Neutral, or Slightly Agree	(n) / Agree or Strongly Agree	(n) / Mean	Std. Dev.
1. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.	(0) / .0%	(1) / 1.7%	(58) / 98.3%	(59) / 6.7	.477
2. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.	(4) / 6.8%	(15) / 25.5%	(40) / 67.8%	(59) / 5.6	1.600
3. Whether or not this gets done right is clearly my responsibility.	(0) / .0%	(9) / 15.5%	(49) / 84.5%	(58) / 6.3	1.033

Table 25. Feeling about the Job and People

	(n) / Strongly Disagree or Disagree	(n) / Slightly Disagree, Neutral, or Slightly Agree	(n) / Agree or Strongly Agree	(n) / Mean	Std. Dev.
1. Generally speaking I am very satisfied with his job.	(0) / .0%	(9) / 15.3%	(50) / 84.8%	(59) / 6.2	.826
2. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.	(0) / .0%	(7) / 11.9%	(52) / 88.1%	(59) / 6.5	.751
3. I frequently think of quitting this job.	(43) / 74.2%	(12) / 20.6%	(3) / 5.1%	(58) / 2.3	1.551
4. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	(0) / .0%	(11) / 18.7%	(48) / 81.4%	(59) / 6.2	.813

Role at Work

Questions related to principals' *Role at Work* in the original instrument requested the following responses and received a value to complete the data analysis for using SPSS software: Very False received a value of 1; False a value of 2; Uncertain a value of 3; True a value of 4; and Very True a value of 5. The scores were combined (False and Very False and True and Very True) to provide a combined analysis of the data. These questions related to their perceptions of how their job should be done and the amount of time available to do it along with the amount of work that is required in congruence with the resources available to assist with the completion of that task or other tasks.

In a sample of questions that pertained to the principal's clarity on job responsibilities and/or understanding of the task presented, results indicated a high degree of understanding that the participants comprehend the job requirements and are clear regarding the expectations from superiors. In fact, 93.2 % answered that it was True or Very True to the question *I know what my job responsibilities are*. Similar responses indicated that 76.2% of principals *Know exactly what is expected of me*. In addition, 62.7% indicated that the *Explanation is clear of what is to be done*. While 71.1% respond that they have *Clear, planned goals and objectives (that) exist for my job*. The question in this area with the highest standard deviation of 1.111 is in response to *I receive incompatible requests from two or more people*. The mean of this response was 3.2 with 25.4 % answering as they were Uncertain as to this question. Leaving only 42.4% answering True or Very True. This concept of completing work that meets the needs of one supervisor, but was not accepted by another was indicated by a mean of 3.2 with a standard deviation of 1.175 for *I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others* (See Table

26). The data indicates that although principals know what the job entails, the supervision or the collaboration of others is often confusing or inconsistent.

Principals indicate that they are aware that whatever task is assigned, they often do not have enough time to finish it, finish it well, or the resources necessary for completion. Nearly 80% of principals answered True or Very True regarding *that I never seem to have enough time to get everything done*. In fact, 62.7% believe that is it true that *I have too much work to do everything well*. What is noted of interest is that even though these principals do not have time to do their job nor do it well, more than 57.7% respond that it is True or Very True that *The amount of work I am asked to do is fair*. This may demonstrate that over half of the principals agree that the work assignments are fair and job-related, but consume more time than is available. Furthermore, the principals respond with a standard deviation of 1.095 and 1.252 respectively that *I have an assignment without the manpower to complete it* and *I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it*. These data indicate that responses deviate highly among responses. Hence, this may result from the varying size and socio-economic school districts that are represented: 1) principals draw job satisfaction in the amount of challenge that is found in their job; 2) collaboration is critical to the principal's sense of accomplishment; 3) principals recognize their inability to complete all job responsibilities (See Table 27).

Table 26. Role at Work

	(n) / Very False or False	(n) / Uncertain	(n) / True or Very True	(n) / Mean	Std. Dev.
1. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	(11) / 18.7%	(6) / 10.2%	(42) / 71.1%	(59) / 3.7	1.092
2. I know what my job responsibilities are.	(1) / 1.7%	(3) / 5.1%	(55) / 93.2%	(59) / 4.3	.655
3. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	(19) / 32.2%	(15) / 25.4%	(15) / 42.4%	(59) / 3.2	1.111
4. I know exactly what is expected of me.	(5) / 8.5%	(9) / 15.3%	(45) / 76.2%	(59) / 3.9	.857
5. Explanation is clear of what is to be done.	(11) / 18.7%	(11) / 18.6%	(37) / 62.7%	(59) / 3.5	.989
6. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	(19) / 32.2%	(9) / 15.3%	(31) / 52.6%	(59) / 3.2	1.175

Table 27. Role at Work

	(n) / Very False or False	(n) / Uncertain	(n) / True or Very True	(n) / Mean	Std. Dev.
1. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done.	(7) / 12%	(5) / 8.6%	(46) / 79.3%	(58) / 4.0	1.025
2. I have too much work to do everything well.	(14) / 23.7%	(8) / 13.6%	(37) / 62.7%	(59) / 3.6	1.192
3. The amount of work I am asked to do is fair.	(14) / 23.7%	(11) / 18.6%	(34) / 57.7%	(59) / 3.4	1.017
4. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	(29) / 50%	(7) / 12.1%	(22) / 38%	(58) / 2.9	1.252
5. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	(21) / 35.6%	(8) / 13.6%	(30) / 50.9%	(59) / 3.2	1.095

Interview Results

It was evident that many of the principals who volunteered for the interviews viewed their work in the same way. They passionately spoke of their relationship with children and wanting to spend as much time being “visible” as possible. They also had a general mantra regarding being prepared and ready for any situation or meeting that would present itself. They

often spoke of their worry about providing professional development to their teachers, but rarely found large amounts of time to dedicate to their own professional reading or graduate school. Compulsive work behaviors can be manifested by work addictive behaviors. As part of the WART (1999) questions related directly to compulsion were asked of participants during interviews. Requiring a positive or negative response, those questions included:

1. I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.
2. I stay busy and keep many "irons in the fire".
3. I find myself doing two or three things at one time, such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the telephone.
4. I overly commit myself by biting off more than I can chew.
5. I feel guilty when I am not working on something.
6. It is important that I see the concrete results of what I do.
7. I get angry when people don't meet my standards of perfection.
8. It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working.
9. I spend more time working than on socializing with friends, on hobbies or on leisure activities.

Out of the nine questions that were derived from part of the WART (Robinson, 1999), 100% of the interview participants agreed with the four, following statements: 1) I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock; 2) I stay busy and keep many "irons in the fire"; 3) I find myself doing two or three things at one time, such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the telephone; and 4) It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working. When answering these questions, the females expressed a level of guilt or pressure associated with their work.

Jackie responded,

From the minute I get up until I hit the pillow, the hamster wheel never stops. Whether it is school, college, my mother, my daughter, my church, I am always in a hurry. All I want to do is take a long shower and watch T.V. some nights, but if I don't prepare for meetings or conferences, people will get the wrong impression of me. I don't want to let anyone down. So, I'm exhausted most of the time. The minute I start thinking about myself, I feel guilty.

Kaitlyn responded,

I like to be involved in all of school life. Trying to have enough face time with teachers and students, while simultaneously doing the paperwork is difficult. I try to be visible to those who need me like kids and the community, plus I go to grad school. I just wouldn't feel right if I didn't give 110%. It is hard to be everything to everybody, but I would feel badly if my door was closed all of the time. It is important to balance instructional leadership with all of the daily tasks. It is difficult, but it is also really rewarding...especially when you can see the end result.

There were mixed responses from the group demonstrating three out of the nine principals who were interviewed (33.3%) *Spend more time working than on socializing with friends, on hobbies or on leisure activities*. Therefore, leaving varied comments coded by the remaining seven participants as HFI-RTSC - *Seeks to spend more time on work-related tasks than with family or at family functions*. All codes for the interviews are available in Appendix I. Samples of those related comments include one from David responding,

It is funny. I used to stay late one day each week to catch up on mail and email. Now, I stay like three days. I guess I found some balance. It is hard to concentrate. I guess I have to learn to be a better multi-tasker. I just feel like everyone wants a piece of me. Luckily, I like being the center of attention (he laughs). I do workout and jog a couple days each week with my son. If I don't do that, I will go insane.

In a related statement Adam responded,

I do feel guilty when I am not working. My wife would hate for me to say that, but there is just so much to do. I would rather be prepared each day, so I can be visible in the halls. Each year there is just more and more pressure to get the scores up, so I have been trying to read journals and get new ideas. Trust me, I have learned to relax and have fun, but I still think about my job a lot. I am working on taking things in stride.

