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**CAREER ANCHORS OF NORTH
CAROLINA PRINCIPALS**


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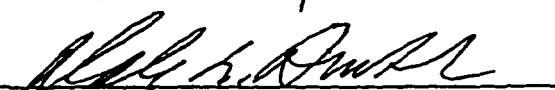
Paul J. Puryear

**A Dissertation submitted to
the Faculty of The Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education**

**Greensboro
1996**

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PURYEAR, PAUL J., Ed.D. Career Anchors of North Carolina Principals. (1996)
Directed by Drs. E. Lee Bernick and Dale L. Brubaker.
167 pp.

Research has demonstrated that the principal is a key element in an effective school. Since it is important to retain capable leaders to run schools, the question exists as to why principals choose to remain in the principalship rather than to move up the organizational hierarchy or to leave the profession. This study was designed to determine if the anchor concept used in career development were applicable to the principalship. Specifically, the study was undertaken to determine if career anchors existed for principals and to uncover factors that influence the acceptance of these anchors. Principals from three North Carolina school districts were surveyed, and a total of 116 responded representing a response rate of 82 percent. A factor analysis of items previously used to identify career anchors in other professions resulted in the identification of seven career anchors for principals: variety, identity, autonomy, organizational security, technical competence, geographic security, and salary. Further analysis found that 94 of the 116 had at least one career anchor, and almost half of the principals were considered to have more than one anchor.

Acceptance of career anchors varied by race, gender, career aspirations, and the location of the school. African-American principals, for example, had a higher acceptance of identity and organizational anchors than Caucasian principals. Female principals had a higher regard for variety than did their male counterparts. Principals considering a career change or aspiring to a higher position had a lower acceptance of the technical competence anchor than those principals preferring to remain in the principalship. Principals in rural schools placed more importance on geographic security than principals from urban schools.

In sum, the study found that career anchors have the potential of influencing career decisions by principal.

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APPROVAL PAGE

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people made significant contributions to this research. Dr. Lee Bernick deserves a special note of appreciation. Dr. Bernick proposed the original topic and, as the dissertation progressed, he was always ready and willing to offer advice. He spent countless hours helping analyzing the data, critiquing the work, and suggesting ways to improve the final document. Dr. Joe Bryson, through his contacts with Page High School, has been a continual source of insight and inspiration. I also appreciate Dr. Dale Brubaker's willingness to take the time and personal interest in his students. Dr. Keith Wright served on the committee even though I was largely unknown to him. His sound and constructive advice has been greatly appreciated.

Gerald Donnelly was of great assistance in the initial stages of analyzing the data. He helped design the format and, through his work, made the interpretation of data easier. Peggy Woodlief deserves special thanks for providing advice on the technical aspects of writing.

Both of these individuals freely gave precious time from their already busy schedules.

Dr. Thomas Penland should also be recognized. As a fellow principal, he offered continuous encouragement for this effort. Whether it was discussing ideas, finding sources, or offering practical advice on how to run a school and write a dissertation at the same time, Tom was always there to help.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly my wife, Chris, and my two sons, P.J. and Benjamin, have been pillars of strength. Too often, they had to endure an absentee husband and father, but they provided the unwavering moral support, understanding, and motivation to ensure this work was completed. Without them this work would have been impossible.

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CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW

Introduction

Perhaps the most profound change experienced by this country since the 1950s has been the evolution of the global economy. The United States no longer enjoys the economic supremacy that it once had; it has had to reexamine some of its societal and its institutional assumptions. As a result of institutions--especially business and education--have had to rethink how they operate, and long accepted notions of the relationship between the individual and the organization have been challenged and changed. Nowhere is this more evident than in the institution's organizational culture.

Organizational culture can be defined as the observed behavioral regularities of the interaction between people. These regularities involve the language used and the rituals that separate people in settings (Goffman, 1959). Organizational culture can also relate to the norms of work groups or to the dominate value of the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Schein has defined organizational culture as consisting of "a large set of taken for granted implicit assumptions that cover

how group members view both their external relationships with their various environments and their internal relationships with each other" (Schein, 1985, p. 244). However, no singular definition captures the essence of culture; various theorists have emphasized different elements.

An organization's culture evolves out a group of basic assumptions, beliefs, and experiences which are shared by members of the organization. Organizations by their very nature are systems that, through a variety of interactions, force people to confront a myriad of situations causing individuals to have shared experiences within the organization, and creating a common world view among the organization's employees. Confronted by rapidly changing society, organizational reformers have had to take a hard look at the new experiences of members of an organization to gain an understanding of the complex set of dynamics that now help form the organization's culture.

One common experience shared by individuals in the organization is the hierarchical nature of organizations. This notion of the hierarchical structure not only promotes a top-down view but also creates a definable path through the organization. Thus, organizations traditionally have defined professional success in terms of climbing the hierarchical ladder, and society has accepted this definition. In terms of career development,

emphasis has been placed on upward movement rather than the stability of remaining in a specific position. Correspondingly, career development has focused more on the upper levels of management rather than on the mid and lower levels and, moreover, it has been at these upper levels where the hierarchy defined leadership.

Of course, people placed in leadership positions can also have a profound effect on the organizational climate because they organize, recruit, and manage the institution. As organizations move the decision making process to lower levels of the organization more and more people are expected to set the vision, marshal the resources, and coordinate the efforts of individual workers to reach organizational goals. So powerful, in fact, is the influence of the key players, that leadership and climate become intertwined. Or, as Schein states, "culture and leadership, when one examines them closely, are two sides of the same coin, and neither can be understood by itself" (1985, p.2).

If leadership and climate are intertwined, a dynamic relationship between the organization and the individual develops. Organizations today are much more aware of their dependence on the performance of all people, those in the executive office as well as those on the shop floor. Likewise, individuals who choose to work in the organization "are dependent on the organization to

provide jobs and career opportunities" (Schein, 1978, p.1). Understanding this relationship is essential if the organization is to meet the twin goals of having its people get along while achieving the ultimate goals of the organization. This is true in all the organizations, whether organizational goals relate to manufacturing or to educating the nation's children.

Consequently, organizational theorists have redefined the elements of a successful career. On a base level, the organization must find and train individuals who possess the skills necessary for the organization to fulfill its particular mission. By necessity, each organization has key jobs which must be filled and, more often than not, this requires some individual specialization. Traditionally, the belief has been that once a person developed and demonstrated skills in a particular area then the individual could be considered for promotion to a new position. The new position might or might not be directly related to the previous work experience, but little attention was paid to how people made these career decisions. Certainly little regard was given on the part of organizational decision-makers as to how individuals perceived their careers in satisfying their own particular talents and needs, and how these considerations could be used to reach organizational goals. Rather, organizations chose to think only in terms

organizational needs and ignored the value system of its employees. This viewpoint resulted in operating for the short term and did not grasp the relationship between employee satisfaction and operational success.

Organizations must reexamine the career development process of its employees. Career development has traditionally been defined as upward movement through the organizational hierarchy, but this perspective is limiting by nature. One of the fundamental aspects of hierarchical organizations is the reduction of available positions as one moves up the hierarchy. Thus, a fact of organizational life is that not everyone can move up. Some individuals may want to move up and do, while others want to move up and cannot. Still, some desire to remain where they are. Therefore, the effective organization must be prepared to recognize and to deal with a variety of career aspirations.

While there are many factors that determine upward mobility through an organization, there are also many forces which influences a persons decision to remain in a position. In reality, individuals who decide to remain at a position and who do not want or expect to advance up the hierarchy often do so for their own reasons. Organizations and society must accept that if a person desires to remain at a specific job or organizational

level, then an individual is likely making a conscientious decision based on his own values, needs, and talents.

From a developmental perspective, realizing that not everyone is motivated to move to the top, organizations should consider the individual's needs rather than focus solely on the needs of the organization. Organizations should realize that individuals are anchored to careers by factors based upon their own beliefs, abilities and needs. Creating a mechanism that allows individuals to analyze these anchors would be mutually beneficial to both the organization and to the worker, and this fact holds true whether the organization in question is a business or educational.

Educational organizations are similar to organizations in the private sector; they are typically hierarchical in nature. Individuals generally enter education at the teacher level. As such, they face shared experiences and develop a common view or culture. As they move up the hierarchy, there is a corresponding decrease in the number of positions in that there are fewer principals than teachers and fewer principals than superintendents. Like organizations in the private sector, schools traditionally have been run in a top-down manner. But also like the private sector, schools have seen the increased implementation of decentralization.

Educational institutions have paid scant attention to the career development of its people. Fairly typical has been the view that good teachers become principals and good principals become superintendents. Little thought was paid as to whether there was any correlation between being a good teacher and being a good principal. Additionally, while education organizations are hierarchical, there has been less expectation on the part of its members to move up the organization than those in the private sector. Most teachers generally expect to remain teachers. Typically, the move to administration evolves from the teaching experience rather than entering the profession with the idea of becoming a principal, and although some principals left the principalship to pursue jobs in central office or outside of education, many have chosen to remain in the principalship. Rarely have educators questioned why individuals remain in a specific position.

As schools have moved towards site-based management, a new body of research has emerged which finds that one of the critical positions for organizational success is that of the principal (McCurdy, 1983). The principalship has not only increased in importance, but it has also been subjected to intense pressure. Drives for accountability, the demand for reform, taxpayer anger, and societal changes have not only focused a spotlight on the

principalship but also have increased the pressure on the principal. Confronted by increasing demands and pressures, principals have had to re-examine whether their the job still meets their own individual needs and talents.

Recent research has provided some insight as to why principals are either considering or actually leaving the profession. Some of the movement is certainly due to a number of principals reaching retirement age. One study, for example, cited a state where over half of its principals would be eligible for retirement within a ten-year span (Wendel, 1994). But there are factors other than age which are forcing people out of the profession. A variety of studies conducted in the 1990s have cited the increased stress of the principalship as causing increased disenchantment with the job. Mackler (1996) found that the general unwelldiness of the job, negative work relationships, and the high personal price exacted all have caused an exodus from the principalship. Others have identified stress, lack of support, conflict resolution problems, inadequate resources, workload, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization as causes of reduced job satisfaction (Borg 1993; Gmelch & Gates., 1994).

Thus, existent research has provided a number of explanations of why people leave--age, burnout, unrealistic job expectations, and so on. What the

research has failed to explain is us why people remain anchored in the principalship. When people remain in a position, the implication is that the job offers some personal satisfaction by fulfilling one or more personal needs. The traditional organizational theory concentrated on issues relating to organizational needs, climate, and leadership as explanations. In recent years, however, organizational theorists have come to examine the needs, talents, and abilities of the individual workers within the organization. While the bulk of this research has been done in professions other than education, the theories of Schein and others that have examined the private sector may be equally important to educational organizations. The problem is to determine if Schein's research is applicable to education.

Purpose of the Study

This research explores the possibility that the research done by organizational psychologists in the private sectors can explain why individuals remain as principals. Specifically, the study asks the question whether the existent career anchor model can explain what holds an individual to the principalship. Additionally, this study will determine if anchors do exist for principals, whether personal characteristics such as gender, race, age, time in the position, certification and

job goals make a difference in explaining the anchor or cluster of anchors for individual principals.

Problem

The problem addressed in this study is to determine if career anchors exist for principals. If so, which anchors are the most prevalent, and if differences exist for gender, sex, ethnicity, time in administration, level of school, certification, whether the principal is in a rural or urban setting, and the ultimate career goal of the principal.

Conceptual Base

Because organizations are dependent upon their workers who are paid to perform certain activities, how well these workers perform these activities can depend on factors beyond the immediate work setting, organizational policies, or management. To be successful, then, organizations must develop theories and practices that promote personal and individual satisfaction no matter where the individual appears on the organizational chart. How well organizations match job functions with individual values, needs and talents directly impacts the chances of organizational success. In addition, such matching will increase the likelihood of developing a stable and

productive work force with a high degree of job satisfaction.

The traditional assumption made by organization is that the needs of the organization are superior to those of the individual. Indeed, it is rare for the organization to give any meaningful thought to the needs, talents, and abilities of the individual. As individuals move through an organization, socialization mechanisms are present in the forms of personnel selection where skills of the individual are assessed primarily in terms of the needs of the organization.

Schein (1971) in his study of graduates of the Sloan school, questioned this model. From his research, he concluded that a better model existed for career development. For Schein, a key component had been overlooked; organizations had failed to consider the self-perceptions of the workers. Schein developed a model based on an individual's self-perceptions in the areas of needs, talents, and abilities. These self-perceptions provided keys to worker satisfaction and offered the organization a chance to meet the needs of the employee without sacrificing organizational goals. As an individual moved through his career, he gradually developed clear self-concepts of his abilities, talents, motives, and needs. Thus, as individuals gained experiences in the organization, they acquired an idea of

what they could do well, what they could not do, and what they enjoyed. These self-perceptions help form anchors that determine what the individual ultimately sought in a career and the type of environment with which the person would like to be associated.

Out of this process, the individual's value system forms and serves as an anchor for the career. Developmentally, the first three to five years within the organization is a crucial period when the worker gathers information and begins the self-diagnostic process that strengthens the individual's ability to make career choices. According to Schein and others, this self-analysis results in the formation of at least five anchors to a person's career: security, technical/functional competence, managerial competence, creativity, and autonomy (DeLong, 1978; Schein, 1971). The strength of these elements forms the foundation to an individual's career decisions. It is these anchors, however, that organizations have failed to consider in dealing with employees. A consideration of these anchors potentially enhances the chances obtaining the twin goals of individual job satisfaction and organizational success. Personnel managers would be wise, then, to understand each of these anchors and to incorporate them into a career development program.

A person anchored by security is likely to tie himself to a particular organization, especially if that organization contributes to the stability of his career. This organization may have a reputation for low turnover or it may have something in the nature of tenure which limits the reasons for an individual's dismissal, but regardless of the nature of the security, these people are strongly linked to the norms of the organization. Another form of security may be found in geographic location. A person needing geographic stability may switch from one organization to another in order to remain in a specific geographic location.

A second anchor is technical/functional competence. This person is challenged by the nature of the work itself. This individual wants to master a particular area of expertise, and wants to be recognized for his or her talents. Once these individuals master a specific area, they tend to move to another area of expertise. This person switches jobs constantly, searching for a balance between job challenge and personal recognition.

The third anchor, according to Schein, is managerial competence. The individual anchored by managerial competence finds satisfaction in identifying and solving problems while remaining detached and competent. This individual is intent on quickly moving up the organization, analytical in dealing with problems, and

competent in managing and manipulating people regardless of the organization level. Such a person has the ability to exercise power and make decisions without guilt or shame.

Still another anchor is creativity--the individual's desire to create something on his own. This person seeks new ventures, filling a need to demonstrate that he can accomplish something for which he can take personal credit. This person may start out in an organization but quickly finds organizational constraints a major nuisance. To keep such a person in an organization requires a structure enabling him to operate without organizational interference.

Those people anchored by autonomy find virtually any organization too confining. Such individuals are concerned with freedom and seek work allowing independence while still using their individual professional competence. They tend to find organizational life to be "restricted, irrational and/or intrusive into their private lives" (Schein, 1975, p. 17). They seek work situations in which they will be "maximally free of constraint to pursue their professional or technical/functional competence" (DeLong, 1982b, p. 54).

DeLong, who has done considerable research on career anchors, has added to Schein's list. He concluded that there are three additional concepts which may serve

as anchors. These are identity, service, and variety. Identity-oriented people like being identified with a particular organization. They wanted to be associated with a powerful, prestigious group. Those who are service oriented are interested with helping others. Those seeking variety prefer professions which provide a wide range of opportunities and experiences.

Schein's model and DeLong's additional research may permit us to understand why people make specific career decisions. In essence, this theory forces a recognition of what is important to a person--what, when confronted with options, the individual will refuse to give up. If these anchors can be consistently identified, another dimension will be added to the understanding of the relationship between the organization and the individual.

The career anchor concept helps explain why people choose to remain in a position. The model takes into consideration what people need and what talents they can provide to the organization and, more importantly, the model can be applied to almost any profession. Career anchors, then, can provide insight as to why a person can find satisfaction in an ill-defined and ever-changing job such as the principalship. Identifying those concepts that keep principals anchored to their jobs is imperative if schools are going to be successful. The career anchor model provides the opportunity to do this.

Hypotheses

In order to understand why individuals decide to remain in the principalship the following will be offered as hypotheses:

1. Career anchors exist for principals.
2. The primary anchors for principals are managerial competence, autonomy, and identity and security.
3. Security will be more prevalent for rural principals than for urban principals.
4. Length of time in the principalship has no relationship to the acceptance of an anchor.
5. The age of the principal will not make a difference in the acceptance of the anchor.
6. Principals who aspire to "higher" positions will have different anchors than those who wish to remain as a principal.
7. There will be differences in the acceptance of the anchors for male and female principals.
8. Career anchor acceptance for principals will be influenced by the race of the principal.
9. Current school level will make no difference in the career anchors of principals.

10. The type of initial educational certification will make no difference in the acceptance of the anchor.
11. The highest degree earned will make no difference in the acceptance of the anchor.
12. The geographic location of the school system will make no difference in the in the career anchor of principals.

Assumptions

Assumptions important to this study include:

1. Human resource planning is a key organization activity.
2. There is interaction between organizational needs and needs of the individual that influence work behaviors.
3. Anchors exist in both private and public sectors.
4. Research on work motivation demonstrates that works plays an important role in an individual's life.
5. People need work to provide security, challenges, and opportunities.
6. Differences exist among people on the importance of the role of work.
7. People have careers as a worker.

8. A work career forms a pattern of behavior.
9. Every organization has positions which are considered leadership positions; one of the leadership positions in education is the principalship.
10. All principals follow similar career paths.
11. Principals experience similar problems in the job regardless of the level of the school.
12. The instrument used in this study is a valid and reliable instrument.

