

AN ABSTRACT

JOB PREPARATION AND OTHER VARIABLES
AS THEY RELATE TO JOB SATISFACTION

AND

JOB PERFORMANCE OF BLACK ADMINISTRATORS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

BY

Robert LeEdward Williams

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between job preparation and other variables as they relate to job satisfaction and performance of the black administrators of historically black colleges and universities.

It was proposed that:

1. Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job satisfaction more so than other stated variables.
2. Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job performance more so than other stated variables.

The data were collected by five (5) questionnaires:

(1) The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, (2) The Tuskegee Job Performance Instrument, (3) The Organizational Climate Questionnaire, (4) The Job Characteristics Questionnaire, and (5) The Leader Behavior Questionnaire. The sample consisted of 160 black administrators randomly selected.

The results were as follows:

1. Job satisfaction existed with the majority of the black administrators.
2. Job performance for the black administrator was above average.
3. Job preparation was found not to be significantly related to job satisfaction and performance.
4. Job enrichment was highly correlated to both job satisfaction and performance. However, organizational enrichment, organizational goals, leadership behavior, administrative maturity, and job position were revealed to be predictors of job satisfaction, whereas leadership behavior and administrative maturity were noted as predictors of job performance.
5. Job satisfaction was motivated by the level of salary and position held.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study examined the relationship between job preparation and perceived job satisfaction and performance of the presidents, provosts, vice presidents, and academic deans of black colleges and universities of higher education.

The information in this study was based upon both empirical and descriptive data of the subjects who hold the stated positions. The purpose of this study was to provide information in an effort to show the relationship between job preparation and job satisfaction and performance of those administrators who govern our colleges and universities.

Certainly, there is a scarcity of recorded data pursuant to the subject matter, but this study will seek to remedy that situation.

It is the belief of the researcher that the job performance of black administrators could be improved significantly, if there were some means of studying and analyzing recorded data that is measurable. Unlike business organizations which have found it beneficial to identify and groom their future leaders, educational institutions continue to follow a policy of "natural selection". Institution-wide programs generally are not available to guide the profes-

sional development and advancement of college administrators. And according to Kauffman, (1980), there are few, if any schools for the direct training of academic leaders. This could be a contributing factor to the low performance of many of our college and university administrators.

This study addressed itself mainly to the findings of black administrators. However, at various stages in the analysis and interpretation of data, it may be necessary to discuss some of those administrators both black and white of the historically white colleges and universities in order to give clarity for better understanding of the data being presented.

It can be assumed that sufficient information was available to the researcher, which permitted a thorough and unbiased study and analysis of the perceived relationship between job preparation and job enrichment, and job satisfaction and performance of the black administrator in higher education.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Why is the study of Black Administrators in Higher Education becoming such a relevant area of inquiry?

This question must be answered before embarking upon this study, for it is in the answer to the above question and similar ones that the need as well as the purpose of any study should be formulated.

Although black administrators in higher education have existed since 1854, with the opening of Lincoln University in Pennsylvania, the black administrators' role was not one that could be defined and evaluated until 1937 when Luther Gulick developed the POSDCORB formula (Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Reporting, and Budgeting). With the formula came some means for evaluating the black administrators. However, over the past century very few changes were implemented as the result of this formula for the black college and university. According to the Chronicle of Higher Education (February, 1977) administrators were viewed as leaders and not administrators.

Today, according to Charles H. Tucker of Michigan State University, it is high time for black administrators to get themselves together. The black administrators must possess the needed skills to cope with not only the normal administrative duties assigned to them but also the special demands placed upon them by virtue of their blackness. Therefore, the questions developed: Can black administrators function effectively and what criteria should one use to judge their effectiveness? (Tucker, 1980). These questions shed light on the need to study the black administrator.

The black college and university have always been viewed as the vehicle by which the black student would acquire education, success, social well being, etc. This vehicle has started to fail in preparing its students as

well as keeping its doors open. This has been viewed by many educators and scholars as a direct result of poor administrative management or in many cases as the total lack of effective administrative performance.

The Chronicle of Higher Education stated that the current leadership of our colleges and universities was "bankrupt" and suffered a lack of vision, (DuBois, 1982). And whenever, according to the Proverbs, ".....there is no vision the people will perish". In paraphrasing that statement, where there is no vision the college and university will perish. This has been evidenced by the closing of some fifteen (15) black colleges and universities, with others projected to close by the end of the decade.

In that same article, presidents were quoted as saying "they would not go into academic administration again, because it was no longer worth the headaches". This could be viewed as an indication of the lack of job satisfaction by this group of administrators.

Decline in enrollment, the lack of research and resources are also being viewed as factors in evaluating the college and university administrator. Should they perform in these areas, then surely the future of the black enterprise of higher education would have a brighter future.

Paul DuBois (1982), a professor of Public Policy at the College of the Atlantic, stated in a Chronicle of Higher Education article that some of the black administrators have

been charged with incompetence. The charge not only reduced the level of administrative performance but it also reduced the morale of the institution as well as political and financial support.

The aforementioned information is evidence that the black administrator is worthy and in need of studying. It was further revealed by the Chronicle of Higher Education (March, 1982) that a director of a national higher education association told an audience that our colleges and universities were choosing second rate presidents, and then described the recent developed trend of selecting former corporate leaders to head and administrate all of the institutions of higher education.

In a recent case where a black college president was released from his position after serving for 17 years, it was stated that the university had outgrown his ability to run the university effectively. The Alumni were very disturbed in that much of the white community and its leaders were pushing for a white president.

This can be viewed as the results of the new trend of accepting college presidents, a trend where students, research and resources are in the mainstream of the candidates' abilities. A conversation with a former president of a predominantly black institution posed the question, due to the mission of most black colleges and universities, "Can the current band of black administrators fulfill the

requirements of the new trend that is now being adopted in selection of college administrators?" (Lewis, 1984).

Running today's university is certainly no task for the weak minded and/or ill-prepared person.

As revealed by Linda Bird-Johnson, of the Department of Education, Washington, D.C., in a letter to the researcher, there is a real scarcity of literature which addresses the topic under study, and her office would be interested in the findings. Mrs. Carol J. Smith, former program delegate of the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education has also expressed her concern and interest in the findings.

If the black administrators are to maintain their positions with any degree of respect and credibility, then certainly their abilities to perform as heads of our black colleges and universities must be evaluated and communicated in a manner that will assure those of us who are concerned, that they are performing at an acceptable level and that they are satisfied in doing so.

Havighurst and Levine (1979) quoted Lockett and Simpkin as saying, "that approximately 200,000 bachelor degrees were awarded between 1967 and 1977 by black colleges and universities". This suggested that it is important to maintain the viability of the black institutions of higher education in enlarging opportunities for mobility among the nation's largest minority group. However, Davis (1984) stated that

black colleges should not survive solely on the basis that they cater to the specific needs of blacks. They should and can only survive in this era if they are competitive, both from a sound management perspective as well as one of quality. It is the responsibility of the administrator, as well as the Board of Trustees, to make sure that those perspectives are effected.

It was for these reasons that the researcher became interested in the satisfaction and performance of the black administrators in higher education. It was also the belief of the researcher that such a study would help to improve the performance of the black administrator, thereby improving the performance of the overall institution through student output, structured research, and increased operating funds.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem with which this study was concerned was to determine the relationship between job preparation and other variables as they relate to perceived job satisfaction and job performance of the black administrator.

After having worked in various positions in higher education, it was observed by the researcher that there was a lack of job definition as well as the lack of appropriate evaluative tools and strategies which could result in low job satisfaction and poor job performance. However, it is

believed that if administrators were appropriately trained, they should be able to overcome these handicaps, thereby providing the means for both job satisfaction and job performance that would be in keeping with the goals and objectives of the organization.

The causes of low job satisfaction and poor job performance can be many. However, inadequate job preparation and the lack of job enrichment can be significant contributors.

One facet of the two-factor theory by Herzberg aimed at increasing the worker's level of job satisfaction and performance through job enrichment. Herzberg (1959) further suggested in his theory that the intrinsic aspect of job content, such as job challenge, autonomy, responsibility and achievement would lead to satisfaction and motivated performance.

This study took these variables into consideration, and included much of their content into its theoretical framework.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

A survey of the literature relative to the relationship between job preparation and job satisfaction and performance of the black administrator in higher education revealed that there is presently little or no recorded information;

however, there are numerous studies that address the subject matter from a white perspective.

If black administrators are to gain and hold the respect of their colleagues, both black and white, a change in their present level of perceived performance must take place. And if that change is to take place, new strategies and techniques must also come into being relative to their levels of job and career preparation.

Therefore, since there is a real scarcity of literature which addresses this subject, this study will be beneficial to practicing administrators in higher education by providing descriptive information that is now unavailable. Furthermore, this study may serve as the basis for which other studies on the subject can be formulated.

LIMITATIONS

This study will be limited by the following factors:

1. A random sampling of black administrators employed in historically black colleges and universities of higher education.
2. The frankness with which the target population will respond to the questionnaires and interviews.
3. The variables as defined and the assumptions made of the proposed linkages.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Some of the variables presented in the theoretical framework model are operationally defined for the support and purpose of collecting data and for clarity in its presentation.

Independent Variables

Parental occupational status is defined in terms of the occupational status of the father and mother. The environment in which an individual is reared plays a significant role in his/her development and performance levels. If the environment is one where there is a positive family profile and structure, a positive level of motivation will exist for the offspring.

Parental educational status, for this study, is defined as the highest level of educational training of the parents.

It is assumed that the more education the parents have, the more likely they will influence the child, creating a certain level of positive motivation.

Personal goals and expectations are referred to as the readiness for reinforcement that assists in determining individual purpose and role stability, which, according to Stogdill (1976), enhances one's level of performance.

Based on the parental training and the educational training of the individual, certain goals and expectations

are developed. Those goals according to the expectancy theory include future states of intended accomplishments of the individual with the probability of being rewarded.

Job preparation is defined as the process of acquiring special tools and skills geared toward the attainment of education, training and ethics in an effort to master a chosen or particular specialization.

This preparation is established on the basis of concepts of job scope and depth, which can be used to describe the relationship between job preparation and the degree of specialization pursuant to Administration Management training.

Work experience includes those factors and attributes that are acquired as the results of various occupations, trades, and professions, which when applied will permit the individual to perform at an acceptable level with the least amount of structured directions. This, according to Blanchard (1974), can be viewed as the maturity level of the individual, relative to a task-structure situation.

Organizational goals are defined as desired states of affairs that include the missions and objectives that the organization attempts to achieve. Goal attainment is based upon background, education, experience, responsibility, authority, power, and knowledge of the individual(s) in charge. Therefore, the desired state of affairs may be

viewed differently by individuals at various levels of the hierarchy, based on the above factors.

Organizational Climate is defined as a set of internal characteristics that influence the behavior and performance of its people. According to Hoy and Miskel (1978), the way a person performs in an organization is determined in part by individual characteristics, and in part by the climate of the organization.

Job content includes those factors that define the general nature of the task and/or activities, such as: variety, autonomy, complexity or routine, difficulty and task identity. These factors serve as dimensions or measuring job performance as they relate to job status.

Job status is referred to as the various ranks or levels associated with a certain job position in the administrative hierarchy. The content of a position somewhat determines the amount of status congruence that is assigned to that position. Job status, according to Wallace and Szilagyi (1983), is a function of job titles, wages, and/or salary levels, mobility, seniority, and the level of one's expertise, which, according to Wallace (1984), are all intervening variables of job performance and satisfaction.

Job enrichment is defined as those strategies structurally designed to seek improvement in job performance and satisfaction. This is usually done by providing more

challenge, responsibility, authority, and recognition to one's job.

In other words, job enrichment attempts to build into a job the psychological motivators described by Herzberg (1968), in his two-factor theory of motivation - when certain factors are not presented, a state of job dissatisfaction is created, thereby causing low job performance. When the intrinsic factors are present, relative to job content and status, there is an increase in motivation, thus elevating job satisfaction and performance.

General Terms

Administrators are defined for the purpose of this study as those executive officers holding such positions as President, Vice President/Provost and Dean of historically black colleges and universities of higher education.

Historically black colleges and universities are defined as those institutions that were founded primarily for black Americans. Although their charters were, in most instances, not exclusionary. These are institutions serving or identified with service to blacks for at least two decades, with most being 50 to 110 years old (Lambert, 1977).

Low job satisfaction is being defined for the purpose of this study as exemplifying attitudes toward the job by the job holder as being negatively rewarding, thereby producing unpleasurable feelings toward the job.

Poor job performance is defined as low output pursuant to the accomplishing of assigned organizational goals and objectives within the structured organization. It is based upon the appraisal dimensions, consisting of specific tasks, and outcomes from which the performance of the worker is evaluated.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this are:

Y_1 Job Satisfaction

Y_2 Job Performance

The exact relationship between these variables has been the subject of much research and controversy over the years. Some managers, administrators and scholars believe that satisfaction causes performance; in other words, a happy worker is a productive worker. Others feel that performance causes satisfaction - a high performance worker will derive satisfaction from doing his/her job well. Still others believe that satisfaction and performance cause each other. A satisfied worker is more productive, and a more productive worker becomes more satisfied.

The true relationship may never be known; however, the overriding fact is that job performance and job satisfaction are strongly interwoven.

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions will be used:

Job satisfaction is those attitudes held by an individual that reflect an evaluation of various components in the workplace, including intrinsic and extrinsic responses that relate to the individual's values and needs.

Job performance includes those levels of personal output of skills, relative to an occupation, trade, or profession. Job performance concerns itself with task accomplishments (productivity, effectiveness, efficiency) and employee responses to the job. Job performance can be further viewed as an output of ability, skills and motivation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section will focus on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables that emanated from the literature in the formulation of the conceptual framework of this study.

It is being proposed that the independent variables - job preparation and job enrichment, more than other stated variables, will predict job satisfaction and performance.

As the theoretical framework model (Figure 1.1) indicated, the stated independent variables have a direct relationship and bearing on the position that one holds and that the degree of that relationship and bearing determine the level of job satisfaction and job performance.

The family background or socio-economic status and the educational level of one's parent have been found, according to Solman (1979), to have a direct relationship to career choice and the performance of the offspring. There is a general agreement that socio-economic status has a pervasive influence on the occupational status.

Blau and Duncan (1967) stated that socio-economic status influenced the educational level which in many instances influenced occupational or job performance, and that it had a continuing impact on job status, independently of variables relating to job preparation.

Gross (1964) found a high correlation between socio-economic and job status. He further pointed out that middle

class offspring were encouraged at home and school to enter certain occupations that carried high job status and recognition.

The tone of this model suggests that education or job preparation is the most crucial determinant of job satisfaction and performance as well as job status. Hall (1969) Hertzler (1952) in their research, verified the connections and importance between socio-status education and job status and found that education was the most crucial structured variable. Again, Gross (1964) stated that the effect of education is such that the greater the amount and specialized training, the greater the degree of job status.

Hall (1969) also stated that job status is determined by the presence of an intellectual technique acquired by special training. This supported the belief that job preparation will predict job satisfaction and performance. In other words, job status, satisfaction and performance are enhanced not just through more education but through specialized education relative to the position and the career. Salmon (1979), as well as Lopeato (1972) quoted Moore and Davis as saying that the positions that carry the highest rank are those that have the greatest importance for the organization and society, and require the greatest levels of specialized training and talent.

Since most jobs are performed in a bureaucratic structure and in a hierarchic format, it can be assumed that different levels of specialized training would be needed,

since different levels of prerequisites for certain positions are established. Hence, the higher the status of the position the higher the educational requirement.

Among the researchers who have studied the role or the relationship of education as it relates to job status and performance, Blau and Duncan (1974) seemed to be most direct about the extent of the influence. They found that when education, class of origin, work experience and other such variables were analyzed, education exerted the greatest direct influence on both career and job performance.

This linkage can further be viewed as having its origin with one's personal goals and expectations. According to the expectancy theory, presented by Vroom (1964), the performance of an individual is in part determined by his/her expectation that the performance will lead to positive outcomes, and that his/her evaluation of the effect of these outcomes are positive.

Vroom termed the first component valence, which would determine satisfaction (attitude) and the second component he termed instrumentality which would determine performance (behavior). Vroom's theory, however, did not take into consideration environmental factors which could serve as intervening variables and have a direct relationship on one's level of satisfaction and performance.

It can be posited that an individual may perform at a high level because the person established high goals with a corresponding level of expectations relative to reward for

the respective role in the organization. This may encourage the individual to put forth effort which may lead to the acquisition of additional specialized skills. In other words, job satisfaction and performance are guided by rational, conscious thoughts which usually follow a logical, predictable pattern that has been developed by the individual through personal goals and expectations in response to the organizational goals.

While job preparation as it relates to managerial career and job training is in part related to one's personal goals and expectations, job satisfaction and job performance are also related to one's level of job preparation and managerial career training. Some researchers, such as Blau and Duncan (1974), Frenandez (1975), found that the effect of education on one's career performance is greater in the early stages of the career. In the course of a lengthy career, its effect is much diminished due to work experience.

Work experience can be largely attributed to job satisfaction which takes into consideration those intrinsic and extrinsic factors discussed by Herzberg (1959) in his two factor theory.

Herzberg used two sets of variables in this study, those relating to the workplace (pay, working conditions, supervision, security) that he called extrinsic variables and (achievement, recognition and the work itself) called

intrinsic variable. Herzberg believed that only those variables that were associated with job content will warrant job satisfaction and that variables directly associated with job content alone would not enhance satisfaction. But when the other mentioned variables are present, job satisfaction is also present. This relationship between the two sets of variables ensure or establish job stability, which according to Herzberg (1959), is due largely to one's level of job satisfaction.

