THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TEACHER ABSENTEEISM, PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP STYLES, AND TEACHERS' FRUSTRATION LEVELS

by

JOHN DAVID BARGE

(Under the Direction of C. Thomas Holmes)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent of the relationships among teacher absenteeism, principals' leadership styles, and the frustration levels experienced by teachers on the job. The significance of the study lay in its providing insight to building-level and system-level administrators concerning the reasons teachers are absent.

Jacoby and Terborg's *Managerial Philosophies Scale* (MPS) was administered to 32 principals in a suburban Georgia school system. The MPS measured the degree to which administrators subscribed to McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y beliefs about man. Additionally, Spector's *Organizational Frustration Scale* (OFS) was administered to 1,160 teachers in the same school system. The OFS measured the level of frustration experienced by teachers in their schools.

Once data were obtained from principals and teachers, computerized attendance data from the school system's central office were acquired. Absence rates were calculated for each school and the system mean was correlated to mean scores of teachers'

frustration levels and principals' leadership styles. The Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was used to determine if a relationship existed among teacher absenteeism, principal leadership styles and teacher frustration levels.

The results of this study suggested that no statistically significant, positive relationship existed between principal leadership style and teacher absenteeism. Additionally, the study found no significant, positive relationship between teacher frustration level and teacher absenteeism. However, the study did find that a statistically significant relationship existed between principal leadership style and teacher frustration level.

INDEX WORDS: Teacher Absenteeism, Principal Leadership Style, Teacher Frustration, Teacher Stress, Teacher Job Satisfaction, Teacher Attendance

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by

JOHN DAVID BARGE

B.A., Berry College, 1988

M.Ed., West Georgia College, 1994

Ed.S., State University of West Georgia, 1997

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2004

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JOHN DAVID BARGE

Major Professor: C. Thomas Holmes

Committee: William Swan
Sally Zepeda

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2004

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my family:

To my wife and best friend, Loraine, for her undying love and support; for her enduring the long nights alone while I attended classes; and, for her constant prayers that keep me safe; sweetheart, thank you for making this journey with me.

To the most beautiful girl in the world, my daughter, Emma, for her silly sense of humor that can brighten the darkest day, and for always knowing when to have Daddy read, *Love You Forever.* Pumpkin, I will love you forever.

To my brothers Phillip, Doug, Alan, and Curtis Barge, thank you for always believing in me and pushing me to achieve. I know all of you, at some point in your lives, sacrificed something so that I might have every opportunity to be successful.

To my mother, Norma Rowland Barge Watts, from whom I learned everything that I need to be successful: hard work, dedication, sacrifice, love, commitment, self-respect, endurance, a strong work-ethic, grit, determination, and belief in myself. Mom, you are truly, the greatest teacher I ever had.

To my father, Leland J. “Jerry” Barge, posthumously, thank you. I wish we had had more time together before your passing; and, to my stepfather, Homer “Billy” Watts, thank you for taking such good care of my mother and our family.

To my Great Aunt, Mrs. Emma Kate “Bargie” Outlaw, whose support both financially and emotionally, kept me in college after my father’s death. Kate, with out your help, I would never have made it here.

And, most importantly, I dedicate this work to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. Apart from Him, I am nothing. I could never have made this journey, nor attained what I have, had the Lord not changed my life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer would like to thank the school system, principals, and teachers who participated in this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

I would also like to express appreciation to Dr. C. Thomas Holmes for “picking up” in the middle of this project as my major professor and propelling me forward through this process. To the other members of my committee, Dr. Kenneth Tanner and Dr. Bill Swan, for stepping up and serving when everything fell apart and to Dr. Sally Zepeda, for your encouragement and your ability to cut through the “fluff,” thank you. A deep expression of gratitude to Linda Edwards in the office of Educational Leadership and Lifelong Learning for all of her patience in working with our cohort from the State University of West Georgia. Thank you, Linda, for all the course registrations, billings, defense schedulings, etc. To other professors from the State University of West Georgia who supported me, Dr. Nancy Mims and Dr. Cher Hendricks, thank you.

Sincere appreciation goes out to Jim Wilson for all of his help in entering data and checking over the format of this document; to Jenny Cain for her assistance in organizing and distributing surveys; and to Dr. Peggy Leland and Rebecca Schacht for their advice and constructive criticism on the presentation of content.