Significance of the Study

The use of the career anchor model, whether by the individual or by the organization, increases the ability of both to make better and more informed career decisions. The individual who experiences organizational pressure to move up the hierarchical ladder will be in a better position to understand the desire, or lack of desire, to move. Likewise, if the organization adopts a career development plan based on Schein and DeLong's model, it too will benefit by identifying those elements that bring not just employee satisfaction but the ability to give the individual an idea of whom he is. Since employees and organizations are mutually dependent on each other, the concepts of career anchors must be considered for the organization to be successful and for the individual

worker to be satisfied and to be effective. Adopting this belief makes the organization more understanding and responsive to the needs of the individual without sacrificing organizational goals. The career anchor concept, thus, has the potential to be a valuable tool for organizations in developing human resource planning and development.

In the educational profession, little quantitative work has been done to determine why principals either want to become or to remain principals. By applying career anchor theory to this specific aspect of educational administration, insights can be gained as to what motivates the individual to be a principal. In determining motivation, educational organizations have the opportunity to gain a better understanding of the personal satisfaction the principal receives from a job that is vital to the educational process.

Recent research has indicated that one of the many keys to effective schools is the principal. Understanding and increasing the individual principal's job satisfaction heightens the chance of organizational success and the realization of more effective schools. Identifying the career anchors is a key element in this process.

Design of the Study

Chapter one of this study provides the overall view of the study. It introduces the career anchor concept and the original research on career anchors. Some basic assumptions about the application of career anchors in both a general organizational environment and specific application to the field of educational administration are made. Several hypotheses also are put forth as to the application of career anchors to the principalship.

Chapter two is a review of literature and examines, on a limited basis, the writings of career theorists such as Alderfer, Herzberg, Maslow, and McClelland. While these writers have examined some of the psychological motivations for individuals, other researchers have specifically examined the world of work. The writers included in this area are Duff, Cotsgrove, Hierschfield, Olasehinde, Robinson, Sharpe, and Vance, and they too will be reviewed.

The key component of the literature review is its focus on career anchors. Initial research was done in this area by Edgar Schein. His work from the early 1970s to the 1990s is reviewed and analyzed. Several researchers have expanded on Schein's original concept. However, such works is outside the field of education and has examined the existence and/or influence of career

anchors on information system personnel, MBA graduates, instructional developers, engineers, women in administrative support occupations, and student affairs professionals. The only research in the area of education has been done by DeLong on rural teachers and McCoy who examined mathematics, and these too are reviewed.

Chapter three examines the population, the procedures used to collect relevant data, and the methodology used in this study to determine why principals remain in the principalship. It offers an explanation of the procedure used to test whether people who remain in the principalship have a specific or unique set of anchors, and attempts to discover whether individual principals acceptance of an anchor is correlated to age, gender, race, geographic location, time in the profession, original certification, school level, school system, and stated professional goals with the anchors. To determine if these anchors exist individually or in combinations an instrument designed by Schein and modified by DeLong was administered to a selected group of North Carolina principals. The statistical procedure of factor analysis was performed to empirically test for the existence of career anchors for principals.

Chapter four is an analysis of the data. Information from the instrument is analyzed to determine if the original anchors exist for principals.

Additionally, a discussion explaining patterns of career anchor acceptance by principals was undertaken. If the anchors are found to exist, additional analysis using the variables such as age, sex, race, geographical location, time in administration, original certification, and ultimate job goals were examined.

Chapter five constitutes a summary of the findings. In this chapter further discussion on the implications of the finds of this research to educational institutions are provided. Finally, areas for further study are suggested.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The last half of the twentieth century has seen the evolution of a global economy. Our society and its institutions have been confronted with the reality of increased competition which in turn has led to the need for a well educated and productive work force. Organizations, whether they are economic or educational, have undergone a multitude of changes. Today's work force is different than it was 20 ago. The decision-making process has been forced down the hierarchical structure. Our economy is now characterized by two income families, and the traditional concept of career has moved the from belief that a worker would spend the majority of his working years employed by one employer to the idea of a career consisting of working a variety of jobs and often for a variety of organizations. As a result of these changes, the realization that to have an efficient and productive work force requires that greater attention be given to employees and their personal satisfaction. And this fact remains true whether the organization involves businesses or educational systems.

Human resource managers are constantly faced with the approach of finding the right people at the right time for specific jobs. Personnel decisions are too frequently made on short-term criteria such as recent success in a prior position. Little regard has been given in determining who is the right person or why a person accepts a particular job or function. A more meaningful approach must involve a broad range of issues which includes the developmental nature of a person's career and the natural events of an individual's life that interact to disrupt or reinforce career development. A person, for example, who is just entering the work force has different needs and goals than one who is nearing retirement. Talents, needs, and abilities can change over a career, and ought to be taken into consideration by both the organization and the employee in placing people in the hierarchy. When the placement is done properly, all parties benefit. By placing more emphasis and consideration on matching the needs of the organization with those of the employees, human resource managers face a more complex job than just putting a person into a position.

A person's career not only satisfies a basic economic need, but it also fulfills individual psychological needs. In a capitalistic society, work provides the mechanism to fulfill basic human needs such

as food and shelter. If these were the only needs to be fulfilled, then a commitment to a job would be easily made and unlikely to change. Yet, research shows that there are a variety of reasons of why people work. The idea that a person works only for the money, or a higher standard of living, is an insufficient explanation of why people work and a poor definition of a person's career.

Traditionally, our definition of career has been that a person would remain with one employer and probably one job for the majority of a person's working years. Some individuals would perhaps move on the organizational ladder in their organization. But in the last three decades, this model of a career has undergone an enormous change. Today, our society is characterized by a population which moves from job to job. Not all of these changes can be credited to global competition, but rather there must be other factors at play. The underlying conclusion is now an individual's move and change occupations to satisfy more than the basic needs of food, clothing, and shelter.

Motivational Psychologists

Maslow (1954) advanced the theory that human needs were hierarchical in nature, and that the lower based needs of food, clothing, and shelter had to be fulfilled before the higher levels such as self-esteem could be met.

While there is no doubt that much of what Maslow says is true, his theories have been criticized on the grounds that the hierarchical structural has specific weaknesses. Critics have argued that Maslow's highest need, self-actualization, can be achieved in many ways, and that the meaning of self-actualization may change over a period of time. Alderfer (1972) regrouped Maslow's theories into two groups: the need to relate to others and the need for personal growth. Alderfer's grouping allowed researchers the flexibility of measuring how much of a need a given adult required at a given time. The underlying assumption, of course, was that the level of need varies from individual to individual.

In applying needs to why people work, McClelland (1961) identified three basic needs: achievement; power; and affiliation. In McClelland's model, each person is permitted to have a bias toward one of these three needs which moves the person toward an organization or career that best fits the individual biases. Herzberg (1966) expanded McClelland's model by deciding that there were factors, which he labeled as hygiene motivates, such as working conditions, salary, fellow workers, recognition, advancement and job challenge which served to fulfill the needs of individuals in their occupations. Herzberg's model, however, has been criticized for its failure to recognize that needs may change over time.

While Maslow, Alderfer, McClelland, and other motivational psychologists have developed broad theories of motivation, they have not dealt sufficiently with the extent to which the amount and the intensity of the need varies from person to person. As Schein (1980) points out, these theories "have not adequately dealt with individual difference, have not been sufficiently linked to models of adult development, and have been stated at a level of generality that makes them difficult to use in practice" (p. 87). To correct these shortcomings and to better understand the motivational factors of work, Schein believed it necessary to study the relationship between the individual and the organization. The idea of fulfilling a person's needs took on a more important role. Traditionally, when examining the individual and the organization, priority was given to the organization. But given the changing nature of the work force such as the influx of women into the workplace, the mobility of the population, and the emphasis on teamwork and decision-making at all levels of the hierarchy in the last half of this century, organizations have been forced to reexamine many of their previously held assumptions. When the concepts of individual needs and the relationship between the individual and an organization were examined a new set of dynamics evolved.

Organizations traditionally held the view that employees were motivated solely by money, and the amount of money a person received was often tied to positions in the hierarchy. The higher the position, the higher the money. Operating from this belief, human resource managers tended to think solely in terms of organizational needs and paid scant attention to the needs of the employees. This simplistic view of the relationship between the organization and the employee has been an important and contributing factor in the creation of an dissatisfied workforce.

Naylor and Willimon (1996) found that millions of Americans were unhappy in their jobs. Noting that those who are alienated from their work are "often detached from their bosses, their peers, their families, their friends, their community, their government, their basic beliefs, and eventually themselves" (Naylor & Willimon, 1996). Today, workers are working longer hours, with wages buying less, with fewer benefits, with more risks, and with less job security. Work, in many cases, has become a necessary evil to support themselves and their families. Obviously for this unhappy majority of American workers their needs are not being met. For some, however, there is some satisfaction in their chosen professions, and the reason for this satisfaction may be found in the career anchor concept.

Career Anchors

Edgar Schein's work in the late 1960s and 1970s took a developmental view of the relationship of the employee and the organization. Schein theorized that people were motivated and held to their jobs by their talents, abilities, needs, and values. Moreover, an individual's talents, abilities, needs, and values interact, and that this interaction created a concept he identified as career anchors. Career anchors were "clearly a result of the early interaction between the individual and the work environment. They [career anchors] are inside the person functioning as a set of driving and constraining forces of career decisions and choices" (Schein, 1978, p. 125). Believing that the early years in the work force were important in establishing and refining the employee's concepts of what was important and that a period of time was needed to determine "whether or not [an individual's] abilities [would] be commensurate with present and future requirements of their jobs or a potential career" (1978, pp. 124-125). Likewise, it takes time for employees to determine if their values will mesh with their fellow workers and the organization as a whole. The key issue of the early years, according to Schein, was identifying and understanding a person's beliefs and

values and whether or not they were compatible to the ethos of a particular organization.

Early in their careers, workers are confronted by similar experiences and over a period of time, they develop a sense of self-knowledge that assists in identifying which values and attitudes are important to them. The realization of what is important forms the basis of the career anchor (Schein, 1975, 1978, 1984). Schein's career anchor theory is broader than the traditional concept of job values and motivation. As years pass and as the employee's anchors solidifies, a corresponding sense of stability arises and a value system of what is important to the individual permits the person to make better career choices.

Schein developed his theories in a longitudinal study at the Sloan School of Management. In his original study, Schein interviewed 44 students and then reinterviewed them five years later. The interview focused on a detailed job history of each person. In examining the career history, Schein paid particular attention to the reasons a person gave in making career choices. Schein found that each decision was guided by a pattern of attitudes and stemmed from the individual's career anchor. Schein's work lead him to conclude there were five anchors for employees. These were the technical/functional expertise, managerial competence,

security, creativity, and autonomy. He believed that the anchors were internally rather than externally defined. In short, career anchors could "be viewed as something one will not give up if a choice has to be made" (Schein, 1978, p. 128).

Schein then attempted to predict a pattern of attitudes and value changes in the panelist over a 10- to 12-year period. He developed a biographical form to enable the employee to self-analyze his career. The self-diagnostic questionnaire was given to 50 Sloan fellows to determine if it would support his theories; this research validated his career anchor theory. This study was followed by a second research project with 20 older executives who were attending the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Hopkins, 1976). The major purpose of this project was to examine a specific group of 45-55 year-old executives to determine if career anchors could be identified for this age cohort. All 20 executives were classified with a least one career anchor. Because Schein's early work concentrated on engineers or individuals with a business and technical background, it was not a surprise that most of those interviewed had strong **technical/functional** anchors. These individuals were excited by a particular function of their work, while at the same time having a disdain and fear of general management. The desire to work in a particular

area of expertise was so strong they would leave an organization rather than be moved from their functional area of expertise. They were challenged by the nature of work rather than promotions. Their success was defined by whether or not they were considered to be an expert. Recognition of their ability in a precise area anchored them to a career.

A second anchor identified by Schein was possessed by those who liked emotional and analytical abilities required of management. These people were competent in several technical areas, but no one area of technical expertise captured their commitment. Schein believed there were three aspects to the managerial anchor--analytical competence, interpersonal competence, and emotional competence. Analytical competence dictated that these individuals had to analyze information, sometimes make adjustments, and solve problems within the organizational environment. Interpersonal competence involved "the ability to supervise, influence, lead, manipulate, and control people toward organizational goals" (Schein, 1978, p. 22). Those with emotional competence were stimulated by interpersonal issues and crisis. People with this form of managerial anchor were excited by the high levels of responsibility and were not paralyzed by the exercise of power. They loved the politics of the job and faced the realities of life and

dealt with them without guilt or shame. For those having a managerial anchor the "advancement, high levels of responsibility, opportunity to contribute to the welfare of the organization, leadership opportunities, and high income which are the most important job values had become their criteria of success" (Slabbert, 1987, p 22). Those having a managerial anchor also faced the dilemma that as they moved higher up the organization they had less direct control over a particular area and more organizational responsibility.

A third anchor identified by Schein's early work was **security**. This anchor was defined by the concepts of job security, decent income, and stable futures. Individuals anchor by security were willing to accept the organization's definition of their career and trusted and relied on the organization to recognize their competence. These people were conformist or as Whyte (1956) termed "organizational men."

The fourth anchor identified by Schein was **creativity**. In his research, this was the most difficult anchor to articulate, but nevertheless, it was a vital element for those who were entrepreneurs. These people valued the concept of building something of their own. Consequently, in the traditional organizations, they were often viewed as dysfunctional, became bored as the organization grew, and were often forced out. Individuals

anchored by creativity had the need to be both financially successful and at the same time independent. Their survival reflects the skill of entrepreneurship. They tend to get into new ventures and try different projects.

The last anchor identified by Schein was **autonomy** or the need to be completely free of organizational constraints. The people with this anchor had some elements of the other anchors, but the need for independence was the most important. These individuals "cannot be bound by other people's rules, procedures, working hours, dress codes, and norms that arise with most organizations" (Slabbert, 1987, p 23). They do things their own way and find organizational life irrational and intrusive into their personal lives. Moreover, they were not confined by the traditional definition of success. Rather, they had a strong need to be on their own to pursue their professional and or technical competence.

Additional Research on Career Anchors

Schein's research and conclusions on career anchors has been supported by additional research. The bulk of this research has been to determine if career anchors exists in a variety of professions. To date career anchors have been identified in MBA alumni (DeLong, 1982c, Slabbert, 1987), nurses (Aune, 1983), teachers (DeLong, 1983a, 1983b, 1984a, 1984b; McCoy, 1984), college student

affairs personnel, (Wood, Winston, Polkosnik (1985), engineers (Rynes, 1987), information system personnel (Crepeau, 1992), and administrative assistants (Watts, 1992).

One of the first research projects that attempted to replicate Schein's was conducted on 1224 male graduates of the School of Industrial Administration of Purdue University between the years of 1963-1973 (DeLong, 1982c). DeLong, expanded on Schein's work and based on his research theorized that these additional anchors existed. These were identity, service, and variety.

DeLong believed that some people wanted to be identified by the organization to which they belonged or by their position in the organization. There was both status and power to be gained by being closely associated with a specific organization or by holding a specific title, and people who desired these values were said to hold an identity anchor. Service oriented individuals were guided by the desire to help others and seeing the change their efforts made. For example, DeLong found in a later study that many educators "verbalized their need to be to serve other people in a helping fashion. When asked what anchor they would be least willing to give up many educators said 'service'" (DeLong, 1982b, p. 58). Those anchored by variety sought careers that provided the widest possible range of assignments.

To test his model, DeLong developed an instrument, the Career Orientation Inventory, which consisted of statements measuring the importance and truth of statements. Using a factor analysis approach to analyze his data, DeLong's research confirmed Schein's original anchors and also supported his three additional anchors. DeLong's research, however, led him to conclude that the Schein's security anchor was, in fact, dual in nature, because it could be divided into those who sought stability within the organization and those who were anchored by the geographic location of the position or organization. So strong was this attachment to a particular place, these people were willing to leave an organization rather than change geographic location.

DeLong's original study found that the anchors clustered in identifiable patterns, and he termed these clusters as career orientations. Each of the orientations had a strong positive correlation to an anchor, but also present were correlations to other anchors. For example, one group found a strong managerial orientation with a highly positive correlation with variety. This career orientation was also found to have a very high negative correlation with technical competence which seemed to suggest that managerial and technical functions were at opposite ends of a continuum. DeLong concluded that students interested in business administration were

attracted by the variety of tasks that managerial positions offered. The decision to pursue a managerial position resulted in an individual giving up their technical competence. But in return, managerial competence was strongly correlated to variety which was expected since variety is inherent in any managerial position. (A conclusion Burke confirmed in his 1985 study.) A second orientation centered around a strong relationship between creativity and autonomy. DeLong felt this pairing was very logical. Those who required freedom were likely to be involved in new adventures which went hand in hand with creativity. And the final orientation, saw a strong link between service, identity, and security. The tying of identity and security, was also seen as logical, since some individuals equated identification with a powerful position or organization as a form of security. Individuals with this orientation would be willing and find comfort in the organization's norms and values. Security, however, took different forms.

In grouping anchors into orientations, DeLong emphasized that the concept of anchors was more complex than Schein had first concluded. While agreeing that there were dominant anchors, the idea of subordinate anchors had the potential of opening endless possible combinations. Still when clustered together, one anchor was more important than others in the cluster. This

anchor was considered to be the dominate anchor for the individual.

Aune (1983) using DeLong's model reached similar conclusions about grouping anchors into orientations in a study of the career anchors for nursing. While Schein and other had indicated that all types of anchors could be found in a profession, the issue remained whether or not a dominate anchor could be found in a profession. Aune's study had two purposes: (1) to determine if nurses had identifiable career anchors; and (2) to identify any differences in the career anchors of professional nurses engaged in distinct careers: nursing education; nursing administration; staff nursing; and nurse practitioner roles. Using a quantitative methodology pioneered by Derr's' work history and interview format Aune found that nurses did have career orientations. In other words, a dominate anchor was present and was there were a subordinate groupings of anchors. Yet, no one anchor was characteristic of a particular functional group. Not surprisingly, however, service was identified as an common anchor, but it was not the dominate anchor for all groups of nurses.