It can be reckoned that job stability will yield work experience in a specific job. The more experience that one has acquired relative to a specific job or career, the more is its probable influence on job satisfaction and job performance. As depicted in the theoretical framework model, work experience and some of the independent variables are related to the position in the hierarchy which in turn are related to the dependent variables - job satisfaction and job performance. Malone (1982) stated that administrators who had a mentor or a relationship between experience and their position showed a higher degree of satisfaction than those who did not.

A major factor that underlies management's interest in setting and defining goals for every corner of the organization is the idea that having clearly defined goals can serve as a basis for evaluating performance and hence improves satisfaction.

A number of studies relating to goal effects on satisfaction and performance have been conducted by Locke, Cartledge, and Knerr (1970); Steers and Porter (1974); and Latham and Yuke (1975). According to Hampton, Webber and Summer (1982), evidence from both field and laboratory studies indicated strongly that having goals that are employee oriented is in itself effective in lifting job performance and satisfaction.

Hackman and Oldham (1975) and Herzberg (1978), looked at the relationship of job redesign or the structuring of organizational goals to coincide with the personal goals and objectives of the worker. A system of this nature will allow for individual differences that may create job satisfaction and performance barriers. The data support the need for both personal goals and organizational goals as independent variables in this study.

Gray and Starke (1984) saw a need to research the linkage between organizational goals, climate, and employee performance. The findings stated that if organizations hope to gain benefits of high performance and creative decision-making, some concern must be shown for creating a climate in which the workers will feel free to make creative decisions relative to organizational goals. Creative decision makers must be rewarded, if the administration's hope is that they will continue to make them. This reward, however, need not be restricted to a monetary one but other such

factors as recognition, promotion, etc. The worker may perform better because of the mere fact that he/she had some input in the formulation of the task (Locke, 1978).

In order for such a climate to exist, according to Gray and Starke (1984), there must be a balance between freedom and conformity, mainly, because creative decisions may not emerge freely from a highly structured environment. Therefore, the climate must be viewed in terms of its shared values, social beliefs and social standards.

Shared values are agreements as to what is desirable, such as, kindness, success, materialism and performance. Social beliefs are ideas concerning the nature of the workers and their social lives; for instance, mutual attitudes toward subordinates and other administrators. And social standards are those agreements specifying appropriate organizational behavior (Hoy and Miskel, 1982). If organizational goals are to be accomplished through employee job performance, and if employee job satisfaction is to exist, there ought to be a positive relationship between the organizational goals and the organizational climate from an employee perspective.

This relationship was viewed as being basic in predicting satisfaction and performance by Szilagyi and Wallace (1983). They rated organizational goals using specific factors on a scale ranging from basic to complex, which gave support to the inclusion of this variable as an independent

factor in determining job satisfaction and performance in this study.

Job content has been viewed by many researchers as an independent variable or intervening variable to job design or job structure. It is usually measured by four sub-variables--task variety, task autonomy, task complexity, and task identity.

According to Szilagyi and Wallace (1983), one of the major problems in job performance is due to an inappropriate mix of tasks for the job. Whenever there is an inappropriate mix of the tasks, ambiguity becomes prevalent, causing poor job satisfaction and performance. In developing job descriptions, job content must be viewed as a crucial factor in eliminating role ambiguity. The measuring of effective job performance can only be assessed when proper steps have been taken to clearly define the content of the position.

It has been determined that many of the positions now found in the administrative hierarchy have overlapping administrative functions. The status associated with those positions and overlapping functions may at times cause role conflicts, which, if not resolved, will cause a decrease in job satisfaction and performance.

In that status is often accorded to a position rather than an individual (Hodgetts, 1979), it is pertinent that role clarity exist in each of the administrative positions by way of job content. The intent of this rationale was to

show that there is a direct relationship among the independent variables, job content, status and the position held by the individual when determining and measuring job satisfaction and performance. According to Donaldson (1975), the content of the job must take into consideration four potential motivational factors:

1. The tasks must be designed to prevent boredom, (this is done by an increase in tasks or a variety of tasks to relate to the position and status).
2. The tasks must combine to denote an atmosphere that the work is meaningful, (this causes the individual to feel that they are valuable to the organization, creating satisfaction and increased performance).
3. The tasks must denote the need and demand of personal competencies.
4. The task must allow for a high degree of responsibility.

Although the literature failed to yield any results of studies indicating that status contributes to job performance, there were studies that link job status with job satisfaction. Since status is viewed as directly related to the various positions in the administrative hierarchy, and that research does show a link between it and satisfaction, as well as with job content, it was included as an independent variable in this research.

Another independent variable in the theoretical framework model is job enrichment which is viewed by some researchers as an intervening or an independent variable to

job content. However, in this study they will be researched and measured to show independent results and effects on the dependent variables. The job enrichment variable was used in an effort to measure satisfaction and performance by providing data relative to the administrators growth in terms of job development and increased job skills.

Job enrichment is measured independently from job content because job content tasks are mostly viewed as operating tasks and job enrichment is viewed as having a planning and a control task and is usually, according to Herzberg (1968), Hampton, Summer and Webber (1982), implemented to increase one's intrinsic values which later may lead to an increase in satisfaction and performance. The increase in the level of satisfaction and performance depends partly on his/her values, beliefs, and attitudes toward the job and its surrounding, (Hulin and Blood, 1967; and Hampton, Summer and Webber, 1982).

Since planning and controlling are key functions of the administrator, and since the literature viewed planning and controlling as key factors of job enrichment, job enrichment was included as an independent variable.

According to Openshaw (1980), job satisfaction is a function of the interaction between the characteristics of the individual, the job and the job environment. A number of studies have shown demographic variables to be associated with job satisfaction and performance. Weaver, (1974),

found that married people were more satisfied and performed at a higher level than single people.

A high correlation has been found between job satisfaction and age; the older workers are more satisfied, (Hoppock, 1935, Quinn, 1974, Openshaw, 1980). Other studies have indicated that such demographic variables as sex, age, background, salary, highest degree held, position and experience were related to job satisfaction and performance. However, Klein and Maher (1966) and Openshaw (1980), revealed that education was found in their studies to be negatively related to satisfaction. The higher the educational level, the lower the degree of job satisfaction. The variable sex in the literature shows mixed results relative to job satisfaction and performance. Hoppock (1935) stated that women were more satisfied than men, whereas, Cole (1940) found men to be more satisfied, as well as performed better than women. Jackson and Fossum (1976) found no significant difference between the satisfaction and performance between the sexes.

HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were tested based upon the factors presented in the theoretical framework.

- H₁ Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job satisfaction more so than other stated variables.
- H₂ Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job performance more so than other stated variables.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

Introduction

There has been increasing public awareness of the demand for accountability and job performance in higher education. Research has shown that the evaluation of faculty's job performance dates back to the early 1920's. Very little has been done that related directly to the study of job satisfaction and performance of the black administrator in higher education. However, there are numerous studies that related to the overall performance and satisfaction of administrators in general, as well as those studies that concerned themselves with career orientation and job satisfaction among white administrators.

General Overview

In its most abstract sense the purpose and function of the administrators in any institution or business are to insure that the aims of their particular establishment are realized in the most efficient and consistent fashion (Foresi, 1974). According to Knezevich (1984), administrative action is the instrumentability for the fulfillment of the purposes and policies of an organized institution that enhances the quality of its operation.

Knezevich (1984), also stated that "there are many ways to describe the contributions of an administrator to an organization and that the major roles and responsibilities can be referred to as a decision maker, leader, planner and change agent". Simon and March (1978) went on to say that unless the actions that are taken in each of the above areas are clearly communicated to all involved, the outcome of the actions taken will not be effective. Therefore, Simon and March saw the need to include effective communication as an important function of the administrator.

Within the past decade, administration has emerged as an important function due to the complexity, diversity and challenges facing the colleges and universities. Regardless of what level of administration that is being studied, the functions are the same but in various degrees, depending on the level of the administrative hierarchy.

The literature revealed that the functions of the administrator were not formally used in educational settings until 1937 as the result of a study by Gulick and Urwick. However, their use in other management organizations dated back to 1916 with credit being given to Henry Fayol.

Table 2.1 depicts terms used by various researchers and writers in their discussions of the functions of the administrator.

In reviewing the functions of the administrator, research supports the belief that planning has the greatest effect on one's performance.

Table 2.1

Functions of the Administrator

DESCRIPTIVE TERMS USED BY VARIOUS WRITERS TO SUGGEST THE FUNCTIONS OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

Fayol ^a (1916)	Gulick and Urwick ^b (1937)	Newman ^c (1950)	Sears ^d (1950)	AASA ^e (1955)	Gregg ^f (1957)	Campbell et. al. ^g (1958)	Newman and Sumner ^h (1961)	Johnson ⁱ et. al. (1967)
1. Planning	1. Planning	1. Planning	1. Planning	1. Planning	1. Decision making	1. Decision making	1. Planning	1. Planning
2. Organizing	2. Organizing 3. Staffing	2. Organizing 3. Assembling resources	2. Organizing	2. Allocating resources	2. Planning 3. Organizing	2. Programming	2. Organizing	2. Organ- izing
3. Commanding	4. Directing	4. Directing	3. Directing	3. Stimulating	4. Communicating 5. Influencing	3. Stimulating	3. Leading	3. Communi- cating
4. Coordinat- ing	5. Coordinating 6. Reporting		4. Coordinating	4. Coordinating	6. Coordinating	4. Coordinating	4. Measuring and controlling	
5. Controlling	7. Budgeting	5. Controlling	5. Controlling	5. Evaluating	7. Evaluating	5. Appraising		4. Con- trolling

^aHenry Fayol, "Administration industrielle et generale" in Constance Starrs, General and Industrial Management, London: Sir Issac Pitman, 1949.

^bLuther Gulick and L. Urwick., eds., Papers on the Science of Management, New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1937.

^cWilliam H. Newman, Administrative Action, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1950, pp. 4-5.

^dJesse B. Sears, The Nature of the Administrative Process, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1950.

^eAmerican Association of School Administrators, Staff Relations in School Administration, 33rd Yearbook, Arlington, Va.: The Association, 1955, pp. 17-22.

^fRussell T. Gregg, "The Administrative Process," in R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg, eds., Administrative Behavior in Education, New York: Harper & Row, 1957, p. 274.

^gR. F. Campbell, J. E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, Introduction to Educational Administration, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1958, pp. 179-186.

^hW. H. Newman and C. E. Sumner, Jr., The Process of Management, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1961, pp. 10-11.

ⁱR. A. Johnson, F. E. Kast, and J. E. Rosenzweig. The Theory and Management of Systems, 2nd ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967, pp. 121-127.

Cunningham (1982), stated that the reason for planning was to provide a bridge between useful knowledge and purposeful coordinated action and that through it, administrators looked ahead, anticipated events and actions, prepared for contingence, formulated direction, mapped out activities and provided an orderly sequence for achieving goals. By doing these things the other functions such as controlling, leading and direction would have been performed. Fayol (1949) viewed this process as "the administrator's plan of operation", which contained the "object in view, the cause of action to be followed, and the various stages on the way, as well as the means to be used".

Planning promotes the use of measures of performance. Since it is quite clear that the public is increasingly demanding more accountability from the administrators, measurable results, according to Cunningham (1982), are of great value to the administrators. When an administrator fails to plan, he/she usually fails to accept change, and change is viewed as the exception and not the rule. In order to keep pace with the demand of society and one's environment, change must exist.

Morphet, Jesser, Ludha (1972) suggested that change is bound to happen, but desirable change must be planned and sound planning leads to effective job performance. Larson (1980) added to Morphet, Jesser and Ludha's views by stating that there must be a link between one's knowledge and the

plan of action for change. Administrators must have vision, intuition and common sense. Unless these factors are part of the job, the link between knowledge and the plan of action will never exist, thereby creating low job performance and dissatisfaction.

Luthan and Reif, (1978) viewed job satisfaction and performance to be greatly improved when the variable or rather the process of job enrichment was implemented into the system. According to these researchers, as well as others:

Job enrichment is concerned with designing jobs that include a greater variety of job content, require a higher level of knowledge and skills, give the worker more autonomy and responsibility for planning, directing, controlling and leading, which provide for enhanced job satisfaction and performance.

Hackman and Oldham (1975) concurred that job satisfaction and performance occur best when one experiences a sense of meaningfulness and responsibility and get information about results obtained. These kinds of actions increase the administrators' ability to plan, organize, control, lead, and direct the activities of his/her organization.

According to Watson (1976), this holds true regardless of the organization or the level, especially higher education.

College and university administration has been referred to as both an art and science. Regardless of how

it is viewed, effective performance is the expected outcome. Bolman (1964) in a paper presented at the annual Nineteenth National Conference on Higher Education, asked the following questions: "Can we prepare better college and university administrators?, Is there a good way to prepare administrators for their many varying task?, Should we continue to draw them from the ranks of recent graduates, the faculty and the field of education without further preparation?, Is there a body of knowledge - fundamentally insightful into sound practice, that is useful in improving their performance?" The answers to these questions are still perplexing.

Bolman (1964) stated that the underlying factor in all of the above are skills. But do we know enough about the skills required of each of the peculiar academic administrators to be able to say what preparation would be advantageous?

The author further stated that professional skills are required by all administrators though many of them may be too heterogeneous and more difficult to define.

Crawford (1982), in her doctoral dissertation, "Skills Perceived to Lead to Success in Higher Education Administration", identified 90 skills that were thought to have some impact on the success of an administrator.

It was further revealed that administrators are held responsible for continuous, intelligent improvement of

specific functions, and this requires a professional attitude towards their work, and that an increasing number of operations in colleges and universities requires specific preparation.

Bolman (1964) identified three areas of concern for the preparation of college and university administrators.

1. There must be an understanding of the particular type of administration relative to the type of institution.
2. There must be an understanding of varying administrative patterns currently used in different institutions, and
3. There must be an understanding of the administrative process itself.

According to Bolman, traditionally little attention has been paid to concerns such as these. The long-standing and unfortunate boundary between faculty and administration has led many to think that only students and professors ever really learn anything and that administrators simply grow accustomed to their work. For a faculty member to declare any personal interest in administration is often a guaranteed way for him to be shunned by his colleagues. The result has been that little heed has been given in the past to what makes a good administrator and whether administrative talents can in any way be nurtured and fortified.

Riesman and Jencks (1972) note the loss to the improvement of administrators because of a gulf that existed between administrators and faculty. Despite efforts, notably

at the Harvard Business School, to give some minimum of training to college administrators after their selection, the administration of higher education has not been professionalized.

BLACK HIGHER EDUCATION AND ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

There are in existence today 105 predominantly black colleges and universities of which 85 are four year and graduate degree granting institutions and 20 are chartered as junior or community colleges. There are 35 public controlled colleges and universities and 50 are controlled by private entities, and of the 85 four year colleges and universities, 83 are located in 18 southern and border states, and the District of Columbia.

The black college, although still great in number, has had its weaknesses in the past as well as its strengths, and to some degree, still have them both today. Many scholars, researchers, educators and students as well as the public at large believe that these weaknesses and strengths are the results of actions taken by the administrators of these institutions.

From the very beginning of higher education the principal agencies of administration were the president and a board of control. Later that control was widened to include an administrative cabinet (deans, provost, vice presidents).

The democratic diversity of higher education in America has been especially evidenced in the varying systems of support and control that have developed in college administration.

Pritchett (1964), a former president of the Carnegie Foundation, noted that American colleges and universities were conducted under an administrative system that was closer in form to that of a modern corporation than to anything else. There were the same boards of trustees, the same professional executives, as in large corporate enterprise. It was further stated that although Pritchett was correct in pointing out that modern American academic government came to utilize many of the managerial techniques developed by the business world, it was also important to note that the colleges in other respects, reflected in their systems of administration the atmosphere of democratic control and freedom which gave higher education a distinctive cost. This same democratic control according to Watson (1972) gave black higher education yet another distinctive cost. Controlling boards of many black colleges and universities are usually of the rubber stamp type. Meaning that according to figure 2.1, they are not directly concerned with the accomplishments of goals and objectives. And if goals and objectives are to be effectively accomplished, according to Wheeler (1983), there must be at least nominal participative involvement of the board.

Figure 2.1

DEGREE OF INVOLVEMENT IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

LOW (Passive)					HIGH (Active)
Phantom	Rubber Stamp	Minimal Review	Nominal Participation	Active Participation	Catalyst
Never knows what to do, if anything; no degree of involvement.	Permits officers to make all decisions. It votes as the officers recommend on action issues.	Formally reviews selected issues that officers bring to its attention.	Involved to a limited degree in the performance or review of selected key decisions, or programs of management.	Approves, questions, and makes final decisions on mission, strategy policies, and objectives. Has active board committees. Performs fiscal and management audits.	Takes the leading role in establishing and modifying the mission, objectives, and policies. It has a very active strategy committee.

And in many cases until recently, colleges were headed by Ministers of Religion with little or no formal training. As the result of this, black higher education was not looked at in a positive manner.

Jencks and Riesman (1972), considered the black colleges inferior to white colleges and further stated that the best black colleges, when rated, can only be compared to an average white college, and that many of them should be closed or consolidated. Watson (1972), felt that the poor image of the black college was in part due to the administrators, and went on to state that "there must be conceptualization and implementation if valid theoretical and

practical approaches for the training, education and development of black higher education were to exist." Watson concluded that there should be internships for prospective black administrators.

According to Decosta (1971), the functions of management (administration) are not fully employed in black higher education. Henderson (1966) believes that this is impossible to do. The essential argument against endeavoring to train administrators is that the tasks of higher education are to transmit the cultural heritage, and to give people academic or professional competence. The administrator in higher education is an educational leader, therefore the managerial function as developed by business management is inappropriate. However, when types of administrators, according to Campbell (1959), Hoskins (1978), are compared at the managerial level, the elements seem to be similar for educational, industrial, civil, hospital, and business administrations. At the technical and institutional levels, educational administration appears to differ dramatically from other forms of administration. Educational administrators have much more public visibility and sensitivity at the institutional level than other types. It is believed that educational administrators rely much less on standard structured operating and management procedures than administrators in industry. Therefore, there is a need for superior intelligence, professional values, and a high degree of articulation.