I would also like to acknowledge some very special mentors who have encouraged me in my career and from whom I learned many great things: Principals, Dr. Jimmy Stokes, Jody Puckett, and Dr. Mike Buck; and Superintendents, Dr. Larry Atwell, Dr. Gayland Cooper, and Dr. Dennis Fordham.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For decades, business and industry have struggled with the problem of employee absenteeism – a fact that is supported by the vast body of literature that addresses the issue. From 1977 to 1996, an average of 25.6 academic journal articles appeared each year that dealt with the issue of employee absenteeism. All told, over 500 behavioral science papers, books, and chapters that include absenteeism as a major variable have been published during the period (Harrison & Martocchio, 1998). Mitra, Jenkins, and Gupta (1992) reported that absenteeism and turnover were the two most frequent outcomes studied in organizational research. An estimated cost of employee absenteeism in business and industry is placed between $20-$25 billion dollars a year (Long & Ormsby, 1987).

The body of literature that looks specifically at absenteeism among educational personnel is not nearly as extensive. Jacobson (1993) stated "while the issue of absenteeism has received considerable attention in industry, there have been very few conceptual or theoretical studies pertaining to teachers" (p.78). Studies which have been completed have tended to be prescriptive, looking for ways to improve teacher absenteeism, or describing the correlates of demographic factors and teacher absenteeism (Bridges, & Hallinan, 1978; Ferris, Bergin, & Wayne, 1988; Scott, & McClellan, 1990).

However, the problem of teacher absenteeism is of growing concern. Grant (2001) called excessive absenteeism among school personnel "one of the most neglected problems in public education" (p. 44). In 1988, Warren reported that most school districts were reporting

teacher absenteeism rates of 8%-10%. In fact, it has been shown that teacher absenteeism has dramatically increased during the past few decades and that teachers as a group exhibit a higher rate of absenteeism than employees in most other professions (Pitkoff, 1993).

One of the most difficult aspects in studying absenteeism among school personnel is that what school systems define as an absence varies from system to system, and often from school to school. The lack of a consistent definition of absence from work is not surprising since researchers do not share a common definition (Ramming, 1998). Many researchers (Gibson, 1966; Jacobson, 1989; Ramming, 1994) suggested that absenteeism be defined as any absence from work over which the employee exercises some control or discretion. This definition does not consider, however, absences that might be caused by attendance at required staff development, conferences, or meetings. Consequently, Ramming (1998) suggested absenteeism be defined as "any incident of absence for personal reasons that measures two days or less in duration; such reasons generally include personal illness, family illness, and personal business" (p. 15).

Regardless of the reason why teachers are absent, they are, and it is a costly problem. School administrators have long been concerned with reducing teacher absenteeism, but often without the benefit of really understanding the condition they are trying to remedy (Jacobson, 1993). According to Ehrenberg, Ehrenberg, Rees, and Ehrenberg, (1989), two of the most costly reasons why research in the field of teacher absenteeism should continue were:

1. Financial cost of teacher absenteeism
2. Teacher absenteeism has a negative affect on student learning

When teachers are absent, substitute teachers must fill in the gap in the classroom. Norton (1994) reported substitute teachers as the third highest-ranked "serious" problem, and teacher

absenteeism as the number one ranked “general” problem facing personnel directors. Finding qualified substitute teachers is an increasingly difficult task for many administrators. Not only is student learning jeopardized by the lack of a qualified teacher in the classroom, but the monetary cost to the school systems was estimated to be in the millions of dollars each year (Ramming, 1998).

Research on the workplace of teachers continues to demonstrate that in some schools effective leadership produces higher learning than in other schools (Evans & Johnson, 1990). Although there is no clear-cut evidence which indicates that teacher job satisfaction and effectiveness of performance are related, it seems logical that a direct relationship exists. The evidence indicates that, where teachers have freedom to plan their work and opportunities to participate in decisions regarding curriculum and teacher welfare, morale is high (Patrick, 1995). The attitude the principal shows toward the teacher is a significant factor affecting teacher satisfaction. In a 1995 Chicago study, Patrick found a statistically significant correlation between administrative style and school climate. In a study of 758 teachers from Illinois, Arizona, and Florida, Anderman, Belzer, and Smith (1991) found that teacher satisfaction with their job and commitment to the school were positively and strongly associated with a perceived emphasis on recognition, accomplishment, affiliation in the school, and a feeling of cohesiveness regarding the mission of the school.