Research by Crepeau (1992) focused on information system professionals. Administering DeLong's Career Orientation Inventory to 321 information systems professionals, Crepeau once again validated the belief

that career anchors were present in a particular profession. Information systems personnel had career orientations based on both technical and managerial anchors, but "they were also reliant on of stability, service, identity, and variety in guiding future career decisions" (Crepeau, 1992, p 150). However, Crepeau's work supported Schein's contention that a variety of career anchors were present in a specific field. Crepeau also agreed with Schein that anchors were formed early in a person's career. This early formation of anchors also contributed to a dual ladder within a career. Crepeau found that some individuals entered the field with technical orientations and some had managerial orientations. The path the individual followed through his or her career was determined by which orientation they possessed.

Rynes (1987) studied why people left a field such as engineering which requires a high technical competence, that of engineering, to become managers. The predominate view was that the work of the being an engineer was based in a technical\functional competence and was diametrically opposed to being a manager. Rynes found that those entering the engineering profession had a variety of anchors and experiences, and not all of the aspirants wanted to end up being engineers. Moreover, in trying to determine a person's career goals, "career anchors were

the best single predictor of career aspirations" (p. 148). (Using career anchors as a predictor of a career path directly contradicts Schein's contention that anchors could not be used as predictors.) Schein's study of midcareer graduates of MIT explained that the career orientations of managers were broader than those of technical specialists. Reynes concluded that anchors were formed early, and at least in the studying why engineers became managers, she decided some engineers were predisposed in this direction early in their career. In other words their movement from a technical job to a managerial one was not because anchors were being fulfilled, but because their anchors indicated that they preferred a managerial competence over a technical competence.

Career anchors have also been identified in the teaching profession. Citing his own research, DeLong (1982b, 1983a, 1984a, 1984b) found rural and urban teachers had reported service, variety, technical competence, and security as central drivers in their career decisions. Some of DeLong's findings were also supported in a study of mathematics teachers (McCoy, 1984). In an unpublished dissertation, McCoy found that career anchors were present in current mathematics teachers, in former mathematics teachers, and in nonteaching mathematics majors. The preponderance of

teachers had anchors of security and technical competence. She found that those individuals who had left the profession, had anchors of creativity, autonomy, and managerial competence, which indicated that the job they were performing was incongruent with their anchors. In short, their need for creativity, autonomy, and managerial competence was not being met by their positions as teachers.

DeLong (1983a), in a study of 153 rural school teachers, discovered that they too possessed definite career orientations. He found at least two career orientations for educators. Some of his educators had orientations of managerial competence, autonomy, variety, and creativity clustered into a career orientation. The group in the first orientation seemed "to be interested in a multifaceted approach to teaching. Some teachers within this group value[ed] administration and supervising teachers' (p. 8). In this particular group autonomy also had a high connection, and these individuals would be more likely to leave the profession. A second career orientation was based on security and technical competence. DeLong speculated that more of those who relate with the autonomous group terminate and leave the teaching profession than those who identify with the security orientation or with the second group who value security and stability as their central orientations. The

latter group would have the need for security being met by belonging to a large organization, collecting long-term benefits, having stable working conditions, etc. Unlike Reynes and Crepeau, DeLong found that there was a dichotomy between managerial and technical/functional competence. Those who had managerial competence as an anchor also had less interest in becoming experts on one specific area. DeLong believed that those rural teachers who decided to leave the field did so because there was a bad match between their career orientation and their job definition" (p. 9).

DeLong's work with rural teachers was followed by McCoy (1984) study of mathematics teachers. Finding that mathematics teachers had dominate security and technical competence orientations, she also noted that those with strong correlations of creativity, autonomy, and managerial competence were most likely to leave the profession. Once again the implication was that the autonomy and creativity anchors were not being met by the routines of teaching, and the result was that this group left the profession.

While most of the research on career anchors was done in areas considered to be professional, research exist to indicate that anchors can be used with other personal including support staff (Watts, 1992). In a study of administrative assistants, Watts used Derr's

Career Success Map Questionnaire. Derr's model identifies five orientations: (a) Getting Ahead--the traditional pursuit of success by advancing up the organizational hierarchy; (b) Getting Free--the desire to escape from organizational restrictions and maintain a sense of autonomy; (c) Getting Secure--a desire for a sense of security and belonging to an organization; (d) Getting High--the pursuit of excitement, creativity, and challenge within work task themselves; and (e) Getting Balanced--the desire to achieve an equilibrium between personal and professional life. According to Watts, "the career orientations identified by Derr's instrument are similar to the major career anchors identified by Schein and DeLong" (Watts, 1992, p. 51). Derr also suggested that these stages fell along a continuum with Getting Free on one end clustered with Getting High. At the opposite end Getting Ahead was clustered with Getting Secure and Getting Balance was in the middle. "This continuum was based on DeLong's studies which show Getting Secure and Getting free as mutually exclusive polar opposites" (DeLong, 1982b, 1982c; Watts, 1992, p 51). Watts' (1992) study concluded that career orientations were also present for administrative assistants, but "that no single career orientation could be associated with age, educational level or occupation concurred with prior studies on career

anchors/career orientations of persons employed in professional occupations" (p. 61).

Career Anchors and Other Variables

While several studies validated Schein's belief that career anchors were present in professions, other research began to examine the relationship between career anchors and other factors. Questions were asked on whether anchors differed because of an individual's personality, sex or age. Also asked was whether or the anchor was influenced by where a person was in a career or life cycle. Research to test the proposition that if a person's needs were not met or if the individual's talents and abilities were unused, the consequence would be the increased likelihood that he or she would change positions or careers.

R. J. Burke (1985), writing in Psychological Reports, examined career orientations of Type A personalities which had been identified by Freidman and Rosenman (1974) and Chesney and Rosenman (1980), and related them to the characteristics of Schein's career anchor theory. Using a sample of 122 male and female managers in the early stages of their career, Burke gave the Jenkins Activity Survey and DeLong's Career Orientation Inventory to his sample. These tests were to identify Type A personalities and to determine their

career orientations. According to Burke, Type A individuals were characterized by "by such attributes as unbridled ambition, competitiveness, free-floating hostility, high needs for achievement, impatience, time urgency, and polyphasic functioning (doing more than one thing at a time)" (p. 979). Burke wanted to determine if Type A managers were more likely to display particular career anchors than Type B managers. And if the first proposition held true, Burke wanted to determine if the same pattern of relationships were present regardless of gender.

Burke's study concluded that the characteristics of Type A personalities correlated to career anchors. Using the Jenkins Activity Survey, Burke measured four scores: (a) Type A, (b) Speed and Impatience, (c) Hard-Driving, and (4) Job Involvement, which were correlated to the career orientations. Employing regression analysis, Burke determined the significant and independent correlates of the Jenkins' scale with each of the career anchors. When this was done, one career orientation was associated with Type A individuals. Specifically, those with Type A personalities had a high positive relationship to managerial, identity, variety, and creativity anchors, and a low correlation to both the security anchors (geographical and organizational). No career orientation was found with Speed and Impatience, but variety produced

a significant and independent correlation with Job Involvement. Finally one career orientation, Managerial, was significantly and independently correlated with Hard Driving individuals. Burke, agreed with DeLong's conclusions from his study of MBA alumni, that the strong correlation between management and variety was logical since management required a person to handle a multitude of tasks. In Burke's view Type A personalities were aggressive and made things happen. Because managers tended to make things happen strong correlation between managerial anchors and type A personalities was not a surprise.

When gender was interjected, Burke found differences in the anchors. In comparing men and women on each of the nine career anchors and the four Jenkins' scales, women scored significantly higher than men on the Technical/Functional and on the Service career anchor. Next, Burke compared the correlations of scores on the four Jenkins' scale with the nine career anchors separately for men and women. He found that at least in "one third of the cases the correlations of men and women differed by at least .30, and in nine of these instances the direction of the relationship was reversed" (p. 983). He also found that more Type A female managers had greater career anchors of Autonomy, Variety, and Creativity and Type A male managers had lesser Technical/Functional and

Security/Organizational career anchors. Male managers scoring higher on Speed and Impatience had a weaker Service Career anchor. Male managers scoring higher on Job Involvement had greater Managerial and Variety career anchors and weaker Technical/Functional career Anchors. On the other hand, hard driving females had greater Technical/Functional, Managerial, Autonomy, Identity, Variety and Creativity anchors, and more hard driving male managers had lower Technical/Functional career anchors coupled with higher Managerial and Identity anchors. Additionally the four Jenkins' scales were always related positively to the various career anchors for women and were negatively related to approximately half of the men.

In conclusion Burke found that sex differences had produced both unexpected and expected findings. Women who were significantly more Type A than men in the sample and had stronger Service and Technical/Functional career anchors. Burke speculated that while women may not have different anchors than men, the relative strength of various career anchors may differ. Taking today what is considered a sexist view, Burke suggested that these two anchors offered an explanation of why women entered service oriented branches of their profession such as personnel and marketing. In discussing the differences in the ways that responses to Type A scales correlated with the various career anchors, Burke offered some

explanations. He felt that male managers may have more sharply defined career anchors and that the Managerial career anchor was incompatible with some other career anchors. Female manager had less sharply defined career anchors, and for them scores on the Jenkins' scale were positively related to the various career anchors.

One final piece of Burke's study dealt with the determining if the ages of men and women had any relationship to career anchors. He found that there was no significant correlation between age of women and/or men with career orientations. This finding, however, might be explained that all the subjects in the study were in the early stages of their careers, and that the average age of the participants was 29 years old. Because of the homogenous ages of his group, Burke did not provide support to Schein's belief that anchors were present throughout the career. Nor did Burke's study provide any insight on whether the strength of the anchor varied throughout the course of a person's career.

Researchers have long maintained that there are specific stages and transitions in a person's life (Adams, Hayes, & Hopson, 1977; Levinson, 1977; Sheehy, 1976). Levinson (1977), for example, argued that a person develops in a sequential fashion through four eras of a life cycle. These were childhood, early adult, middle adult, and late adulthood. In each of these periods,

specific psychological tasks must be fulfilled for a person to move on to the next stage. For a transition from one stage to another to take place, there must be a personal awareness and understanding that new behavioral responses are required.

As a person moved through the transition from one stage to another, an opportunity is created for personal growth, but these periods may also offer intense psychological pain. How a person handles these transitions and subsequent stages is dependent on the amount of self reflection and understanding the individual has about his or her needs and abilities (Levinson, 1977; Sheehy, 1976). A question which largely has been ignored is whether life cycle stages effects career anchors. Since these changes are influenced by psychological acts and the result is personal growth, some stabilizing factors must be present that permits a person to reach a decision. Schein believed that career anchors provided the stability that assisted individuals in making career decisions, and therefore, would not change. Schein believed that a person had the same anchor at the beginning of his career as he does at the end of it. The difficulty of researching this question, however, is that it required a longitudinal study with the same subjects. Schein did such a study and concluded that anchors were present throughout a person's career.

Slabbert (1987), in studying MBL/MBAs, offered a different perspective when he found that an anchor is present throughout a career, but the individual's age influenced strength of the anchor. For example, he determined that as some of his subjects reached the ends of their career, their anchor modified and security took on increasing importance. Similarly, Wood, Winston, and Polkosnik (1985) found that the relative importance of some anchors changed as individuals progress through their careers. Wood's study of student affairs professionals divided their development into four stages--formative, application, additive and generative. Wood found career anchors or orientations did exist for these individuals, and found that the relative strength of an anchor varied depending on where one was in their career. For example, the identity anchor was highly correlated to those in the formative stages, but had lower correlations throughout the other stages. Wood saw this as a natural consequence of the graduate school experience where professional identity is first formulated. He also found that the creativity anchor correlated significantly with the last three stages, but not in the first stage. His explanation was that a person actively involved in the field had more freedom than the graduate students of the formative stage.

In fact, both Schein and Wood may be correct in that anchors may be present throughout the person's career, but the relative strength, in fact, may be influenced by life situations such as whether a person is entering a career or whether he is near retirement. Using this example, a security anchor may exist throughout one's career, but its strength increased as retirement approaches and questions of economic security come into play. The implication of these findings is that circumstances, especially where one is in a career or a person's age, could dictate the importance of the anchor.

Marsh (1982) considered the importance of mid-life as career anchors. In relating career anchors and mid-life he found there were four issues to be considered: (1) individual process versus ambition; (2) appraising dreams and reality; (3) making decisions of whether to level off in the current career, change careers, or forge ahead in the current; and (4) whether to mentor. Marsh believed that Schein's career anchors could be an useful tool in assisting the individual to reach some answer to these considerations. Career anchors can provide the individual facing mid-career decisions a tool in determining the values of a career. The question still remains with regard to the importance of the career anchors relative to each other through each stage of an individual's career. Not surprisingly, Marsh also

concluded that anchors might change in their importance as individuals move through their career.

If anchors provide the psychological stability to make career decisions, they also offer an explanation of why people choose to remain or leave a profession. If an individual's needs are not being met or if an individual's talents are not being used, the desire to change increases. "Dissonance . . . occur[s] when the anchor of the individual is not supported by the goals of the organization Also dissonance will result when perceptions of the individual are not compatible with the realities of history and the present situation" (Miller, 1981, p. 22). When this occurs, the research demonstrates that employees will want to make a change, and this may mean leaving or changing their job. This contention was reported in studies of teachers (DeLong, 1983a; McCoy, 1984).

Support for unmet anchors causing workers to leave a profession was also found in Barth's study of 865 federal employees that left positions in the federal government in a three month period. Barth (1993) argued that Schein's theories had potential in helping managers to be enlightened to the career dynamics of employees deciding to remain or leave a profession. Using a survey by the General Accounting Office, Barth pointed out that 61% of the federal employees who left their jobs were

considered to perform at a level of exceeding expectations to outstanding. In Barth's mind, one reason these people left, was because the manager lacked a conceptual framework to discuss career goals, and consequently, managers were perplexed on how to convince people to stay in their positions.

Fifty-five percent of the people who left did so "because of poor use of my skills" (Barth, 1993, p. 32). Others left the federal government because of a lack of opportunities to use managerial skills, lack of opportunities to use creative abilities, the lack of recognition, and lack of freedom. On the one hand, the GAO survey also indicated that 62% and 58%, respectively, felt that the "opportunities to apply abilities and the opportunity to work on challenging assignments" (Barth, p. 33). On the other hand, the cardinal importance of security was an important reason for remaining with the federal service.

Barth was struck by the survey's findings. He believed that Schein's career anchor concept offered some explanation as to the exodus of employees. His rationale was that the discord caused by unmet needs and the failure to utilize workers' talents and abilities, combined with human resource managers who were poorly equipped to provide advice to disenchanted workers, directly contributed to the exodus of federal employees.

In summary, many of the studies based on Schein's research demonstrated that career anchors were present in particular professions. DeLong, Aune, McCoy, and Crepeau all found career anchors in specific professions. Rynes and Crepeau used the career anchor theory to explain why dual career ladders may exist in a profession. Burke and Marsh examined career anchors in light of other variables including personality type, sex, and age, and they found there were differences caused by these factors. Barth took a different approach to used why career anchors not only offered an explanation of why people left the profession, but also to advocate their usage in helping people to remain in a profession. Others such as McCoy also concluded that the failure to satisfy the individual's career anchors was a factor in the decision to make a change. As noted, this research has occurred in a wide range of professions, and these include education. Yet, one element of the educational field has not been studied. To date, there been no work relating career anchors to the principalship.

The Principalship

Researchers have maintained that the building principals are the key to effective schools (Clancy, 1982; Doll, 1969; Duckett, 1980, Glenn, 1981, Sizemore, 1983;

Taylor, 1984; Teddlie, 1989; Weiss, 1984). As Reilly (1980) stated:

Effective schools have effective leaders
Such school leaders are usually described as people who have high expectations for staff and students, are knowledgeable in their jobs, and set the tone for their schools. (p. 40)

The current demands for improved schools have placed increased pressure on the local schools to improve. Consequently, the pressure has also increased on the principal and on the need to retain successful principals. While there is a strong need to retain principals, little, if any, understanding exists as to why people want to become and remain principals.

Research at least offers the suggestion that people are attracted to a profession that they believe can use their talents and satisfy their needs. Duff and Cotsgrove (1982) found that people who value specific types of work will select jobs within a field which enable them to attain these values. One of the fundamental aspects of Schein's theory is that the organization provides a set of common experiences for their employees that results in their be socialized into the organization. In looking at the career path of the principalship, there is some support for Schein's contention. State regulations have, until recently, forced individuals to enter the education profession as a teacher or other certified personnel

before they can move into the principalship. The three year period required in the classroom, or in a school, prior to entering administration provides them with a common background. While the possibility exist that as Crepeau and Reynes found in their studies of engineers that there is also a dual ladder exist in education, but this remains unlikely. Since the principalship requires advanced degrees and training, very few individuals enter the educational field with the idea of becoming a principal. A more likely scenario is that individuals enters the teaching profession with the idea of remaining teacher, but because their needs, talents, and abilities are not fully engaged look to change jobs.

Once in the profession, there are essentially two career paths each with significant differences. Some will have their aspirations satisfied after the initial placement (Covel & Floran, 1979). Others will continue to seek promotion--either they eventually get promoted or they remain as teachers. Those with higher aspiration of upward mobility within the hierarchy tend to be more involved with the community, generate positive notices from their superiors, support their colleagues, quickly depart from teaching, and are not confined by geographical considerations. Yet, these considerations are not a guarantee of career advancement. As Schein (1971) demonstrated, the hierarchy constricts as it moves up,

and, thereafter, there is less chance for higher placement. Personnel may be forced to remain at the same level for a multitude of reasons ranging from the perception that the individual has reached his level of competence to uncontrollable circumstances such as fate or luck. Still, some others decide to remain in the principalship rather than seek advancement. There are significant differences between those who wish to remain and those wishing to advance. In education, those who voluntarily select to remain on an administrative plateau, however, have common characteristics. They terminate their graduate studies; they are generally school based; they do congregate with their colleagues; and they have some ambiguity about leaving teaching. On the one hand, they become socialized within the setting, maintain a low profile, follow the rules, and stay close to their schools (Covel & Floran, 1979). In short they become "organizational men." These organizational men and women, however, play important roles in the educational system, and have become a central force in ensuring an effective educational organization.