Campbell's findings (1959), according to Hoskins (1978) suggested that only in recent years have educators begun to take a serious look at higher educational administration and its relationship to administrative behavior. Hoskins further stated that this accentuates even greater the unique charter of educational administration and the need for more research relative to its peculiar characteristics. If educational administration is unique in the field of administration in general, then one could infer that black educational administrators are in a unique position within the scope and domain of higher educational administration.

Black administrators at white institutions are usually hired into non-important administrative positions, which causes their performance to have no relevance to the findings of this study. This study is basically concerned with those black administrators that have power and authority to formulate and implement change.

In reviewing the literature on blacks and their role in higher education from a general perspective and blacks in higher educational administration specifically, it was revealed that black administrators in higher education were desperately needed but were not being developed and prepared at a rate consistent with the need (Bolman, 1964).

Hoskins (1978) found that black administrators at black institutions followed regular ascension patterns to becoming

college administrators. However, in many instances, they did not possess the much needed skills to function effectively.

Despite the increasing response to the need for better administrators to handle today's problems in higher education, several weaknesses appear endemic to our efforts thus far.

First of all, lack of coordination. Virtually no thought has been given to coordination of effort among the various sponsoring groups so that the field of administration is covered with something like equal care. Instead, special interests have engendered programs of a variety of intensities, aims, and qualities.

Second, lack of evaluation. Very little systematic evaluation has been made of the extant programs. In other words, how effective the numerous devices really are is largely unknown.

Finally, lack of research. The basis on which all educational efforts must rest, namely, research, has been fragmentary in the case of the various branches of and problems connected with administration. The result has been that we lack anything akin to a growing corpus of knowledge about college and university administration which could be taught.

Our problem, whether we can prepare better college and university administrators, will depend on whether or not we consider that executive functions in higher education require special skills, comprehension, and insights. While the traditional attitude of faculties aligns administrators with industrial and business managers-"captains of erudition," Veblen scornfully called them - there appears to be a growing conviction that college and university administrators have unique functions to perform and that

they perform them best when specially equipped with distinctive academic capabilities. Those who select administrators - a task frequently shared with faculty want these officers to possess specific backgrounds and attributes which will quip them ably and aggressively to carry forward the educational, research, and service tasks of the institution.

But if we disagree with Sir Hugh Taylor, who once casually remarked that he would just pick a good man and throw him into an administrative job, we must know what competence an administrator should possess and how a potentially good man may be made actually good for his post. Let me hasten to say that I wish to talk in the latter regard more of education in the broad sense than of training. In my opinion administrators in the future will require far more education before tackling a job, and their knowledge should be a growing affair. Once on the job, many will need continuing education, as new theories and techniques are developed.

There appear to be three competencies, and, therefore, three kinds of education, required for college and university administrators today. These are professional skill, comprehensive understanding, and political insight. Different positions, and the analogous posts in different institutions, doubtless call for varying degrees of sophistication of these competencies. But in some measure all those who devote their full time to directing, or helping to direct, the concatenation of academic and institutional events must be able in the areas cited so that faculty and students can achieve their objectives. (Bolman, 1964 pp 5-6).

This section of the study has shown that there is a relationship between the variables in this study and the functions of the administrator from a general perspective.

The following section has been earmarked to review studies and research findings pertaining to the subject matter, and the relationship from a specific perspective.

Related Studies

Cole (1974), stated that career orientation was conceptualized as having two variables--Aspiration and Expectation; which led to job satisfaction resulting in high level of job performance. Expectation was viewed here as the readiness for reinforcement that assists in determining one's purpose, role and stability which, according to Stogdill's theory (1978), are inputs to performance and achievement.

House's 1971 Study concerned itself with the clarity of goals and desired outcomes as being amongst the key factors to job satisfaction and performance from a behavioral perspective. House's approach stated that the traditional leader's behavioral is dependent on the dimensions of consideration and initiating structure. This study also revealed that job satisfaction and job performance could be greatly improved, if the leader or administrator clarified the paths to various desired outcomes and provided valued feedback when goals were achieved. In other words, House conceptualized the leader's task as one of working on the various links in the expectancy theory framework to enhance subordinate satisfaction and performance. It was too,

stated, that consideration behaviors would be effective in situations with well-defined goals and technologies, or in unambiguous settings. Initiating structure behaviors, which organize and direct task activity, would be more effective in situations evidencing high ambiguity and task complexity. In other words, when the task itself provided direction, the leader's or administrator's role was one of providing social and emotional support. When the task was ambiguous, more leader direction was effective. House further argued that the worker's preferences for various kinds of leader behavior would determine satisfaction and performance.

According to Vroom, (1964), job satisfaction and performance are both functions of effort and ability, and that they must be emphasized when discussing the effects of job satisfaction and performance. Vroom's findings were supported by the findings of another study by Porter and Lawler, however, these two researchers saw fit to relate the finding of their study to reward, (pay).

McLaughlin (1964), designed a study to determine the relationships among role conflict, role ambiguity, and job satisfaction of administrators, and concluded that, the relationships supported the formula $(JP=A \times M \times RC)$ - (Job Performance=Ability (x) Motivation (x) Role Clarity). And it also supported House's path-goal theory of leadership. In other words, if an administrator is to perform at and above the level of performance established by the

organization, there must be position and autonomy which eliminates role conflict and ambiguity. McLaughlin viewed role conflict and ambiguity as independent variables and job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

Fatehi-Sedeh (1976) stated that there were many factors (variables) that influence one's job satisfaction. He based his study on two variables: Job pay and job autonomy. It was revealed that job satisfaction of an administrator or manager was influenced by his/her level of pay and autonomy. Fatehi-Sedeh suggested that deficiencies in any one of these two variables, (pay and autonomy) could be compensated by an increase in the supply of the other, with no appreciable change in the administrator's level of job satisfaction.

The findings of Fatehi-Sedeh's study were supported by the findings of Herzberg, Mowen, Middemist and Luther (1981), which revealed that extrinsic factors (pay, promotion, etc.) were the results of action administered by an organization subsequently to both satisfaction and performance. When this action is positive, the level of satisfaction and performance is enhanced.

However, these two studies are not totally in keeping with theories of motivation pursuant to pay. McClelland (1953) in his theory of motivation stated that the high achiever is not at all motivated by pay. Herzberg (1968) in his two factor theory also stated that pay does not serve as

a motivator but if it is positive, dissatisfaction or demotivation is not as great. Gellerman (1980) noted in his research relating to pay and satisfaction and performance, that in order for money to motivate, the pay increases must be extremely large to create the feeling of "wealth".

Herzberg, et. al. (1981), also linked these two dependent variables--job satisfaction and job performance to organizational goals and their attainment, thereby making pay a performance-based variable; which studies have found to produce both positive and negative results relative to job satisfaction and performance.

Another study conducted by Saul (1976) revealed that job satisfaction and job performance both have a direct relationship to job tenure. Tenure in his study was defined as continued employment in the organization. Therefore, tenure was viewed as the dependent variable, whereas job satisfaction and performance were viewed as independent variables.

Wallin (1974), attempted to show a correlation between performance, satisfaction, and performance-contingent as they related to reward. Reward in this study was considered to be only pay, and was viewed as a motivator for job satisfaction and performance.

The findings of this research indicated that performance-contingent reward can be viewed as a major independent variable having a direct impact on job performance. However, the contingency characteristic appears to have little

effect job satisfaction. Also, the type and magnitude of performance-satisfaction relationship, depends not only on the performance-reward contingencies are actually perceived by the administrator.

Although, Leveto in his 1974 study focused only on the variable self-esteem, reward was too, viewed from a performance-based perspective.

Van De Visse (1974), designed a study to determine the extent of awareness and the extent of understanding by chief administrators of evaluation of administrative performance in higher education.

The study also attempted to determine if any trends were developing in the area of evaluation of administrative performance. The findings of this study were:

1. A majority of presidents thought evaluative practices were useful, but only a few indicated actual understanding or specific knowledge of specific programs and current practices.
2. A majority of presidents thought that evaluation of administrative performance was a useful response to the demand for accountability and that they should initiate discussion and implementation.
3. Even though the presidents indicated an understanding of the need for their evaluation, only a few of them had on-going evaluative programs for their immediate subordinates.
4. There was no particular relationship, as shown in this study, between awareness of need for the evaluation process by the presidents and the extent of actual implementation of the practice.

5. There was a high degree of willingness by presidents to have their own performance evaluated, yet very few of them were actually subjected to a formal on-going procedure.
6. There was general acceptance by the presidents, and by the line administrators so far as the president could perceive it.

Buxton (1977) performed a study designed to determine job satisfaction of college presidents. Although the findings were based on research of white college presidents, and the sample did not include vice presidents and deans; the results indicated that presidents were moderately satisfied with their job, and that presidents of private institutions were significantly more satisfied than presidents of public institutions. Additionally, an inverse relationship was found to exist between institutional enrollment and presidential job satisfaction. And that those presidents within a "University System" reported less satisfaction than did their counterparts in other organizational settings. Satisfaction factors are ranked as the results of the questionnaire and are depicted in the following chart.

Although, level 4 of the low levels of satisfaction (figure 2.2) was concerned with the performance of the president, the study did not attempt to evaluate it, and at no time was it related to job satisfaction of the president.

SATISFACTION LEVELS

Figure 2.2

Low Levels of Satisfaction	High Levels of Satisfaction
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The amount of time to fulfill job requirements. 2. The opportunity available for teaching and/or research. 3. The overall aims and objectives of higher education today. 4. Current means of evaluating presidential performance. 5. Provision for employment upon completion of their terms as presidents. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. The amount of recognition presidents receive from leaders of business/industry. 4. The degree to which presidents have attained desired professional goals. 3. Presidential relationship with governing bodies or superordinates. 2. The extent to which presidents participate in policy formulation. 1. Presidential relationships with fellow administrators.

Olswang and Cohen, (1979), stated that the problems of the late 1970's and the anticipated complications of the 1980's, precipitated a need to identify the cause of perceived inefficient administrative performance of colleges and universities officials. The results stated that higher education administration has long been considered the bastion of logical, pragmatic decision-making practiced by controlled, rational, and scholarly individuals possessing unquestioned expertise in their field. This idyllic view of the decision environment has been perpetuated and imbued with a philosophical sanctity by popular demand as well as by institutional practice. As a result, the natural inclination has been to maintain a laissez-faire posture towards the study of, and the strict evaluation of academic administrative performance. However, recent research conducted within institutions of higher education and on practicing and prospective administrators, illuminated warning signs which suggested that the existing (or non-existing) strategies and means for dealing with internal and external administrative responsibilities were inadequate.

Olswang and Cohen (1979), approached the issue of college and university administrative performance from complementary survey and experimental research perspectives.

It was also indicated that administrators fully comprehended neither the parameters of their own roles/tasks nor the roles/tasks of fellow administrators. The

uncertainty inherent in the above situation rendered administrators less likely to optimally utilize their personal talents and the existing organizational structures (communication networks, etc.), to facilitate institutional operation in general and decision-making processes in particular. Uncertainty was and is amplified by the sheer complexity of University-level administrators interrelationships.

The study went on to say that given to date, most higher education researchers have agreed that in institutions of higher education, particularly in the research universities, the formal structure is so complex, that it fails to describe either actual power or responsibilities of the administrators. These inconsistent perceptions and understandings of the role functions of the administrators, (Provost, Deans, and Department Chairpersons), lead to inefficient and ineffective operations and performance in many areas. Support to the above data was given by Gross, Mason and McEachern, (1958), wherein it was stated that the lack of consensus among members on their role definitions is a major dysfunctional element affecting the achievement of a group's goals.

Studies have been conducted identifying the specific role descriptions or job functions, of the various administrative officers in universities, including studies of provosts and deans (Gould, 1964, Linnel, 1975). Despite the

findings of these studies, administrators are still viewed as performing at a low level.

Welch (1976) attempted to identify the overall level of dissonance that existed between the administrators, and to particularly identify the specific areas of deficiency, enabling the formulation, where necessary, of certain remediation measures aimed at increasing role consonance and operational effectiveness between levels. The study was conducted based on data collected in a survey of 627 active administrators selected from the institutions which were members of the Association of American Universities.

Welch's study concluded that there was a significant difference in the perceptions and observed performance, which he stated to be the result of a dissonance resulting from poor communication at all levels of administrators examined.

Malone (1982) examined the relationship of black female administrators' mentoring experience and their career satisfaction. A total of 130 respondents were involved in this study. Malone's study utilized results based on three (3) independent variables: early family support, home or black community support and present professional support. A chi square analysis of the cross-tabulation of the three forms of support with various socio-demographic variables revealed significant levels of such factors as age and income.

Data for this study were collected by use of three instruments; the Career Experience Form, the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Revised Work Experience Inventory Form. The analysis of variance which was used to examine these relationships did not reveal any significant findings in support of the study's hypotheses. These hypotheses proposed that black female administrators who reported having a mentor relationship would express higher career and job satisfaction than black women who did not; and among black administrators who did not have mentors, women who did have support from the home or black community would have more career satisfaction than those who did not. The lack of significant findings was explained by the unexpected low number of non-mentored black female administrators in this sample. However, it was found that black female administrators who have a multifaceted form of professional support are more satisfied with their careers than those who do not.

Grochek (1978) investigated the relationship between certain biographical, organizational, and administrative theory factors to aspects of job satisfaction as measured by the adapted short forms of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank among Minnesota college administrators. The population included 236 administrators with position titles of president, vice president, and dean from four groups of institutions--

University of Minnesota, State universities, community colleges, and four-year private liberal arts colleges.

The study utilized three biographical variables (age, sex, and educational level); nine organizational variables (type of institution, position title, time in administrative positions, job security, rank, salary, time allocated to administrative assignments, and presence or absence of collective bargaining); and two administrative theory variables (perceived authoritarian or mediative administrative leadership roles). Six job satisfaction scales (Individual, Organizational Compensation, Security, Overall, and General Satisfaction Level) were derived by factor analysis from the 24 items included in the adapted MSO and Hoppock forms.

Major findings included: (1) college administrators age 35 or younger and deans were less satisfied with compensation than those 36 or older and presidents and vice presidents respectively; (2) administrators with fewer than six years and between 11 and 15 years of total administrative experience reported less satisfaction on Individual, Compensation, and Overall satisfaction scales than did those with intermediate and longer experience; (3) individual administrators responsible for academic programs reported less satisfaction scales than those who did not have academic responsibilities; (4) vice presidents and deans who perceived themselves to be authoritarian leaders expressed

higher levels of satisfaction on Individual, Security, and General Satisfaction scales than those who perceived themselves as mediative.

The findings were somewhat in keeping with the findings of a study conducted by Moore (1982) which revealed that the younger the administrator was, the happier or more satisfied he/she appeared to be. (The mean age was 35 years). The best predictor variables for each satisfaction scale were: administrative role of vice presidents/deans on Individual Satisfaction; collective bargaining-administrative staff on Organizational Satisfaction; age on Compensation; academic program responsibility on Security; time allocated to administrative assignments on Overall Satisfaction; and administrative role of vice presidents/deans on General Satisfaction. Specific recommendations which may contribute to improved job satisfaction among college administrators have implications for advisement, selection, and training of these administrative personnel.

Coleman (1981) viewed job satisfaction from a behavioral perception. He investigated the difference in job satisfaction and leadership behavior between administrators in Post-secondary institutions with no teaching assignments and administrators who had teaching responsibilities.

More specifically, the purpose of the research was to obtain measurements on job satisfaction and on leadership behavior for the two types of administrators and to

statistically analyze the measurements for differences between the two types of administrators. Two hypotheses were tested, one assuming that administrators without teaching would show greater leadership, and the other hypothesis stated that administrators with no teaching would be more satisfied. The instruments used in the research were the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Statistical procedures were used to analyze scores on job satisfaction and analysis of variance to analyze scores on leadership behavior.

Findings of the research were mixed. The two groups of administrators were significantly different on job satisfaction. The hypothesis that no teaching administrators would be more satisfied was supported. However, the two groups of administrators were not significantly different on leadership behavior. The hypothesis that no teaching administrators would be more effective was rejected.

It was concluded that institutions needed to review and improve their policies and organizational patterns for administrators with teaching responsibilities and also for those without teaching responsibilities.

In an effort to show a direct relationship between job satisfaction and performance, Melvin Schnike (1982) formulated a multivariate analysis of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The objective

was to examine relationships between several dimensions of job satisfaction and several dimensions of job performance. This research was an exploratory field study conducted in two medium sized, public, short term hospitals in a southern state. The study aimed at discovering consistent relationships between dimensions of job satisfaction and job performance from a general perspective.

The Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969) was used to measure five dimensions of job satisfaction: satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotions, and satisfaction with co-workers. No multi-dimensional measure of job performance was available. Therefore, a new instrument, the Job Performance Index, was developed. The Job Performance Index consisted of 50 statements measured on a seven point scale. Supervisors were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with each statement. A factor analysis suggested that the Job Performance Index measured five dimensions of performance: task performance, likability, dependability and initiative, effort, and communications ability.

A canonical correlation analysis using the five subscales of the Job Descriptive Index as the predictor variables and the five subscales of the Job Performance Index as the criterion variables showed that not all of the dimensions of satisfaction and performance were strongly related.

The results of this study showed that: (1) Both job satisfaction and job performance should be treated as multi-dimensional variables. While the dimensions of satisfaction and performance found to be related were not identical in both organizations. However, it was apparent from the study that there were some dimensions of satisfaction which did not exhibit strong relationships to some dimensions of job performance for employees in these two organizations.