If the leadership of the building principal has a significant effect on teacher satisfaction, then, at least in an indirect way, principal leadership style might also effect teacher absenteeism. Few research studies have investigated what impact principal leadership style has on teacher attendance (Roquemore, 1987). A Dutch study of teacher absence in primary schools found that collegial relations and leadership style are more friendly and informal in

high absenteeism schools. In low absenteeism schools, the principal had a more directive leadership style (Imants & VanZoelen, 1995). However, an earlier study in a Metro Atlanta school system found no statistical significant relationship between principal leadership style and teacher absenteeism (Roquemore, 1987). McGregor (1967) reported that leadership behavior is related to attendance and productivity.

McGregor (1967) believed that leader behavior was determined by a set of beliefs that managers hold about workers. Theory X managers believe that employees are motivated by external rewards like money and promotion, and the fear of punishment. Therefore, leaders subscribing to Theory X beliefs are more suited to an autocratic leadership style where decisions are made for them and they are controlled. On the other hand, Theory Y managers believe people are motivated not only by extrinsic rewards, but also by intrinsic rewards like freedom to make decisions and freedom to use their imaginations in problem solving. Theory Y beliefs are more suited for the democratic leadership style where employees are encouraged to make their own decisions and to find their own place within the organization.

Although little research has been conducted on the effect of leader behavior on employee attendance, McGregor (2001) noted that authoritarian leader behaviors are counterproductive to an organization and that employees may engage in behaviors to purposefully thwart the attainment of the goals and objectives of the organization. Logically, one behavior employees may engage in is lying out of work. Druss, Schlesinger, and Allen reported that employees are withdrawing from jobs in which they do not see themselves as successful by not coming to work (2001).

The National Center for Educational Statistics (1998) reported that across the nation, one of every five full-time teachers leaves the profession to pursue a career outside the

education field. Kyraicou (1987) attributed a great deal of teachers' dissatisfaction with their careers to stress, and listed frustration as one of the major causes of stress. Argyris (1964) explained absenteeism as the employees' attempt to avoid or express frustration. Flynn and Stratton (1981) stated that frustration causes absenteeism.

Stress can lead to problems in the workplace such as poor morale, job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, lowered productivity, and high medical costs (Kedjidjian, 1995). Much of the available research on teacher workload and stress states that teacher workloads are excessive, and that the negative effects of stress are having considerable impact on teachers. These effects include declining job satisfaction, reduced ability to meet students' needs, significance incidences of psychological disorders leading to increased absence from work, and a high proportion of claims for disability caused by stress (Naylor, 2001). Data from a major British insurance company reveal that teachers were the most depressed category of workers, with 44% of their disability insurance claims caused by mental problems, compared to 25% from other groups of workers. A number of British teacher suicides have also been directly related to anxiety over workloads (Bunting, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

Teacher absenteeism is a "disease approaching epidemic proportions" (Lewis, 1981, p.29). Norton (1994) found that 71% of personnel directors surveyed reported teacher absenteeism as one of the leading problems facing them. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that from 1967 to 1974 the rate of increase in absenteeism for education profession was double the rate for all U.S. industry (Hedges, 1975). As recent as 1995 it was reported that teacher absenteeism was on the rise (Wyld, 1995).

Following such reports, large school systems across the nation conducted their own evaluations of absenteeism with in their systems. Studies were conducted in Las Vegas, New York, California, Illinois, and Indiana. Each study found dramatic increases in teacher absenteeism (Manlove & Elliott, 1979). A study conducted by the Pennsylvania School Boards Association reported that the annual mean teacher absence rate was 4.7% (Elliott, 1982). An earlier study completed for the Illinois State Board of Education showed that there had been an increase of 16% in the teacher absenteeism rate from 1976 – 1977 (Academy for Educational Development Public Policy Division, 1977).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships among teacher absenteeism, principals' leadership styles, and the frustration levels experienced by teachers on the job, and the extent to which these are related. Individual schools' teacher attendance rates is one variable; principals' scores on the Managerial Philosophies Scale (MPS) is a second correlative variable; and teachers' collective scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale (OFS) is a third correlative variable.