Recent research about why principals decided to stay or leave the job paints a contradictory picture. A study of over 700 principals examined some of these characteristics (Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelly, & McCleary, 1988). While there were differences in their

initial certification, over 99% possessed at least a master's degree. Virtually all principals had classroom experience or served as a school counselor. Experience in a school was, in fact, an important ingredient in their career paths. Eighty percent of the principals surveyed had held positions between teaching and the principalship, and overwhelmingly this was the assistant principalship.

When asked to respond why they were willing to take jobs in other districts, principals responded with several reasons including family considerations, school climate, and job security. Job satisfaction was also an important factor for principals, and when questioned about their satisfaction, 40% stated they would remain in the same position. There was a decline over the years of those who wanted to become superintendents, and as a whole the principals in 1987 were more satisfied with their jobs than principals from the 1960s and 1970s. In fact, they were more likely to consider the principalship as a career goal.

The study concluded that principals in 1987 had more experience and training than they had 20 years earlier. They tended to stay in the principalship for longer periods of time, and were more satisfied with their career choice. The study continued to implicitly support one of the career anchors by stating "principals today

strongly identify with the principalship as a present and future career goal.

Mackler's (1992) study painted a different picture of principals from the same time span. In examining why principals decided to remain or leave the principalship, Mackler found four issues--definition of the principal's role, the power and authority to do their job, work relationships, and the respects, recognition, and rewards of the job--were keys in the decision-making process. Finding that the principals' job was in a period of transition from manager to change facilitator some principals were dissatisfied by the new demands. She also found that power had shifted, and the principal's autonomy was being limited and the number of stakeholders in education had increased the complexity of the position. Perhaps most telling was the issue of respect and identity, which according to Mackler, "nobody expected much and nobody experienced enough" (Mackler, 1996, p. 85). In short she found that principals who had left the position or were considering leaving were "worn down and exhausted," creating a portrait of the battle-weary principal, a picture that is consistent with that drawn in other studies conducted in the late 1980's (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Duke 1988; McCormick, 1987).

Schein and DeLong's work offer a conceptual framework on answering the questions of why principals

decide to remain in the principalship or to leave the position. Schools across the country are faced with both an aging population in the principalship. Research in the life and career stages suggest that this aging is enough to force people to reconsider their priorities as they relate to both their lives and to their careers.

Moreover, the area of educational leadership in general, and the principalship in particular, the changing and often ambiguous role of the principal has increased the pressure to leave the position. Given an aging population coupled with the increasing complexities of the position, principals must be given tools that permit them to reflect on what is important in their lives. Organizationally, it is equally important to develop these tools to ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization and, at the same time, to meet the needs and abilities of those who remain in a position that directly impacts our schools and our students.

CHAPTER III
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

A theory developed by industrial organizational psychologists has evolved over the years to explain employment motivation. The theory, career anchors, developed by Schein, tested and refined by numerous researchers, most specifically, DeLong, has proven to have widespread applicability. To date, however, it has not been applied to principals to determine why they would remain in the principalship. Specifically, this research seeks to determine if the career anchor has applicability to the principalship.

Definition of Terms

The purpose of this study is to determine if career anchor theory can explain why principals remain in the principalship. To bring about clarity to this research several items need to be defined.

Career anchors are, according to Schein, those abilities and talents, motives and needs, and values that guide a person's decision-making process. As Schein stated "a career anchor [is] a person's self-image of what

he or she excels in, wants, and values (1985, p. 1). Taken together abilities, talents, motives, needs, and values, anchor a people throughout their lives. When confronted with choices, and especially choices forcing them to relinquish something, these anchors will not be compromised or surrendered.

Abilities and talents are defined as the skills or activities that one does well.

Motives and needs are those things that one ultimately seeks in a career. **Values** determine the kind of organizational environment with which one wishes to be associated.

Technical and functional competence describes those "aspiring to achieve prominence in a specialized area rather than rise to a high level of generalist positions" (Wood, Winston, & Polkosnik, 1985, p. 533).

Managerial competence includes skills in interpersonal relations, analysis, and emotional areas which permit a person to rise to positions of broad and general responsibilities.

Security is where a person is motivated by stable and secure home and work situations where future events are predictable.

Creativity is associated with the need to create something, and it is often tied with entrepreneurship.

Autonomy is determined by freedom from organizational constraints.

Identity is found in those individuals who were guided by status and prestige of an organization or a position within the organization.

Service is "concerned with seeing people change because of their efforts. They want to use their interpersonal and helping skills in the service of others" (DeLong & Combs, 1989, p. 207).

Variety is the "desire a large number of different types of challenges They want careers that provided a great variety of assignments and work projects" (DeLong, 1982c, p. 53).

Organizational security is the protection offered by safe employment through the benefits of the organization.

Geographic security is the willingness and desire to remain in a specific location.

Career orientations are formed by one of the anchors defined by Schein and DeLong and accompanied by one or more subordinate anchors.

Independent Variables

In order to test the acceptance of career anchors several independent variables were used. They are as follows:

Age was divided into five categories--21-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, and over 60;

Gender was divided between male and female;

Ethnic origin on the original instrument was in five categories--African American, Caucasian, Hispanic, Native American, and Multi-Ethnic. For this study, however, the only two categories for respondents was African-American and Caucasian.

School level was elementary school, middle school, high school, or other;

Type of area was a self declared description stating if the school was located in either urban or rural area;

Length of time in administration was divided into four categories of less than 5 years, 5-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years;

Highest administrative level was the administrative position the respondents wished to obtain. The choices presented were principal, assistant superintendent, associate/deputy superintendent, or superintendent;

Highest degree obtained was either bachelors, masters, sixth year, or doctorate;

Considering a career change was either yes or no;
and

School system was either Guilford County, Randolph County, or Wayne County.

Hypotheses

This study was designed to test several hypothesis. Schein's research indicated that anchors can be found in all professions. The research to date has identified both the general existence of career anchors and that career anchors are present in several specific professions. Consequently, it is believed that by using the methods similar to DeLong's research (1982c, 1983a, 1984a) support for hypothesis one will be present; **career anchors be present for school principal and will cluster in combinations.**

Schein also found, however, that people change jobs when their needs are not met and their talents not used. It is logical to assume that people enter the professional careers believing that their careers can satisfy their needs, abilities, and talents. Much of the educational research, for example, takes the view that teachers are driven by humanitarian concerns, or to use Schein and DeLong's term--service. Olasenhinde (1972), in summarizing several studies found that "teachers are motivated by their interest in children, an opportunity to work in their field of interest and of creative expression" (p. 207). Some individuals entering teaching do so out of the hope of filling an inner need of effecting social change, advancement, and autonomy

(Robinson, Athahasiou, & Head, 1973). These same sentiments were echoed by Vance (1981) in a longitudinal study that concluded ninety percent of the teachers wanted to help others. Vance also reported a study by Sharpe and Hireschfield (1971) that many teachers found the profession allowed them to be creative, and 75% also said they enjoyed stability and a sense of future. Keith's research (1983) into urban schools reinforced the notion that those who wanted to make teaching a long-term career were likely to be in the profession out of a sense of helping others, but they also felt that teaching allowed them a high degree of self-expression which was equally important. Service, security, and creativity seem to be the most important anchors for teachers, and it was possible that some of these anchors would hold true principals.

The notion of teachers being motivated by the humanitarian idea of helping others undoubtedly has some merit. While many teachers initially enjoy the service and stability of education, over a period of time a large number leave the classrooms, and this exodus can be attributed to a variety of reasons. Whether the movement is lateral (a transfer to another location) or vertical (a move up the organizational ladder), it involves some cost and some compelling reason to make a change. Schein and DeLong's work in other field has maintained that reason

for the chance is dissonance; others like Reynes would maintain that some enter the field with a predisposition to moving to a different position.

While **service** appears to be a major factor for those who want to teach, it seems likely that it is not a real reason for moving to or remaining in the principalship. Rather, hypothesis two maintains the desire for **managerial competence, autonomy, identity, and security** are anchors for the principalship. The principalship is largely a managerial position, and like most managerial positions it involves the analytical and personnel competencies described by Schein in his original study of career anchors. However, by its very nature the principalship is in many ways an autonomous position in the educational hierarchy. While the principal is in charge of a specific entity, it is a position with little direct supervision. Given the lack of constant and direct supervision coupled with the increasingly complex nature of the principalship, principals have been forced to deal with a myriad of problems on a day-to-day basis. Thus, the principal is often free to make decisions, create policies within the school, and is generally free to do what is necessary to run the school. Additionally, the principalship is a position that often involves **identity**. Principals typically identify with their school and teachers often refer to them as "my principal", and so

identity plays a large role in the principalship. Historically, once principals received tenure or established themselves in a community they had a secure position. Those people who find satisfaction in **managerial competence, autonomy, identity, and security** should be anchored by a position such as the principalship.

The third hypothesis centers on where principals actually work. Specifically, there are differences in career anchor acceptance based on **geographic location**. DeLong was the first to demonstrate that **security** is divided into two parts one of which was geography. For purposes of this study geographical consideration was given to urban and rural areas. Urban areas in North Carolina tend to attract applicants from a wider geographic range, and these people tend to be very mobile. It is not unusual in educational publications to see large districts advertising for employment opportunities in administration. Rural school districts, on the other hand, tend to rely on people from that area who go off to school and return to the area to work. If this is true, it is likely that **geographic security** will have greater importance for individuals in rural areas than urban areas. Those is rural areas will have stronger ties to a geographic location, and for the more mobile urban principals, location will be less of a factor.

The fourth hypothesis contends the length of time in the principalship has no relationship to the relative importance of the anchor. Some have agreed that the importance of individual anchors will change over time. For example, as one approaches retirement different circumstances and considerations exist than when an individual first entered the principalship which bring about changes in the individual's career anchor. But if Schein and DeLong's contention about career anchors is true, then anchors will not be surrendered and will be present throughout a person's career. The same anchors that held the person initially will remain throughout his or her career.

The fundamental nature of anchors also is a factor in the fifth hypothesis which states that age will not influence anchors. Some research has indicated that age, in general, and mid-life, in particular, may cause a shift in the acceptance of anchors. While time in the position may not make a difference in the anchor, research (Crepeau, 1992) has indicated that age would make a difference. We do not expect this to hold true in this study. The argument has been made that as a person ages his needs change, and therefore, his anchor will change. Schein, however, maintained that the anchor was present throughout life. The nature of anchors is comprised of those things individuals will not surrender when forced to

give up something. Consequently, anchors serve as both as guiding and stabilizing factors in our life and are consistent throughout a person's career.

On the other hand, **career aspirations will influence the acceptance of anchors.** Career anchor research has consistently indicated that the reason for a person to change is that the needs and talents which comprise the anchor are unfilled or unmet. It is expected that people who wish to leave the principalship will leave for this very reason. The logical conclusion, then, is that what anchors individuals to the principalship holds less value for those aspiring to central office jobs. Since the jobs above the principalship differ in nature, the attraction of the different jobs indicates a difference in anchors from those who wish to remain principals.

The seventh hypothesis is that **gender makes a difference in the acceptance of career anchors of principals.** There has been some research to indicate that gender may have an impact on anchors. Much of the career anchor research, however, has concentrated on males, and very little has compared the differences between males and females. The bulk of the teaching population has been female, and traditionally the bulk of the principals have been male. In recent years, the number of females in the principalship has grown. While Burke's study (1985) found

that females in higher positions had higher correlations of managerial competence, we believe that the timing of his study influenced his findings. The last two decades have seen women being more aggressive and successful in obtaining positions of organizational leadership, and education has not been an exception to this trend. While one would expect men and women to enter the principalship for the same reason, the pattern of keeping women from leadership position and the struggle for economic equality will generate some differences in their values and their needs, and these differences will influence their anchors.

Similar to the plight of women as been the plight of minorities in our society. Because of this similarity, it is hypothesized that race will make a difference in the acceptance of anchors (hypothesis eight). In almost every facet of American life, race is a factor. Research and recent events have demonstrated that often African-Americans and whites view things differently. Additionally, the struggle of minorities in this country to gain access to key organizational positions has had an impact on how they perceive the workplace and society. Given this struggle, there are some anchors such as security and identity which should be more important to minorities than to whites. For example, it would be expected that these anchors would be more important for those who have limited access to it, and have struggle so

long to obtain it. For this reason, there should be demonstrable differences between the career anchors of African-Americans and whites.

Hypothesis nine states that the level of the school makes no difference in the anchors of principals. The fundamental aspects of the principal do not change whether the school is an elementary, middle or high school. Principals are required to constantly use their managerial skills regardless of the level of the school where they are principals. As Wolcott (1973) stated "A principal who cannot cope effectively with the range of strangely diversified demands...would be ill suited to the principalship" (p. 177). These demands are constant regardless of the school level, and therefore, we would expect no difference in the anchors.

Hypotheses ten and eleven are related since they concern the requirements of being a principal. All principals must have an initial certification in a field. However, initial certification (an undergraduate education) is a means of entry into the educational profession. To move beyond a teaching position generally requires an advanced degree. Regardless of the initial certification or the extent to which an individual goes beyond the undergraduate degree has no relationship to why individuals remain principals and their acceptance of anchors.

Although geographic location is part of the security anchor and can play an influence on why a person selects to stay or leave a position, we believe that it will not have an significant impact when examined by school systems. Each of the systems surveyed in this study have both urban and rural areas and, as a result, hypothesis twelve states, **the system will make the difference.** As previously noted, however, whether you are in a rural school or urban school will make a difference.

Research Methodology

Sample

To conduct this study, 142 principals in three school systems--Guilford County, Randolph County, and Wayne County--were asked to participate in the survey. These school systems were selected because they represented differences in geographic location. Additionally, the principals in these system comprised a balance based on gender, age, and race (see Table 1).

The Guilford County system consisted of 93 principals who served a population of over 58,000 students. Located in the triad section of North Carolina, it contains two urban centers, Greensboro and High Point. The system had merged three different systems into one

Table 1

School Systems and Respondents in Study

	School Districts		Population Sample	
	No. of Principals	Percent of study	No. of Respondents	Percent of study
Guilford	93	66	77	66
Randolph	22	15	21	18
Wayne	27	19	18	16
Totals	142	100%	116	100%

system in 1991. Although many of its principals had been recently reassigned to different schools since they merger, there was little movement in the principalship at the time of the study. The principals of Guilford County are among the highest paid in the state which might explain the reluctance of many to leave the system. Approximately one-third of the principals are women and/or minorities, and over 70% have been in their building less than three years.

The second system participating in this study is Randolph County. Randolph County has two school systems--a county system and Ashboro City. Since the predominate number of schools in Guilford County are urban in nature, the decision was made not to survey Ashboro City Schools and to concentrate on the rural system. Located to the south of Guilford County, the Randolph

County Schools have approximately 15,000 students in twenty-two schools. Compared to Guilford County, Randolph's principals are a fairly stable group. Randolph's principals are a fairly stable group, and in this sense they have longer time in their schools. Most have been in their building for over five years and their pay is about average for North Carolina. Nine of the principals in the system are women, but only one of the principals is a minority.

The next district surveyed was Wayne County. Located in the eastern portion of North Carolina, it also has recently undergone a merger in the last two years. The system does contain Goldsboro, but it remains largely a rural school system. The system serves 18,000 students in 27 schools. In that time, there has been some movement of principals, and some of the principals were moved shortly after the survey was done. Approximately a third of the principals in the system are minorities and/or women.

Survey Instrument and Procedure

The instrument used in this study was a written survey (see Appendix A). The survey was designed to be distributed in group meetings of the principals in three school systems, and was a modified version of the Career Orientations Inventory. The Career Orientations Inventory

was developed through an iterative process by Schein and DeLong. The original questionnaire by Schein and DeLong had been tested and found to be reliable (Aune, 1983; DeLong, 1982c; Slabbert, 1987; Wood, Winston, & Polkosnik, 1985).

The questionnaire for this study was divided into three parts. The first two sections sought to determine the importance of career anchors to the respondents. The items attempted to measure nine career anchors-- technical/functional competence, managerial competence, organizational security, geographic security, autonomy, creativity, identity, service, and variety. In the first section, a Likert scale was used where "A" equaled very important and "E" was very unimportant. In the second section, the Likert scale was reversed where "A" equaled not true to "E" completely true. The statements tapped the importance of the statements to the person, and the truthfulness of the statements as they related to the respondents' jobs. The final section consisted of demographic data. The respondents were asked to identify the system, their sex, their age, their race, the level of the school, whether the school was urban or rural, their certification, the length of time in administration, their highest degree, and whether or not they wanted to reach a higher level in administration. If career anchors were

found to be present, these variables would be used to determine if they influenced the anchor.

Prior to administration, the instrument was reviewed by individuals identified by each system to ensure testing standards and system policies were met. Once approval had been secured, the meetings were arranged in each system to explain the purpose of the research and to distribute the instrument. Principals then had approximately three weeks to complete the survey and return it. After this time, a follow-up letter was sent and another two weeks was provided for the surveys to be returned. The process resulted in a respondent rate of 82% with 116 of the possible 142 principals responding (see Table 1).

Analysis of Data

As mentioned earlier the respondents were asked to respond to the importance and truthfulness of several statements which reflected the nine career anchors identified by Schein and DeLong. These responses were used to identify the existence of career anchors among principals. To analyze the 44 questions, a multivariate analysis procedure known as factor analysis was employed.