(2) The job performance dimensions of dependability, effort, and initiative exhibited a strong relationship to the job satisfaction dimension of satisfaction with supervision. This relationship was found in both samples. (3) Satisfaction with co-workers was not found to be strongly related to any of the job performance dimensions in either sample. (4) The job performance dimension, task performance, did not exhibit a significant, positive relationship with any of the job satisfaction dimensions. However, a significant inverse relationship was found between task performance and satisfaction with promotions.

The findings of Schnike's study were supported by earlier studies conducted by Porter and Lawler (1968) as well as Hackman (1971). It was revealed that task as perceived showed no direct relationship to effective performance, which in itself suggested that job satisfaction and job performance depended in part on the relationship of multi-variables. A study researched and developed by

Sullivan (1981) had as its purpose to determine the relationship of the perceptions of administrators concerning the effectiveness of a job classification program to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The purpose was to determine the relevance of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory to educational administrators, and to examine the relationship of selected organizational and demographic factors to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The theoretical and conceptual bases for the study were social system theory and motivation-hygiene theory.

Data were collected from all administrators employed in the Madison, Wisconsin District. One hundred-twenty administrators responded. Instrumentation consisted of job classification and job satisfaction surveys. Pearson Product-Moment correlation and multiple regression were used to test the major and ancillary hypotheses. The probability level for all tests of statistical significance was established at .05.

The major findings were: (1) Effectiveness of criteria utilized in the job classification program was significantly related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. (2) Effectiveness of administration of the job classification program was significantly related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. (3) Effectiveness of criteria utilized in the job classification program and effectiveness of administration of the program contributed concurrently to

job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. However, both factors exhibited a stronger relationship to job dissatisfaction than to job satisfaction. Social systems and the motivation hygiene theories were supported and found applicable to educational administrators. (4) Selected organizational and demographic factors exhibited no significant relationship to job satisfaction. However, the factors of job position, salary range, age, nature of organization responsibility and prior administrative experience were significantly correlated with job dissatisfaction.

Based on the findings, several suggestions were made for further research and administrative practice.

The findings failed to support the findings of similar studies that also utilized similar or some of the same variables. However, it did support the results of Herzberg's two factor theory.

Burke (1971) did a study to determine the effect of academic preparation upon administrative performance. The central problem of this study was to identify what differences in the performance of and attitudes toward their positions existed among community junior college administrative officers who had different kinds of academic preparation. The study had four accompanying purposes: (1) to update and complement information of former studies on community junior college chief administrative officers;

(2) to construct a personal profile of their characteristics; (3) to acquire information on the present status of community junior colleges; and (4) to gain some insight into the possible future direction of the community junior college.

Questionnaires were sent to 661 community junior college chief administrative officers who administer publicly controlled institutions offering both transfer and occupational programs. A total of 403 (60.9%) usable questionnaires were returned. Four hypotheses were advanced, using chi-square values at the .05 level of significance for tests of difference.

The findings revealed that the mean age of respondents in the study was 49.5 years: Almost three-fourths (72.3%) of them were appointed the years of 1965-70.

Almost three-fourths possessed the doctoral degree. Most of the respondents (82.6%) had received their highest degrees in professional education. A total of 202 (50.5%) reported that they had specialized in higher education; 164 (41.7%) had received their highest degrees in departments of higher education. Four respondents (1%) indicated their highest degree was the baccalaureate; 82 (20.4%), the master's degree; and 22 (5.5%), the specialist certificate or degree. Fifty (12.4%) stated that they had been participants in the Kellogg Junior College Leadership Program. Four (1%) had been participants in programs offered under

the auspices of the American Council on Education and the College Entrance Examination Board.

There were no statistically significant differences between (1) former participants in academic programs offered under the auspices of the American Council on Education and the College Entrance Examination Board and (2) other respondents, concerning the amount of time allocated to the first six areas of administration mentioned above.

Those respondents who had specialized in higher education during their academic preparation differed statistically from other respondents on only one out of seventeen variables concerning future trends in the community junior college.

There were no statistically significant differences in attitudes concerning perceived community junior college trends among participants holding (1) bachelor's or master's degrees, (2) doctoral degrees in elementary or secondary education, and (3) doctoral degrees in fields other than professional education.

Former Kellogg Program participants did not differ statistically from other respondents in their attitudes toward trends, in their attitudes toward administrative organization, and in the amount of time allocated to the areas of public relations and physical facilities. The former Kellogg Program participants did differ statistically in the amount of time allocated to the area of finance.

On the basis of variables used to test the differences in the performance of the attitudes toward their positions, it was concluded that there were only slight differences among the respondents, regardless of degree level or area of specialization. This study utilized the independent variable, academic preparation, and treated it as a determinant of job performance, therefore it can be viewed as being germane to the current study, in that it too treated job preparation as a determinant of job performance.

Moderators of the relationship between individual task-structure congruencies and job satisfaction and performance was researched by Clayton (1981). In this study, leader behavior substituted for leadership, job related stress and role stress were hypothesized to moderate the relationship between three types of congruence--individual-task, individual-structure, and task-structure--and the dependent variables of job satisfaction and performance. Moderator variables were argued to have strong effects which facilitate the effectiveness of the individual-task-structure linkages.

More specifically, leader behavior and substitutes for leadership were hypothesized to be the moderators of the relationship between the individual-task congruence and the dependent variables of satisfaction and performance. Job related stress and role conflict were hypothesized to be moderators of the relationship between individual-structure

congruence and the dependent variables of satisfaction and performance. Job related stress and role ambiguity were hypothesized to be the moderators of the relationship between task-structure congruence and the dependent variables of job satisfaction and performance.

In each case, specific directional predictions were made regarding the relationship between congruence, moderator(s) and satisfaction and performance. For example, low job stress was hypothesized to result in high satisfaction and performance under conditions of individual-structure congruence, where congruence was a function of a person with low growth needs working in a mechanistic structure.

A comprehensive written survey (25 to 30 minutes in length) was administered to each participant in the study. The survey consisted of questionnaires with proven reliability and validity within the field of Industrial/Organizational Psychology, such as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).

Pearson correlational analysis and moderated regression analysis were used to test the various research hypotheses. The analysis yielded statistically significant moderator effects for several of the hypothesized relationships between each individual-task-structure linkage and satisfaction and performance. Furthermore, the specific congruence/incongruence conditions under which the moderators

affected the relationship were identified. For example, it was found that high episodic (recent) stress resulted in high performance when the task required more freedom than the organic structure provided. Additionally, low role conflict resulted in higher satisfaction under all conditions of individual-task congruence/incongruence than did high role conflict. And intrinsic satisfaction was highest when people desired less autonomy than the job provided.

Jackson (1974) did a study to determine the satisfaction level of some 422 middle management administrators including Deans and Vice Presidents of colleges and universities in Illinois.

Jackson utilized a force-choice questionnaire employing 14 of the Herzberg's factors. The results proved to be positive, and that the administrators chose the motivators or intrinsic variable as the determining factors in their levels of satisfaction.

Schmitz (1977) also did a study using much of Herzberg's research as a foundation to determine the level of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of some 250 academic deans in the eight state universities of the Big Eight Conference.

The results of this study revealed that the following variables (as defined by Herzberg as intrinsic variables or motivators) sense of accomplishments, challenging work, recognition, responsibility, good interpersonal skills, and

opportunities for growth, were favorable in determining the satisfaction of those administrators.

The study also revealed that dissatisfaction of the majority of the deans derived from such factors as unfavorable university policies and administrative action, poor interpersonal relations with superiors, colleagues, and members of the faculty, unfavorable working conditions, and criticism of work efforts. The study also indicated that the longer academic deans remain in that position, the greater the likelihood that interpersonal relations with faculty will be to job dissatisfaction. It was further revealed that such job factors as advancement, salary, personal life and job security contributed very little to either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction of the academic deans included in the study.

Stefanski (1978) surveyed 40 administrators in Eastern Pennsylvania using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire in an effort to identify the determinants as well as their relationship in determining the various levels of job satisfaction. The results of this study supported the findings of Herzberg's two-factor theory and that the intrinsic factors (achievement, recognition, and the work itself) were found to be more so evidenced than other determinants revealed by Herzberg's model.

Solmon and Tierney (1977) conducted research to identify and measure the determinants of job satisfaction

among college administrators. The study investigated the relationship between certain aspects of job satisfaction and organizational role congruence for selected college administrators. Data from 211 college administrators (presidents, vice presidents, and deans) in 22 private liberal arts colleges were analyzed by stepwise linear regression analysis in which independent variables were entered in blocks. The findings indicated that college administrators in general were very satisfied with their jobs and that senior administrators were more satisfied than mid-level administrators. Organizational role congruence may facilitate the administrator's job satisfaction, if the administrator considered the congruence dimension desirable.

The average response rate across institutions was 91 percent. There were three questions on the questionnaire that asked the respondent to indicate the degree or level of satisfaction with various aspects of his/her job. There were nineteen factors: salary, fringe benefits, status of the institution, personal status, autonomy in decision-making, variety in activities, power, influence, relationship with colleagues, competency of colleagues, opportunities for advancement within the structure, visibility for advancement outside the structure, challenge, responsibility, student relations, job security, opportunity for scholarly pursuits, availability of time to spend with family and opportunity for leisure time. Responses were coded ranging from not satisfied to very satisfied.

Many of the variables used in the Solmon and Tierney (1978) study were also used in the current study.

Giovannini (1974) performed a study of the interaction between job satisfaction, job involvement and job performance. Four instruments were used in this study: two to measure job performance and one each to measure job involvement and job satisfaction.

The study revealed that there was a very definite relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction (job involvement in this study was referred to as both job enrichment and job enlargement). The measurement of that relationship was .33 significant at the one percent level. Relationships were found to be significant with both extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction, although it was found that job involvement did not appear to be related to job performance as measured by the managerial and professional performance appraisal.

Hidalgo (1979) studied the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction and performance. Organizational climate was measured using a 14 item questionnaire whereas job satisfaction and performance was measured using a 17 item questionnaire. Correlation between the responses showed a positive and significant relationship at the .01 level of significance.

Reely (1976) replicated Herzberg's theory by analyzing the relationship between job satisfaction and job enrichment

factors, (achievement, advancement, growth, recognition, responsibilities, and the work itself).

Reely (1976) also looked at demographic variables as well, in reporting his findings.

The results revealed that job satisfaction was increased when the job enrichment factors were implemented. 220 subjects were measured with the Air University Faculty Motivation Survey instrument and presented 15 defined job factors. The job factors coincided with those in Herzberg's two-factor theory.

Throughout the review of the literature, none of the researchers have provided an adequate set of independent variables that would have a direct impact on the two dependent variables--job satisfaction and job performance, as viewed by this researcher. Therefore, based on the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 1, this study utilized those variables in an effort to determine their relationship and impact relative to job satisfaction and job performance of the black administrator in higher education.

Summary

The review of the literature pursuant to the relationship between job preparation and perceived job satisfaction and job performance of the black administrator in higher education revealed that very little recorded data was available to the researcher. However, from a general

perspective much data was available that attempted to show the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Despite the fact that there are similarities in the performance and satisfaction of the black administrator when compared to his/her white colleagues, the working climate and other ramifications are very different. According to the literature, black administrators are chosen from among the ranks, meaning that there is a direct ascension from the classroom to the administrative office. This ascension is evidence of the fact that black administrators do not directly prepare for administrative positions. However, en route to administration, skills may be acquired through experience and mentors.

CHAPTER III

Research Methods and Procedures

The selection of black colleges and universities could be viewed from several perspectives.

It was the initial thinking of the researcher to study the black administrator in general in both black and white institutions of higher education. However, that approach was viewed to be inconsistent with the intended purpose of the study, in that the black administrator on white campuses as revealed by the literature (Hoskins, 1978, Watkins, 1972), are only in "token" positions. Therefore, they have no power or authority to make administrative decisions relative to the accomplishing of the overall goals and objectives of the organization. Smith (1980), firmly argued that those administrators usually did not have defined roles and/or job descriptions, which would prevent one from evaluating their performance relative to objectives. Therefore, this alternative was rejected.

A survey of black administrators from colleges and universities affiliated only with the United Negro Colleges was considered to be inappropriate because of the small number of institutions that made up this group.

Thus, it was the decision of the researcher to study those administrators of historically black colleges and

universities in an effort to determine the relationship between job preparation and other stated variables, and perceived job satisfaction and performance of black administrators in higher education.

The previous two chapters basically presented the problem and its significance and the review of the literature as related to this study. This chapter will present the design by which data for the findings of this study were collected, analyzed and interpreted.

Procedures

This study was designed to collect, formulate, and equate data relative to job preparation and other variables relative to perceived job satisfaction and job performance of black administrators in higher education of historically black colleges and universities. Various reports, pamphlets, published and unpublished materials relative to the subject matter were used.

This study utilized the descriptive method of research and was segmented into two phases. Phase one (1) consisted of general library research of the literature in an effort to determine what has been done in this area. This phase was used as the foundation for the remaining phases of the study. Phase two (2) concerned itself with the mail survey of questionnaires, directed to various administrators of black colleges and universities. The questionnaire was

considered a vital tool, in that its results were utilized to examine the hypotheses.

Research Instruments

Accuracy in measuring administrators' job satisfaction and performance is a function of validity and reliability of the instruments and the process that is used in measuring and evaluating the variables. The reliability of a measuring instrument according to Openshaw (1980), is its ability to yield similar values at each successive application to an unchanged situation.

This study utilized data obtained through use of the following instruments which have reported validity and reliability:

1. The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire
2. The Tuskegee Job Performance Instrument
3. The Leader Behavior Inventory Questionnaire
4. The Job Characteristics Questionnaire
5. The Organizational Climate Questionnaire

Although this study utilized data collected by five instruments, only the two used to collect data relative to the dependent variables, job satisfaction and job performance will be discussed in this section. Information pertaining to the other instruments can be found in the appendix.

Job Satisfaction

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire (MJSQ) short form was used to measure each administrator's level of satisfaction with his/her job. The MJSQ was developed by D. J. Weiss and his associates in 1977 in the department of Vocational Psychology Research on the campus of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. This instrument measures job satisfaction on 20 scales pulled from the 100 original items found on the long form, which best represents each of the 20 scales. The short form consists of one item from each of the scales.

The scoring for the MJSQ is computed by use of a total score on a 5 point Likert-type scale as follows.

<u>Response Choice</u>	<u>Scoring</u>
Not Satisfied	1
Slightly Satisfied	2
Satisfied	3
Very Satisfied	4
Extremely Satisfied	5

The validity and reliability of this instrument have been documented by such researchers as Campbell (1972), Kerlinger (1973), Cook and Campbell (1973), Guion (1978), Albright (1972) and numerous others cited in the review of literature. Also according to Weiss (1967), this instrument

has a reliability coefficient range from .87 to .92 in relationship to general job satisfaction.

Job Performance

The Tuskegee Performance instrument was used to measure the performance of the administrators as perceived by their superior and/or subordinate. This instrument was developed by the evaluation committee at Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama in 1983 and tested for its validity and reliability.

The instrument measures job performance on 18 scales using the total score computed on a 5 point Likert-type scale, ranging from poor (1) to Superior (5). Items intercorrelated among the 18 items were calculated from a cross sector of administrators and faculty members of the Institute.

All coefficients relative to reliability were positive with a median coefficient of .82.

The MJSQ and TJPI along with the Job Characteristics instrument, the Leader Behavior Inventory questionnaire, the Organizational Climate questionnaire, and other general demographic items were combined into one instrument and measured factors in the following seven areas.

(1) General Demographics, (2) Education, (3) Leader Behavior, (4) Job Characteristics, (5) Job Satisfaction, (6) Job Performance, and (7) Organizational Climate.

Measurement of The Variables

The variables in this study were measured by using a combination of various responses to questions stated in the questionnaire. General demographic variables were measured as follows:

Parental occupational status was measured by question 8,

"What is the occupational status of your parents?"

The responses for this question ranged from unskilled to professional. Parental education status was measured by 5 items on a five point Likert-type scale.

Which of the following describes the education level of your parents? Below high school, some high school, high school graduate, some college, college graduate

Job preparation was measured by question 9 and 10 on a 5 point scale ranging from bachelors to doctoral degrees.

Other questions that related to job preparation and stated as variables were as follows:

"Number of Administrative workshops attended"

"Years of service in higher education"

"Number of credit hours earned in administrative management"

"Number of credit hours earned in higher education"

Each of these questions were measured in terms of years segmented to correspond with the 5 point Likert-type scale.

The following variables were measured by the respondent's self classification into the categories stated below.

Age (under 30, 31 - 40, 41 - 50, 51 - 60, 61 - over)

Sex (Male - Female)

Marital Status (Married - Single)

Salary (Below \$25,000, 26,000 - 30,000, 31,000 - 40,000, 41,000 - 50,000, 51,000 - 60,000, 61,000 - 70,000, 71,000 - above)

Work Experience (the number of years in stated or similar position ranging from none to 11 and over)

Job content and status were measured with responses to the questions stated below.

"To what extent does your job provide the opportunity to do different tasks?"

"To what extent do you have the freedom to decide how to do your work?"

"To what extent is your job challenging?"

"To what extent do you feel that you contribute something significant toward the attainment of the overall goals and objectives of the organization."

"Opportunities for advancement, responsibility and recognition."

The questions in the leader behavior section of the questionnaire were designed to validate the style of leadership that each of the administrators stated that he or she exemplified in their day-to-day administration.

A total score of 40 to 50 indicated that the administrator utilized an adjusted leadership style. According to

Heller, (1980), the adjusted style indicates that the administrator (manager) adjusts or changes his or her leadership style according to the situation. The findings of Heller is also supported by the findings of Hersey and Blanchard (1977) in their life cycle theory (situational) of leadership. They postulated that the leadership style exemplified by the administrator is more effective when it is administered according to the maturity level of the workers.

A total score of 30 to 39 suggested that the administrator's leadership style was that of participation. A style of administration wherein the subordinates share in the decision making process, as well as, other administrative functions. This style of leadership as researched and reported by Vroom and others suggest that the satisfaction and performance of the subordinates are greater when they have participated in the formulation of decisions relative to their tasks.