The purpose of this study was not to diagnose workaholism or to define work addictive behaviors in the participants, yet it was interesting to note that many of the interview volunteers referred to themselves as workaholics, or they suggested that they worked with a workaholic. More than half of those interviewed even mentioned that they derived their work behaviors or work ethic from one or both of their parents. Research showed earlier that work addictive behaviors are often linked between parents and children. More study in this area could be a focal point for the health and wellness of principals in the future.

Research Question Number 3

What are the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals?

- Interview questions including selected questions from the WART (1999)
- Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey JDS (1980)
- Maslach's Burnout Inventory MBI (2001)

Brock and Grady (2002) wrote that "burnout occurs when our heart is in one place and our work is in another...work is no longer rewarding...we are emotionally, psychologically, or physically exhausted" (p. 6). They further claim that burnout is not the result of an obstacle or the occasional feelings of sadness or discouragement, it is multifaceted and symptoms are often exhibited in five areas: physical, intellectual, social, emotional, and spiritual (Farber, 1991;

Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Brock and Grady (2002) further describe burnout as a detriment to one's health and career.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was used initially over fifteen years ago. Since that time, an adaption of the original measure was used with educators (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). In this study, the MBI-Educators Survey or MBI-ES was used to measure the perceived level of job burnout among middle school principals. People who work in educational institutions are required to spend a great deal of time interacting with others. Often, principals find themselves help to solve the problems of a student or a family and even those of the numerous staff members in their school buildings. Because the answers to their problems are often complicated and frustrating and charged with emotions related to fear, concern, or even embarrassment, principals can suffer from chronic stress which can lead to burnout (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter's (1996) findings suggest that burnout can lead to a decrease in the quality of care and service an individual can provide for others. It also can lead to "job turnover, absenteeism, and low morale" (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 4). Their findings also correlate burnout syndrome with self-reported incidents of personal exhaustion and insomnia, family issues, and other health related issues. According to Maslach (1982), if work becomes unchallenging and unrewarding with no positive reinforcement and recognition, symptoms of burnout may develop.

The MBI-ES contains three subscales that assess the aspects of burnout, and it has been found to be reliable, valid, and easy to administer" (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 4). Using a six-point, fully anchored response format, the frequency of which the respondent experiences items related to each subscale is measured. "Burnout is conceptualized as a

continuous variable, ranging from low to moderate to high degrees of experienced feeling. It is not viewed as a dichotomous variable, which is either present or absent” (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 5). Scores for each subscale are considered *separately* and are not combined as a single score. The higher the mean scores on the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales, the higher the degree of burnout, while the lower the scores are on the personal accomplishment subscale, the higher the degree of burnout. However, there is no overall, existing score that defines a person as burned out. A sample of questions from the MBI-ES include: *I feel emotionally drained from my work; I have become less enthusiastic about my work; In my opinion, I am good at my job; and At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.*

In Cordes and Dougherty (1993) and Maslach (1993), there is evidence to support that women experience higher levels of Emotional Exhaustion, and men appear to demonstrate higher levels of Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment. There also seems to be evidence that young people are prone to burnout, yet married couples are more apt to avoid it (Leiter, 1990; 1991a). Leiter and Maslach (1988) go further to find that unpleasant contact with a supervisor or conflict with co-workers increases Emotional Exhaustion, while pleasant contacts was positively related to Personal Accomplishment. In sum, positive social interactions at work appear to be relevant in alleviating feelings of burnout (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

CPP, Inc. scored the MBI-ES portion of this research as part of their copyright procedures. Using no identifying factors pertaining to participants, CPP, Inc. calculated the data using SPSS software and provided the results for each subscale. Following CPP, Inc.’s recommendation, all responses were collected anonymously without any type of code or identifying label. Furthermore, to minimize any personal, reactive effects related to a

respondent's beliefs about burnout, the survey was not labeled with any header or title linking it to burnout in any way. This assessment is not meant to indicate any level of dysfunction on the part of a respondent or a need for intervention, as Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) state that there is insufficient research on those patterns to make the determination. In addition, there are distinctions between depression and burnout. Depression is considered a clinical syndrome. Whereas, burnout describes more of one's relationship and feelings with work. Depression encompasses all aspects of a person's life, yet burnout only has a relationship with the social environment of one's work life (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

At present, scores are considered high if they are in the upper third of the normative distribution, average if they are in the middle third, and low if they are in the lower third. The numerical cut-off points and percent of principals in each subscale are shown in Tables 28-33. Fifty-eight and three tenths (58.3%) percent of principals indicated that they are experiencing high levels of burnout in emotional exhaustion, 30% moderate levels of burnout in emotional exhaustion and 10% low levels of burnout in emotional exhaustion. Overall 88.3% of the principals are experiencing moderate to high levels of burnout in emotional exhaustion. Twenty-eight and three tenth (28.3%) percent of the principals indicated that they are experiencing high levels of burnout in depersonalization, 35% moderate levels of burnout in depersonalization and 35% low levels of burnout in depersonalization. Overall, 63.3% of the principals are experiencing moderate to high levels of burnout in depersonalization. Three and three tenth (3.3%) percent of the principals indicated that they are experiencing high levels of personal accomplishment, 10% moderate levels on personal accomplishment and 85% low levels of personal accomplishment. *Low* scores on personal accomplishment increase the overall levels of burnout in the other scales. The responses to the MBI items are as follows: "never," (coded 0); "a

few times a year or less,” (coded 1); “once a month or less,” (coded 2); “a few times a month,” (coded 3); “once a week,” (coded 4); “a few times a week,” (coded 5); “every day,” (coded 6).

The highest ranking items on each of the burnout scales as indicated by principals were:

1. Personal Accomplishment – I feel very energetic.
2. Emotional Exhaustion – I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. Depersonalization – I feel some staff/students blame me for their problems.

Table 28. MBI Human Services/Educators Scoring Key: Form Ed, Cut off Points

Categorization (Form Ed): Emotional Exhaustion		Categorization (Form Ed): Depersonalization		Categorization (Form Ed): Personal Accomplishment	
	<i>Frequency</i>		<i>Frequency</i>		<i>Frequency</i>
High	27 or over	High	14 or over	High	0-30
Moderate	17-26	Moderate	9-13	Moderate	31-36
Low	0-16	Low	0-8	Low	37 or over

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Maslach Burnout Inventory

Table 29. Statistics

	Emotional Exhaustion Category	Depersonalization Category	Personal Accomplishment Category
N Valid	59	59	59
Missing	1	1	1

Table 30. MBI Frequency Table: Emotional Exhaustion Category

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	6	10.0	10.2	10.2
	Moderate	18	30.0	30.5	40.7
	High	35	58.3	59.3	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 31. MBI Frequency Table: Depersonalization Category

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	21	35.0	35.6	35.6
	Moderate	21	35.0	35.6	71.2
	High	17	28.3	28.8	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 32. MBI Frequency Table: Personal Accomplishment Category

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	51	85.0	86.4	86.4
	Moderate	6	10.0	10.2	96.6
	High	2	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 33. MBI: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional Exhaustion Raw Score	59	11	57	30.51	11.100
Depersonalization Raw Score	59	5	30	11.64	5.720
Personal Accomplishment Raw Score	59	23	49	42.32	5.319
Valid N (listwise)	59				

The rank order of the items in the emotional exhaustion subscale, beginning with the question number containing the highest mean responses are shown in Table 34. Item 2, “I feel used up at the end of the work day” had the highest mean response of 4.9. The rank order of the items in the depersonalization subscale, beginning with the question number containing the highest mean responses are shown in Table 35. Item 22, “I feel staff/students blame me for some of their problems” had the highest mean response of 3.31. Finally, the rank order of the items in the personal accomplishment subscale, beginning with the question number containing the lowest mean responses are shown in Table 36. Items 12 and 9, “I feel very energetic” and “I feel

I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work" had the lowest mean response of 5.69.