Factor analysis is a statistical approach that is used to analyze relationships among a large number of variables and to explain these variables in terms of the

common underlying dimensions (factors). According to Rummel (1970) factor analysis has a number of aims:

Interdependencies between variables can be delineated. Masses of data can be reduced to a parsimonious subset. Data can be scaled or transformed. Hypothesis can be tested. An empirical domain can be explored and mapped. (p. 13)

Norusis (1985) stated that there are four steps to factor analysis. First a correlation matrix of all the variables is computed. Variables that are not related, then can be identified and the "appropriateness of the factor model can be evaluated" (p. 127). In the second step, factor extraction takes place. Here, the number of factors necessary for interpreting the data is determined. To make this determination, the total percentage of variance is examined for each factor. The total variance explained by each factor is listed by the eigenvalue. Factors receiving an eigenvalue of 1.00 or higher and account for the most variance are considered to be significant.

In order to clarify the relationship of the variables and to determine the number of important factors, a principal component analysis is run. "In principal component analysis, linear combinations of the observed variables are formed" (Norusis, 1985, p. 130). With this statistical procedure, the first factor that is

identified accounts for the largest amount of variance; the second factor accounts for the second largest amount of variance, and so on. Additionally, each factor is uncorrelated with the others. In general, principal component analysis can be used whenever uncorrelated linear combinations of the observed variables are desired. The third step of the analysis involves rotation. Although the factor matrix indicates the relationship between the factors and the individual variables, it can be difficult to identify meaningful factors, because many variables remained correlated to the factors. Since the goal of factor analysis is to identify the meaningful factors, a rotation was used to transform the matrix into a simple structure. Or as Norusis stated,

The purpose of rotation is to achieve a simple structure. This means that we would like each factor to have nonzero loading for only some of the variables. This helps us interpret the loadings for only a few factors, preferably one. This permits the factors to be differentiated from each other. If several factors have high loadings on the same variables, it is difficult to ascertain how the factors differ.

Rotation does not effect the goodness of fit of a factor solution. That is although the factor matrix changes, the communalities and the percentage of variance accounted for by each of the factors, does, however, change. Rotation redistributes the explained variance for the individual factors. (p. 140)

The result of a rotation of the factors is that "each factor better defines a separate cluster of highly

interrelated variables and is as specific as possible" (Rummel, 1970, p. 170). While there are many types of rotations, a varimax rotation is one of the most common, and the one used in analyzing this data. As Rummel (1970) states, "The varimax criterion for orthogonal rotation comes closest to the greatest simple structure solution Varimax is now generally accepted as the best analytic orthogonal rotation technique" (p. 392). A strong feature of the varimax rotation is that it permits the researcher to discern the same cluster of variables in the analysis. In the fourth step of factor analysis, scores for each factor can be computed, and then these scores can be used in a variety of other analysis.

This research used the following procedures in its analysis to uncover the existence of career anchors of principals. First a simple factor analysis was utilized to uncover the interrelationships between variables. In short, the goal of factor analysis is to explain observed correlations using as few factors as possible. The analysis consisted of using the principal component method. A discussion of the theoretical concepts of the principal component analysis is beyond the scope of this paper, but this analysis examines the total variance among variables. This procedure was followed by the factors being rotated by using a varimax rotation to more clearly

identify the loadings of the variables on each of the dimensions.

After this initial analysis, variables that did not load on any factor were eliminated as were the dimension that had only one variable loading on them. A second factor analysis was run using both the principal component analysis and the varimax rotation procedures. Analysis of the factor solution was followed by a series of factor analysis. Those variables loading on a factor were then run independently to ensure they formed a single dimension. In addition, this analysis of these dimensions resulted in factor scores for each individual respondent that were "clean." In other words, the factor scores for each dimension were not confounded by variables loading in other dimensions. The factor scores are analogous to scale scores for each respondent on each dimension. If five factors were identified by the data there would be five new variables for each respondent.

After determining the existence of career anchors for the principals, the analysis sought to determine if any of the career anchors were dominate. A factor score of zero was considered to be average. A score of 1.0 indicated that acceptance was one standard deviation above the standard. The scores for each respondent were analyzed by each dimension. Those dimensions having a score of 1.0 were considered to indicate strong

acceptance. If the respondent had more one or more dimension with a score above 1.0, the dimension with the highest score was considered to be dominate. An analysis was also done to find patterns of secondary anchors at this level. All respondents with more than one dimension above the 1.0 level were identified, and the dimensions above 1.0 were also identified to determine if there were patterns. This above procedure was also done at the .5 level to see if there were any resulting changes in the number of principals having anchors, secondary anchors, and patterns of the secondary anchors.

After determining the existence and patterns of career anchors, the study next sought to determine if the any differences of the anchors could be explained by several independent variables including: gender, race, age, length of time in the position, level of school, geographic area, career aspirations, considering a career change, degree earned, and initial certification. For any of these demographic variables to have an impact, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) had to show significance at the .05 level.

Limits of the Study

There are some limits of this study which should be noted. First, two of the three systems have recently undergone merger. While it is difficult to determine

merger's impact, it may be a factor in how respondents answered questions on the questionnaire. Second, the sample is not a representative sample of either principals of North Carolina or of the United States. Finally, while the inventory used in this research has been used in other fields, it has not been used for the principalship. There, in fact, may exist other anchors which this inventory has not identified.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter seeks to determine the applicability of career anchors theory to the principalship. Specifically, the research used data from a survey conducted of principals from three North Carolina school systems. The initial question in this research focused on whether career anchors found in other professions were transferable to the principals. Second, if career anchors exist for principals, are there specific career anchors unique to the principalship. Third, if unique career anchors were identified, were there combinations of anchors that formed patterns known as orientations? Fourth, this research attempts to explain the importance of identified career anchors by analyzing the characteristics of the principals.

The Sample

As stated previously, the survey procedures used in this research resulted in a response rate of 82%. Table 2 provides a comparison of the population of principals in

the three school districts and the respondents from the three systems.

Not surprisingly, the bulk, 63.8% of the principals were in the 41-50 age group with the next highest group being the 51-60 year olds which comprised 26.7% of the respondents. Since North Carolina requires advanced education for principals, it was also not a surprise that 98.3% of the principals held degrees higher than a bachelor's degree. In this sample, 45% held a master's degree, 38.8% had a sixth-year degree, and 13.8% held doctorates. Almost half of the principals had been principals for more than ten years, and 65% had over five years of administrative experience. Although the majority of the principals were males, a significant percentage (44.8%) were female. Only two ethnic groups were represented. Caucasians made up the vast majority, but over 20% were African-Americans. The majority of the principals came from urban areas, but 44% were from rural schools. There was a wide variety of initial certifications represented, with the largest number of principals being initially certified in social studies and physical education. The overwhelming majority of the principals were based in elementary schools but there were significant numbers of middle and high school principals (see Table 2).

Table 2

Characteristics of Respondents

Age	Number	Percent
31-40	7	6.0
41-50	74	69.8
51-60	31	26.7
61+	<u>4</u>	<u>3.4</u>
	116	100.0

Gender	Number	Percent
Males	64	55.2
Females	<u>52</u>	<u>44.8</u>
	116	100.0

Race	Number	Percent
African American	27	23.3
Caucasian	<u>89</u>	<u>76.7</u>
	116	100.0

Years of Experience	Number	Percent
Less than 5 years	14	12.2
5-10 years	39	46.1
11-20 years	48	41.4
Over 20 years	<u>14</u>	<u>12.1</u>
	115	100.0

Degrees	Number	Percent
BA/BS	2	1.7
Masters	53	47.4
Sixth Year	45	38.8
Doctorate	<u>16</u>	<u>13.8</u>
	116	100.0

Current School Level	Number	Percent
Elementary	70	60.3
Middle School	24	20.7
High School	18	5.5
Other	<u>4</u>	<u>3.4</u>
	116	100.0

Geographic Area	Number	Percent
Rural	44	37.9
Urban	<u>72</u>	<u>62.1</u>
	116	100.0

By significant numbers (88 out of 116) most of the principals had reached the highest administrative position they wanted, but 48 indicated they would consider changing careers. Of this latter group, they either had not reached the career goals in education or they were looking to leave the field. Five of the respondents were planning to retire at the end of the school year.

Data Analysis

Before using the factor analysis procedure, a frequency distribution was run on each item to determine the number of responses for each item on the instrument. In all cases the data were exceptionally clean with a very high number of responses to each item on the inventory. If any data were missing, there usually was no more than one response (see Appendix B). The mean scores ranged from 1.000 to 4.543. Item responses tended to cluster with the largest standard deviation of any one item being 1.066. On the third section, the one item that had the most missing data was the demographic item to determine the willingness to consider a career change. Here, four respondents failed to answer, but this may be explained by the number who were retiring. Since they were retiring, they may not have felt that the question applied to them.

Determination of the Existence of Career Anchors

The next step was to analyze the data to determine if career anchors were present. A factor analysis was used as the initial step for this process. Specifically, in this research, the goal was to determine if the data collected from the 44 items on the survey instrument would form the same anchors for the principals that had previously been identified by Schein and DeLong.

There are three measures that can be used to measure the merit of using factor analysis for a data set. To measure the strength of the variables, a partial correlation coefficient is obtained. "If the variables share common factors, the correlation coefficients between pairs should be small when the linear effects of other variables are eliminated" (Norusis, 1985, p. 128). To determine this coefficient, the Bartlett's test of sphericity can be used, and as the coefficient approaches one, the higher the strength. Another important measure of strength of the sampling adequacy. To do this the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin, an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients to the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients, is used. In short, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin indicates whether the use of factor analysis is appropriate. Norusis (1985) states that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

characterizes measures of .90 as marvelous, in the .80's as meritorious, in the .70's as middling, in the .60's as mediocre, in the .50's as unacceptable. (p. 129)

A third approach to test the adequacy of the factor analysis is more theoretical. As with any factor analysis, the test of success is whether or not the factors can identify interpretable dimensions.

Initial Factor Analysis

The factor analysis of the data identified a number of factors and variables. The first run produced 14 factors for the 44 variables and explained 71.7% of the variance. There were several indications that the analysis lacked strength. For example, the Bartlett test of sphericity score was 2176.0182, and such a high score is an indication of a lack of strength. Additionally, while the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score of .68811 is in the acceptable range, it is considered mediocre. More importantly, when the 14 factors were examined, some had only one or two variables loading on them. In addition some variables did not load on any factor, and still other variables loaded on multiple factors. Factor one, which was the strongest factor, had 25 variables which made it so complex that it became meaningless. At the other end of the spectrum, factors six, seven, eight, nine, and ten had only one variable loading on each factor. In essence, these factors were isomorphic to a variable.

Yet, this analysis did begin to show some dominate orientations. One factor for example, showed a strong tendency towards autonomy. This finding indicated that principals liked the freedom they had through their jobs. Another strong factor centered on personal identity. In other words, there was a sense that principals like being identified by either the organization or by their position

within the organizational hierarchy. But given the high Bartlett score and the mediocre Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score, the decision was made to eliminate those variables that did not load on any factor or were singly loaded in a factor. Thus, 17 variables were eliminated from further analysis (see Appendix B for list of deleted items).

All of the variables related to service were eliminated. At a casual glance, this might be a surprise. As previously noted, some of the research had indicated that many people find satisfaction in teaching because of the service it provides to both individuals and society. One might assume, that principals also would find satisfaction in service. Much of what they do is to assist people whether they be teachers, students, or parents. Yet, the elimination of all of the variables related to service indicates that service was not an anchor for the principals.

Another surprise was that all but two of the variables related to managerial competence did not load. In fact, when the managerial competence variables were loaded, they served as a secondary anchors. One would have thought managerial competence would have been a natural anchor for principals since so much of their time was spent in a managerial capacity. Evidently, the principals in this study take a different approach in defining their jobs than Schein did when he identified

career anchors. These principals saw themselves possessing a specialized competence rather than a general competence, and this viewpoint led to closer identification with the variables associated with technical competence.

A possible explanation of why so few of the managerial competence items loaded in the factor analysis, may be found in the principals' belief there are specific talents to doing their job which do not exist in other managerial positions. Perhaps, this idea is related to the conviction that they consider themselves to be instructional leaders and must have some technical expertise in working with children. This often requires a specialized knowledge of a specific program and the specific needs of the population within the school.

Finally, very few of the principals expressed approval for importance of creativity. Since so much attention in the schools has focused on the need to reform education and with the corresponding plethora of programs which have evolved over the last two decades, the expectation would have been that principals remaining in the principalship would find some importance with creating and building new programs. Yet, this was not the case for these principals. In fact of the creativity variables which were left in the factor analysis one dealt with salary, and the other two centered on the number of

programs created and skills used in building a program. The latter two were subordinate anchors under variety. The connection between wanting variety and creativity in building programs makes sense. The very act of building programs adds variety to the job. New programs require new responsibilities. But it also requires management, and a reasonable expectation would have been for more significant loadings of variables related to managerial competence than were present in this sample.

Final Factor Structure

After eliminating the variables which did not load, another factor analysis was performed. This analysis produced a stronger Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequacy of .71694 which while not outstanding was in the acceptable range. A corresponding improvement also occurred in Bartlett's test of sphericity which had a new score of 1222.0 at the .000 level of significance. This run produced seven factors that accounted for 62.7% of the variance for the 27 survey items. The factors from this analysis were then rotated using a varimax rotation. The procedure created a simple and more meaningful structure comprised of seven dimensions or anchors.

The seven dimensions identified by the varimax rotation were analyzed to determine if the results made substantive sense. In fact, the analysis did produced dimensions that could be considered comparable to those

identified by Schein's and DeLong's earlier research. The dimensions included and ranked in order of importance were **variety, personal identity, autonomy, geographic security, technical competence, organizational security, and salary.**

Factor one can be considered to be a **variety** anchor. It consisted of six variables; four were related to variety and two to creativity. The wide range of tasks performed by the principal and probably the unexpectedness of these tasks are the defining characteristics of this dimension. Items in this dimension correspond with what principals are required to do. They manage human resources, are held accountable for school finances, oversee the cleanliness of the building, handle discipline, implement new programs, interact with parents, students, and teaches, and deal with any crisis which may arise during the course of the day. Consequently, principals must be able to move from one task to another and back again in a short period of time. It is rarity in the principalship to begin one task and finish it without interruption. Principals, facing a variety of tasks are often required to find creative solutions to difficult and diverse problems. However, in this particular anchor, the creativity that most held principals was based on the creation of and/or building new programs. This particular concept has gained importance with the advent of school reform. Principals, at least in North Carolina, are

constantly being asked to improve school performance, and one way to do this is through the creation of new programs.

The second anchor was identified as **organizational identity** which both Schein and DeLong found to be a powerful force for employees. In this anchor the four variables loading with the highest correlations centered on organizational identity. People anchored by this dimension clearly enjoy what Goffman (1959) termed the symbols of the position. The office and the power become satisfying. These principals receive personal satisfaction by being placed in the principalship. Interestingly, of all of the anchors, this was the only one where principals perceived the elements of Schein's idea of managerial competence to be important. Specifically, these people felt that one of their talents was in being a manager and using people and resources to meet organizational goals; all of which involves the demonstration and use of power of the office. The personal identity of being associated with an organization and by movement up the organizational ladder remain the dominate themes in this anchor, and in many ways, people who would accept this anchor hold on to the traditional societal and organizational view of success.

Table 3

Career Anchors of Principals

	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>Factor 4</u>	<u>Factor 5</u>	<u>Factor 6</u>	<u>Factor 7</u>
Variable	Variety	Identity	Autonomy	Geography Security	Technical Competence	Organi- zational Security	Salary
Variety of challenge is important	.828						
Maximum type of assignments	.711						
Excitement of many areas of work	.697						
Motivation of creating new programs	.650						
Number of programs created	.601						
Use of skills in building programs	.557						-.444
Identity of prestigious employer		.693					
Recognize by title and status		.684					
Identify by prestigious organization		.680					
Supervising and leading		.627					
Position of leadership		.512					-.485
Rise to the principalship is important		.575		.402			

	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>Factor 4</u>	<u>Factor 5</u>	<u>Factor 6</u>	<u>Factor 7</u>
Variable	Variety	Identity	Autonomy	Geography Security	Technical Competence	Organi- zational Security	Salary
Free of organizational restrictions					.815		
Not constrained by rules of the organization			.745				
Flexibility			.683				
No constraints			.606				
Remaining in a geographic area is important				.870			
Geographic area is important				.863			
Management only in area of expertise					.796		
Rather leave organization than move from area of expertise					.737		
Remaining in specialized area is important					.538		
Security in benefits is important						.784	
Stability						.674	
Highly specialized and highly competent					.477		
Prove self by making money							.527

The third dimension or anchor was clearly identified by **autonomy** with four of the five variables loading on this anchor previously classified as autonomy items. Schein and DeLong have previously found that people anchored by autonomy ordinarily do not fit into an organizational setting, and principals with the this career anchor enjoy being free of organizational restrictions and not being constrained by the rules of the organization. While one may find it hard to understand the concept of autonomy fitting into an organizational setting, one must understand the characteristic of schools and the principalship. One of the unique characteristics of the principalship is that the principal, as head of the a organizational entity, is often removed from direct supervision. Schools operate within a system, but are a separate, both physically and socially, from the rest of the organization. Usually, the principal's immediate superior is located at another location, and at best the contact between the principal and the supervisor is sporadic. In larger systems, for example, the only contact between the two will be at monthly principal meetings or in times of crisis. During other times, the principal is in effect his or her own boss and has the maximum latitude in dealing with whatever happens in the building. The lack of frequent and direct supervision and

organizational control also promotes flexibility, which was the other variable found in this anchor. Given that these principals dislike organizational constraints, it is logical that they also are fairly flexible in dealing with events. Many have the luxury of doing what they want when they want with little consideration from superiors or others. This desire for autonomy and flexibility is promoted by the organizational structure and climate. The lack of direct supervision breeds autonomy and permits flexibility. Principals are, in many ways, free from organizational constraints in working with staff, establishing programs, adjusting work schedules, and delegating responsibilities.