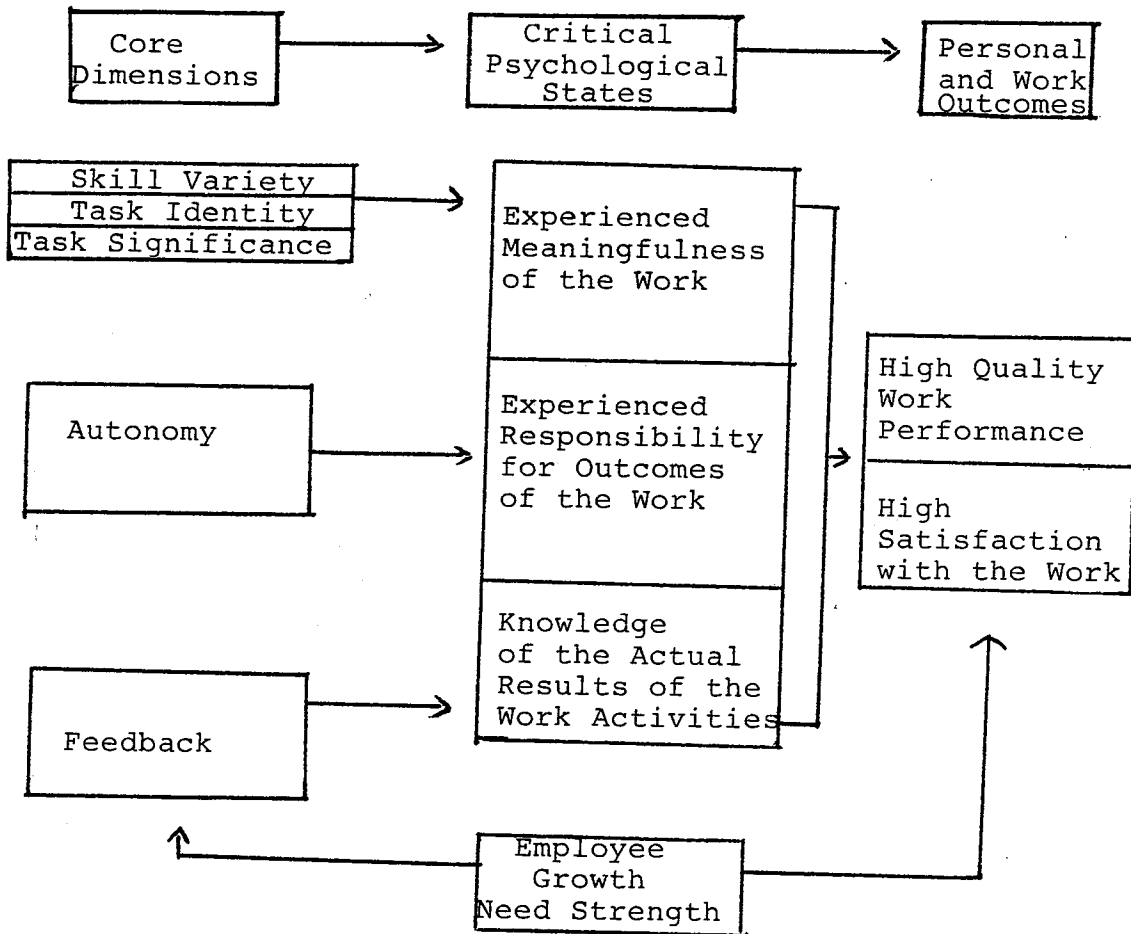
The laissez-faire leadership style in this study carried a total score of 20 to 29 and indicated that the administrator clarified the task according to the goals and objectives of the organization, and then gave the worker the needed autonomy to accomplish the task. Research findings suggest that the laissez-faire leadership style is most effective when implemented in research oriented organizations.

A total score of 19 and below relative to leadership was that of autocratic. According to Heller (1969), a leadership style of this nature would be detrimental to organizations such as institutions of higher education, in that the majority of all administrators are perceived to have a high degree of job maturity. Therefore, an autocratic leadership style would cause job dissatisfaction resulting in low performance, high absenteeism, and a rapid turnover.

The job characteristic section of the questionnaire was developed to measure job enrichment. Job characteristic is one of several approaches to job enrichment. This variable was measured on a 5 point Likert type scale with total points of 50 available for each administrator. The total points are based on the job characteristic model (figure 3.1), developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) a total score of 35-50 indicates that the job has high opportunity for high job satisfaction and performance from a psychological perspective.

A total score of 10 to 25 suggests that the job has low opportunity for positive job satisfaction and performance. Job satisfaction and job performance are dependent variables in this study and are being measured here again on a 5 point Likert type scale with the values of various questions being reversed in order to obtain a true value for variable.

Figure 3.1
Job Characteristics Model



Source: Adopted From Management: Skills, Functions, and Organization Performance

By Carl R. Anderson

A total score of 30 to 50 indicates that the administrator was satisfied with a 10 degree of variance. A score of less than 10 indicated that the administrator was dissatisfied and a score of 20 + indicated that there was a slight degree of satisfaction. (see Table 3.1)

Job performance was also measured on a 5 point scale ranging from poor to superior. The administrators were evaluated by their superior and/or subordinates. The presidents were evaluated by the vice presidents, in that college board of trustees do not maintain a systematic process, according to Arden (1984), of evaluating that office. The vice presidents were evaluated by the presidents and the deans were evaluated by their superiors, the vice presidents.

The scores were computed on a total scale of 5 to 70 points available to each administrator. A total score of 50 to 70 indicated that the administrator was performing from average to superior and a score of 40 and below indicated that the administrator was performing at a level below average to poor. (see Table 3.2)

Organizational climate as perceived by the administrators were evaluated by using 10 questions scored on a 5 point Likert type scale presented below.

IT MAKES A GREAT EFFORT TO DO THIS	IT TENDS TO DO THIS	I DO NOT KNOW WHAT IT WOULD DO	IT TENDS TO AVOID DOING THIS	IT MAKES A GREAT EF- FORT TO AVOID THIS
1	2	3	4	5

In this section, items 62, 63, 66, 67, and 69 of the questionnaire were reversed in computing the correct score as viewed by the administrator.

<u>Administrator Score</u>	<u>Correct Score</u>
1	5
2	4
3	3
4	2
5	1

A total low score of 10 to 25 indicates that the organizational climate was very supportive. A total high score of 35 to 50 indicates that the organizational climate was very hostile, and that job satisfaction and performance according to William Ouchi and A. M. Jaeger (1978) would be very low mainly due to a lack of concern for the worker.

Instructions for each of the seven stated areas were provided to the administrators in an effort to assure clarity relative to homogeneity in the responses. Upon completion of the questionnaire, a six (6) digit identification number was assigned to each of the four (4) subject groups.

The numbers were assigned according to the university with lead in zeros, then the abbreviation of the subject's position. The number 00100 represents the first university and the position of the president. These were then stamped on the prospective questionnaire. A master roster was developed which only was available for use by the researcher which allowed for follow-up to those administrators who failed to reply in the stated time frame.

Administration of The Instrument

The first mailing of the questionnaire along with a cover letter took place on August 1, 1984. Each administrator that was chosen for the survey was sent a questionnaire, a cover letter, and a return self-addressed stamped envelope with instructions to complete the questionnaire and return it within two weeks from the date of receipt with a three day built in delivery schedule.

Because the initial mailing took place during the month of August, when many of the administrators were perceived to be on vacation, the cut-off date was extended to September 15, 1984. Between August 15 and September 15, 1984 a letter of reminder was sent to those administrators reminding them that the completed questionnaire had not yet been received, and that an additional one was enclosed for their convenience, which constituted a second mailing. On October 1, 1984, a third mailing was implemented, there again,

requesting that the questionnaire be completed and returned within a two (2) week period in order for their information to be included in the study. The cut-off date was scheduled for October 15, 1984 and was adhered to. Questionnaires arriving after that date were not included in this study.

Statistical Description of The Variables

This study consisted of 26 variables. Data on these variables were compiled and analyzed at the Atlanta University Center's computer lab using the SPSS program. Black administrators were defined in chapter 1, as those executive officers holding such positions as president, vice president and/or provost, and dean of historically black colleges and universities of higher education. The data for use in this study were based on 54 presidents, 54 vice presidents and 108 deans, collected as a sample from a randomly computer selected population of some 112 presidents, approximately 450 vice presidents and some 600 deans, now serving as administrator of historically black colleges and universities. (see list of colleges and universities in the appendix)

In keeping with this definition, the following table shows the summary of the administrators surveyed for this study.

Table 3.1
Breakdown of Questionnaires

Administrators	Number of Questionnaires Sent	Questionnaires Returned	
		Number	Percentage
Presidents	54	46	85.0
*Vice Presidents	54	40	74.0
Deans	108	74	69.0
Total	216	160	74.0

*In that many of the institutions surveyed did not have the position of provost, responses of those that did were reported as vice president. Therefore, henceforth in this study, only the position of vice president will be used.

Table 3.1 indicates that a total of 216 questionnaires were sent out to the three groups of administrators being studied. After the third mailing and numerous telephone calls, 160 usable questionnaires for 74% were received, with the presidents' group consisting of 16 for 85.0%, the vice presidents' group had a response rate of 40 for 74.0% and the position of dean returned 74 usable questionnaires for 69.0%.

The responses of administrators came from public, private and community college and universities. Table 3.2

indicates that 38.9% of the questionnaires sent to administrators in the study went to the public senior college and/or universities, and 46.3% and 14.8% went to the private senior colleges and the community junior colleges respectively.

Table 3.3 depicts the response data relative to the sex of the administrator. Of the 160 administrators 136 or 85.0% were male consisting of 44 presidents, 36 vice presidents and 56 deans. 24 or 15.0% were female, of which 2 held the position of vice president and 18 held positions of deans.

The data reported in this table conform to previous studies, that males are dominant throughout higher education.

The data presented in table 3.4 shows that 5 or 3.13% of the administrators were below the age of 30 years, of which all 5 held the position of dean. 30 administrators or 18.75% were between the ages of 31 and 40 years of which 4 held the position of president, 10 the position of vice president and 16 were stated as deans. Between the ages of 41 and 50 years of age, there were 22 presidents, 20 vice presidents and 25 deans for a total of 41.8% of the reporting administrators. 26.87% of the administrators were between the ages of 51 and 60 years for a total of 43 administrators, 16 presidents, 8 vice presidents and 19 deans.

Table 3.2
Type of Institutions

Types	Number Surveyed	Percentage
Public (Senior)	21	38.9
Private (Senior)	25	46.3
Community (Junior)	8	14.8
Total	54	100.0

Table 3.3
Breakdown According to Sex

Sex	Presidents	Vice Presidents	Deans	Administrators	
				#	%
Males	44	36	56	136	85.0
Females	2	4	18	24	15.0
Total	46	40	74	160	100.0

Table 3.4
Breakdown According to Age

Age In Years	Presidents	Vice		Administrators	
		Presidents	Deans	#	%
Under 30	0	0	5	5	3.13
31 - 40	4	10	16	30	18.75
41 - 50	22	20	25	67	41.87
51 - 60	16	8	19	43	26.87
Over 61	4	2	9	15	9.38
Total	46	40	74	160	100.00

Table 3.5
Breakdown According to Marital Status

Groups	Married		Single		Total
	#	%	#	%	
Presidents	41	33.0	5	13.0	46
Vice Presidents	30	24.0	10	28.0	40
Deans	53	43.0	21	59.0	74
Total	124	100.0	36	100.0	160

Table 3.6
Breakdown According to Area of Terminal Degree

Field of Study	Presidents N=46	Vice Presidents N=46	Deans N=72
History	39.1	17.5	11.1
English	6.5	7.5	6.9
Mathematics	10.9	0	12.5
Social Science	0	17.5	5.7
Edu. Admin.	0	12.5	43.0
Business/Economics	8.7	20.0	0
Religion	10.9	5.0	0
Biology/Science	23.9	20.0	20.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

*All figures are stated in percentages....

Table 3.7
Breakdown According to Salary

Levels of Salaries	Presidents		Vice Presidents		Deans		Total Administrators	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Below -\$25,000	0	0	0	0	3	4.2	3	1.9
\$26,000-30,000	1	2.2	9	22.5	21	28.3	31	19.3
31,000-40,000	3	6.5	8	20.0	44	59.4	55	34.3
41,000-50,000	9	19.6	11	27.5	6	8.1	26	16.2
51,000-60,000	8	17.3	10	25.0	0	0	18	11.3
61,000-70,000	11	23.9	2	5.0	0	0	13	8.2
71,000-Over	14	30.4	0	0	0	0	14	8.8
Total	46	100.0	40	10.0	74	100.0	160	100.0

15 administrators or 9.38% were over 61 years of age, that number included 4 presidents, 2 vice presidents, and 9 deans.

The data reported in this table were in keeping with the studies of Gordon (1953), Brooks (1974) and Moore (1981). The average age of the administrators, presidents and vice presidents, of colleges and universities fell between the ages of 45 and 55 years, and the average ages of deans were between the years of 50 and 59. Therefore, this data indicated no significant difference from previous studies.

Table 3.5 indicates that of the 46 presidents surveyed, 41 or 33.0% were married, of the 40 vice presidents responding, 30 or 24.0% were married, whereas 53 or 43.0% of the 74 deans were married.

Studies conducted by Bolman (1965), Demerath (1967) and Moore (1981) support the findings of this study, that the majority of the administrators are married, and that spouses are viewed as having a positive impact on the position. It also supports the general assumption that chief administrators are married. Table 3.6 shows the results relative to the field of study for the terminal degree. There were eight (8) areas in which the 3 groups of administrators received degrees. 46 presidents reported that they had received terminal degrees and of that 46, 39.1% were degreed in the area of history, whereas 23.9% held degrees in the

area of biology and science. Religion and math each accounted for 10.9% and business and economics and english accounted for 8.7% and 6.5% of the degrees respectively. The results of this study coincided with similar studies relative to educational attainment of college presidents. Moore's study on top line administrators (1981) revealed that 27% of presidents was terminally degreed in the humanities followed by education with 12%.

The vice presidents were somewhat equally distributed. Of the 40 vice presidents reporting their terminal degrees, 20.0% were accounted for in each of the areas of business/economics and biology and science. Whereas the area of history and social science both, accounted for 17.5%. No presidents reported that they had received a terminal degree in the area of educational administration, whereas this area claimed 12.5% for the vice presidents. The area of religion accounted for 10.9% of the degrees in the presidents' category but only 5.0% for the vice presidents. However there was a 1.0% increase in the area of English for the vice presidents (7.5%) when compared to the presidents (6.5%). The deans in this study were from two separate schools, the school of arts and science and the school of education. The 72 deans that reported terminal degrees, the area of educational administration accounted for 43.0%, whereas biology and science accounted for 20.8% with history and math being credited with 11.1% and 12.5%. 6.9% of deans

held degrees in the area of English, while 5.7% reported that they had received degrees in the area of the social sciences. Moore (1981) reported that 30.7% of the deans in her study held degrees in education whereas 20.0% held degrees in the humanities. There was no area mentioned for the remaining 49.3% in her study.

Table 3.8
Job Satisfaction of Administrators

Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied	Total N=160
53.75	30.63	15.62	100.0

Table 3.9
Job Performance of Administrators

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Total N=146
4.3	13.6	82.1	100.0

Table 3.10
Organizational Climate

Supportive	Hostile	Total N=160
81.9	18.1	100.0

** All figures are stated in percentages.....

Table 3.11
Breakdown of Stated Leadership Styles

Leadership Styles	Presidents		Vice Presidents		Deans	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Adjusted	1	2.2	0	0	10	13.5
Participative	45	97.8	40	100.0	64	86.5
Laissez-Faire	0	0	0	0	0	0
Autocratic	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	46	100.0	40	100.0	74	100.0

Table 3.7 presented the data relative to salaries of the three (3) groups of administrators surveyed. For those administrators holding the position of president, 1 for 2.2% was in the salary range of \$26,000 to \$30,000, whereas 3 or 6.5% received a salary of \$31,000 to \$40,000. The salary range of \$41,000 to \$60,000 was occupied by 17 administrators for 36.9%. 11 administrators representing 23.9% had salaries between \$61,000 and \$70,000, and 14 for 30.4% were being paid salaries above \$71,000.

For the 40 vice presidents, 9 for 22.5% were receiving a salary between \$26,000 and \$30,000, whereas 8 for 20.0% received salaries ranging from \$31,000 to \$40,000, and the salary range of \$41,000 to \$50,000 and \$51,000 to \$60,000 showed 11 administrators for 27.5% and 10 administrators for 25.0% respectively. Only 2 positions for 5.0% paid a salary above \$61,000.

As can be expected, based on the career path and the administrative hierarchy, the dean's salaries were far below those of their immediate supervisors, the vice presidents.

The category of deans showed that 4.2% or 3 administrators were paid salaries below \$26,000 for a low and 8.1% or 6 administrators had salaries above \$41,000 for a high. 21 deans for 28.3% reported salaries in the range of \$26,000 to \$30,000 whereas 14 for 59.4% listed their salaries between \$31,000 and \$50,000.

This study and others have shown a significant relationship between the variables, salary and job position, and salary, job position and job satisfaction. However, these relationships are not in keeping with the literature from the perspective of some of the theories of motivation. Herzberg (1968), as well as Stogdill (1977) stated that money ceased to be a motivator or stimulus toward job satisfaction and performance at the upper levels of the hierarchy.

Table 3.8 indicates that the administrators were all satisfied at various levels with their job positions. 53.75% stated that they were satisfied, 30.63% stated that they were very satisfied, and 15.63% revealed that they were extremely satisfied.