Table 34. Rank Order of Emotional Exhaustion MBI Responses

Ranking	MBI Question	Mean
1	2. I feel used up at the end of the work day.	4.9
2	1. I feel I'm emotionally drained from my work.	4.49
3	14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	3.93
4	13. I feel frustrated by my job.	3.59
5	3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	3.46
6	8. I feel burned out from my work.	3.09
7	6. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	2.75
8	16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	2.2
9	20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	2.05

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Table 35. Rank Order of Depersonalization MBI Response

Ranking	MBI Question	Mean
1	22. I feel staff/students blame me for some of their problems.	3.31
2	11. I worry that the job is hardening me emotionally.	2.6
3	10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	2.31
4	5. I feel I treat some staff/students as if they were impersonal objects.	1.76
5	15. I don't really care what happens to some staff/students.	1.71

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Table 36. Rank Order of Personal Accomplishment MBI Responses

Ranking	MBI Question	Mean
1	12. I feel very energetic.	5.69
2	9. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	5.69
3	4. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my staff/students.	5.98
4	21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	6.1
5	19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	6.1
6	4. I can easily understand how my staff/students feel about things.	6.1
7	7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my staff/students.	6.36

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Burnout, Stress, and Work Addiction

The concept of work addiction was explained earlier in this study. It was characterized by a person whose need to work has become so excessive that it demonstrates three properties; high work involvement; compelled or driven to work because of inner pressures; and low enjoyment in his/her work (Spence & Robbins, 1992). It was also characterized by disturbing one's physical health, personal happiness, interpersonal relations, or the ability to function socially. Yet, there are individuals who simply love their work and work at a high level of competence without negative side effects. They seek to exceed expectations because of an inner drive that has not crossed into compulsion. Those who suffer from burnout also demonstrate characteristics of those who have work addictive behaviors.

One of the side effects of work addiction that was evidenced by the principals in this study surrounded the presence of stress and impaired health conditions. Of importance, the participants in this study were not diagnostically identified to possess a work addiction or to have been treated for any such addiction. Of those principals who participated voluntarily with an interview, they all related some form of health problem experienced during their employment. Whether their stress was related to self expectations or the expectations of others, nearly 70% of all of the participants answered that they felt a great deal of job-related stress because of their job or felt their job was extremely stressful. In a related question, 84.7% of the principals agreed that many stressful situations occur at their school (See Tables 37-39).

Table 37. I feel a great deal of stress because of my job.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	True	41	68.3	69.5	69.5
	False	18	30.0	30.5	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 38. Very few stressful things happen to me at work.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	True	9	15.0	15.3	15.3
	False	50	83.3	84.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 39. My job is extremely stressful.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	True	40	66.7	69.0	69.0
	False	18	30.0	31.0	100.0
	Total	58	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	3.3		
Total		60	100.0		

Research suggests that those who suffer from work addictive behaviors and high levels of stress have a higher disposition to die from heart attacks or become debilitated by strokes (Fassel, 1990). There are even chances for blackouts, sleep disorders, exhaustion, ulcers,

headaches, and other illnesses related to poor diet and exercise (Fassel, 1990). The participants in this study indicate the presence of a health problem, while they have been employed as a middle school principal. Adam responded,

The biggest job pressures and stress that I have trouble leaving are things that deal with conflict. The largest health condition that I deal with, I would say would be not being able to sleep. So I would say just lack of sleep due to concerns or pressures or stress here at school.

Kathy responded,

Sleeplessness, not necessarily having trouble sleeping but being awake so many hours to try to accomplish things but by the end of the week you are just entirely fatigued and then on the weekends where that's the time that I usually get my Graduate School work it's not really a break. This has been the first week that I feel a little bit rested.

Richard responded,

Well, my blood pressure. I have hypertension. I do believe that this is my fifth year in administration. I know that it is an issue within my family but my first three years I think I noticed a change in my physical condition and hypertension definitely had been a major part in the past two years I think.

Mona responded,

There are times I was just completely run down and shot. There were times when a parent would call at the end of the day when something happened, and they would just be too demanding...and I get that feeling of wow, I can't take anymore. So the health conditions I suffer are more stress related and anxiety. Not being able to sleep you always felt tired is a constant. Not being able to handle even like the little issues started to really get to me.

Byron responded,

Whatever job I was involved in I would probably do more than what the expectation was. That's just because it's sort of the way I do things. Yesterday I had my blood pressure taken by the nurse assistant in the building just because I'm an intense individual to begin with and I am also a migraine sufferer and one of the things I want to make sure is that the blood pressure is related to my migraines. I've had them for my whole life and I know in this job, this is a stressful job and even when you don't feel stressed about a particular incident, I think at least the way I am you carry some of that with you...you know it's not like a weight on the chest or anything like that; it's just that you become used to the responsibility and you don't realize the stress that just comes with being ultimately responsible for the things that happen with 850 people and you have to somehow answer for their health, safety, and ability to be productive citizens. That is a lot.

Gender differences on questions related to stress are negligible indicating that these middle school principals have similar perceptions of the perceived level of stress in their job and their psychological responses to it. Women and men are evaluated by similar accountability measures, laws and mandates, and pressures related to children and teachers. These job requirements are not gender specific. Therefore, they seem to demonstrate the same levels and reactions to stress. One principal chose not to respond to all questions related to stress. Future research in the area of gender may prove valuable.

In data previously reported, 25 (41.7%) of the respondents in this study are 39 years of age or younger and 35 (58.4%) are 40 years of age or older with only one exception; one (1.7%) participant was 60 years of age or older. The largest subgroups seem to be very much in agreement of their level of stress regardless of their ages. Despite the many similarities by genders and age groups, there appears to be a small difference in the reaction to stress by those who are at the highest age ranges. The younger principals in the study may feel more stress in their job as evidenced by Gronn and Lacey's (2004) study related to the feelings of vulnerability in new school principals and their ability to cope with such feelings. They viewed the movement

of teachers into the principalship as a “process of occupational identity change” (Gronn & Lacey, 2004, p. 406). During this identity change, new principals in their study found uncertainties associated with their new role and work that appeared “boundary-less.” Gronn’s (2003) data identified the principalship as a profession that requires “intensified and sustained 24/7 performance-driven levels of individual engagement” (p. 406). The ability to reflect and learn about their new job and the creation or molding of a new identity may appear more stressful for principals earlier in their career. This difference in reaction could suggest a need for further research to determine if stress is more prevalent earlier in one’s career than later.

5.0 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss conclusions that can be drawn from the findings and make recommendations for future research. This chapter is segmented into five sections which include the discussion, interpretations of findings, implications, suggestions for further research, and conclusions.

Discussion

Educational leaders of the 21st Century are faced with numerous challenges related to increasing student achievement, maintaining fiscal responsibility, and meeting community expectations. Several conclusions were developed about work behaviors, stress, burnout, and coping strategies of principals from the review of the literature. Overall, the research findings support the existence of high levels of stress associated with the job of principal. Job related stress of school principals accounts for most of their total life stress (Frick & Fraas, 1990). Also, the review of literature provides evidence that specified stress levels can have adverse effects for these individuals and may even develop into work addictive behaviors. Yet, more current dialogues related to educational leadership propose that successful leadership, often underestimated, can play an important role in improving student learning (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Walstrom, 2004). Hence, building a leadership capacity into school improvement efforts can have greater impact than once expected. Therefore, it is critical for school district

personnel to offer a balance of work input and output, so that there is an opportunity for “flow” to exist for their principals.

Most employers celebrate employees who work long hours and dedicate themselves fully to their work. Extended work hours and sacrifices to get tasks completed are commonplace in order to reach success and advancement in current employment culture (Harpaz & Snir, 2003). In fact, technology has become instrumental in extending the workday beyond the confines of an office.

Principals engage in a dynamic interplay of instructional and managerial leadership. As an instructional leader, they review curriculum, provide for differentiation, provide professional development, act as the lead learner, and so much more. The principal as the manager accepts the daily demands of the community, school plant, expenditures, materials and supplies, and the like. The perpetual motion of the job is relentless and demanding. As the leader of the school, the principal cannot allow stress of these responsibilities make their job performance suffer. Sergiovanni (1992) believes that while the more traditional aspects of leadership have received the most support, future leaders must also possess the more affective, cultural, and moral components of leadership. The appropriate leader is not the end, but part of the means to helping a school maximize the potential of its people and work toward a shared goal. Competent leaders understand that the most important and significant resource in any organization is people. This is a long way from traditional top-down management methods of the past.

School leadership in the 21st Century will require some changing or adding to the repertoire of principals. The basics for successful leadership as described by Leithwood et al. (2004) are comprised of three core practices including: 1) Setting direction; 2) Developing people; and 3) Redesigning the organization to develop one that supports the performance of

administrators, teachers, and students. Therefore, it is suggested that it is important for principals to participate in “high-quality leadership development programs that blend knowing what to do - declarative knowledge - with knowing how and when to do it – procedural and contextual knowledge” (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003, p. 36). The job characteristics should be transparent, as to avoid disillusionment later in one’s tenure in the role. There is little doubt that finding congruence between school leadership and most educational reform issues will have a positive consequence on students. A visionary leader promotes student and staff success through teacher empowerment, innovative curriculum revision, increasing collaboration, and strategic thinking. Second only to classroom instruction, leadership can strengthen student achievement (Leithwood et al., 2004).