The fourth anchor was labeled **geographic security**--an orientation that is consistent with DeLong's concept of security. While one of the three items on this anchor related to moving into the principalship, the two other statements reflected an individual's desire to remain in a specific geographic location. It may well be that some individuals believe that moving into a principalship would permit them to remain in a geographic area. People anchored by this dimension want to remain in a specific geographic location, and would leave the organization rather than move or be promoted to a job in another location.

The fifth anchor centered on **technical competence** of the principalship and was so labeled. One would have theorized that given the variety and nature of the job principals face, they would view themselves as managers rather than having a technical competence. Virtually all the research to date has placed technical competence and managerial competence on difference poles. In a sense, this anchor supports this contention because it is comprised entirely of variables related to technical competence. This dimension taps the feeling of individuals who views the principalship as a position specializing in the education of children. They evidently see the position as highly specialized and would rather leave the organization than lose their specialization. Although not identified by the study, perhaps the area of specialization that all principals feel they have is working with children. Although principals work directly with teachers and parents, they frequently in contact with and have more day to day interaction children than any other group. If a principal is promoted, they physically leave the environment populated by students, and the contact with students would be sacrificed, and those accepting this anchor would rather leave the organization than surrender their specialization..

The sixth anchor is based on a different form of security than factor four. Where factor four identified

security in terms of geographic location, factor six supports DeLong's contention that organizational security is a separate form of security. Schools are a closed system which provide both security and advancement. In many ways, the concept of advancement offers security, since many school system tend to promote from within and are often reluctant to go outside the system for principals. Consequently, the organizational benefits provide a blanket of security which some principals find attractive. In addition, education's relationship to tenure has long created the idea that education is a secure profession. Like teachers, principals who have more than three years of experience have tenure. While the popular notion that tenure guarantee's a person a job is untrue; it does, however, make dismissing a tenured teacher or principal a long, formal, and costly process. Consequently, there are very few instances where a teacher or principal is dismissed. Thus, it encourages the notion of security. This group also believes that they are secure because they possess a certain specialization that makes them successful. This combination of security and specialization tends to be a trade-off with autonomy. Because of their security, principals will be loyal to the organization and its policies; they are not looking for a lot of freedom, and this notion is displayed by the negative correlation of the autonomy variable.

Finally, factor seven was based on salary or in terms of making money. This anchor measures the feeling that principals believed it was important to be recognized for making money. These principals who were concerned with be recognized for making money had little interest in being associated with creating programs and leadership. This conclusion is based on the two variables of the use of skills in building a program and of leadership and influence being important receiving negative loadings in this dimension. These principals wanted to be paid for their efforts. On the other hand, this anchor implies that those who prefer to be recognized for other expressions of creativity such as building programs and those who want to be recognized for their leadership are not anchored by monetary concerns, and this idea is not one which has been fully recognize by many organizations.

The factor analysis resulted in the identification of seven dimensions or anchors that were interpretable. Six out of the seven related closely to anchors previously identified in the literature. Only the salary anchor was unique to this group of principals. Three factors previously identified--managerial competence, service, and creativity did not exist for the principals in this study.

Patterns in Career Anchor Acceptance

The analysis next centered on identifying patterns in career anchor orientation. Each of the dimensions were

factored independently to ensure they remained single factors. If this resulting analysis created multiple factors, the variables in the second factor were deleted. This occurred in two cases. The variable that loaded on the multiple factors were eliminated and the factor analysis was performed again. The purpose of this second analysis was to create factors that were clean and to permit the creation of new variables (career anchors) using the factor scores. Factor scores were computed for each respondent on each dimension and used as a basis to determine if each individual principal viewed possessed and a single anchor or perhaps multiple anchors. In creating factor scores, the algorithm standardizes the data. Thus, a factor score of zero was considered average. If the factor score was one, it meant that the respondent was one standard deviation from the mean, and for purposes of this study would be indicative of a factor being a strong anchor. A score of two would be two standard deviations from the mean, and the factor would be an even stronger anchor. Conversely, a negative score indicated that a principal valued the dimension below average, and the factor would not be a strong anchor. The factor scores were then analyzed to determine if there were any patterns.

The initial examination of the career anchors used a score of 1.0 as indicative of an anchor being strong or

dominate. If a respondent had a score of 1.0 for any of the seven factors, it was felt that the factor was an anchor for that individual. If more than one factor was above 1.0, then the anchor with the highest score was considered as the dominant dimension, and any of the remaining dimensions with scores above 1.0 were considered to be secondary anchors. An analysis was conducted to identify the number of respondents who would meet the above criteria for having an anchor.

At the 1.0 level, 57 out of 116 respondents had a primary anchor. Thirty-one out of the 57, however, had at least one secondary anchor and often they had more than one secondary anchor. Seven respondents were identified with having variety as the most important anchor. Out of these seven, however, three had secondary anchors, but the secondary anchors formed no identifiable pattern. This trend held true for the remaining anchors. Seven principals had identity as an anchor, but four of these principals had secondary anchors. The third anchor, autonomy, had 11 principals, but out of the 11, eight had secondary anchors. Geographic security constituted the fourth anchor; six of the respondents had this as their primary anchor, but it was a single anchor for just two of the principals. The fifth anchor, technical competence, had the highest number of respondents with 14, but only five of the respondents held technical competence to be a

single anchor. Organizational security was an anchor for seven individuals, but three respondents had secondary anchors. Finally five principals had the salary anchor as their primary anchor, but two of the five had secondary anchors.

Again, the analysis involved in investigating the pattern of scores for all the principals, the analysis uncovered no consistent pattern of secondary anchors. First, no set of secondary anchors was associated with specific career anchors. Moreover, no career anchors were routinely secondary anchors. Using the 1.0 level as the standard, 57 of the respondents had identifiable anchors with just under half of these possessing secondary anchors. When the secondary anchors were examined, there was no strong identifiable pattern that permitted general conclusions about the relationship between the primary and secondary anchors other than secondary anchors did exist.

In an attempt to capture the career anchor orientation of more principals the standard for identifying an anchor was adjusted downward to +0.5. When the factor score was lowered to 0.5, there was a dramatic increase in the number of respondents who had anchors. At this level, 94 respondents had a primary anchor compared to previous 57. As the number of those having dominate anchors increased, however, there were was a corresponding increase in the number of those having secondary anchors.

In each of the dimensions over half of the respondents that had a dominate anchor at the .5 level also had secondary anchors at or above the .5 level. The fifth dimension, technical competence, serves as a good example. At this level (.5) it had the most number of respondents, and it also had the most respondents with secondary anchors. Out of the 23 principals who identified technical competence as important, 13 had secondary anchors at this level, but there was no indefinable trend incorporated by their secondary anchors.

The result of this analysis points to differences between this study and Schein's work. Schein, using an interview technique, was able to isolate single dominant themes he termed anchors to explain why a person made employment decisions. DeLong refined Schein's theory by using factor analysis to create what he termed "orientations." Although DeLong used orientation synonymously with anchors, he indicated that there were dominant anchors in the orientation, but he also identified the existence of secondary anchors. Although DeLong found dominate anchors and secondary anchors, when his inventory was used in this research, differences were also found. Many of the variables in DeLong's Career Orientations Inventory were not meaningful to principals. DeLong loaded all 44 variables in his study, but in the survey of selected North Carolina principals only 27 items

loaded. While many of the anchors DeLong and Schein identified were present, they tended to be more complex in this study of principals. DeLong was able to make generalizations by grouping the secondary studies into orientations. In the current study, this was not possible because the secondary anchors were spread over so many categories that it made classification impossible.

The factor score analysis also raises some interesting questions. Even if the standard is at the .5 level, there were 22 people who had no anchor. Out of this group 14 had at least one factor above zero but below .5, but there was an additional subgroup of eight individuals where all of the factor scores were negative. For these people, the factor scores indicate that none of the seven anchors found by the study were present in these individuals. One might speculate that since the seven anchors identified in this study hold people to the principalship are absent for these individuals, that they are likely to leave the principalship. Perhaps, another conclusion is that there other anchors which have not been identified hold people to the principalship. This is an area where further study is needed.

Explaining Differences in Career

Anchors Among Principals

Originally, it was thought that all individuals would be identified with a single anchor (consistent with

Schein). The previous analysis failed to support the single anchor hypothesis. The analysis, however, does indicate that the principals have varying degrees of support or acceptance of the six career anchors found in the existing research, and one additional anchor had not been previously identified. The analysis now turns to explaining why the principals differ in support for the seven anchors. Initially it was hypothesized that the geographic location of the principal (rural or urban schools), career aspirations (desire to move to a higher position), gender, and race would distinguish the principals' support for the anchor. The analysis turns to explaining why principals differ in their acceptance of the seven anchors.

Hypotheses three, six, seven, and eight in this study proposed that the characteristics of principals would explain the differences among principals. It was hypothesized that the type of area in which the school was located would impact the anchor. For example, since urban dwellers tend to be more mobile than rural ones, it was believed there would be differences, especially in the viewpoints towards geographic security. Principals from urban areas would be more mobile and not be as strongly influenced by such concepts as geographic security. Hypotheses five stated that individuals with higher career aspirations would have differences than those who wished

to remain in the principalship. If a principal remained in the principalship, it was because of his anchors. Conversely, if a principal aspired to a higher position or would consider changing jobs, this was a result of the individual's needs being unfilled or needs unmet. Although the research on the relationship between gender and career anchors was scarce, hypothesis six stated that gender would explain differences between principals. Historically, women have had to struggle to overcome societal barriers to reach positions of leadership. This struggle would, it was believed, create differences in values and needs, and therefore differences in anchors. Similar to the plight of women has been the treatment of minorities. No issue in this country has had the impact on society and individuals as race. Recent events such as the O.J. Simpson trial have once again demonstrated the different ways African-Americans and whites view things. Given this fundamental difference in our society, hypothesis seven held that race would impact what anchors individuals to their jobs.

It was hypothesized that there would be no differences in support of career anchors as a function of length of time in the principalship, the age of the principal, the initial certification of the principal, the highest degree earned, or the school system. Certification gains you access to the field and is not a

factor in why an individual decides to remain in the field. Although some research had indicated that length of time may impact anchors, it was felt that this would not be true for principals. If the anchor holds you to a position, then it will hold you in the first year as well as the last year. And finally, while there may be differences between school systems, the basic job of being a principal is relatively the same no matter the school system, and therefore, this would not be a significant consideration on what holds a person to the principalship.

The method of analysis employed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test the hypothesis. As Rummel (1970) states, "if the dependency question is concerned with presence or absence of association, analysis of variance might be applied" (p. 188). For the analysis of variance to indicate a significant impact it must be at the 0.05 level which indicates that the relationship is above the realm of chance.

First, race was statistically significant in explaining variations of support for three of the seven anchors. Career change was significant in two factors, and geographic considerations, gender, administrative goals, and consideration of career changes each impacted at least one factor.

Table 4

Acceptance of Career Anchors by Race (ANOVA)

Factor	African-Americans	Whites	F Ratio	DF
Variety	-.2301	.0698	1.8774	1,114
Identity	.3327	-.1044	4.0324*	1,112
Autonomy	.1299	-.0399	.5932	1,113
Geography	-.1386	.0430	.6775	1,112
Technical				
Competence	-.0457	.0142	.0731	1,112
Organizational				
Security	.4926	-.1494	9.1451**	1,114
Salary	.3406	-.1057	4.2204*	1,112

*p ≤ .05

**p ≤ .01

Given the racial history and racial divisions found in this society, it is not surprisingly that race would have important implications on the study. Race, in fact, had a significant impact on principals who have high support the identity, security, and salary anchors (see Table 4). Caucasians had a negative correlation to identity, but African-Americans found it to be extremely important. White males have traditionally occupied the seats of power in most organizations, it is only recently that minorities have made significant progress. Since traditionally the positions of power and leadership have been out of reach of many African-Americans, it is understandable that they see being identified by a prestigious employer as important. It is a dramatic

statement that they have become successful economically and perhaps in societal acceptance. It reaffirms the American dream. For whites, the idea of moving up an organization tends to be more expected, and in fact, it is exactly what has happened historically. It also follows that minorities would be more concerned about organizational security. Too often they have been the last hired and the first fired. Their position in the organization has been more precarious than their white counterparts, and again it is more readily taken for granted by Caucasians than African-Americans. For the African-American it is another indication that they have made employment progress. Given the economic disparity that exist in American society between whites and blacks, it is easy to understand why African-Americans find the salary anchor to be more important than do whites. The struggle to reach a particular level is more difficult and limited for minorities. White American tends to take for granted that economic security will take place, but to minorities it is important to escape the economic constraints that race has imposed on society.

Gender failed to make a difference in 6 of the 7 anchors; only in variety was a difference found (see Table 5). Female principals placed more emphasis on variety than did male principals. While there is no reason to believe that there should be an inherent reason for the

differences, an explanation can be found in historical perspective. Women have often been stereotyped into jobs, while males have traditionally been in the dominate holder of principalships.

Table 5

Acceptance of Career Anchors by Gender (ANOVA)

Factor	Males	Females	F Ratio	DF
Variety	-.1849	.2275	5.0503*	1, 114
Identity	-.0521	.0633	.3703	1, 112
Autonomy	.0696	-.0844	.6735	1, 113
Geography	.0640	-.0791	.5753	1, 113
Technical				
Competence	.0755	-.0900	.7736	1, 113
Security	-.0525	.0646	.3915	1, 114
Salary	-.0614	.0758	.5284	1, 112

* $p \leq .05$

Like African-Americans, it is only recently that women have made gains in the principalship. While almost half of the principals in this study were women, one cannot help but realize that they have more likely been in the position longer than women. Principals who have more experience may have established fixed patterns of behavior for dealing with the tasks associated with the principalship, and therefore, find variety to be less salient. Women arrived in the principalship along with the demand for reform in education. Consequently, they see the principal as a vehicle for change which would be

commiserate to have more variety and creativity on the job.

Table 6

Acceptance of Career Anchors by Geographic Area

Factor	Urban	Rural	F Ratio	DF
Variety	.0804	-.1316	1.2300	1,114
Identity	.0013	-.0022	.0003	1,112
Autonomy	.0804	-.1347	1.2480	1,113
Geographic Security	-.1776	.3044	6.4609**	1,112
Technical Competence	.0036	-.0057	.0023	1,112
Organizational Security	.0877	-.1435	1.4661	1,115
Salary	.0081	-.0138	.0126	1,112

**p ≤ .01

Where a person resides also had an impact on the geographic stability anchor (see Table 6). Those principals from rural areas had stronger feelings about remaining in a specific geographic area. Rural school districts draw heavily upon a population that has grown up in a rural area, gone off to college, and return to live and work in the area. Rural school districts tend to want one of their own who has "made it" running their schools. Rural schools may be less likely to attract principals from outside the area. Urban schools are more likely to conduct extensive searches for principals, and these schools may place greater emphasis on experiences (being

more cosmopolitan). Often these searches are national in scope and concentrate in other cities. To urban principals this was not a major consideration. Urban principals probably tend to be more willing to move. Urban principals then move from city to city to obtain positions. Principals who accept a position in urban areas are less tied to a geographic location. The experiences of urban life permits them to be more willing to move.

Those principals who had not reached their occupational goals as principals and who wanted to move up the hierarchy displayed differences in the technical competence anchor (see Table 7). Many of the principals studied in this research believed there were technical competencies to being a principal, and they found that these competencies used both their abilities and talents. Those who wanted to be principals had a positive correlation to this anchor. However those who wanted to be assistant superintendents and those wanting to be superintendents were not bound by this anchor. Obviously to them the technical competencies of the principalship would not be the same as those of a superintendent. These people probably view the principalship is a stepping stone to being a superintendent. There might be skills which are useful for both positions, but those predominately

Table 7

Analysis of Variance for Administrative Goal

Factor	Principal	Assistant Superintendent	Associate Superintendent	Superintendent	F Ratio	DF
Variety	-.0647	.2713	.0478	.1924	.4644	3,114
Identity	-.0557	.3374	.2928	-.2298	.8558	3,108
Autonomy	.0109	-.0948	-.1783	.2109	.2404	3,110
Geographic Security	.0449	-.2719	.0513	-.3655	.6617	3,109
Technical Competence	.1265	-.2025	-.0142	1.0890	3.6165**	3,109
Organizational Security	-.0213	.2520	.3115	-.4831	1.1337	3,111
Salary	-.0227	-.0093	.1538	-.0363	.0847	3,109

**p ≤ .01

confined to the principalship would not be necessary or useful to a person desiring to become a superintendent. A different set of competencies are required, and this was born out by the high negative correlation potential superintendents held to the technical competence anchor of those wanting to remain principals.

Table 8

Acceptance of Career Anchors by Career Change

Factor	Yes	No	F Ratio	DF
Variety	.2782	-.1370	5.0876*	1,110
Identity	-.0992	.0930	.9783	1,107
Autonomy	.1374	-.0682	1.1400	1,109
Geographic Security	-.1468	.1288	2.0762	1,108
Technical Competence	-.2337	.2301	6.0877**	1,108
Organizational Security	-.1158	.1002	1.2456	1,110
Salary	.1158	-.0507	.7653	1,108

*p < .05

**p < .01

While moving up the organizational ladder explained differences so did changing occupations (see Table 8). Those who would leaving the field of education occupations demonstrated differences the variety and technical competence anchors. Those principals anchored by variety would also be comfortable in changing jobs because a new job would also produce variety. creativity. To them,

while the job may offer variety within the position this very variety also constitutes a sameness. For example, principals face a wide variety of tasks on a day to day basis, but if each day is unplanned and unpredictable the mere fact that each day becomes the same. In other words, there may be no specific routine, and this fact becomes stifling. People may want more variety than handling the day to day problems of a school. This desire for variety quite naturally leads to change. Additionally, those wishing to leave the principalship would find little satisfaction by technical competencies of the principalship. Because they would consider a career change, there must be other attractions that the nuts and bolts of being a principal.