Studies by both Buxton (1977) and Reely (1976) revealed similar results. Job performance of the administrators was

cited in table 3.9. In the table it was revealed that only 4.3% of the administrators were performing below the average, whereas 13.6% were performing at the average and 82.1% were stated as performing above the average.

The data in this table did not support the perceived belief of many, that the college administrators were indeed performing at a very low level, due in part to a lack of administrative preparedness. And that many of the colleges and universities were closing because of that low level of performance.

Table 3.10 describes the organizational climate of the institutions as perceived by the administrators. It was revealed in table 3.10 that 81.9% of the surveyed institutions had an organizational climate that was very supportive, whereas only 18.1% indicated that the organizational climate was that of a hostile nature.

The literature according to Campbell (1970), Schneider and Bartlett (1968), and Burns and Stalker (1961) supported the fact that a supportive organizational climate provided for both job satisfaction and job performance. Support toward the above data were also given by Brayfield and Crockett (1955).

Table 3.11 depicted data relative to the stated leadership behavior (styles) of the administrators. 97.8% of the presidents stated that they exemplified a participative leadership style, whereas only 2.2% stated that they had an adjusted style of leadership behavior.

All vice presidents (100.0%) stated that they utilized a participative style of leadership behavior. 86.5% of the deans listed their stated leadership behavior style as participative and 13.5% for the adjusted leadership style. No administrators listed their leadership style as that of laissez-faire or autocratic.

It was stated in the measurement of variables section that the perceived leadership style portion of the questionnaire was designed to validate the stated leadership style claimed by the administrator. The results of the perceived style variable were in reverse pursuant to the two utilized styles of leadership. The leader behavior data revealed that 86.4% of all administrators exemplified an adjusted leadership style.

According to leadership theory, the adjusted style of leadership provided for a better working relationship between the administrator and the subordinates when compared to the other styles of leadership. Heller (1980) as well as Blanchard (1978) agreed that this held true because this style of leadership was based on change and adjustment according to the situation and the maturity of the subordinates. Therefore, the adjusted leadership style carried the highest total score value (40 - 50 total score) in this study.

It is the belief of the researcher that the adjusted leadership style was less known to the administrators than

the participative style. Therefore, in their effort to show that there was a positive working relationship between their office and their subordinates', they stated their style of leadership as participative.

Statistical Techniques

The statistical data for use in this study were determined by the following statistical analysis.

1. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis
2. Factor Analysis
3. Multiple Regression Analysis

The purpose of the three statistical techniques was to show a theoretical structured relationship between the results of the data being reported. The correlation analysis was used to determine those variables that were highly correlated for the purpose of factorizing. Also, it is believed to be superior to the means analysis of data. Mainly, because the process plots and compares one factor to the other, thereby making all distributions normal, whereas, with the mean analysis, this is not true, in that it utilizes the average of the factors.

The primary purpose of factor analysis was to reduce the original number of explanatory variables in this study to a smaller number whereby the whole set of variables can be better understood in that all variables are dependent and independent in turn. The factor analysis permitted the

researcher to analyze the mutual interdependence of the variables used in this study.

Regression analysis was used to show the degree of dependence of the variables used in the study while providing the researcher with a redefined group of variables determined by the factor analysis. This permitted the researcher to obtain an estimate of the relationships between the dependent variables, job satisfaction and job performance, and the independent variables job preparation and job enrichment, as well as those new formed variables resulting from the grouping of the original variables. The results of these analyses are in the findings of this study and are presented in chapter 4.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Introduction

The primary focus of this study was to determine the relationship among job preparation, job enrichment and other stated variables, and job satisfaction and job performance of black administrators in higher education.

The data being reported were analyzed by three (3) statistical techniques: The Pearson Product Moment Correlation, Factor Analysis, and Multiple Regression Analysis.

The following two hypotheses were formulated and tested by the above stated analyses using the .05 and .01 levels of significance as the determinants for their acceptance or rejection.

- H₁ Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job satisfaction more so than other stated variables.
- H₂ Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job performance more so than other stated variables.

Correlational Analysis in Relation to the Literature

The correlation analysis was not used in this study to test the stated hypotheses. Both hypotheses were designed with more than one independent variable, and testing of

hypotheses with correlational analysis can only be utilized when there is one independent and one dependent variable under investigation. Therefore, the correlation matrix was only used to determine the relationship of those variables that were highly significant as they related to the hypotheses.

According to hypothesis #1, job preparation and job enrichment were those independent variables which were expected to have the greatest impact on the dependent variables, job satisfaction and job performance. The correlation matrix found in table 4.1, revealed that there was no relationship between job preparation and job satisfaction, correlated at .11295. Job enrichment and job satisfaction did show a positive relationship correlated at .44135.

The correlation matrix does reveal that a relationship exists between age and years of experience, and age and credit hours in higher education, correlated at .26800 and .29989 respectively, which is believed to have an impact on job performance but little if any on job satisfaction.

Salary, referred to as pay, in many of the review of literature studies is highly correlated with credit hours in higher education, .30623, number of workshops attended -.50269, job satisfaction .27538, job enrichment .25424 and job position -.67467. Credit hours in higher education and number of workshops attended can be viewed as factors of job

Table 4.1
 Correlational Matrix of All Variables (N = 26)
 (Table to be read from top down)

	Institute Type	Enrollment	Age	Sex	Marital Status	Salary	Parental Education	Parental Occupation	Area Of Degree
Institutional Type	1.00000								
Enrollment	-.24232	1.00000							
Age	.04077	-.09872	1.00000						
Sex	-.22445	-.07695	.03546	1.00000					
Marital Status	.02087	.06419	-.03165	.01655	1.00000				
Salary	.04765	-.10336	-.02593	-.19781	-.22145	1.00000			
Parental Education	-.03622	.02943	-.08522	-.06528	-.17668	.21896	1.00000		
Parental Occupation	-.09500	.09343	.02882	-.10491	-.12987	.05357	.25468	1.00000	
Area Of Degree	-.07279	.06904	-.08907	.00591	-.02056	.04964	.18620	.26969	1.00000
Job Preparation	-.11421	.14625	.01182	-.08099	-.00146	.04795	-.00907	.07688	.11020
Years of Experience	.06737	.02535	.26800	-.08658	.00382	.11052	-.10327	-.01918	-.08034
Credit Hours In Admin.	.03653	.09096	-.00041	-.11820	-.13001	.21080	.18224	-.02353	.10492
Credit Hours in H. E.	.06224	-.01898	.29989	-.01283	-.19692	.30623	.13274	.11724	-.02498
Number of Workshops	-.00407	.07746	-.05062	.12345	.12401	-.50259	-.14248	.07073	.01206
Perceived Leadership Style	.07719	-.09198	-.04416	-.02101	.01152	-.12160	-.27469	.02401	-.08860
Experience In Leadership	.01233	.05787	.07489	.07391	-.00294	.16699	.14371	.04889	-.02295
Stated Leadership Behavior	-.00566	-.06950	.13729	.03198	-.01549	.08143	.05884	-.01163	-.02562
Job Characteristics	-.09444	.01355	.14063	-.03697	-.03696	.21738	.25929	.16642	-.03647
Job Satisfaction	-.10226	.06013	.12790	-.17184	-.00997	.27538	.16550	.15965	.00875
Job Performance	-.21341	.16152	-.06593	.05859	.04426	.02217	.03290	.11624	-.03039
Organizational Climate	-.00818	-.19026	.06368	.00022	-.10001	.19690	.10968	.01611	-.12447
Personal Goals and Expect.	-.1342	.06678	.16865	.08536	.07748	-.12583	-.02121	.23119	.17996
Organizational Goals	-.02868	-.03041	.14648	-.04925	-.15258	.15856	.33016	.23277	.02147
Job Content	-.25170	-.01735	.13353	-.00287	.18174	-.03875	.08406	.07918	-.02974
Job Enrichment	-.13710	.00884	.10719	-.06352	-.05962	.25424	.19506	.13611	.02967
Job Position	-.04071	.03669	.01973	.22987	.14401	-.67467	-.17006	.05574	.07683

Table 4.1 Continued
 Correlational Matrix of All Variables (N = 26)
 (Table to be read from top down)

	Job Preparation	Years of Experience	Credit Hours In Admin.	Credit Hours In Higher Education	Number of Workshops	Perceived Leadership Style	Experience In Leadership	Stated Leadership Behavior
Institutional Type								
Enrollment								
Age								
Sex								
Marital Status								
Salary								
Parental Education								
Parental Occupation								
Area Of Degree								
Job Preparation	1.00000							
Years of Experience	.00542	1.00000						
Credit Hours In Admin.	.06458	.05963	1.00000					
Credit Hours in H. E.	-.00833	.31722	.11324	1.00000				
Number of Workshops	-.10691	-.16276	-.14803	-.30245	1.00000			
Perceived Leadership Style	.00815	.06713	.01015	.05269	.09291	1.00000		
Experience In Leadership	.08706	.14738	.25478	.19922	-.20050	-.03036	1.00000	
Stated Leadership Behavior	-.06411	.07966	.14677	.07981	-.03518	.03073	.07755	1.00000
Job Characteristics	.05490	.19258	.17159	.22852	-.20067	-.01792	.04442	.59974
Job Satisfaction	.11295	.07732	.13130	.18735	-.19135	-.03655	-.00631	.49915
Job Performance	-.05670	-.10937	-.08721	-.12177	.08563	-.00521	-.05192	.17915
Organizational Climate	.05036	.13536	-.03430	.11182	-.20913	-.00246	-.08038	.36313
Personal Goals and Expect.	.09587	.07954	.01194	-.01887	.19048	.01335	-.04696	.36719
Organizational Goals	.09334	.02302	.24554	.17893	.04190	-.17538	.03803	.32187
Job Content	.02794	.01826	.07749	.06976	-.05423	-.04162	.07401	.51620
Job Enrichment	.12946	.19417	.20561	.18425	-.17068	-.01306	-.04875	.45982
Job Position	-.10087	-.01310	-.06331	-.26367	.51180	.22060	-.03655	.10033

Table 4.1 Continued
 Correlational Matrix of All Variables (N = 26)
 (Table to be read from top down)

	Job Character- istics	Job Satis- action	Job Perform- ance	Organ- izational Climate	Personal Goals and Expectations	Organ- izational Goals	Job Content	Job Enrichment	Job Position
Institutional Type									
Enrollment									
Age									
Sex									
Marital Status									
Salary									
Parental Education									
Parental Occupation									
Area Of Degree									
Job Preparation									
Years of Experience									
Credit Hours In Admin.									
Credit Hours in H. E.									
Number of Workshops									
Perceived Leadership Style									
Experience In Leadership									
Stated Leadership Behavior									
Job Characteristics	1.00000								
Job Satisfaction	.55791	1.00000							
Job Performance	.08515	.15321	1.00000						
Organizational Climate	.44875	.38484	.00562	1.00000					
Personal Goals and Expect.	.35500	.26915	.17033	.13058	1.00000				
Organizational Goals	.47599	.46955	.09900	.31312	.28064	1.00000			
Job Content	.53094	.50761	.17802	.27685	.33175	.27007	1.00000		
Job Enrichment	.59985	.46116	.12402	.44135	.30984	.42967	.36719	1.00000	
Job Position	-.11346	-.29062	-.01143	-.21290	.26571	-.13843	.12068	-.13054	1.00000

preparation or qualifications; therefore, the more qualified you are, the higher the salary. Stated in another way, salary is commensurate with qualifications.

Salary and job satisfaction are correlated at the .27538 level and indicate that salary induces job satisfaction. However, this is not in keeping with the various theories of motivation when dealing with higher achievers and middle and upper level positions such as those in this study, unless it is tied to established goals.

Job enrichment was defined in this study as those motivational factors such as autonomy, skills, content and feedback that provide for employee growth. It was correlated at .25424 which indicates that as an individual grows in the organization relative to job content, he/she increases his/her skills, knowledge and work efficiency; therefore, the salary is increased based on the growth and performance of the individual.

According to Locke (1976) job enrichment is goal oriented in that it is geared toward increasing responsibility and a feeling of accomplishment through tasks of planning and controlling; therefore, theory does support the relationship between the two.

Job position is highly correlated in this study with salary at the -.67467 level. This gives support to the administrative hierarchy relative to position and duties and responsibilities. As one moves from one position to

another, so does the salary move from one level to another, and the salary is in keeping with the position as well as the requirement for the position.

A coefficient of .25468 correlates parental education with parental occupation, whereas $-.27469$ correlates parental education with perceived leadership styles of the administrators. Parental education is also correlated to job characteristics at the .25929 level.

Leadership Behavior (styles) is correlated to job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational climate at the .59974, .49915 and .36313 level respectively. It is also correlated at the .36719 level to personal goals and expectation, at the .32187 level to organizational goals and at the .51620 and .45982 to job content and job enrichment. Job characteristic is correlated to job satisfaction at .55791, and to organizational climate at .4487 and personal goals and expectation at .35500.

These coefficients indicate that there is a relationship existing among these variables. According to Lawler, (1933), Hackman and Oldham (1976), job characteristics are made up of four (4) factors or better stated four (4) characteristics. These characteristics are, autonomy, task identity, variety and feedback, and that job satisfaction and performance should be high when they are present in a job. According to Burns and Stalker (1961), these factors or characteristics are the efforts of organizational climate, if climate is viewed from an organic perspective.

This means that the organization is flexible with operating approaches (allowing for the personal goals and objectives of the workers) and adapted to people and tasks. The managerial hierarchy is flat; therefore, units or divisions are opened in whatever way that best serves the organization for the accomplishment of its goals (Hackman, 1977).

The variable, job characteristics, is related to organizational goals at the .47599 level. The job characteristics variable was also correlated to job content and job enrichment, the coefficients being .53094 and .59985 respectively. Umstot (1984) stated that both job content and job enrichment are based on job characteristics. Hackman and Oldham (1975), also shared this belief, and that job content included those aspects of variety, autonomy, complexity, task identity, etc., which are in fact, characteristics of the job.

The correlation matrix revealed that the dependent variable, job satisfaction, was highly correlated to organizational climate, personal goals and expectation, organizational goals, job content, job enrichment and job position related at the levels of .38484, .26915, .46955, .50761, .48116 and -.29062 respectively. Personal goals and expectations are related to those same variables with correlations being .28064, .33175, .30984 and .26571 respectively.

The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate is supported by Brayfield and Crockett, (1955), and Csoka, (1972). Both studies concluded that a supportive organizational climate reduced turnover and increased job satisfaction but had little or no impact on job performance. These researchers believed that morale and job satisfaction are essential to productivity, at least in the long run.

Personal goals and expectations correlated to job satisfaction was supported in the literature by Rosenthal and his colleagues. They identified four (4) factors - organizational climate, feedback, input, and output. These factors, according to Rosenthal, showed that one's expectations influence his/her behavior toward the assigned tasks. The expectations that administrators have for their subordinates influence their performance.

This line of reasoning is also supported by Stogdill (1948), who stated that an individual's behavior toward a given situation is influenced by the way in which he or she anticipates that the events will occur relative to reward and career development. The relationship between these variables is further supported by Gray and Stark (1984). The findings of their study revealed that job satisfaction and performance were highly influenced by the organizational climate and employee's goals and objectives. These findings were also in keeping with Szilagyi and Wallace (1983).

Although job enrichment has been discussed previously in this section because it was found to be related to salary, the literature also supports another relationship. That relationship is between job enrichment and job satisfaction.

The relationship indicates that as the administrator is motivated through some means of job enrichment such as autonomy, responsibility, recognition, and/or job challenge, there is an increase in the attitudes of the administrators relative to job satisfaction.

According to Salmon (1979), the relationship between job satisfaction and job enrichment is mediated by the individual's expectations, pursuant to those enrichment factors. If there are high expectations relative to outcome by the individual, there will also be a higher degree of job satisfaction. However, high expectation does not in and of itself lead to satisfaction. It may be that high expectation leads to high motivation and these are more likely to lead to greater performance, ultimately resulting in greater job satisfaction.

Umstot (1984), also concurred that job enrichment does lead to improvements in both job satisfaction and job performance.

The data thus far do not support either of the stated hypotheses. However, should each variable, job enrichment, job preparation and other significant variables, be analyzed

alternately, it is believed that there would be a slight change in the relationships, but the results would still remain non-significant causing the status of the hypotheses to remain unchanged.

It was hypothesized in hypothesis #2 that job preparation and job enrichment would predict job performance more so than other variables. It was observed in the correlation matrix that the coefficients for of these variables were very low, $-.05620$ and $.12946$ respectively. Conceptually, this hypothesis could be rejected at this point of the study. However, although there is a low correlation which indicates that there is little or no relationship between the variables under study, it must be remembered that the Pearson correlation reflects only the linear relationship between two variables. In that no relationship exists between the variables at this point, it could be that the variables are, in fact, unrelated, or that the variables are related in a non-linear fashion.

A high correlation may in fact give one the indication that there is a significant relationship between the variables being studied. But according to correlational theory, correlation is not causation; therefore, no meaningful conclusion relative to the strength or impact of the two sets of variables can be made at this point. The fact that there are highly interrelated coefficients at this point in itself suggests the need for a factor analysis.

Factor Analysis

This study consisted of 26 original variables that were highly interrelated as revealed by the correlation matrix. Therefore, a factor analysis was performed in an attempt to reduce the variables to a more manageable and meaningful number.