Hypotheses

Five research hypotheses were investigated in this research study:

1A) There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

1B) There is a statistically significant negative relationship between teacher absenteeism and the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

2) There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the teachers' frustration levels as evidenced by their scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale.

3A) There is a statistically siginificant positive relationship between the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels as evidenced by their scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale.

3B) There is a statistically siginificant negative relationship between the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels as evidenced by their scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale.

Significance of the Problem

Considering current economic conditions in our country and state, the state of Georgia's mandate to improve its educational image, and the difficulty principals have in hiring extremely well-qualified teachers, it is vitally important that researchers be able to identify causes of teacher absenteeism to develop solutions to the problem. Although there is no current national data available, Lewis (1981) reported the cost of hiring substitute teachers and paying the absent teachers' salaries nation wide at $2 billion annually. Additionally, 75 million hours of contact time with students was lost which has a significant impact on student achievement. Research shows that the substitutes who are asked to fill-in are significantly less-effective than regular classroom teachers, thereby lowering student achievement. In fact, a study conducted by the Metropolitan School Study Council of Columbia University concluded that substitute teachers were educationally ineffective (Olson, 1971).

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided to assist the reader in understanding the various terms used in this study.

1. Teacher Attendance Rate. The average number of days teachers as a whole are absent from school.
2. Managerial Philosophies Scale (MPS). Developed by Jacoby and Terborg (1975a), this instrument identifies managerial philosophies of managers within an organization within the context of McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y assumptions of the nature of man.
3. Frustration. "The interference with goal attainment, goal-oriented activity, or goal maintenance" (Spector, 1978, p.816).
4. Organizational Frustration Scale (OFS). An instrument designed by Spector (1978) to measure the level of frustration that exists among employees.

Chapter Summary

Teacher absenteeism is a growing problem across the U.S. The effects that absenteeism has on education are clearly defined in research. Teacher absenteeism cost school systems across the country billions of dollars each year. The greater loss comes in the form of instructional time. Students across the country spend millions of hours each year with substitute teachers, many who are unqualified to teach and are nothing more than baby sitters.

Research regarding the influence of principal leadership style on teacher attendance is limited. Findings that have been reported are mixed at best. Research reveals that leadership behavior can influence teacher morale, climate, and even lead to increased frustration levels in

teachers. Increased frustration levels can lead to greater amounts stress and even teacher burn out which may even cause teachers to leave the profession.

Absenteeism among teachers is a growing concern to many. The rising costs of teacher absenteeism, including financial costs and loss of instructional time, compels researchers to search for correlations between teacher absenteeism and other variables so school principals and district level personnel can implement the necessary changes to improve the growing dilemma. Researchers have attempted to identify demographic factors that may cause absenteeism with little success. By examining additional variables such as principal leadership style and teacher frustration levels, researchers may help to identify a cause that leads to a solution.

Organization of Study

This study is comprised of five chapters. Chapter One included an introduction to the issues, a statement of the problem, researched hypotheses, a report of the significance of the problem, definition of unfamiliar terms, a summary, and a brief description of the organization of the study. Chapter Two reviews research literature concerning the topic. Chapter Three includes research questions, design, and null hypotheses, limitations of the study, descriptions of subjects and instrumentation, teacher absence data, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter Four consists of an analysis of the data collected, and Chapter Five consists of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF SELECTED, RELATED LITERATURE

Absenteeism in the workplace is not a new problem. Throughout history, organizations have had to deal with the short-term replacement of absent employees. Industrial managers have been much more sensitive to the impact of employee absenteeism, both in terms of dollars and productivity, than have educators. In fact, in 1978 the direct cost in lost-but-paid-for labor hit over $25 billion (Capitan, Costanza, & Klucher, 1980). In 2001, Lippman reported that unscheduled absences in business and industry cost employers approximately $610 per employee per year in lost productivity costs, which could total into the millions for major corporations. Mitchell (2001) added that expenditures associated with employee absences account for approximately 20% of an employer's payroll costs.