This study was designed to build upon previous research on the perceptions of work characteristics, burnout, and the job satisfaction of principals. Data compared in this study included demographic data, job characteristics, interpersonal characteristics, role stress of the principal, the impact of burnout, and the coping strategies of principals. Although intervention strategies have often been suggested in numerous studies related to burnout, workaholism, and work-related satisfaction, few have actually been implemented. Due to costs, the ability to assess long-term impact of interventions, and the capacity to make an impact for researchers to manipulate the workload of subjects, Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) contend that because researchers cannot directly control the aspects of the work in the field of human services or even the participative decision making that does or does not exist, intervention opportunities will continue to be limited. Therefore, amid the turmoil of our times, educational leaders struggle to emphasize quality instruction and high levels of student achievement while at the same time seeking job fulfillment and the essence of “flow” in their job performance.

5.1 INTERPRETATIONS OF FINDINGS

The focus of this study was based upon three research questions.

1. *What are middle level principals' perceptions of their work-related behaviors?*
2. *To what degree has increased accountability impacted the work-related behaviors of middle level principals?*
3. *What are the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals?*

Research Question Number 1

1. What are middle level principals' perceptions of their work-related behaviors?

Todd Whitaker, a professor of educational leadership and author of numerous books on principal effectiveness, leadership, instructional improvement, and motivation wrote, "The difference between more effective principals and their less effective colleagues is not what they know, it is what they do" (2003, p. 1). So, there must be a way to *do* this job and discover enough intrinsic motivation to continue year after year. Otherwise, the already declining number of those seeking administrative posts would dwindle exponentially and very few, if any, would seek to become a principal.

The principals in this study made it clear that they draw satisfaction and self-worth from the challenges that are present in their jobs. They are also pleased with their personal growth and the amount of thought and action that they experience. Although they respond that they welcome

the challenges of the position, they also report that they are at times unsure of the amount of authority that they have and how to work with groups of people who operate quite differently. In fact, they also respond that the amount of work that they do can be considered *fair*, but the feedback that they receive for that work is often conflicted. Hence, it is accepted by one person but not another. The lack of resources, manpower, increased pressures related to state assessment, and direction from supervisors make it difficult to execute the vision of the school district.

Rethinking the traditional role of principals should continue to be under significant scrutiny. The role of educational leader is valued and expectations have increased. Although management expectations remain, the principal's role of leader has expanded. Schwahn and Spady (1998) draw a significant piece of attention to the fact that leadership roles have changed and continue to evolve in the 21st Century. They suggest that successful, educational leaders need to think of learning in new ways, while expectations on them continue to increase. Leaders need to recognize differences in how schools were managed in the past and how they need to be led now in the future.

During their research for the Wallace Foundation in 2010, Louis et al. identified that principals extend significant influence to others in the school community. In fact, their results showed that “collective leadership is linked to student achievement, indirectly, through its effects on teacher motivation and teachers’ workplace settings” (p. 36). This shared or collective ideal of leadership has come to be known as distributed leadership, and Spillane et al. (2004) are convinced that it offers substantial theoretical leverage in studying leadership activity. They further stated that “if expertise is distributed, then the school rather than the individual leader may be the most appropriate unit for thinking about the development of leadership expertise”

(Spillane et al., 2004, p. 29). It offers the ability to empower others and taking leadership practices beyond that of an individual leader, but focuses on how leadership practices can be distributed among both positional and informal leaders (e.g. teachers, parents, and community members). “The collective properties of the group of leaders working together to enact a particular task...lead to the evolution of a leadership practice that is potentially more than the sum of each individual’s practice” (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001, p. 25). The data gathered in this study shows that these middle level leaders are eager to accept the challenges of their role, but can do it more effectively with more support---both financial and emotional. Increasing the involvement of others in schools can help to reduce the pressures on principals, while also improving morale and practices among others to increase student performance.

Learning a variety of coping strategies could be important so that we do not lose current administrators from the principalship as well as assisting us to attract future principals. By developing the ability of the people in the school building to understand the vision and work toward a common goal, shared leadership becomes an incredible resource that can be utilized. Organizations must learn to use and capitalize on the unique strengths of their employees, just as employees must continually reassess their capabilities, talents, and potential contributions to their organization (Schwahn & Spady, 2000, p. 5). If schools are to be effective learning organizations, they must find ways to create structures that continuously support teaching and learning and enhance organizational adaptation; develop organizational cultures and climates that are open, collaborative, and self-regulating; attract individuals who are secure, efficacious, and open to change; and prevent vicious and illegitimate politics from displacing the legitimate activities of learning and teaching (Hoy & Miskel, 2005, p. 33).

Research Question Number 2

2. To what degree has increased accountability impacted the work-related behaviors of middle level principals?

The principal's job has become more challenging and demanding over the years and needs to be reconfigured. The issues and demands facing principals and their schools now and in the years ahead are increasingly complex (Chamly et al., 1992). In recent years, a number of changes have been initiated in Pennsylvanian schools, adding more pressure to the principal's job. In fact, the MBI-ES was adapted for use for those in school settings because the profession has succumbed to the "pressure by society to expand their roles beyond education" (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 27). That is why this instrument was utilized in this study.

Principals have been forced to correct the societal ills of abuse, meeting the wide range of student abilities, while also instilling moral and ethical reasoning for their students. It is quite the heavy burden. This burden also includes the increased complexity in existing educational programs, state-initiated changes, and district-driven changes. The centerpiece of legislated changes in Pennsylvania is the PSSA exam and the now pending Keystone exams. Pressures on middle school principals have increased dramatically as a result of implementing the new standards and assessment system. Students are entering our high schools not proficient on our state assessment, making middle school principals face the challenge of ensuring that their students will pass the tests with proficiency and earn a high school diploma. Today, the principal must be assessor, an accountant, a lawyer, a public relations agent, a diplomat, a teacher, a disciplinarian, and an instructional leader. The role seems endless.

As a result, Louis et al. (2010) recognize that secondary administrators fall into the abyss of managerial tasks and interact less with a vision for instructional leadership with a strong focus

on teaching, data analysis, and learning. The restructuring of work schedules may aid in the increase of student achievement and the participation in leadership by teachers. There is never a time when teachers and parents should feel marginalized because the tasks that they are given in the school are insignificant or do not offer a sense of ownership in helping to increase student learning (Louis et al., 2010). It is not enough to “merely launch initiatives” aimed at improving the role of distributed leadership (Louis, et al., 2010). It takes high-quality implementation to produce higher levels of principal efficacy.

Principals in this study responded that they understand that many people depend on them and the job is significant in the world where they live. Their passion for doing good work for children was very evident. They recognize that they have to use strong judgment and initiative to carry out tasks, but more than half of the principals feel as though they receive incompatible requests from different people and/or sparse feedback from supervisors under most circumstances. They also respond that the lack of time causes tasks to go unfinished. Due to time pressures, many principals share that they are the first to arrive each day and the last to leave each night. Some even in jest referred to themselves as a “workaholic,” because of the number of hours that they work each day.

Most of a principal’s time is spent working and interacting with others. There are numerous conflicts, responsibilities, and other tasks that dominate the usage of time, yet there is research that demonstrates that there are ways in which people enjoy life despite the adversity (Csikszentmihaly, 1997). Being knowledgeable about how one uses time and how one successfully manages stress, anxiousness, boredom, loneliness, and leisure can provide insight on how some people find positive, peak moments through their own focused energy, while others do not.

Principals are aware that the job has expanded at all levels and feedback is minimal, as is professional development. The participants in this study are eager to find new ways to cope or share opportunities for leadership, so that young people will reach higher level of performance. Furthermore, the principals will operate with more satisfaction and more frequently at a level of “flow.”

Research Question Number 3

3. What are the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics, interpersonal relationships, role stress, psychological states, and task outcomes on middle level principals?

The purpose of this research question was to determine the perceived level of job burnout of the middle school principals who participated in this study. Burnout is conceptualized as a continuous variable, ranging from low to moderate to high degrees of experienced feeling. It is not viewed as a dichotomous variable, which is either present or absent. Burnout is a state when an employee feels that work is no longer rewarding and he/she is emotionally, psychologically, and/or physically exhausted. Burnout is not the result of an obstacle or the occasional feelings of sadness or discouragement, it is multifaceted and symptoms are often exhibited in five areas: physical, intellectual, social, emotional, and spiritual (Cedoline, 1982; Farber, 1991; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). In the ebb and flow of work, it is comprehensible that a person will have feelings of burnout from time to time, but when it occurs every day it is a serious problem. In order to avoid burnout, it requires a lifestyle at home and at work that values a balance of intense effort coupled with rest and relaxation. It is not only a problem of an individual, but the shared work environment. Burnout turns out to be the antithesis of one’s real engagement with work. A mismatch between people and their work environment in these areas reduces capacity for energy, involvement, and sense of effectiveness. Matches in these areas enhance engagement.