The analysis indicated that several variables that were hypothesized to have no influence in explaining support for career anchors were statistically insignificant. (See Appendix D for analysis of variance scores.) There had been some research that indicated time in a position might cause a change, but there were not significant differences between new and experienced principals. Both groups tended to view anchors in the same manner. This finding not only supports Schein's tenet that anchors are fundamental and do not change over time, but they may also be useful in helping individuals make decisions to answer the questions that aging

naturally raises. Likewise, the type of initial certification did not cause any changes nor did the degree, or the level of the school create any significant differences. The process of becoming a principal had no impact. Certification is required to become a teacher and a principal. It should have no impact on anchoring a people, but it may have an impact on why they decided to become a teacher or principal. Likewise, it did not matter whether the principal was in an elementary school, middle school, or high school. The job satisfaction of being a principal does not change, and it is a result that the same functions of the principalship are present at all levels. A principal is a principal no matter what the age of the children in the school. The nuts and bolts of the principalship remain constant. There also is a body of research that indicates age, especially at mid-life, could influence our anchors. The principals in this study were divided into five age groups, and there were no statistically significant differences in the anchors of the age groups.

Summary

In summary, the analysis identified career anchors for principals. Seven anchors were found to be present, with six of the seven falling under the same framework established by Schein and DeLong. Three anchors

previously established --service, managerial competence, and creativity--are neither absent for principals or are relatively unimportant to them. On the other hand, this study identified a previously uncovered anchor, salary, which existed for some of principals in this study. Moreover, the analysis demonstrates for principals that the concept of career anchors is more complex than proposed by Schein, and differs from DeLong's career orientations. Unlike Schein findings, all of the principals did not hold a single anchor. While some of the principals have just single anchor, a significant number have multiple anchors. Those who have multiple anchors, however, did not have a pattern of acceptance of career anchors similar to the orientations proposed by DeLong. Also, it is a significant finding that there were a group of principals with no identifiable anchors. This fact raises the proposition that either there are other anchors that remain unidentified, or these principals have no anchor to the principalship and are likely candidates to leave the position. Finally, the analysis indicated that race, gender, school location, career aspirations, and the willingness to consider changing careers explained in limited ways the variations for acceptance of career anchors.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The effective schools research (McCurdy, 1983; Reilly, 1980) has indicated that the principal is one of the keys in successful educational programs. Additional research (Lightfoot, 1983) has demonstrated how effective principals operate and, at least by inference, provided some insight on the passion they bring to the job. Research has been lacking, however, on the question exploring why principals chose to remain in the principalship rather than move up the organizational ladder. Since principals are one of the primary keys to the success of any school, it is important to have an understanding of what attracts them to and keeps them in the job. By doing this, both the organization and the employee, in this case the principal, have a better understanding of the dynamics and the interrelationships that are involved in obtaining organizational goals and personal satisfaction.

The original work done on career anchors was performed by Edgar Schein in the early 1960s. Schein's primary interest lay with segments of the business

community. His work researched various business leaders by interviewing them about their career histories. After the interview, the transcripts were examined to determine why these individuals made their career decisions. In Schein's mind, clear patterns emerged, and these were classified into anchors. Schein's original research identified five anchors--**technical competence, managerial competence, security, creativity, and autonomy.** These anchors were based on the abilities, talents, and needs of the individual, and they served as a stabilizing factor for the individual. Schein also believed that everyone possessed one of these anchors which held individuals to a career, and when it came time to make a decision which required the individual to make a choice, and especially if this choice required the individual to give up something, the anchors would constitute something the employee would not surrender. As such, the career anchor served as a stabilizing factor for the individual.

Thomas DeLong (1982) built on Schein's research and in researching MBA's alumni added to Schein's list of career anchors. DeLong added three more anchors--**variety, identity, service** and a division of the **security** anchor. DeLong found that many people were held to their jobs by the diversity of activities within a profession. Others found satisfaction by being identified by a particular organization or even a specific position with the

organization. And where Schein had previously identified security as a monolithic entity, DeLong's research divided the security anchor into two anchors--organizational security and geographic security. The former was more in line with Schein's concept of where people found comfort with organizational policies and benefits. DeLong also found that some people preferred to remain in a specific geographic location and would rather relinquish the job rather than relocate.

A more important contribution of DeLong was his research methodology. Where Schein had relied on extensive interview techniques, DeLong developed a survey instrument which was analyzed by factor analysis. DeLong's approach permitted him to use a more sophisticated method of study that mathematically analyzes complex data and to reduce it to simple structures and relationships. By doing this, DeLong found the anchors were more complex than was indicated by Schein's original work. While the dominant anchors remained, there were often secondary anchors that clustered around the dominant anchors. DeLong termed these clusters as career orientations. These combinations varied among people, but enough of the people within a specific group held these combinations to infer that they were anchors.

Schein's research in particular sparked additional research into other professional fields to determine if

anchors existed. To date career anchors have been identified in MBA alumni (DeLong, 1982c, Slabbert, 1987), nurses (Aune, 1983), teachers (DeLong 1984a, 1984b; McCoy, 1984), college student affairs personnel, (Wood, Winston, & Polkosnik (1985), engineers (Rynes, 1987), information system personnel (Crepeau, 1992), and administrative assistants (Watts, 1992). Additional research related career anchors to other variables. Burke (1985) examined the relationship of career anchors to personality types and additionally found differences between men and women. Burke also briefly examined if age caused any differences in anchors and found it did not. Marsh (1982) held that the career anchor concept could help people move through both the stages of life and the stages of a career. Wood, Winston, and Polkosnik (1985) believed that while anchors existed throughout the career the importance of the anchor may change because of where an individual was in their career. For example, security may be more important at the latter stages of a career than it is in the early stages of the career. Finally, research also used career anchors to explain why people would leave a profession. Barth (1993), DeLong (1983a), McCoy (1984), and Miller (1981) all reported that anchors which were not being met by a specific job would be contributing factors in a person leaving a job or profession. To date, however, none

of the career anchor research had been applied to the principalship.

The purpose of this study was to first determine if the career anchor concept could be applied to the principalship. If so, are the anchors single ones such as Schein identified or do they fall in the realm of DeLong's orientations? Additionally, the study wanted to determine if variables such as age, gender, sex, ethnicity, time in administration, level of school, certification, whether the principal is in a rural or urban setting, and the ultimate career goal of the individuals caused differences in the anchors.

Initially several hypothesis were proposed. First, it was felt that career anchors did exist for principals. Since the principalship is largely a managerial position, it was believed that the primary anchor would be **managerial competence**. Additionally since there symbolic examples of the power of the position, it was felt that **identity** would also be an anchor, and because the educational field has a traditional reliance on stability, it was hypothesized that **security** would also be an anchor. It was believed there were additional variables that would impact many of these anchors. For example, it was theorized that rural principals would have a higher need for location that the security anchor would be greater for them than there urban counterparts. Although there was

existing research which indicating that stages of a career may have some bearing on anchors, it was expected that this would not hold true for principals. Rather, because of the fundamental nature of anchors, it was believed that the anchors would be present regardless of the age of the individual or the length of time the person had in the principalship. Although there was a scarcity of research on the relationship between career anchors and the variables of gender and race, it was hypothesized that these would make a difference in the anchors, because the struggle of minorities and women to reach positions of management would impact both their value systems and their set of needs. As a result, differences in anchors would exist. Additionally, those principals who wanted a different position would have different anchors, because the different position fulfilled a need that was not being met by the principalship.

While there were several factors that would influence an anchor, there were also several that would have no effect. Being a principal requires a set of common activities which are predetermined by the state, it was believed that certification would not have an impact. Similarly, most principals have advanced degrees, and therefore a common experience would not differentiate an anchor. Finally, because the "nuts and bolts" of the principalship are the same regardless of the school or the

school system, it was felt that neither would have any bearing on the anchors.

Summary of Findings

To test these hypotheses, DeLong's Career Orientations Inventory was administered to principals in three school districts in North Carolina. The districts--Guilford County, Randolph County, and Wayne County--were selected because they were accessible and had a sufficient number of principals. Meetings were arranged with each group of principals. At this time, the rationale for the study was given and the instrument was distributed. The instrument asked the principals to respond to a series of statements. Each statement corresponded to one of the eight career anchors identified by Schein or DeLong. The respondents were asked to determine the level of truthfulness or the level of importance each statement had to their jobs. The principals had a choice--either complete the survey at this time or take three weeks to do the survey. After three weeks a follow up letter was sent to the non respondents. Out of 142 principals 116 responded.

A factor analysis was used to analyze the data. This approach identified seven dimensions that could be considered to be anchors for these principals. While the anchors were similar to those found in previous research,

they were somewhat different than those previously identified by research using DeLong's Career Orientation Inventory. Unlike DeLong's original study were all of the variables loaded, in the factor analysis of the data supplied by the principals, almost half of the variables did not load and were eliminated. Still, the factor analysis provided seven anchors--variety, personal identity, autonomy, geographic security, technical competence, organizational security, and salary.

The strongest dimension or anchor was variety which was associated with strong support for creativity. The principalship offers a wide range of activities. Typically the day in the life of the principal is filled with both variety and unpredictability (Wolcott, 1973). For principals anchored by variety, the most important variable is the variety of challenges. Elementary principals may deal with a teacher one minute and a 5 year old the next. In the middle school, principals face all the problems associated with adolescence and at the same time deal with new educational programs, or in a high school a principal may be interviewing students for the a major scholarship one minute and the next minute untangling two ninth graders from a fight. There are few assignments in education that offer the variety of challenges that face the principal. Principals also found that implementing different programs and a setting that

permitted them to work in many areas of work was a satisfying use of their talents and abilities. These principals feel comfortable with the implementation of many of the innovations that have come with the educational reform movement that was sparked by the publication of A Nation at Risk. This motivation to create and implement new programs has transformed the educational landscape. Programs such as reading recovery, the Comer Project, block scheduling, Paideia, and countless other programs are all initiated and promoted by principals who find comfort and satisfaction by program creation.

The association of variety with creativity intuitively makes sense for these principals. According to the principals in this survey, the creativity variables centered around the number of programs they had created and using their skills in building programs. The creativity factor often involves in building public support for the program, finding the financing and creating ways to keep the program going. Since these principals are primarily supported by variety, it is also logical to assume that their approach would be different as the situation dictates, and their creative needs are fulfilled by using as many of these skills as possible.

This study hypothesized that gender would make a difference in the anchors. While this was not true for

six of the seven anchors, it was true for the variety anchor. Female principals had a higher acceptance of **variety and creativity** than their male counterparts. While this is an area requiring more research, a possible explanation may be found in that female principals are the more recent arrivals to the principalship. Men traditionally have held the positions in educational leadership, and it is only in the last two decades that women have made significant gains. Men who have been in the position longer, may feel they have "seen it all." The arrival of significant numbers of female principals comes at a time when many people believe the traditional school system is failing or already failed. Women have become principals when the educational establishment, in response to many of its critics, has decided that something new must be tried. Women may be more receptive than their older male counterparts in wanting to do things differently. They are, in short, more comfortable with the variety that our complex society has demanded of its schools.

One other variable, considering a career change, also demonstrated significant differences in the **variety** anchor. Those who would consider a career change were more likely to embrace the variety anchor than those who would not. For these people, variety transcends the occupation; it can be found within an occupation, and it

also can be found by changing careers. It intuitively makes sense are anchored by variety, are eventually likely to find their jobs boring and would be more willing to change careers.

The second anchor identified by this study was that of personal identity. DeLong's research had confirmed that some individuals found satisfaction in being identified with an organization. Many of the principals in this study were no exception. In spite of the negative information being written about the failure of public education, many principals found personal identity in the principalship. This is possible because most principals do not necessarily identify with a system, but rather with a school. While in many cases the school system has many critics, often the school has many supporters so identification becomes more localized. These principals also like being recognized by their title and status. The rise to the principalship is an indication that these people have been successful, and a certain amount of status goes with the position. Principals, unlike teachers, have offices, secretaries, and the use of a telephone and other symbols that others in the school do not have access to. These symbols of the position provide comfort to the principals anchored by organizational identity.

One of the surprises in this study was how few of the principals saw themselves as managers. The principals, anchored by identity, however, felt that the principalship was a leadership position, and this is a characteristic of managerial competence. (In fact, this was the only anchor in which managerial competence appeared.) Implicit in this viewpoint, is that leaders marshal forces, in this case students, teachers, and parents, and resources to meet organizational goals. These principals found it satisfying to be able to supervise others and lead elements of the organization.

Some of those anchored by the identity had a secondary need to be compensated for their success. Being paid well is a symbol that they had indeed been successful, and in a capitalistic society success and status are defined by money. Principals are the highest paid person in the school and it is another symbol of their identity. One would have thought there might be differences in the importance of compensation between the systems, but this was not the case. Guilford County principals, however, are paid significantly more than other principals in the study, but the importance of money did not vary by school system.

Finally, in this dimension there were elements of technical competence or being highly specialized. Previous research has indicated that technical competence

and managerial competence were on the opposite ends of the spectrum. Using the standard definitions, the principalship ought to be viewed as a managerial position rather than a technical one. Principals tend to be generalist rather than specialist, but in this case the principals viewed themselves as both. They are generalist in the variety of tasks they face, but they appear to believe they have some specialized ability. Perhaps, this specialization is defined in working with children, which does require some specific abilities.

The only demographic variable that made a difference in the identity anchor was race. African-American principals placed a higher importance on this anchor than white principals. The struggle to obtain positions of leadership in the system has been difficult for minorities. While education has a better track record in employing minorities than many businesses in the private sector, it still has not been easy for minorities to reach the principalship. Since they have to struggle to gain equal access, the identity of making it is sends an extremely important message to others. Minority principals are more likely to be considered role models for minority students than white principals are for white principals. Such perceptions as these place increased importance on the position for African-American principals.

The third anchor identified in the study was **autonomy**. Those anchored by **autonomy** were particularly concerned with be free of organizational restrictions and rules. The principalship is a little unusual in that the principals have infrequent contact with their immediate superiors. While boards set goals and policies and superintendents implement these policies, neither has much direct contact with the principals. This is especially true in large organizations. Even here where a person is assigned to be directly responsible for immediate supervision of the principal, there is little contact. Generally, the only contact principals have with their supervisors is at monthly principal meetings or in a time of crisis when the presence of central office personnel is needed in a building. Principals are largely left to their own devices, and they have the flexibility to deal with problems, people, and programs, without interference from central office. Interestingly, when this anchor was examined for differences by a wide range of variables, none significantly impacted this anchor.

The fourth anchor identified by this study was one previously identified by DeLong--**geographic security**. DeLong was the first to indicate that some people were anchored by geographic location, and this was true for a group in this study. These principals remained in the principalship because it permitted them to remain in a

specific geographic location and this was especially true for principals having schools in rural areas. Rural areas tend to draw two types of people. First there are those who grew up there and want to remain. Rural schools often rely on people who have lived in the area to staff their schools. Traditionally, they tend to be closed systems for the principals outside the area. They promote from within. They are more likely to have family in the area and therefore remaining in the area is important. The second type of people who live in rural areas are fugitives from the cities. In short, they prefer the slower lifestyle of rural areas. They too would have a strong preference for remaining in a rural area. The urban systems draw a more mobile employee, and it is not uncommon for them to hire from outside the local geographic area. These systems actively recruit across the state and perhaps the nation. Because their employees are more mobile and from a diverse range of places, they have less inclination to be tied to a specific geographic area.

The fifth anchor, **technical competence**, was somewhat a surprise. When compared to other jobs in the private sector, it would make sense to feel that the principalship is a managerial position, but for a number of respondents in this study, the principalship was seen as one having technical competence. People with this

anchor were interested in a specific area of specialization and would prefer to leave their jobs than to be moved outside their area of expertise. One can only speculate what these respondents perceived as the area of technical expertise. Perhaps it was working with children which these principals do and is exactly what they would give up if they were promoted to central office positions. This reliance on technical competence was, as could be expected, less for those who would consider a career change and for those who had not reached their administrative goals.

The sixth anchor was **organizational security**. The type of security in this case was security provided by organizational benefits such as tenure (in those states that grant it) and stability. The surprise, however, was that this anchor accounted for a small amount of variance. Other studies have indicated, and the public assumes, that people enter and remain in education for the stability and job security it provides. In this sense, it is not a surprise that some principals would find comfort in the security that education provides. One might think that more principals would have this anchor or it would rank higher in importance. On the other hand, **autonomy**, which was important with a larger group of principals was negatively correlated with this anchor. As was expected, this particular group did not value autonomy, but rather

had a strong sense of attachment to the organization and its policies.

Once again there were differences among the racial groups. African-Americans held organizational security to be more important than white principals. The difficulty minorities have had in gaining equal access to organizational positions must be considered. Historically, they have been the last hired and the first fired. Their economic position has been more insecure than that of whites, and if their position is lost it is often more difficult for them to find another position of equal status and stability. Their loss would be greater than the white principals.

The last anchor identified in study is one of salary. In American society, making money has been the primary definition of an individual's success. On the other hand, those in education often hold the view they are poorly paid. One enters the profession with the realization that there are limited opportunities for significant pay advances. In many cases the pay difference between a teacher and a principal is small. Still, the principals are paid at significantly higher levels than teachers. Yet, this factor remained the least powerful of the seven anchors. Interestingly, those attracted by salary had little acceptance of creating and implementing programs.

Once again, when race was placed in the equation, differences arose. Financial rewards may be more important to African-Americans than to whites. Once again the employment history of minorities must be a contributing factor. The identity of the organization, security, and pay all have common threads for those who have such difficulty in accessing and sharing a part of the economic pie.