The Results of The Factor Analysis

The results indicate the creation of nine (9) factors. Each variable is mentioned in all nine factors. However, a variable is loaded in a factor (reading from left to right) if the factor score is the highest in that factor as compared to the other factors. Table 4.2 shows that variable #2, institutional type, is loaded in factor 8 because its factor score is .58951, which is the highest loading as compared to the variable's loading in the other factors. All of the variables loaded (highest factor score) in a factor represents a communality of highest relationships as compared to their loading and relationships in the other factors. Each factor communal relationship is as follows:

Factor 1 - The following variables were loaded in factor 1: Leader behavior, organizational climate, personal goals and expectations, job content, and job enrichment. This factor loaded these variables because their factor scores are the highest as compared to their placement in

Table 4.2

ROTATED FACTOR ANALYSIS MATRIX

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9
Inst. Type	-.13658	.04363	.09240	-.03499	-.49853	.08434	.02415	.58951	-.21693
Enrollment	-.07333	.06003	.02347	-.02069	.73329	.15181	-.05422	.10322	.18837
Age	.13382	.10995	.74685	-.01650	-.09888	-.07798	-.16347	-.04673	-.04049
Sex	-.04218	.19429	.00651	-.01369	-.11884	.02587	-.03824	-.83327	-.08148
Marital Status	.04485	.27905	-.01454	-.62636	.16990	-.04183	-.15175	.15848	.12289
Salary	.15193	-.77056	.03020	.18973	-.01483	.13090	-.04484	.11555	-.00578
Parental Educ.	.18352	-.16850	-.17074	.45942	-.01519	.26637	-.49110	.02586	-.04969
Parental Occu.	.11886	.14293	.10423	.68742	.25000	-.08024	-.04297	.12208	.15909
Area of Degree	-.03648	.15902	-.15082	.40660	-.00595	.11379	-.16618	.00139	.50047
Job Prep.	.07153	-.13241	.01039	-.05172	.08021	.00168	.06380	-.00813	.78769
Work Experience	.09609	-.08695	.68811	-.08281	.01255	.08900	.18818	.10706	.04899
Cr. Hrs. Admin.	.18299	-.08649	-.09184	.10191	-.04550	.74524	.04567	.17225	.08466
Cr. Hrs. H. E.	.09688	-.33463	.62563	.27581	-.02883	.17203	.05437	-.04011	-.08410
Workshops Att.	-.09291	.73683	-.14582	.09414	.06371	-.17345	.00252	.06525	-.13142
Leadership Style	.00415	.13480	.00419	.06506	-.04550	.04056	.87841	.06103	-.02340
Exp. in Leadership	-.03687	-.10780	.23000	-.04996	.08935	.72027	-.06769	-.16864	-.01348
Leader Behavior	.77698	.10486	.01055	.07113	-.05848	.16098	.08350	-.04708	-.18050
Job Character.	.81609	-.10790	.13310	.08393	.00675	.09648	-.02242	-.00073	.00392
Job Satis.	.73896	-.22558	.05868	.03291	.15959	-.04085	-.06624	.16939	.05113
Job Perform.	.22353	.00357	-.19341	.09288	.62195	-.17179	.05077	-.11294	-.34207
Org. Climate	.59784	-.28925	.01556	.00533	-.30277	-.25587	.06712	-.10119	.01311
Personal Goals	.50713	.43641	.15311	.15129	.12531	-.08835	-.00399	-.05994	.22097
Org. Goals	.58360	-.00243	.05693	.35120	-.05898	.06994	-.30704	.11294	-.02314
Job Content	.71556	.13442	.03257	-.21105	.15832	.08675	-.08936	-.12113	-.00374
Job Enrich.	.72599	-.16833	.07273	-.13556	.01289	.00085	.06223	.00705	.14136
Job Position	-.03559	.85272	-.01359	-.02452	-.03309	.10233	.19222	-.16124	-.00827

other factors. Conceptually, these variables are in the same commune and form a syndrome of relationships. Because of these relationships, these variables can be grouped. The significant level for grouping according to factor analysis literature (Bernstein 1966), is .5000.

The stated variables that loaded in factor I had loadings of .77698, .81609, .59784, .50713, .58360, .71556, and .72599.

Although the factor suggests that these variables should be grouped, the researcher chose not to group all of them, reasons being that leader behavior and organizational climate correlated in the Pearson Product matrix and was thought to be significant for individual analysis in the regression process.

Even though the dependent variable, job satisfaction, was loaded in factor I along with job enrichment, and even though job enrichment accounted for 51 percent of the variance in all nine factors, there is still no change in the stated status of hypothesis #1.

Factor II showed a strong relationship between salary, workshops attended, and job position loaded at $-.77056$, $.73683$ and $.85272$ respectively. Job position had the highest loading of $.85272$ in factor II and accounted for 72 percent of the variance in its relationship to the nine (9) factors. The remaining 28 percent of the total variance in the job position scores can be attributed to other factors

specific to job position. These variables maintained their individuality.

Factor III showed a strong correlation between age, credit hours in higher education and years of experience. All three of these variables with loadings of .74685, .68811 and .62563 were grouped and given the name of administrative maturity.

This new formed variable and the components that made it up can be explained as follows: In that we are dealing with administrators in higher education, one can see that the number of credit hours in higher education would contribute to one's qualifications and career growth, thereby giving that person a certain degree of self-confidence, which enhances his/her level of relatedness. As one develops chronologically, so will he/she develop mentally through job and/or career experience.

This is further supported by the situational theory of leadership developed by Kenneth Blanchard and Paul Hersey, wherein the individual moves from job immaturity to job maturity of from inexperience to experience over a given period of time.

Factor IV loaded two significant variables, marital status and parental occupation, with a loaded value of -.62636 and .68742 respectively. One of these variables is negative and the other one is positive. The factor is considered to be a bipolar factor representing a single

dimension of two poles with one variable each. Therefore, the variables in this factor were not grouped.

Factor V loaded enrollment at .73329 and job performance at .62195. This loading suggested that the size of the enrollment plays a significant role in the level of one's performance as a college administrator.

Buxton's study in 1977 can be viewed as being supportive of this factor, should we subscribe to the philosophy that satisfaction causes performance. Buxton stated that a significant relationship did exist between institutional enrollment and job satisfaction; however, he did not attempt to relate it to job performance in that it was not a variable in his study. Job performance was defined in this study as a dependent variable; therefore it was not grouped, and enrollment maintained its individuality.

Credit hours in administration and experience in leadership constituted factor VI. These variables had loadings of .74524 and .72027 respectively. The communalities of these variables were .65617 and .62836, which indicated that 82 percent of the variance in this factor was accounted for by these two variables; therefore, they were grouped and styled as "trained leader".

Factor VII loaded only one variable in the significant range for this study. That variable was perceived leadership styles and had a loading of .87841 and carried a communality value of .90203. This value stated that 80

percent of the variance of this variable is accounted for by factor VII, with the remaining 20 percent being attributed to other factors.

Factor VIII loaded two variables, institutional type and sex with weights of .58951 and $-.83327$. Since there were no like variables in these factors, no grouping occurred.

Factor IX also loaded two variables, the area of the degree obtained and job preparation, with loaded values of .50047 and .78769. These loadings suggested that the area in which one obtains the stated degree should be based upon one's choice relative to career or job preparation. The loading of this factor was grouped and the new variable given the name specialized job preparation.

The literature supported this grouping as revealed by Isabella Jenkins (1980). According to Jenkins, specialized job preparation is needed for individuals advancing from a general career/job preference to a specific career/job preference. And in advancing, special skills and attributes are needed to function effectively.

Grouping of The Variables For Regression Analysis

As previously stated, all variables in a factor could be grouped to form a new variable according to the statistical definition of the factor. This is to say, all of the variables are statistically so closely related that they

are measuring the same thing from different perspectives, or conceptually they measure different things, but statistically they are in the same system.

The requirements of the hypotheses, however, suggest the need to utilize both a conceptual and statistical grouping of the variables. Where the variable was required to be examined conceptually as required by the theoretical framework, the variable was allowed to remain conceptually and statistically ungrouped. Where they were not required to be examined conceptually, they were grouped with other variables of the same factor according to statistical requirement, as revealed in the results of the factor analysis. This procedure was followed by Persaud (1976).

<u>NEW VARIABLES</u>	<u>OLD VARIABLES</u>
Organizational Enrichment	Job Characteristics + Job Content
Administrative Maturity	Age + Years of Experience + Credit Hours in Higher Education
Specialized Job Preparation	Area of Degree + Job
Trained Leader	Credit Hours in Administration + Experience in Leadership

*All other variables remained unchanged.

The variable organizational enrichment is operationally defined as those factors such as autonomy, job depth and range, variety, and leadership, that constitute the process geared toward goal attainment. Organizational enrichment is viewed as being linked to the path-goal theory of leadership, as well as, organizational climate.

Litwin and Stringer (1968), identified organizational rules, regulations, red tape, and constraints as properties of organizational enrichment. Managerial support, managerial structure, concern for people, and overall satisfaction were revealed by Schneider and Bartlett's study of 1968, as being elements of organizational enrichment.

Administrative maturity for the purpose of this study is defined as being the movement from administrative immaturity to administrative maturity pursuant to work experience, education obtained and chronological age.

Another new-formed variable, specialized job preparation, is being defined as those specially acquired skills for operating positions, policies and procedures for coordinating diverse jobs and managerial positions.

The need for specialized job preparation has been supported in the literature by such researchers as Hall (1969) and Jenkins (1980). Hall in his research stated that job or career status is not determined by the presence of an intellectual technique or acquired general training but by specialized training. Jenkins used the term

occupational status, and stated that it is enhanced not just through more education but through specialization as well.

The last newly formed independent variable is being stated as "trained leader" and is defined for the purpose of this study as that administrator possessing a combination of both formal coursework and on-the-job training that has lent itself to the process of planning, organizing, controlling and influencing the administrative activities of the organization.

Research reveals that a combination of formal coursework and on-the-job training is the most proficient means of obtaining managerial skills. Experience has shown that certain aspects of management and leadership are more effectively learned in an educational setting (classroom), while others are better learned on the job. Therefore, it can be assumed that when both are present, they would provide for a more effective and efficiently run organization.

Results of The Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was also used in this study to test the two stated hypotheses. The degree of linear dependence of job satisfaction and job performance on job preparation and job enrichment was also tested.

In table 4.3, R^2 , the coefficient of determination, indicates the proportion of variation in job satisfaction. An R^2 of .54641 indicates that 55% of the variation in job

satisfaction is accounted for by the variables in this study and that 45% of the variance is accounted for by variables not examined in this study.

The beta coefficients as they related to job satisfaction that were perceived to be significant by the researcher are as following:

Organizational Goals	.20135
Organizational Enrichment	.27291
Stated Leadership Behavior	.26128
Administrative Maturity	.22810
Job Position	-.28735

Organizational goals, organizational enrichment and administrative maturity account for the majority of the variance for the job satisfaction variable. The constant for this variable as reported in table 4.4 is 3.36374 and the unstandardized regression coefficient B 's = .26501, -1.511732, .34907 and .22373 for the variables stated leadership behavior, organizational goals, organizational enrichment, administrative maturity. The predicted score on job satisfaction is 3.36374 when variables in question are 0.0, and the predicted score increases by .26501 units on the job satisfaction scale for each unit increase in the stated leadership behavior by -.1.51732 units on the job satisfaction scale for each unit increase in the variable organizational goals, by .34097 units on the job satisfaction scale for each unit increase in the variable

Table 4.3

MULTIPLE R	.73919	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.54641		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.48067	REGRESSION	20	2950.42878	147.52144
STANDARD ERROR	4.21285	RESIDUAL	138	2449.24418	17.74815
		F =	8.31194	SIGNIF F =	.0000

Table 4.4
Multiple Regression of Job Satisfaction With All Independent Variables (N = 20)

VARIABLE	VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION				
	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
Org. Enrichment	.26501	.09195	.27291	2.882	.0046
Job Position	-1.51732	.48050	-.28735	-3.158	.0020
Leadership Beh.	.34097	.10847	.26128	3.143	.0020
Org. Goals	.22373	.08458	.20135	2.645	.0091
Enrollment	.41923	.34404	.07696	1.219	.2251
Job Preparation	.06780	.14581	.04305	.465	.6427
Marital Status	.79008	.90296	.05436	.875	.3831
Sex	-1.60760	1.03508	-.09704	-1.553	.1227
Trained Leader	-.20614	.29044	-.05407	-.710	.4791
Leadership Style	1.41572	1.43651	.06240	.986	.3261
Parents Occup.	.02482	.02775	.05901	.895	.3725
Institutional Type	-.43677	.57483	-.04889	-.760	.4487
Parents Educ.	-.01577	.03526	-.03077	-.447	.6554
Org. Climate	.06255	.10139	.04438	.617	.5383
Personal Goals	.09104	.15885	.04108	.573	.5675
Workshops Attended	-.30472	1.23709	-.01872	-.246	.8058
Admin. Maturity	7.30981 1E-03	.25203	2.2813E-03	.029	.9769
Job Enrichment	.05373	.13214	.03228	.407	.6849
Salary	-.03673	.32544	-9.869E-03	-.113	.9103
Job Preparation	-1.16189E-03	.21723	-4.859E-04	-.005	.9957
(CONSTANT)	3.36374	9.53316		.353	.7247

organizational enrichment and by .22373 units on the scale for each unit increase in the variable administrative maturity.

These data are supported by both the situational theory of leadership in part and by the Herzberg two-factor theory. The variables, stated leadership behavior and administrative maturity, when regressed with job satisfaction indicated that as the worker moves from inexperience to experience so does his/her level of job satisfaction, if other related factors are held constant. The variables organizational goals and organizational enrichment can be viewed as motivators by the Herzberg model, and when present are believed to increase job satisfaction.

Hypothesis #1 stated that job preparation and job enrichment would predict job satisfaction more so than other stated variables. The regression analysis presented in table 4.4 revealed that neither job preparation nor job enrichment was statistically related to job satisfaction at a significant level. Therefore, hypothesis #1 was rejected.

Table 4.5 reveals the multiple R of job performance to be .42962 and that the R^2 , is stated as .18457. This indicates that 18% of the variation in job performance is accounted for by other variables that this researcher did not observe.

The beta coefficients as they relate to job performance that are found to be significant are:

Stated Leadership Behavior	.20877
Administrative Maturity	.21434

It was these stated variables that accounted for the majority of the variance in the dependent variable, job performance.

The constant for job performance is 25.08172 and the unstandardized coefficient $B = .77082$ for stated leadership behavior and -1.94307 for administrative maturity. The predicted score on job performance is 25.08172 when stated leadership behavior and administrative maturity is 0.0, and the predicted score increases by .77062 units on the job performance scale for each unit increase in stated leadership behavior and by -1.94307 units on the job performance scale for each unit increase in the variable administrative maturity.

Statistically, the regression analysis has shown that specialized job preparation is not needed for college and university administrators to have high job performance. Adams (1964), concurred with these results in his discussion relative to whether academic administrators needed to have a specialized background in administration. Adams stated that there should be a number of people in administration with scholarly administrative backgrounds, but such backgrounds are by no means essential for effective performance.

Hypothesis #2 stated that job preparation and job enrichment would predict job performance more so than other

Table 4.5

MULTIPLE R		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE		SUM OF SQUARES		MEAN SQUARE	
R SQUARE	.42962	REGRESSION	DF	7977.48979	20	398.87449	
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.18457	RESIDUAL	138	35244.33411		255.39373	
STANDARD ERROR	.06639						
	15.98104						
		F =	1.56180	SIGNIF F =	.0708		

Table 4.6

Multiple Regression of Job Performance With All Independent Variables (N = 20)

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----						
VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	
Institutional Type	-3.92051	2.18056	-.15512	-1.798	.0744	
Leadership Behavior	.77082	.41147	.20877	1.873	.0631	
Admin. Maturity	-1.94307	.95606	.21434	-2.032	.0440	
Leadership Styles	4.09058	5.44925	.06373	.751	.4541	
Patents Occup.	.11708	.10525	.09838	1.112	.2679	
Job Preparation	-.06796	.82402	-.01005	-.082	.9344	
Marital Status	1.84782	3.42529	.04494	.539	.5904	
Sex	2.10894	3.92648	.04499	.537	.5921	
Enrollment	2.39132	1.30510	.15516	1.832	.0691	
Workshops Attended	1.88087	4.69279	.04084	.401	.6892	
Parents Educ.	.02982	.13375	.02056	.223	.8239	
Org. Climate	-.36661	.38462	-.09195	-.952	.3422	
Personal Goals/Expect.	.60531	.60257	.09654	1.005	.3169	
Salary	.89744	1.23454	.08540	.727	.4685	
Organ. Goals	.18021	.32086	.05732	.562	.5753	
Trained Leader	-.22331	1.10177	-.02070	-.203	.8397	
Job Enrichment	.32025	.50127	.06801	.639	.5240	
Job Position	-1.68743	1.82271	-.11295	-.926	.3562	
Spec. Job Preparation	-.58043	.55312	-.13027	-1.049	.2958	
Organ. Enrichment	-.17379	.34880	-.06326	-.498	.6191	
(CONSTANT)	25.08172	36.16310		.694	.4891	

stated variables. The regression analysis (table 4.6), here again revealed that neither job preparation nor job enrichment was significantly related to job performance. Therefore, hypothesis #2 was also rejected.

Summary

In summarizing this chapter, it can be stated that apparently administrators involved in this study are performing in the various stated positions, and that they are very much satisfied. The findings revealed that there is a high correlation between job enrichment and job satisfaction, but little or no correlation was found to exist between job enrichment and job performance. As a result of these findings, both hypotheses were rejected.

A strong relationship was found to exist between organizational climate and job satisfaction, personal goals and expectations and job satisfaction, as well as job position and job content.

All three statistical analyses employed in this study showed a consistency in the stated results of data.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

Summary

It can be concluded that when studying black college and university administrators, one is studying a unique group of people. They are unique because they have done and accomplished so much with so little. This study had as its purpose to determine the relationship between job preparation and job enrichment and other variables as they related to job satisfaction and job performance of black administrators in higher education. The sample included a total of 160 administrators (46 presidents, 40 vice presidents, 74 deans) from public, private, junior and senior colleges and universities. The data were collected by the following instruments: The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, The Tuskegee Performance Questionnaire, The Job Characteristics Questionnaire, The Leader Behavior Inventory Questionnaire, and The Organizational Climate Questionnaire. (see appendix B).