The passage of time has a great deal to do with the number of responsibilities, but how one experiences these events is even more important. There are some people who actually avoid burnout and the depletion of mental resources, and feel energetic and engaged with the demands of their job (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). Scaufeli, et al. (2002) define this form of work engagement as a positive state of mind that allows for one to feel dedication, vigor, and absorption in one's work. Principals in this study continued to share that they feel energized by their personal accomplishments and their ability to influence the lives of others. They also respond that they are able to demonstrate empathy for others and react calmly under pressure. This sense of accomplishment allows for a person to feel engrossed in their work. In fact, this absorption seems to make a person sense that time passes very quickly, and it is so pleasurable that it is often difficult to detach from the work. This absorption is close to what has been come to be known as "flow" (Csikszentmihaly, 1990). If principals find happiness in their work and what they are feeling, wishing, and thinking are in perfect harmony, they can be inspired by the experience of "flow" (Csikszentmihaly, 1997).

Conversely, several researchers indicated that as school administrators work more hours per week, their levels of stress increase (Saffer, 1984; Williams & Portin, 1997). "Many principals are unable to cope with the growing demands and the lack of help and resources to complete their tasks. Exhausted and defeated, many are retiring silently. Many of those who remain are increasingly weary" (Brown, 2006, p. 525) and make several on the job mistakes. Most principals operate in an isolating environment that offers only intrinsic rewards or satisfaction primarily from their own vantage point (Malone & Caddell, 2000).

The principals in this study demonstrate emotional exhaustion by feeling tired at the end of the day and drained from the work that is required, but they do not appear exasperated by their

level of stress or desire to spend less time with others or avoid wanting to come back each day. They also do not respond that they are hardened by the job or treating others callously or impersonally. They respond that they remain fulfilled by their successes and ability to overcome challenges and benefit from those intrinsic rewards.

Stress and burnout will continue to be a concern for principals. Society is rapidly changing and is causing schools to do more and be more than they have ever before. Therefore, it is imperative that principals receive training to deal effectively with these challenges and pressures. As the leader of the school, the principal cannot allow stress to make his or her job performance suffer. The effectiveness of the principal at work is extremely important to the success or failure of the school. They need to know what to do when they feel emotionally exhausted, depersonalized, and how to function with very little feedback. Implications from the Wallace Foundation Study (2010) suggest that schools should “Redesign human resources policies related to school leadership. While districts cannot control all aspects of the performance of school-based leaders, serious consideration should be given to recruitment practices, discouraging turnover, planning for effective leadership transition when turnover occurs, and redesigning principal evaluation procedures.” Today, more than ever, our schools need leaders who can adapt to change and create a healthy environment that supports learning for our students.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS

The constant pressure to be the leader, the one in charge, can be exhausting for one person. Thus, the job of principal is not appealing to many and is often difficult to do by a traditional leader. This study has contributed to educational practice by building upon the previous research on job characteristics, burnout, and coping strategies among principals.

There are three possible implications of the current study which could be used for practice. First, one of the most important contributions of this study is the identification of predictors of burnout in the subscales of personal accomplishment, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization for principals. Knowledge of the predictors of burnout could assist school districts in the hiring process for principalships. For example, questions could be tailored for the interview process to find out how potential principals might respond to stressful situations. Additionally, school districts could ask specific questions about how potential principals may have handled different types of situations in the past during the reference check process. Also, principals can identify their level of burnout using the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Although the MBI-ES is not a clinical-diagnostic tool, it offers a way to help principals manage their career and offer possible ideas for interventions to enhance the organizational climate present in the school district. These data could also identify the need for additional principal training in order for them to learn a variety of coping strategies for stress and to prevent burnout.

The role of the Human Resources Department is also significant. They are aware of Employee Assistance Programs, healthcare options, or other professional benefits. In fact, this office may be situated to offer support to principals, particularly those new to the district, in the

form of developing mentors with more senior members of the staff who would offer more collaborative efforts and a chance to further build upon existing strengths. They could also facilitate all state-wide initiatives that are required for all new principals upon employment.

Second, the job of the principalship needs to be reconfigured. Close examination of the effect that additional responsibilities have on principals and their capacity to provide leadership to their school must occur. In addition, identifying potential barriers that complicate the job can be moderated. This can be achieved through removing those predictors of frustration that include lack of school district vision, incomplete resources, vacancy of feedback and collegial supervision, and the lack of attention when principals are tired or overwhelmed by the number of responsibilities versus the amount of time to get things done. An awareness of these issues by superintendents, human resources professionals, and colleagues can positively impact the role of the principal. The expectations of the community may also change if they were more aware of the job characteristics of this profession. This leadership problem can be mitigated through exploration into distributive leadership opportunities. This distributive perspective as described by Spillane et al. (2001) suggests that

Intervening to improve school leadership by focusing exclusively or chiefly on building the knowledge of an individual formal leader in a school may not be the most optimal or most effective use of resources. If expertise is distributed, then the school rather than the individual leader may be the most appropriate unit for thinking about the development of leadership expertise (p. 27).

The constraints of schools and leadership practices are often constraining and lack the reform needed for a leader's role to be less hierarchical and more collaborative.

Finally, research should be conducted to determine what professional development opportunities and training can be developed and offered to increase coping strategies to reduce stress and burnout. "Although pressure on school and district leaders is increasing, the level of

support (professional development and expertise) extended to them has remained constant or has declined” (Louis et al., 2010, p. 280). There should be added attention provided for those wishing to enter administration, as well as for those who are beginning a career in the role of middle school principal.

It is important for superintendents to be clear and repetitive when communicating the mission and the vision of the district. This shared understanding of the district goals will aid principals in making decisions and knowing when to collaborate on common work plans. Clear expectations coupled with timely feedback offer more opportunity for “flow” and job satisfaction.

Finally, university administrative credential programs could begin this work with aspiring principals to determine what courses should be offered to assist them with coping skills and ways to better handle work-related stress to prevent burnout and heighten job satisfaction. This extension of collegial development and preparation can also be further explored by professional, educational organizations who can offer additional support for principals beyond their current, employment relationships with local, national, or international colleagues. It is also paramount that as state and federal mandates continue to demand changes in schools, a shift in funding should be allocated for proper training of school-based leaders.

5.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The following recommendations for further study are based upon the discussion and interpretation of the data collected in this study:

1. *This study could be conducted with other middle school principals in different states to compare stress levels, burnout levels, and preferred coping strategies, across geographic regions.* This study was limited to Western Pennsylvania. Other geographic regions would certainly add new data to the current study.
2. *This study could be conducted with principals at the elementary and high school levels to compare the stress levels, burnout levels, and preferred coping strategies across school levels.* This study was limited to middle level principals due to their engagement with PSSA tests at all levels. In addition, similar job responsibilities offered a greater alignment with data. All principals have been witness to increased accountability and may add to the research in the future.
3. *Future research in the area of gender-related burnout among principals may prove valuable.* Although gender was not a focal point of this study, it would be hypothesized that there would be different responses for male and female subjects.
4. *District level administrators need to develop regular climate studies to monitor the engagement and health of its educational leaders.* School leaders on all levels would benefit from the development of a shared understanding of morale, mental/physical health conditions, etc. that exist in the district.
5. *District level administrators should study the role of the principalship to determine if decentralized decision-making efforts will reduce stress and increase a principal's sense of control at school.* Distributed leadership opportunities are not one-size-fits-all practices. It is critical for all leaders to be reflective about their own capacity and the local needs of the school community.
6. *Research should be conducted on how the changes in technology are positively or negatively affecting the job of the principal.* The effects of the 24-hour, connected employee are part of the 21st Century world. It is a timely issue to consider the ramifications for being linked to work at all hours of the day and night.
7. *Study the longitudinal impact of burnout that exists in urban, suburban, and rural school environments.* The job of a principal may differ by the location in which it is done and the clientele with whom they serve. The long-term impact of job location may offer different responses by principals.

8. *Research can focus on the emotional demands in education and the lack of reciprocity that often occurs for leaders.* Most principals report that those who evaluate them are rarely visible their schools. In addition, most students rarely return to their home school to report quality news of success or gratitude. That lack of feedback or reciprocity may hamper the principal's ability to accomplish his/her goals or the goals of the school district.

5.4 CONCLUSIONS

“Half of America’s public school teachers will leave the profession over the next decade and the same holds true for principals” (Malone & Caddell, 2000, p.162). Although Malone and Caddell’s (2000) research is a decade old, this employment shortage is relevant and personified by the United States Department of Labor. They produce the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* for the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. This report comments on all occupations and provides information related to Nature of Work; Training; Qualifications; Employment; Job Outlook; Projections; Earnings; Wages; Related occupations; and Advancement.