While race, gender, geographic location, administrative goals, and consideration of changing careers had some impact on anchors, the other variables such as certification, degree held, school level, length of time in administration, and age did not impact or influence the anchors. The process of becoming a principal is a state regulated one, and the fact that certification nor degree would matter was not real surprise. The degrees and certification are methods of entry, and this should not bear on why a person would remain a principal. The fact that the level of the school bore no influence demonstrates that being a principal is a principal regardless of the school level. The elements of the job are the same. There may be preferences for the level, but these preferences do not appear to be an important factor on whether or not a person remains in the principalship.

There had been some research that indicated age and stage in a career would play an important part in determining anchors. One study had found that while the anchor may always be present, the priority given to it may change as a person enters different stages of a career. For example, if a person was anchored by organizational security, the anchor may become more important as the person approaches retirement. In this study, this was not the case. Neither a person's age nor the time in administration influenced the anchors. Because this study was in effect a snapshot of a person's career, the question of the relative strength of the anchor changing was not answered. For this to be accomplished a longitudinal study would be needed.

Although the factor analysis produced seven anchors, the complexity of the anchors was demonstrated when factor scores on each anchor was given for each of the respondents. When this was done, a significant number of principals had anchors and secondary anchors. The secondary anchors, however, varied greatly for individuals who had the same dominant anchor. Almost half of those respondents had secondary anchors, but the differences were so great that they defied categorization. Additionally, there was a group that had no anchors. Either the identified anchors did not apply to them, which may indicate the possibility of yet unidentified anchors,

or they were not anchored by anything the principalship offered which raises questions of whether this group will remain in the principalship.

Conclusions From the Study

This study confirmed that several of the career anchors identified by Schein and DeLong were present for the principals. Specifically, **variety, identity, autonomy, geographic security, technical competence, and organizational security.** The study also identified an additional anchor, **salary**, which had not previously been identified in the research. The study also confirmed the existence of DeLong's concept of career orientations. But when individual principals anchors and orientations were examined, classification of the orientations proved to be so complex that it lack meaning. Specifically, after identifying the dominate anchors, the combinations of secondary anchors lacked a definitive pattern, and approximately half of the principals who had anchors also had secondary anchors. Finally, the study showed that differences in the acceptance of anchors could be attributed to race, gender, career aspirations, and location of the school.

The point remains, however, what can be gained from this research. As previously noted, organizations, whether they are in the public or private sector, need to

better understand the motivation of their employees. While organizations cannot sacrifice organizational goals, they no longer have the luxury of not considering the welfare of their employees.

While the concept of career anchors can prove to be helpful to organizations, its real benefit is found as a method of self examination. Schein's original contention was that anchors served as stabilizing factors in an individual's life. Too often, people go through life without thoroughly understanding why they make decisions. Career anchors can serve as a reflective step in the process. The anchor concept can provide insight into what motivates each individual, and as they move through their own career, by providing a benchmark to whether these fundamental needs are being met. In short, career anchors can provide at least a partial answer to why we do the things we do. For example, why do principals remain principals. They do so for a variety of reasons, but for each individual, career anchors can offer some insight for that particular individual. If a person understands why they are doing a particular job, then the chances improve that the person is more satisfied and more committed to meeting the goals of the organization.

Considerations for Further Study

Although this study confirmed that many of the anchors and career orientations are indeed present for the principals, the study did raise certain questions that may require additional research. A significant number of the variables DeLong's Career Orientations Inventory were considered by the principals to be irrelevant, and therefore, the inventory is somewhat limited in identifying anchors for principals. Further study is needed to determine if other variables are related to the existing anchors that would better identify the anchors. The principals lack of support for the managerial competence supports this contention. Since the principals did not view the statements related to this anchor to be of consequence it raises the question of why do the principals view their position differently than some one in a similar position in the private sector. Are the variables as stated more meaningful for individuals in managerial positions in the private sector than the educational field? Further research is needed to distinguish why the differences exists.

Additionally, when the factor scores were examined there were several principals that had no significant anchor identified or had negative correlations to all the anchors. The question remains as to whether or not there

are unidentified anchors that hold these people, or are they candidates likely to leave the principalship because there is nothing holding them to it.

This study indicates that salary, which had not previously identified as an anchor, was an anchor for some individuals. If there are still other unidentified anchors, further research is needed to determine what these anchors might be. Schein (1985), for examples, believed that lifestyles could be an anchor. There, in fact, may be more which were outside the scope of the instrument and the study. Only additional research could determine if there are other anchors.

Another practical consideration should be examined. As a result of new employment laws in North Carolina, new principals or experienced principals who move from one location to another no longer have tenure. With the removal of one of the primary aspects of organizational stability, research needs to be done to see how it impacts the principalship. One would theorize that these principals impacted by this new law would have different anchors than individuals who have been principals for a prolong period of time and for those not willing to change systems. Additionally, new legislation passed in the past year, gives the state the power to remove principals of poor performing schools. In the upcoming years, this too

may have an impact on individuals who decide to become and remain principals.

Finally, for organizations and employees to benefit from the anchor concept, a systematic model must be implemented. Organizations, whether they are private or public, must take into considerations the needs of the employees without losing sight of organizational goals. If this were not complex enough, it is vital that organizations recognize the key people needed for the organization to be effective, identify the talents and abilities these key people need to be successful, and develop a mechanism for matching the people with the system. Schein felt that anchors, while not predictive of a particular organization or position, gave a method for at least developing an understanding why people made their decisions. Research as consistently confirmed the existence of anchors, but it has failed to develop a model that effectively implements the concept into personal programs. If Schein, DeLong, and the others are correct, for the career model to make an impact on organizations and organizational culture, a reliable and simple model must exist.

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APPENDIX A
CAREER ORIENTATIONS INVENTORY

CAREER ORIENTATIONS INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS FOR PART A

Read each statement and shade the letter on the answer sheet that best corresponds to your level of agreement.

A = Very Important; B = Important; C = Neither Important nor Unimportant; D = Unimportant; E = Very Unimportant

1. Becoming highly specialized and highly competent in some specific functional or technical area is important to me.
2. The chance to pursue my own life-style and not to be constrained by the rules of the organization is important to me.
3. The use of my interpersonal and helping skills in the service of others is important to me.
4. Being identified with a powerful or prestigious employer is important to me.
5. A career that gives me a great deal of flexibility is important to me.
6. The process of supervising, influencing, leading, and controlling people at all levels is important to me.
7. An organization that will provide security through guaranteed work, benefits, a good retirement, etc., is important to me.
8. Remaining in my present geographical location rather than moving because of a promotion is important to me.
9. To be able to create or build my own something that is entirely my own idea is important to me.
10. Remaining in my specialized area as opposed to being promoted out of my area of expertise is important to me.

11. A career that is free from organizational restriction is important to me.
12. The process of seeing others change because of my efforts is important to me.
13. To be recognized by my title and status is important to me.
14. A career that provides a maximum variety of types of assignments and work projects is important to me.
15. To be in a position of leadership and influence is important to me.
16. An organization that will give me long-run stability is important to me.
17. It is important for me to remain in my present geographical location rather than move because of a promotion or new job assignment.
18. The use of my skills in building a new program is important to me.
19. Remaining in my area of expertise rather than being promoted to central office is important to me.
20. An endless variety of challenges in my career is important to me.
21. Being able to use my skills and talents in the service of an important cause is important to me.
22. To rise to a the position of principal is important to me.
23. A career that permits a maximum of freedom and autonomy to choose my own work, hours, etc. is important to me.

DIRECTIONS FOR PART B

Read each statement and shade in the letter that corresponds to the truth of the statement as it applies to you.

A = Strongly agree; B = Agree; C = Neither Agree nor Disagree; D = Disagree; E = Strongly Disagree

24. I will accept a management position only if it is in my area of expertise.
25. I find life in most organizations to be restrictive and intrusive.
26. I have always sought a career in which I could be of service to others.
27. I like to be identified with a particular organization and the prestige that accompanies that organization.
28. The excitement of participating in many areas of work as been the underlying motivation of my career.
29. I would like to reach a level of responsibility in an organization where my decisions really make a difference.
30. I am willing to sacrifice some of my autonomy to stabilize my total life situation.
31. I have been motivated throughout my career by the number of programs that I have been directly involved in creating.
32. My main concern in life is to be competent in my area of expertise.
33. During my career I have been mainly concerned with my own sense of freedom and autonomy.
34. I have sought a career that allows me to meet my basic needs through helping others.
35. It is important for me to be identified by my occupation.

36. An endless variety of challenges is what I really want from my career.
37. I want to achieve a position that gives me the opportunity to combine analytical competence with supervision of people.
38. I would like to accumulate a personal fortune to prove to myself and others that I am competent.
39. I see myself as a generalist as opposed to being committed to one specific area of expertise.
40. I do not want to be constrained either by an organization or job title.
41. I like to see others change because of my effort.
42. I want others to identify me by my organization and job title.
43. I have been motivated throughout my career by using my talents in a variety of different areas.
44. I would leave my organization rather than be promoted out of my area of expertise

DIRECTIONS FOR PART C

This sections concerns demographic data about yourself. Please select the appropriate answer and shade in the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

73. Are you (A) male or (B) female?
74. In which age group are you?
 - (A) 21-30
 - (B) 31-40
 - (C) 41-50
 - (D) 51-60
 - (E) over 60
75. What is your race or ethnic origin?
 - (A) African-American
 - (B) Caucasian
 - (C) Hispanic
 - (D) Native American
 - (E) Multiethnic/Other

76. Which best describes your current school?
(A) Elementary School
(B) Middle School
(C) High School
(D) Other
77. Do you live in a(n)
(A) Urban area
(B) Rural area
78. How long have you been in administration?
(A) Less than five years
(B) 5 to 10 years
(C) 11 to 20 years
(D) Over 20 years
79. What is the highest administrative level you wish to obtain?
(A) Principal
(B) Assistant Superintendent
(C) Associate/Deputy Superintendent
(D) Superintendent
80. What is the highest degree you have obtained?
(A) BA or BS
(B) Master's
(C) Sixth year or advanced
(D) Doctorate
81. Have you held a position outside of education?
(A) Yes
(B) No
82. What was your original certification?
(A) English
(B) Social Studies
(C) Science
(D) Math
(E) Other
83. If you selected (E) "Other" in question 82, answer this question.

If you selected A, B, C, or D in question 82 go to question 84.

- (A) Counseling
(B) Physical Education
(C) Vocational
(D) Cultural Arts
(E) Foreign Language

84. Would you consider a career change?
(A) Yes
(B) No
85. Are you retiring at the end of this school year?
(A) Yes
(B) No
86. In which school system do you currently work?
(A) Guilford
(B) Randolph
(C) Wayne

APPENDIX B
VARIABLES WHICH WERE ELIMINATED

VARIABLES WHICH WERE ELIMINATED

Remaining in my area of expertise rather being promoted into general management.

I see myself as more of a generalist.

I find life in most organizations to be restrictive or intrusive.

During my career I have been mainly concerned with my own sense of freedom and autonomy.

The use of my interpersonal and helping skills in the service of others is important to me.

The process of seeing others change because of my efforts is important to me.

Being able to use by skills and talents in the service of others is an important cause to me.

I have always sought a career in which I could be of service to others.

I have sought a career that allows me to me my basic needs through helping others.

It is important for be to be identified by my occupation.

I want others to identify me by organization and job title.

To rise to a position of general management is important to me.

I would like to reach a level of responsibility in an organization where my decisions make a difference.

I want to achieve a position that gives me the opportunity to combine analytical competence with supervision of people.

I am willing to sacrifice some of my autonomy to stabilize my total life situation.

To be able to create or build something that is entirely my own product or idea is important to me.

APPENDIX C
TABLE OF RESPONSES

TABLE OF RESPONSES

Variable Identified by DeLong	Mean	SD	Number
<u>Factor 1: Variety</u>			
Variety of challenge is important	3.362	.945	116
Maximum type of assignments	4.121	.793	116
Excitement of many areas of work	3.940	.726	116
Motivation of creating new programs	3.690	.973	116
Using talents in a variety of areas	4.209	.656	116
Number of programs created is important	3.784	1.003	116
Use of skills building a program	4.207	.679	116
<u>Factor 2: Identity</u>			
Identify by prestigious employer	2.652	1.035	115
Recognize by title and status (PI13)			
Identify by prestigious organization	3.371	.870	116
Supervising and leading	3.802	.826	116
Position of leadership	4.017	.517	116
Rise to the principalship	4.202	.833	114
Highly specialized	3.741	.970	116
Accumulate a personal fortune	2.612	1.045	116
<u>Factor 3: Autonomy</u>			
Free of organizational restrictions	3.362	.945	116
Not constrained by rules of organization	3.543	1.066	116
Flexibility	4.029	.656	115
Maximum freedom	3.560	.858	116
No constraints--choose work hours, etc.	3.448	.928	116

Variable Identified by DeLong	Mean	SD	Number
<u>Factor 4: Geographic Security</u>			
Remain in geographic location	3.698	1.057	116
Geographic location important	3.853	1.015	116
Rise to the principalship is important	4.202	.833	114
<u>Factor 5: Technical Competence</u>			
Management only in area of expertise	3.426	1.001	115
Rather leave organization than change expertise	2.800	.975	116
Remain in area of specialization	3.595	.987	116
<u>Factor 6: Organizational Security</u>			
Security in benefits	4.362	.727	116
Stability	4.129	.717	116
Highly specialized and highly competent	3.741	.970	116
Concerned with own autonomy	2.810	.932	116
<u>Factor 7: Creativity</u>			
Prove self by making money	2.612	1.045	116
Use of skills in building programs	4.207	.679	116
Leadership and influence important	4.017	.791	116

APPENDIX D
ACCEPTANCE OF ANCHORS BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS
OF PRINCIPALS: ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

ACCEPTANCE OF ANCHORS BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS
OF PRINCIPALS: ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

AGE

Factor	31-40	41-50	51-60	Over 60	F Ratio	DF
Variety	.2295	-.0033	-.0141	-.2312	.1923	3,115
Identity	-.3412	.0609	-.1172	.2913	.5989	3,112
Autonomy	.1484	-.0440	-.0137	.6578	.6722	3,114
Geography	-.1367	.0019	-.1258	1.1166	1.9035	3,113
Technical						
Competence	-.1202	.0798	-.1807	.1349	.5457	3,112
Security	-.1009	.0631	-.1424	.0421	.3144	3,113
Salary	-.3418	.0609	-.1172	.2913	.5989	3,112

EXPERIENCE

Factor	0-5 Years	5-10 Years	11-20 Years	Over 20 Years	F Ratio	DF
Variety	.2752	.0741	-.0114	-.5314	1.7848	3,114
Identity	-.1197	.1697	-.0724	-.1677	.6321	3,111
Autonomy	-.1076	.0564	-.1663	.4218	1.3737	3,113
Geography	.2997	-.1257	-.1194	.3849	1.5153	3,112
Technical						
Competence	-.0132	-.1407	-.0375	.4813	1.3582	3,112
Security	.1112	.1852	-.1592	-.1582	1.0243	3,112
Salary	.1315	.1760	-.1125	-.2903	1.0810	3,112

SCHOOL LEVEL

Factor	Elementary	Middle	High	Other	F Ratio	DF
Variety	-.0748	.2880	.0549	-.6669	1.4206	3,115
Identity	-.0507	.0810	.0534	.1484	.1526	3,112
Autonomy	-.1002	.3568	-.1331	.1867	1.4174	3,114
Geography	-.0212	.0619	-.0200	.2341	.0504	3,113
Technical						
Competence	-.1104	.1879	.0810	.3846	.7906	3,113
Security	.0288	.1818	-.1879	-.7484	1.2504	3,113
Salary	-.0129	.1373	-.0548	-.3523	.3323	3,115

SCHOOL SYSTEM

Factor	Guilford	Randolph	Wayne	F Ratio	DF
Variety	.0430	-.0645	-.1806	.2180	2,115
Identity	.0886	-.1290	-.2443	.9716	2,112
Autonomy	.0159	.0978	-.1812	.4013	2,114
Geography	-.0079	.1788	-.1854	.6259	2,113
Technical					
Competence	-.0014	.1335	-.1499	.3853	2,113
Security	.0020	-.1210	.1324	.3081	2,115
Salary	.1206	-.1654	-.3228	1.8096	2,115

DEGREE

Factor	Master's	6-Year	Doctorate	F Ratio	DF
Variety	-.1555	-.0192	.3986	1.9510	2,113
Identity	-.0929	.0064	.2834	.8204	2,110
Autonomy	.0286	-.0545	-.0763	.1115	2,112
Geography	.0045	-.0747	.0212	.0929	2,111
Technical					
Competence	.1870	-.1716	-.1215	1.6852	2,111
Security	-.0165	.0497	-.2450	.5161	2,113
Salary	-.1589	.1079	.0894	.9772	2,113

CERTIFICATION

Factor	Initial Certification	Mean	F Ratio	DF
Variety	English	.2520	.8282	4,114
	Social Studies	-.1340		
	Science	-.2528		
	Math	.8302		
	Other	.0213		
Identity	English	.2999	.8976	4,111
	Social Studies	-.2827		
	Science	.1140		
	Math	-.4520		
	Other	.0870		
Autonomy	English	.3844	.8992	4,109
	Social Studies	.1017		
	Science	-.3013		
	Math	-.8301		
	Other	.0054		
Geography	English	-.0474	1.5184	4,110
	Social Studies	-.0327		
	Science	-.0695		
	Math	-1.3674		
	Other	.0610		
Technical Competence	English	.5320	.8168	4,108
	Social Studies	-.0104		
	Science	.0820		
	Math	-.7852		
	Other	-.0037		
Security	English	.3979	.6443	4,108
	Social Studies	-.2450		
	Science	.0793		
	Math	.1105		
	Other	.0620		
Salary	English	.2999	.8976	4,107
	Social Studies	-.2827		
	Science	.1140		
	Math	-.4520		
	Other	.0870		