"While employee absenteeism in the industrial sector has received considerable attention, there is surprisingly little research on the causes and effects of absenteeism in education" (Jacobson, 1990, p. 78). Though generally aware of the business and industrial statistics, school managers have benignly thought educators were immune to absenteeism to such an extent. It was believed that professionalism insulated school employees from trends in the rest of the workforce (Capitan et al., 1980). Yet, differences in definitions of what constitutes absences from work and categories used to report information about the national workforce make it impossible to readily compare rates of teacher absenteeism with those in other job sectors (Elliott, 1982). However, even when considering these discrepancies, the national data on teacher absences give rise for concern.

Consider the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics which reported that from 1967-1974 the increasing rate of teacher absenteeism was double the rate for the total U.S. industry (Hedges, 1975). Across the nation, school districts are reporting substantial increases in teacher absenteeism (5% in each of the past 16 years). Some observers call the phenomenon a 'disease of epidemic proportions.' National figures substantiate their claim: "Each day nearly 200,000 teachers call in sick, resulting in an annual loss of 75 million hours of contact time with students and costing school boards collectively about $2 billion each year" (Lewis, 1981, p. 29).

As a group, teachers exhibit a higher absenteeism rate than employees in most other professions (Pitkoff, 1993). A survey of 135 Pennsylvania school systems found the average teacher was absent 8.2 days, a 46% increase over earlier data. The Pennsylvania report also revealed that educational absence rates were significantly higher than all major industry classifications and almost double that of the professional and technical absence rate for private industries (Elliott, 1982). From 1978–1979, the teacher absence rates in the Antioch, Illinois Community Consolidated School district averaged nearly 10 days per teacher. In fact, the teacher rate of absence was higher than the student rate of absence of nine days (Skidmore, 1984).

High teacher absenteeism is expensive. Not only does it drive up the costs associated with paying substitute teachers, but more importantly, it reduces the amount of instruction time students spend with their regular teacher. "Breaking the rhythm of regular instruction lowers achievement. It can increase the students' need for remedial education which, in turn, bumps up another budgetary category" (Skidmore, 1984, p. 40). In 1980, Bridges reported the cost of replacing absent teachers totaled half a billion dollars. Lewis (1981) added that when the cost

for paying substitutes was combined with the cost of paying the absent teachers' salaries, the cost of teacher absenteeism rose to approximately $2 billion annually. During the 1979 calendar year, a suburban Cleveland, Ohio school district of 12,000 students spent $50,000 for substitute teachers. This was the equivalent to all the funds used to purchase educational equipment for that year (Capitan et al., 1980). A few years earlier in 1972, New York City, paying substitute teacher salaries accounted for 9% of all certified teacher salaries (Elliott, 1979). Fifteen years later, in the 1986-1987 school year, teacher absences in one New York system cost that system over $450,000 for substitute teacher services (Jacobson, 1990).

While the financial cost of teacher absenteeism is staggering, there are other costs to consider as well, most importantly, reduced student achievement. Teacher absenteeism is a problem that infiltrates the life of the entire school. It not only creates frustrations for the principal, but also it affects student learning (Elliott, 1982). Research indicates that higher teacher absenteeism is related to lower student outcomes (Madden, Flanigan, & Richardson, 1991; Pitkoff, 1993; Woods & Montagno, 1997). Lewis (1981) added, "There is a critical point at which the rate of teacher absenteeism begins to inhibit student learning" (p. 29). Conversely, Woods and Montagno (1997) discovered that students with teachers who had fewer absences exhibited significantly larger improvements in grade equivalency. Additionally, Bamber (1979) suggests that a study of student and teacher attendance indicates that when student absences increase dramatically, so do teacher absences in that school. Still, there are other costs to be considered. The increased amount of details that administrators must handle when it comes to arranging for substitutes, evaluating substitutes, and addressing the increased discipline problems that inevitably come from the classrooms of substitute teachers all add to the managerial costs by taking time away from administrators (Elliot, 1982). When members of

committees, councils, or study groups are absent, the groups are unable to work toward the completion of goals and that increases organizational costs (Elliot, 1982). Student activities sponsored by teachers do not occur when teachers are absent thereby increasing program costs (Elliot, 1982).