In the 2010-2011 Edition of the Occupational Handbook, the Employment of Education Administrators is described as follows:

Enrollment of students in elementary and secondary schools is expected to grow relatively slowly over the next decade, limiting the growth of principals and other administrators in these schools. However, the number of administrative positions will continue to increase as more administrative responsibilities are placed on individual schools, particularly with regard to monitoring student achievement. Job opportunities should be excellent due to a large number of expected retirements and fewer applicants for some positions. Principals and assistant principals should have excellent job prospects because a sharp increase in responsibilities in recent years has made the job more stressful and has discouraged some teachers from taking positions in administration. Principals are now being held more accountable for the performance of students and teachers, while at the same time they are required to adhere to a growing number of government regulations. In addition, overcrowded classrooms, safety issues, budgetary concerns, and teacher shortages in some areas are creating additional stress for administrators. Many teachers feel that the increase in pay for becoming an administrator is not high enough to compensate for the greater responsibilities. Opportunities may vary by region of the country. Enrollments are expected to increase the fastest in the West and South, where the population is growing faster, and to

decline or remain stable in the Northeast and the Midwest. School administrators also are in greater demand in rural and urban areas, where pay is generally lower than in the suburbs.

Furthermore, Farkas and Harris (2001) indicate that the dissatisfaction that many principals have for their jobs and the pressures of accountability will spark greater than anticipated principal shortages. Given this chaos, it is often difficult for principals to determine what needs to be done and how much time needs allocated to offer the best education and leadership for their students and staff. Analyzing research into school leadership in particular is not a new endeavor. Conversely, exploring the work characteristics and behaviors of school principals involves not only the dramatic change in the job description for school leaders in the last decade, but also their capacity for juggling societal demands, personal goals, familial priorities, and professional responsibilities in a healthy and productive manner.

This study aimed to illuminate the perceptions, feelings, and behaviors of middle level principals regarding their work, relationships with others, and their emotional feelings toward the demands of their job. The findings revealed that participants approach their jobs with a great deal of satisfaction and often possess the feelings of “flow” when challenges are balanced with their abilities. When principals believe that they can positively impact the students and staff within their school, but also contribute to the reconceptualization of their school district, they are willing to overlook the lack of direct feedback, the lack of time and resources to complete tasks, and the presence of burnout. The need to further explore the impact of principal training programs and the impact of distributed perspective on leadership during this age of increased accountability is necessary. The longevity of emotionally balanced principals in their role and their impact on student achievement continues to be paramount now more than at any other time in history.

APPENDIX A



University of Pittsburgh

Consent To Participate In A Research Study

The Changing Nature of the Principalship: Exploration into Work Characteristics of Middle Level Principals in Western Pennsylvania

INVESTIGATOR: Tammy A. Andreyko
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In recent years much attention has been paid to the importance of school leadership. However, little data exists about middle level principals' perceptions of their jobs and about the characteristics of their work during this era of increased accountability.

This study is being performed in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education at the University of Pittsburgh. As a middle level principal, you are being asked to participate in a research project that seeks to investigate the job characteristics of the principalship, levels of stress and burnout, the presence of job satisfaction, and your reactions to the expectations of your job.

There are two tiers of participation. The first tier will involve an online survey of all 141 middle level principals in Western Pennsylvania. This survey should take approximately 20 minutes. The second tier will involve a personal interview with the investigator. A smaller, subgroup of the total population will be invited to participate in these interviews later in the study. The interviews will be audio taped and transcribed.

There is no more than minimal risk to individuals who participate in this research and complete confidentiality is ensured. Your name will not be used. Instead, you will be given a code number and pseudonym to guarantee your confidentiality. The typed transcript of the interview will be entered on a computer, and any identifying information will be changed for any written reports. Only the project investigator will have access to the transcript. Your participation

is voluntary. There is no compensation for participating in this research, and you may withdraw at any time, for any reason, without penalty.

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this survey and possible follow-up interview. Please print a copy of this information for your records. By agreeing to the following statement, you acknowledge the above information and give your voluntary consent for participation.

You have my deep appreciation for your participation in this study. I believe that this study will help to improve support services for educational administrators and their relationship with their work and health.

For many years the Pitt IRB has mandated that subjects initial each page of a consent form, sign the final page, and receive a copy of the consent document. The federal regulations require that subjects sign the consent form and receive a copy of the document but do not require that each page be initialed. As part of an on-going evaluation of IRB policies and procedures, the Pitt IRB has rescinded the initialing requirement as of 6. February 2009.

We understand that research sponsors or organizations occasionally require that subjects initial each consent form page; under those circumstances, the initial footer may remain. This should be explained in the IRB protocol.

APPENDIX B



University of Pittsburgh *Institutional Review Board*

3500 Fifth Avenue

Pittsburgh, PA 15213

(412) 383-1480

(412) 383-1508 (fax)

<http://www.irb.pitt.edu>

Memorandum

To: Tammy Andreyko

From: Christopher Ryan PhD , Vice Chair

Date: 3/10/2010

IRB#: [PRO10010376](#)

Subject: The Changing Nature of the Principalship: Exploration into Work Characteristics of Middle Level Principals in Western Pennsylvania.

The University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board reviewed and approved the above referenced study by the expedited review procedure authorized under 45 CFR 46.110. Your research study was approved under:

45 CFR 46.110.(7)

The IRB has approved the waiver for the requirement to obtain a written informed consent.

Approval Date: 3/10/2010

Expiration Date: 3/9/2011

For studies being conducted in UPMC facilities, no clinical activities can be undertaken by investigators until they have received approval from the UPMC Fiscal Review Office.

Please note that it is the investigator's responsibility to report to the IRB any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others [see 45 CFR 46.103(b)(5) and 21 CFR 56.108(b)]. The IRB Reference Manual (Chapter 3, Section 3.3) describes the reporting requirements for unanticipated problems which include, but are not limited to, adverse events. If you have any questions about this process, please contact the Adverse Events Coordinator at 412-383-1480.

The protocol and consent forms, along with a brief progress report must be resubmitted at least one month prior to the renewal date noted above as required by FWA00006790 (University of Pittsburgh), FWA00006735 (University of Pittsburgh Medical Center), FWA00000600 (Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh), FWA00003567 (Magee-Womens Health Corporation), FWA00003338 (University of Pittsburgh Medical Center Cancer Institute).

Please be advised that your research study may be audited periodically by the University of Pittsburgh Research Conduct and Compliance Office.

APPENDIX C

Participant Code Number _____

- *After reading the information about this study, are you willing to provide your consent to take this survey and participate in the research? YES _____ NO _____*

Age

29 or less _____
30-39 _____
40-49 _____
50-59 _____
60 or over _____

Gender

Male _____
Female _____

Marital Status

Single _____
Married _____
Separated _____
Divorced _____
Widowed _____

Highest level of education

Bachelors Degree _____
Bachelors Degree + additional coursework _____
Masters Degree _____
Masters Degree + additional coursework _____
Doctorate _____

Total Years in Education

1-5 _____
6-10 _____
11-15 _____

Total Years in an Administrative Capacity

1-5 _____
6-10 _____
11-15 _____

16-20 _____
21-25 _____
26-30 _____
31-40 _____

16-20 _____
21-25 _____
26-30 _____
31-40 _____

- What is the length of time that you have been in your current position? _____

How many teachers and staff do you supervise?

10-30 _____
31-60 _____
61-90 _____
91-120 _____
121-150 _____
151 or more _____

Within the next 5 years, what employment position do you hope to hold?

How many hours on average do you work each week? _____

- This number should include both hours during the school day and hours beyond contracted, school hours.

Did your eighth graders Annual Yearly Progress in May 2009?

In Reading	Yes _____	No _____
In Math	Yes _____	No _____
In Writing	Yes _____	No _____

APPENDIX D

Job Characteristics and Engagement Survey

Listed below are a numbers of statements which could be used to describe a job. You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate description of your job. Please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job, regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Circle one number beside each statement, based on the following scale.

How accurately is the statement in describing your job?

1 Very Inaccurate	2 Mostly Inaccurate	3 Slightly Inaccurate	4 Uncertain	5 Slightly Accurate	6 Mostly Accurate	7 Very Accurate
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- 2.a. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.
- 2.b. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.
- 2.c. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- 2.d. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
- 2.e. The job is quite simple and repetitive.
- 2.f. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone – without talking or checking with other people.
- 2.g. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me “feedback” about how well I am doing in my work.
- 2.h. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
- 2.i. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
- 2.j. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
- 2.k. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
- 2.l. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
- 2.m. The job gives considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
- 2.n. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

Please consider the most accurate description of your relationship with co-workers in your immediate area.