The data were analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation technique, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis. The data were tested and run on the DC 2060 computer on the campus of the Atlanta University Center, Atlanta, Georgia. The analyzed data were utilized to test the following hypotheses.

- H₁ Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job satisfaction more so than other stated variables.
- H₂ Job preparation and job enrichment will predict job performance more so than other stated variables.

The findings of this study supported the stated hypotheses only in part. Therefore, both hypotheses 1 and 2 were rejected.

The black administrators, according to the findings of their study, were satisfied with their job (table 3.8), and their level of performance was positive (table 3.9). However, the researcher found no evidence that the stated independent variable, job preparation, had an impact toward this end.

Other variables not perceived to be significant at the outset proved to have a significant relationship to both job satisfaction and job performance. These variables were organizational enrichment, organizational goals, stated leadership behavior, administrative maturity, and job position.

This researcher did not attempt to make any distinction between the various aspects of satisfaction and performance of the different administrators.

It was also revealed that the organizational climate in most of the institutions was very supportive, which contributed to the overall performance and satisfaction of the administrator.

In support of previous studies, it was found that the black administrators operated under basically the same constraints as their white counterparts, and that there were no observable differences in their level or degree of job satisfaction and performances. The correlation matrix showed a strong relationship between such variables as job satisfaction, salary job enrichment, organization climate and job positions.

Job enrichment has a correlation of .25424 with job satisfaction. This variable in part supported hypothesis #1. Surprisingly, this variable did not show a correlation with job performance. Job performance was only correlated to institutional enrollment. Neither the factor analysis nor the regression analysis showed a significant relationship between job performance and other stated variables.

Conclusion

Compared with studies discussed in the review of literature, this study seems to indicate that job enrichment and organizational goals were significant factors to job satisfaction and performance, and there was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. These findings were very closely related to the findings of Buxton (1977), Reely (1976) and Giovannini (1974), even though each of the researchers used different variables.

Buxton (1977) noted in his study that college and university presidents were satisfied in varying degrees with their jobs. The current study also found these results to hold true. Reely (1976) noted that job enrichment was definitely a contributor to job satisfaction. And Giovannini's study indicated that job involvement, defined as job enrichment and job enlargement, was highly related to job satisfaction, but was not significantly related to job performance.

Here again, the study under investigation postulated that job enrichment was related to job satisfaction, but not significantly related to job performance. However, the degree of that relationship is not known. The question still remains the same. Does job satisfaction cause high job performance, or does high job performance cause job satisfaction? Based on the findings of this study one can conclude that little change has occurred relative to the general structure of administrative positions in higher education. Most of the positions are still held by males (85%), with the majority being between ages of 40 and 60 years and married. This is not to say that the female has not made progress in the administration of our institutions of higher education, but it does indicate that the deanship is perceived to be the stabilization level for them.

Recommendations

According to Moore (1981), American higher education is entering a period of reallocation, reassessment and possible restructuring. Certainly this can be said for black higher education. The administrators in this study will continue to be crucial to the continued success and survival of the black college and university.

With this in mind the following recommendations are being made.

1. Black colleges and universities should establish administrative internship programs wherein a potential administrator will have the opportunity to study and learn in an administration setting.

These programs could be established much like those operated by the American Council on Education at Washington, D.C. These programs have as their purpose to strengthen leadership in American higher education by enlarging the number and improving the quality of persons available for key positions in academic administration.

2. It is recommended that additional and follow up studies be conducted in an effort to broaden the literature pertaining to the black college and university administrator.

3. The board of trustees should work closer with the university's administration in formulating and implementing goals and objectives in the areas such as organizational enrichment, organizational goals, leadership behavior and administrative maturity, thereby creating an active participative relationship throughout the organization.

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Appendix A
Historically Black Colleges and
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Appendix B

1. The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire
2. The Tuskegee Job Performance Instrument
3. The Organizational Climate Questionnaire
4. The Job Characteristic Questionnaire
5. The Leader Behavior Questionnaire
6. Personal Data Sheet

minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

(short-form)



SAMPLE

Vocational Psychology Research
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Copyright 1977

Ask yourself: How **satisfied** am I with this aspect of my job?

Very Sat. means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat. means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat. means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat. means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about . . .

	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The chance to work alone on the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The chance to do things for other people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The chance to tell people what to do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The way company policies are put into practice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The chances for advancement on this job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. The working conditions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.

SAMPLE

TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE
 JOB PERFORMANCE INSTRUMENT

FOR

EVALUATION OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

This evaluation form is intended to assess your perception of your supervisor's job performance. Your thoughtful and honest opinion will assist the administrator in recognizing his/her strengths and weaknesses.

Instructions: Please rate the administrator according to the following levels of performance.

NOT APPLICABLE OR NOT OBSERVED	POOR	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE	SUPERIOR
0	1	2	3	4	5

Measurements

Score

1. Has established clear and measurable goals for his/her area. _____
2. Has specific plans and strategies for accomplishing goals and objectives effectively. _____
3. Has perceived ability to implement goals and objectives effectively. _____
4. Encourages subordinates input and states clearly his/her expectations relative to duties and performance. _____
5. Holds regular evaluations and discusses the results with subordinates. _____
6. Plans ahead for those activities under his/her cognizance. _____
7. Serves as an effective and active liaison between other administrative units of the college and the community. _____
8. Performs services in the college community _____
9. Plans and organizes work well. _____
10. Performs the duties and responsibilities outlined in his/her job description in a professional manner. _____
11. Relates effectively, and articulates policies and procedures clearly. _____

12. Strives to keep abreast with new developments in higher education, and makes changes and/or modifications in the best interest of the area and/or organization. _____
13. Assign duties so as to maximize capabilities of those involved. _____
14. Actively pursues funds through grants, contracts, etc., for ongoing operation of the organization. _____
15. Demonstrates sensitivity to the problems of faculty, staff, and students. _____
16. Stimulates research and other scholarly activities. _____
17. Formulate and implement unit goals and objectives to coincide with the overall goals and objectives of the organization. _____
18. Maintains high morale by preventing, minimizing, or resolving unit and/or organizational conflicts. _____

Table 17.1 Organizational Climate Questionnaire

Directions: The following are types of behaviors that may occur in organizations. Using the scale below, mark the number that corresponds to the way you perceive your organization behaves in each situation.

1	2	3	4	5
It makes a great effort to do this	It tends to do this	I do not know what it would do	It tends to avoid doing this	It makes a great effort to avoid this

- ___ 1. This organization allows people a great deal of freedom to determine how to do the job.
- ___ 2. The pay here is fair and equitable.
- ___ 3. This organization will "screw you" if you are not careful.
- ___ 4. There are many rules and regulations in this organization.
- ___ 5. This organization really cares about its employees.
- ___ 6. Innovation and initiative are encouraged.
- ___ 7. Promotions in this organization are based on politics.
- ___ 8. There are detailed standards for most tasks in this organization.
- ___ 9. Employees are often asked to participate in important decisions in this organization.
- ___ 10. There is a great deal of criticism in this organization.

Scoring: The first scoring step is to correct several reverse-scored items. For Questions 3, 4, 7, 8 and 10 the score must be converted using the following table.

Your Score	Corrected Score
1	5
2	4
3	3
4	2
5	1

Now add the scores as indicated below:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Autonomy, question 1 + 6 | _____ (range 2 to 10) |
| 2. Structure, question 4 + 8 | _____ (range 2 to 10) |
| 3. Rewards, question 2 + 7 | _____ (range 2 to 10) |
| 4. Caring, question 5 + 10 | _____ (range 2 to 10) |
| 5. Trust, question 3 + 9 | _____ (range 2 to 10) |
| 6. Total Organizational Climate Score | _____ (range 10 to 50) |

A low score (10 to 25) indicates a very supportive organizational climate. A high score (35 to 50) indicates a hostile climate.

The following questions are concerned with the characteristics of your job. Each of the questions should be evaluated according to the following responses:

Very Little	Little	A Moderate Amount	Much	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

Two separate responses are required. In column 1, please mark your response according to how you evaluate the *actual* characteristic of your job. In column 2, please mark your responses according to how you would like, or *desire*, that characteristic to be.

QUESTION	COLUMN 1	COLUMN 2
1. To what extent does your job provide the opportunity to do a number of different duties each day?	_____	_____
2. How much are you left on your own to do your work?	_____	_____
3. To what extent can you tell how well you are doing on your job without being told by others?	_____	_____
4. To what extent do you feel like your job is just a small cog in a big machine?	_____	_____
5. To what extent do you start a job that is finished by another employee?	_____	_____
6. Does your job require a great deal of skill to perform it effectively?	_____	_____
7. How much of your job depends upon your ability to work with others?	_____	_____
8. To what extent does your job limit your opportunity to get to know other employees?	_____	_____
9. How much variety of tasks is there in your job?	_____	_____
10. To what extent are you able to act independently of supervisors in doing your work?	_____	_____
11. Does seeing the results of your work give you a good idea of how well you are performing?	_____	_____
12. How significant is your work to the overall organization?	_____	_____
13. To what extent do you see projects or jobs through to completion?	_____	_____
14. To what extent is your job challenging?	_____	_____
15. To what extent do you work pretty much by yourself?	_____	_____
16. How much opportunity is there in your job to develop professional friendships?	_____	_____
17. To what extent does your job require you to do the same thing over and over again each day?	_____	_____
18. To what extent do you have the freedom to decide how to do your work?	_____	_____
19. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with feedback about how well you are performing?	_____	_____
20. To what extent do you feel like you are contributing something significant to your organization?	_____	_____
21. To what extent do you complete work that has been started by another employee?	_____	_____
22. To what extent is your job so simple that virtually anyone could handle it with little or no training?	_____	_____
23. To what extent is dealing with other people a part of your job?	_____	_____
24. To what extent can you talk informally with other employees while at work?	_____	_____

Notation: Only column 1 of this questionnaire was used for this study.

The following questions concern various leader behaviors. Each of the questions should be evaluated according to the following responses:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Two separate responses are required. In column 1, please mark your responses according to how you evaluate the *actual* behavior of the supervisor. In column 2, please mark your responses according to how you would *desire* the supervisor to behave.

QUESTION	COLUMN 1 (ACTUAL)	COLUMN 2 (DESIRED)
1. Your supervisor decides <i>what</i> work will be done and <i>how</i> it will be done.	_____	_____
2. Your supervisor would personally pay you a compliment if you did outstanding work.	_____	_____
3. Your supervisor is friendly and approachable.	_____	_____
4. Your supervisor would give you a reprimand if your work were below average.	_____	_____
5. Your supervisor maintains high standards of performance for his/her employees.	_____	_____
6. Your supervisor would praise you for your work performance if it were especially good.	_____	_____
7. Your supervisor looks out for the personal welfare of his/her employees.	_____	_____
8. Your supervisor would recommend that you receive little or no pay increase if your work were consistently below average.	_____	_____
9. Your supervisor treats his/her employees without considering their feelings.	_____	_____
10. Your supervisor would recommend a significant pay increase if your work performance were consistently above average.	_____	_____
11. Your supervisor lets his/her employees know what is expected of them.	_____	_____
12. Your supervisor would reprimand you if your work were not as good as the work of others in your department.	_____	_____

Notation: Only column 1 of this questionnaire was used for this study.

QUESTIONNAIRE

The following information will be used in a research study in analyzing the determinants and their effect on perceived job satisfaction and job performance of black administrators in higher education, and only for that purpose.

Please answer all of the questions truthfully and to the best of your abilities.

000162 *9/2*

A. The Institution

1. Type of Institution	2. Enrollment	1983-84	1982-83	1981-82
a. Public ()	a. Below 500 ()	()	()	()
b. Private ()	b. 500 - 1000 ()	()	()	()
c. Undergraduate ()	c. 1001 - 1500 ()	()	()	()
d. Graduate ()	d. 1501 - 2000 ()	()	()	()
e. Church Related ()	e. 2001 - 2500 ()	()	()	()
f. Non-Church Related ()	f. 2501 - 3000 ()	()	()	()
g. Increase in Funded Research \$ _____	g. 3001 - 3500 ()	()	()	()
h. Operating Budget - 1983-84 \$ _____	h. 3501 - 4000 ()	()	()	()
	i. 4001 - 4500 ()	()	()	()
1982-83 \$ _____	j. 4501 - 5000 ()	()	()	()
1981-82 \$ _____	k. 5001 - Above ()	()	()	()

B. The Individual

3. Age

- a. Under 30 ()
- b. 31 - 40 ()
- c. 41 - 50 ()
- d. 51 - 60 ()
- e. 61 - Over ()

5. Married Status

- a. Married ()
- b. Single ()

6. Salary

- a. Below 25,000
- b. 26,000 - 30,000
- c. 31,000 - 40,000
- d. 41,000 - 50,000
- e. 51,000 - 60,000
- f. 61,000 - 70,000
- g. 71,000 - Above

Which describes the
of your parents?
MOTHER FATHER

- a. () ()
- b. () ()
- c. () ()
- d. () ()
- e. () ()

Which describes the
marital status of your
MOTHER FATHER

- a. () ()
- b. () ()
- c. () ()
- d. () ()

D. Education

9. Degrees Earned

- a. Bachelor's ()
 b. Master's ()
 c. Specialist ()
 d. Doctorate ()
 e. Other _____ ()

10. Fields in which degrees were earned

- a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____
 d. _____
 e. _____

11. Years of services in higher education; None (), 1 - 5 (), 6 - 10 (), 11 - 15 (), 16 - 20 (), Over 20 ().
12. Number of credit hours earned in administrative management courses: None (), 3 - 9 (), 10 - 15 (), 16 - 21 (), over 21 ().
13. Number of credit hours earned in higher education (academic affairs, admin. of higher education, etc.); None (), 3 - 9 (), 10 - 15 (), 16 - 21 (), over 21 ().
14. Number of administrative management work shops relative to credit hours you have attended; None (), 1 - 2 (), 3 - 5 (), over 6 ().
- 15₁ Which of the following best describe your leadership style?
- a. Participative ()
 b. Adjusted ()
 c. Autocratic ()
 d. Laissez Faire ()
- 15₂ How many years have you worked in this position and/or with this institution? None (), 1 - 5 (), 6 - 10 (), 11 and over ().

Appendix C
Letters of Transmittal



223 Chestnut Street, S.W./Atlanta, Georgia 30314-4391/(404) 681-0251

August 1, 1984

Dear

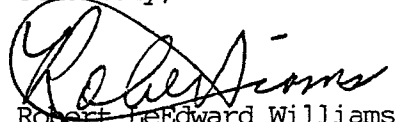
The general public is being made increasingly aware of the vital role that the historically black colleges and universities are playing in our society. As an active administrator, the success and continuation of these institutions depend in part on your attitude and behavior relative to their goals and objectives.

Your help, therefore, is very important in my attempt to determine the relationship between the job preparation and the perceived job satisfaction and performance of the black administrator in higher education.

May I please count on your expertise in supplying vital information for my doctoral dissertation which I am engaged in this summer under the guidance of Dr. Ganga Persuad.

A questionnaire has been enclosed for your convenience in relaying the requested information. Please complete it and return it in the self-addressed stamped envelope within the next two weeks. You can be assured that all information will be treated in a professional and confidential manner.

Sincerely,


Robert LeEdward Williams
Doctoral Candidate



223 Chestnut Street, S.W./Atlanta, Georgia 30314-4391/(404) 681-0251

September 1, 1984

Dear

On August 1, 1984, a questionnaire was mailed to you requesting information that related to the satisfaction and performance of black administrators in higher education.

However, as of todote, no response has been received. In order that your response be included in the study, please complete the questionnaire and return it to my attention at the above address by September 15, 1984.

Again, thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Robert L. Williams". The signature is written in black ink and is positioned below the word "Sincerely,".

Robert L. Williams

Enclosure: Additional Questionnaire



223 Chestnut Street, S.W./Atlanta, Georgia 30314-4391/(404) 681-0251

December 2, 1984

Dear

Your cooperation in helping me gather information for my doctoral dissertation here at the Atlanta University was very much appreciated.

Thank you to taking time out of your busy schedule to help me.

May God's blessings be forever with you.

Sincerely yours,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Robert L. Williams". The signature is written in dark ink and is positioned directly below the typed name.

Robert L. Williams

Resume
of
ROBERT LeEDWARD WILLIAMS

805 Rodney Drive, S.W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30311
(404) 758-3416 (Home)
(205) 727-8712 (Work)

JOB OBJECTIVE

Administrative Management, Capital Planning and Control, or
College Teaching

EMPLOYMENT RECORD

Tuskegee Institute
Tuskegee Institute, Alabama
Assistant Professor of Business

Atlanta University
Atlanta, Georgia
Chief Accountant/Comptroller

Jarvis Christian College
Hawkins, Texas
Assistant Professor of Business

Piney Woods School
Piney Woods, Mississippi
Purchasing Manager and Instructor of Business

Saints College
Lexington, Mississippi
Business Manager and Instructor of Accounting

EDUCATION

GRADUATE

Atlanta University
Atlanta, Georgia
Ed.D. Degree - Organizational
Management & Policy Analysis
May 20, 1985

Atlanta University
Atlanta, Georgia
M.B.A. Degree - Finance
May 18, 1981

Jackson State University
Jackson, Mississippi
Administration - 6 hours
Business Education - 15 hours

UNDERGRADUATE

Jackson State University
Jackson, Mississippi
BA Degree - Business Administration & Accounting
May 14, 1970

Utica Junior College
Utica, Mississippi
AA Degree - Business Education
May 26, 1968

AFFILIATIONS

A ØA Fraternity, National Business League, The National Association of Black Accountants, The American Accounting Association, The Masonic Grand Lodge, National Association of Business Teachers, The Association of MBA Executives, The National Association of Black MBA'S Inc., The Association of Financial Analysts, The Academy of Management and The National Association of College Business Officers.