A 1995 study by the Pacific Resource for Educational Learning indicated that students felt vulnerable to teacher absenteeism (Hammond & Onikama, 1997). When teachers are absent, students are left in the hands of substitute teachers. Interruptions in the continuity of the students' regular instruction contribute to lower achievement scores and increased remedial costs of education (Skidmore, 1984). "Literature and experience indicate that substitute teachers generally provide inferior service" (Pitkoff, 1993, p. 39). In one study of urban schools, it was discovered that the rate of teacher absenteeism made no discernible difference in student achievement in those schools classified as high achieving or low achieving. However, in those schools classified as average achieving, teacher absenteeism did make a significant difference in student achievement (Lewis, 1981).

In a recent survey conducted by the Substitute Teaching Institute at Utah State University, it was found that 64.8% of school districts do not require substitutes to attend orientation or skills training, and 91.8% of school districts provide no ongoing training for current substitute teachers (Hawkins, 2000). Thus, while permanent teachers are away, their students are experiencing a lack of instructional continuity due to exposure to untrained substitutes.

Over the course of their K-12 education, American students spend as much as 5%-10% of their class time with substitute teachers (Billman, 1994). Wyld (1995) estimated that on any given school day, up to 10% of the nation's classrooms have substitutes. A study of

New York City schools by Elliot and Manlove (1977) confirmed what every student knows: substitute teachers are significantly less effective than regular teachers. A study conducted by the Metropolitan School Study Council of Columbia University concluded that substitute teachers were educationally ineffective (Olson, 1971). This study also found that regular teachers were 20 times more effective than substitutes in secondary classrooms.

Absenteeism

"Absentee proneness" is defined as the notion that a small percentage of employees are responsible for a great percentage of absenteeism (Garrrison & Muchinsky, 1977). Yolles, Carone, and Krinsky (1974) claimed that 10% of the work force is responsible for 90% of absenteeism. Garrison and Muchinsky (1977) found that absenteeism measured over a short period of time (e.g., quarter, month, week) would support the notions of Yolles et al. However, when the duration of absence measurement is lengthened, a larger percentage of employees is responsible for the majority of the absenteeism, suggesting that the core of absentee-prone workers shifts over time. Regardless of who is responsible for employee absenteeism, it is a dilemma of growing concern.

"The paucity of research on the causes of absenteeism is undoubtedly due to the fact that data on teacher absenteeism are not regularly reported by school districts to state education departments" (Ehrenberg et al., 1989, p. 73). Another major obstacle in studying teacher absenteeism is that researchers and school systems alike have a difficult time agreeing on the best way to measure absenteeism. As early as 1963, Gaudet cited at least 41 different measures had been used in the past to define absenteeism. Garrison and Muchinsky (1977) believed that "a major issue underlying most absence measures is whether pay is associated with the

absenteeism. Many companies differentiate types of absenteeism on the basis on whether or not the employee will be paid during the absence" (p. 390).

Employee absences for a short-period of time are classified as an incidental absence. Absences beyond this period of time are classified as disability. Incidental absenteeism may be broken down into paid and unpaid absences (Garrison & Muchinsky, 1977). Likely, absenteeism is defined differently across school districts or even among schools in the same district, which is not surprising since researchers do not even share a common definition of absenteeism. Many researchers suggest absenteeism involves those absences over which employees may exercise some control or discretion (Gibson, 1966; Jacobson, 1989; & Ramming, 1994).

Regardless of the differing definitions of absenteeism, Lewis (1981) noted the following symptoms of school systems experiencing problems with absenteeism:

1. There is general lack of direction from the school board and the superintendent. Absenteeism issues are generally overlooked as they turn to more pressing issues.
2. School board policy fails to address teacher absenteeism issues. An examination of several hundred board policies yielded none that contained measures to improve absenteeism.
3. Systems fail to analyze attendance performance of school employees.
4. School environment is determined by administrators' leadership styles. Where absenteeism is high, leadership is lacking and morale drops which leads to widespread job-dissatisfaction.
5. Systems fail to keep teacher records.

Models of Absenteeism

Although research has been conducted on employee absenteeism for the past 50 years, theories of the phenomenon have been offered from an array of disciplines. Absenteeism is explained by psychologists as pain avoidance (Steers & Rhodes, 1978), by sociologists as an organizational socialization and prevailing absence culture (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, & Brown, 1982), and by economists as a way for workers to make trade-offs between labor and leisure (Allen, 1981).