3.a. What would you say about the atmosphere in your immediate work group in terms of friendliness? (Your immediate work group consists of the people you see most often while at work.)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Not friendly at all Very friendly

3.b. To what extent do people in your immediate work group help you find ways to do a better job?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Never Very often

3.c. To what extent do you discuss personal problems with individuals in your immediate work group?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Never Very often

3.d. To what extent do your supervisors let you know how well you are doing on the job?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.	Moderately; sometimes my supervisor provides “feedback” to me; some-Times he or she does not.	Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant “feedback” as I work about how well I am doing.
--	---	--

3.e. Please rate your priority on the following scale when you find it necessary to choose between work and significant relationships (such as marriage, family, or significant other).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Work is first priority Equal balance Significant Relationship is first priority

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe some general aspects of your work role. Please circle the number that indicates the degree to which the condition exists for you.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very False

Very True

- 3.f. I have to do things that should be done differently.
- 3.g. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
- 4.a. I have too much work to do everything well.
- 4.b. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
- 4.c. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.
- 4.d. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done.
- 4.e. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
- 4.f. I know what responsibilities are.
- 4.g. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
- 4.h. I know exactly what is expected of me.
- 4.i. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
- 4.j. Explanation is clear of what is to be done.
- 4.k. The amount of work I am asked to do is fair.
- 4.l. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
- 4.m. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job. Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her job. Please consider your own,

personal feelings about your job by indicating how much you agree with each of the statements. Circle the number for each statement, based on this scale 1-7.

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Slightly Disagree 4 Neutral 5 Slightly Agree 6 Agree 7 Strongly Agree

- 4.n. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.
- 4.o. Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial.
- 4.p. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.
- 4.q. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.
- 4.r. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.
- 4.s. I frequently think of quitting this job.
- 4.t. I often have trouble figuring out whether I am doing well or poorly on this job.
- 5.a. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.
- 5.b. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
- 5.c. Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly my responsibility.

For this section, please continue to think about yourself and your own personal feelings. Circle the number that most accurately indicates how you feel about your job using the same scale as above. How much do you agree with the statement?

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Slightly Disagree 4 Neutral 5 Slightly Agree 6 Agree 7 Strongly Agree

- 5.d. It is difficult to find real friends where I work.
- 5.e. There are dependable ties between me and the people I work with.
- 5.f. The people that I work with care about each other.

- 5.g. Most people at work are just out for themselves.
- 5.h. My co-workers and I support each other.
- 5.i. Most of the people I work with don't hesitate to go out of their way to help a co-worker in trouble.
- 5.j. I can be comfortable working with nearly all kinds of staff.
- 5.k. No one at work really understands me.
- 5.l. When I need help, I have friends at work I can turn to.

Now please think of the other people in your organization who hold the same job as you do. If no one has exactly the same job as you, think of the job which is most similar to yours. Please think about how accurately each of the statements describe the feelings of those people about the job. It is quite alright if your answers are different from when you described your OWN reactions to the job. Often people feel quite differently about the same job. Once again, circle the number for each statement based on this scale. How much do you agree with the statement?

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Neutral	5 Slightly Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
----------------------------	-------------------	----------------------------	------------------	-------------------------	----------------	-------------------------

- 5.m. Most of the other people on this job are very satisfied with the job.
- 6.a. Most of the other people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.
- 6.b. Most of the other people on this job feel a great deal of personal responsibility for the work they do.
- 6.c. Most of the other people on this job have a pretty good idea of how well they are performing their work.
- 6.d. Most of the other people on this job find their work meaningful.

6.e. Most of the other people on this job feel that whether or not the job gets done right is clearly their own responsibility.

6.f. People on this job often think of quitting.

6.g. Most of the other people on this job have trouble figuring out whether they are doing a good or a bad job.

Please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Once again, circle the appropriate number beside each statement.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Extremely Dissatisfied

Extremely Satisfied

6.h. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.

6.i. The feeling of worth-while accomplishment I get from doing my job.

6.j. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.

6.k. The amount of challenge in my job.

Additional comments regarding the challenges of administration and job satisfaction are welcome in the space below. Thank you very much for your time and assistance.

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (Semi-Structured)

Questions are identified by numbers (1, 2, 3...), and probes are identified by letters (a, b, c...).

1. How much do you work? Hours at Home and at School?
 - a. Is this more or less than you did as a classroom teacher? Why?
 - b. Is this more or less time than you spent 5-8 years ago? Why?
2. To what do you attribute your need to work beyond 40 hours/week?
3. Do you have an assistant principal?
 - a. What are his/her duties?
 - b. What types of tasks do you delegate to him/her?
4. Share with me a job or a task that is really challenging.
 - a. Can you leave this task at the school?
 - b. How would your job be easier, if you could eliminate this task?
5. When you are away from work, what aspects of the job concern you the most?
 - a. What do you think about (job related) when you are not at work?
6. Is/was there a time when you thought you had health conditions related to work stress?
 - a. Tell me about them.
7. Suppose I worked in your district, what kinds of activities would your supervisor expect for me to do beyond the workday?
8. Tell me about a job or a task that is so engaging in your work that you lose all track of time, give it 100% attention, and use your skills to a satisfying outcome?
 - a. How often do you experience this type activity?
 - b. How do moments like these make up for moments of job dissatisfaction?
9. Tell me about a time when you felt a real sense of accomplishment of finality to a job/task/issue/problem.

10. What does a great day look like for you?
 - a. How often do they occur?
11. How do you feel your job has changed over the last five or so years?
 - a. In what ways do you believe that the NCLB Act has changed the way that you fundamentally do your job?
12. How do the accountability expectations of increased accountability alter the types of staff development options you choose?
 - a. Was this different than 5-8 years ago?
13. What type of job related tasks do you do differently now due to federal regulations/laws/legislation like high stakes testing?
14. What type of accountability pressures are placed upon you by:
 - a. Superiors?
 - b. Community?
 - c. Staff?
 - d. Internal Responsibility?
15. What is the reward(s) for being a principal?
16. Under what circumstances would cause you to leave the principalship?
17. What are your long-term plans for staying in the principalship?
 - a. Why do you stay?
 - b. What do you enjoy about your job?

Respond to the following statements as:

Never True; Seldom True; Often True; and Always True

18. I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.
19. I stay busy and keep many "irons in the fire".
20. I find myself doing 2 or 3 things at one time, such as eating lunch & writing a memo, while talking on the telephone.
21. I overly commit myself by biting off more than I can chew.
22. I feel guilty when I am not working on something.
23. It is important that I see the concrete results of what I do.
24. I get angry when people don't meet my standards of perfection.
25. It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working.

26. I spend more time working than on socializing with friends, on hobbies or on leisure activities.

APPENDIX F

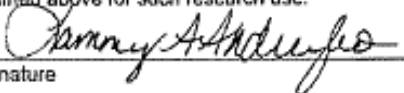
Maslach Burnout Inventory
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APPENDIX G

Questionnaire Pilot Results

November 2007

	Agree Strongly	Agree Slightly	No Opinion	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Strongly
	5	4	3	2	1
1. My job is so interesting that it often does not seem like work		100%			
2. My job is more like fun than work		50%	25%	12.50%	12.50%
3. Most of the time, my work is pleasurable	12.50%	62.50%	25%		
4. Sometimes when I get up in the morning, I can hardly wait to get to work	12.50%	12.50%	25%	50%	
5. I like to do my work more than most people do	12.50%	75%	12.50%	12.50%	
6. I seldom find anything to enjoy about my work		12.50%		12.50%	75%
7. I do more work than is expected of me strictly for the fun of it	12.50%	25%	25%		37.50%
8. I see to have an inner compulsion to work hard	25%	12.50%	25%		37.50%
9. It's important to me to work hard, even when I don't enjoy what I am doing	62.50%	12.50%	25%		
10. I often feel there is something inside of me that drives me to work hard	75%	12.50%		12.50%	
11. I feel obliged to work hard even when it's not enjoyable	62.50%	12.50%		12.50%	12.50%
12. I often find myself thinking about work, even when I want to get away from it for awhile	62.50%	25%	12.50%		
13. Between my job and other activities I'm involved in, I don't have much free time	62.50%	12.50%	12.50%	12.50%	

14. I feel guilty when I take time off of work	25%	75%		
15. When I have free time, I like to relax and do nothing serious	37.50%	37.50%	12.50%	12.50%
16. I often wish I weren't so committed to work	12.50%	50%	12.50%	25%
17. I like to relax and enjoy myself as much as possible	12.50%	50%	12.50%	12.50%
18. I look forward to the weekend – all fun, no work		37.50%	12.50%	25%
19. Wasting time is as bad as wasting money	37.50%	25%		37.50%
20. I spend my free time on projects and other activities	12.50%	62.50%		12.50%
21. I like to use my time constructively, both on and off the job	25%	25%	37.50%	12.50%
22. I lose track of time when I am involved in a project	50%	37.50%	12.50%	
23. When I get involved in a project, it's hard to describe how exhilarated I feel	25%	37.50%	25%	12.50%
24. Sometimes I enjoy my work so much, I have a hard time stopping			37.50%	37.50%
25. I get bored and restless on vacations when I haven't anything productive to do	12.50%	75%	12.50%	