> Absenteeism from the organizational approach views absenteeism as a function of job designs, work unit size, level of interdependence among employees, and practices and norms that arise in the workplace; for example, highly interdependent jobs are thought to foster higher attendance rates since any one worker's absence increases the workload for co-workers (Jacobson, 1990, p. 81).

In the individual model of absenteeism, chronic absenteeism is seen as the ultimate manifestation of deep-seated employee dissatisfaction. "Absenteeism is an employee decision process in which alternative attendance behaviors are considered in light of existing constraints" (Jacobson, 1990, p. 81). Finally, based on previous research in absenteeism, Farrell and Stamm (1988) concluded that individualistic theories of absenteeism, especially those emphasizing age, sex, and job satisfaction, do not seem promising.

Steers and Rhodes (1978) developed a model of absenteeism that combines the individual and organizational approaches. The combined model draws on factors from both the individual and organizational areas. The Steers and Rhodes model includes individual characteristics such as education, tenure, age, sex, race, marital status and family size. From the organizational approach, it includes characteristics such as scope of the job, amount of stress, leadership style, co-worker relations, and opportunity for advancement. In addition to the individual and organizational characteristics, Steers and Rhodes consider pressures to attend,

such as economic and market conditions, attendance policies and personal work ethic; and the ability to attend, which is determined by illnesses, accidents, family responsibilities, and transportation problems. Steers and Rhodes (1990) later revised this model and added the major components of attendance motivation and perceived ability to attend.

Unfortunately, the problems with research on absenteeism in industry also plague research on absenteeism in education. Most research has centered on causes and relationships among variables without an attempt to develop a theory or model of absenteeism that might explain the findings of these studies (Scott & Wimbush, 1991). Many researchers have attempted to identify factors related to absenteeism so that appropriate solutions for this problem can be developed. Much of the research, however, has been conducted in private sector organizations, even though absenteeism is often more costly in the public sector (Winkler, 1980).

Personal and Demographic Factors

A review of research on employee absenteeism in business, industry, and education reveals “inconsistent findings in determining the relationship between absenteeism and the following variables: age, marital status, educational level, years of employment, job satisfaction, geographic location, tenure, and salary” (Pitkoff, 1993, pp. 39-40). However, researchers do find consistency in the relationship between absenteeism and gender.

Gender

Consistent findings have been made in business, industry, and education between employee absenteeism and gender – females absent more than males, but for fewer days. Business and government literature indicate a posiitve correlation between gender and absenteeism (Pitkoff, 1993). In 1973 and 1975, Hedges reported that the absence rate for

females in business was approximately twice that of males. Golden and Barton (1980) studied absence trends in men and women with children over an 11 month period and found a statistically significant difference. The women in the study averaged 40.58 hours of sick leave while the men averaged 34.4 hours.

In a study of 502 teachers from a county school system in a mid-Atlantic region, Scott and Wimbush (1991) found women to be absent more frequently than men, and women were absent more days than men. Elliot (1982) found that females and minorities appear to have higher absence rates, but when other variables are factored out, the differences are less clear.

Another study conducted in a school district in Iowa looked at ten demographic variables and how they related to teacher absenteeism. Of the 10, gender was the only statistically significant correlate found with females being absent more than males (Redmond, 1978). In a study of 335 Oregon teachers, Sylwester (1979) found women to be absent, on average, almost 2 times more often than men.

Age

Ramming (1998) reported a study conducted in East Lake School District in New York where age and leave accumulation were the only factors related to absenteeism. Age exhibited a statistically significant positive relationship while leave accumulation exhibited a negative relationship.

A 1981 Educational Research Service study, National Survey on Absenteeism, of 470 school systems during the 1978-1979 school year revealed that the older the employee, the higher the rate of absence for sickness. For total or uncertified absences, younger employees have higher rates of absence (Elliot, 1982).

In a study of 286 elementary teachers, Marchant (1976) found that as the age of the teacher increased so did the absence rate. He concluded that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between age and absence rate. On the other hand, Marlin (1976) noted that the relationship between age and absence rate of teachers was curvilinear. He found that middle-aged teachers were absent less than teachers who were both older and younger.