APPENDIX H

Feelings about the job

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Slightly Disagree		Neutral		Slightly Agree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	5.1%	6	10.2%	26	44.1%	24	40.7%	59	6.2	.826
2. Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial.	22	37.3%	16	27.1%	10	16.9%	2	3.4%	4	6.8%	5	8.5%	0	.0%	59	2.4	1.588
3. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.	0	.0%	2	3.4%	2	3.4%	2	3.4%	9	15.3%	34	57.6%	10	16.9%	59	5.7	1.115
4. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.7%	6	10.2%	16	27.1%	36	61.0%	59	6.5	.751
5. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.7%	13	22.0%	45	76.3%	59	6.7	.477
6. I frequently think of quitting this job.	20	34.5%	23	39.7%	2	3.4%	5	8.6%	5	8.6%	2	3.4%	1	1.7%	58	2.3	1.551
7. I often have trouble figuring out whether I am doing well or poorly on this job.	14	23.7%	21	35.6%	7	11.9%	6	10.2%	6	10.2%	4	6.8%	1	1.7%	59	2.7	1.636

8. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.	2	3.4%	2	3.4%	4	6.8%	4	6.8%	7	11.9%	21	35.6%	19	32.2%	59	5.6	1.600
9. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	3.4%	9	15.3%	25	42.4%	23	39.0%	59	6.2	.813
10. Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly my responsibility.	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	5.2%	0	.0%	6	10.3%	15	25.9%	34	58.6%	58	6.3	1.033

Job characteristics and Engagement

	Very Inaccurate		Mostly Inaccurate		Slightly Inaccurate		Uncertain		Slightly Accurate		Mostly Accurate		Very Accurate		Total		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	23	38.3%	37	61.7%	60	6.6	.490
2. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	5	8.3%	55	91.7%	60	6.9	.279
3. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	0	.0%	10	16.7%	5	8.3%	2	3.3%	15	25.0%	17	28.3%	11	18.3%	60	5.0	1.712
4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	2	3.3%	2	3.3%	10	16.7%	8	13.3%	17	28.3%	18	30.0%	3	5.0%	60	4.7	1.442
5. The job is quite simple and repetitive.	35	59.3%	19	32.2%	3	5.1%	1	1.7%	1	1.7%	0	.0%	0	.0%	59	1.5	.816
6. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone - without talking or checking with other people.	48	80.0%	6	10.0%	2	3.3%	0	.0%	2	3.3%	1	1.7%	1	1.7%	60	1.5	1.255
7. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.	14	23.3%	15	25.0%	10	16.7%	1	1.7%	9	15.0%	9	15.0%	2	3.3%	60	3.2	1.927
8. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	3.3%	17	28.3%	41	68.3%	60	6.6	.547

9. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	23	38.3%	25	41.7%	3	5.0%	1	1.7%	3	5.0%	5	8.3%	0	.0%	60	2.2	1.513
10. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.	4	6.7%	13	21.7%	6	10.0%	1	1.7%	13	21.7%	17	28.3%	6	10.0%	60	4.4	1.938
11. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.	6	10.0%	9	15.0%	9	15.0%	1	1.7%	10	16.7%	20	33.3%	5	8.3%	60	4.3	1.963
12. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.	13	22.0%	19	32.2%	12	20.3%	1	1.7%	6	10.2%	8	13.6%	0	.0%	59	2.9	1.696
13. The job gives considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	3	5.0%	6	10.0%	4	6.7%	0	.0%	19	31.7%	24	40.0%	4	6.7%	60	4.9	1.633
14. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.	39	65.0%	12	20.0%	1	1.7%	1	1.7%	2	3.3%	0	.0%	5	8.3%	60	1.9	1.778

Your Role at Work

	Very False		False		Uncertain		True		Very True		Total		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
1. I have to do things that should be done differently.	3	5.2%	13	22.4%	15	25.9%	23	39.7%	4	6.9%	58	3.2	1.039
2. I feel certain about how much authority I have.	3	5.1%	8	13.6%	9	15.3%	27	45.8%	12	20.3%	59	3.6	1.113
3. I have too much work to do everything well.	3	5.1%	11	18.6%	8	13.6%	23	39.0%	14	23.7%	59	3.6	1.192
4. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	13	22.0%	26	44.1%	7	11.9%	13	22.0%	0	.0%	59	2.3	1.060
5. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	3	5.1%	8	13.6%	6	10.2%	31	52.5%	11	18.6%	59	3.7	1.092
6. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done.	1	1.7%	6	10.3%	5	8.6%	24	41.4%	22	37.9%	58	4.0	1.025
7. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	4	6.8%	8	13.6%	2	3.4%	31	52.5%	14	23.7%	59	3.7	1.172
8. I know what my job responsibilities are.	0	.0%	1	1.7%	3	5.1%	31	52.5%	24	40.7%	59	4.3	.655
9. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	2	3.4%	17	28.8%	15	25.4%	17	28.8%	8	13.6%	59	3.2	1.111
10. I know exactly what is expected of me.	0	.0%	5	8.5%	9	15.3%	31	52.5%	14	23.7%	59	3.9	.857
11. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	2	3.4%	19	32.2%	8	13.6%	25	42.4%	5	8.5%	59	3.2	1.095
12. Explanation is clear of what is to be done.	2	3.4%	9	15.3%	11	18.6%	31	52.5%	6	10.2%	59	3.5	.989
13. The amount of work I am asked to do is fair.	2	3.4%	12	20.3%	11	18.6%	29	49.2%	5	8.5%	59	3.4	1.017
14. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	5	8.5%	14	23.7%	9	15.3%	25	42.4%	6	10.2%	59	3.2	1.175
15. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	6	10.3%	23	39.7%	7	12.1%	15	25.9%	7	12.1%	58	2.9	1.252

APPENDIX I

Interview Codes

Role at Work

- W-C *Compulsive*
 - Driven to work all of the time; first to arrive last to leave; rarely takes a vacation
- W-CD *Co-Dependent*
 - Says Yes when means No; exaggerated belief or one's own abilities; excessive desire to please
- W-WJI *Work or Job Involved*
 - Effort to accomplish a job with a crisis mentality; working on task regardless of assignment or timeline; personal pressure for involvement
- W-P *Perfectionist*
 - Terrified of failure; fear of others to see a weak or unproductive side of self; desire to be error-free at all costs
- W-DR *Drive*
 - Vigorous onward course toward goals (real and unrealistic); work priorities supercede all others; initiative to work under all circumstances
- W-LOI *Lonely-Overly Independent*
 - Isolated from others; avoids teamwork; chooses work over family
- W-QW *Quantity of Work*
 - Pleasure received from the amount of work in progress; quality is not as important to the myriad of tasks (real or fabricated); always busy without respite on horizon

Feelings about the Job

- FJ-QR *Quality Results*
 - Wants to produce good work that meets and exceeds standards; willing to take on less work to show more quality on specific jobs
- FJ-D *Delegates*
 - Knows when to share the tasks with others; able to trust that others will do their part of the job; willing to work as a team or as a partner on a project

- FJ-P *Pleasure*
Receives happiness and satisfaction from the job and also balances life's other pleasures (family) with work life

Health & Family Issues

- HFI-S *Stress*
 - Identifies the physical, mental, or emotional strain or tension brought on by work or job tasks
- HFI-C *Health Complications*
 - HFI-C-S *Sleeplessness*
 - HFI-C-M *Migraines*
 - HFI-C-BPH *Blood Pressure/Heart*
 - HFI-C-W *Weight Gain/Loss*
- HFI-MIC *Marital Issues/Complaints*
 - Spouse or significant other complains of “absentee” partner both physically and mentally
- HFI-RTSC *Reduced Time w/ Spouse & Child*
 - Seeks to spend more time on work-related tasks than with family or at family functions

Job Characteristics and Engagement

- JCE-WE *Work Enjoyment*
 - Finds joy and satisfaction in working; seeks work for pleasure; finds work fun
- JCE-AO *Achievement Orientation*
 - Finds work to be a way to move ahead; strong desire to reach goals; establish reputation for productivity
- JCE-D *Devoted*
 - Believes in organization and the work being done; strives for esprit de corps; sees meaning in the tasks and is willing to work hard to achieve success for all

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