Marital Status

Elliot (1982) found that demographic factors including salary and marital status do not have a significant impact on amounts of absenteeism. Marital status, family size, level of education, and amount of experience are not consistently related to absence.

In earlier research, however, Coller (1975) and Shaw (1980) reported that marital status did have an impact on teacher absence rate. They found that single teachers exhibited a tendency to be absent more than married teachers.

Time and Place Factors

Much of recent research on teacher absenteeism has focused on when teachers are absent and the geographical locations where teacher absenteeism is highest. The preponderance of research indicates that teacher absenteeism is more prevalent on Mondays and Fridays (Capitan et al., 1980). Pitkoff (1993) also found that absenteeism in education increased with each progressive month of the school year, culminating in May; the highest rate of absenteeism occurs on Mondays and Fridays; and that teachers in the Northeastern United States were absent more frequently than those in any other geographic location. Elliott (1982) noted that increased teacher absenteeism on Mondays, Fridays, and at the end of the school year are costing educators a great deal of credibility in the eyes of the community.

The National Survey on Teacher Absenteeism (1981) conducted by the Educational Research Service revealed that the average number of days absent per teacher for all paid absences in all reporting school systems was 8.0 days. The average days absent per teacher for large school systems (25,000 or more pupils) was 8.4 days; for medium systems (10,000 to 24,999 pupils) 8.0 days; and for small systems (2,500 to 9,999 pupils) 6.5 days. The average number of days absent per teacher by type of community served was 8.9 days in urban areas; 8.5 days in suburban areas; 6.7 days in small towns; and 6.5 days in rural areas. Finally, the teacher absence rates for all paid absences in all reporting school systems by type of community served was 4.7% in urban areas, 4.6% in suburban areas, 3.6% in small towns, and 3.5% in rural areas. Finally, there is some evidence that teachers in Title I or inner city schools and those who teach disadvantaged and minority children have higher absence rates (Elliott, 1982).

Job Satisfaction

According to Pellicer (1984), a lack of job satisfaction caused serious withdrawal problems among teachers that resulted in excessive absenteeism. Pellicer (1984) identified recognition, delegated responsibilities, and opportunities for success as job satisfiers; and, he identified job dissatisfiers as ineffective operating procedures, ineffective supervision, low salaries, poor work relations, and poor working conditions. Before any progress is made toward reducing teacher absenteeism, work dissatisfiers must be replaced by work satisfiers.

Elliott (1982) identified several characteristics of job satisfaction that he found to be related to teacher absenteeism. He found that high levels of absenteeism occurred in school districts where there were low levels of faculty agreement about the goals and policies of the community and district. However, low levels of absenteeism are reported in districts with high

levels of community support and policy agreement, and when there are smaller sub-units within the school, and the teachers in those units are interdependent.

Job Assignment

Teacher absenteeism is also found to be higher in elementary schools (Pitkoff, 1993; Elliott, 1982). Marlin (1976) reported that (K-2) teachers are absent the most. Employees with higher level jobs tend to be absent less often than those with lower level jobs; administrators are absent significantly fewer days than teachers; and, math and science teachers are absent fewer days than humanities teachers (Elliott, 1982). Redmond (1978) and Sylwester (1979) both suggested that the reason more elementary teachers are absent is linked to the fact that more elementary school teachers are females, who exhibit a higher rate of absenteeism than males.

Salary

In its 1981 National Survey on Absenteeism, the Educational Research Service reported teacher absenteeism rates by salary category. The average number of days absent per teacher by average teacher salary was 9.2 days in systems averaging $17,000 or more in annual salary; 7.8 days in systems of $15,000 to $16,999; 8.0 days in systems of $13,000 to $14,999; and 6.8 days in systems less than $13,000. In later research Elliott (1982) reported that absenteeism continued to increase despite pay increases. However, in 1993, Pitkoff found that as satisfaction with pay increased, the rate of teacher absenteeism decreased.

Needless to say, findings concerning the relationships of various demographic factors with teacher absenteeism are mixed. Difficulty arises in finding recent research concerning the same topic. More recent research focuses on the costs of teacher absenteeism, effects of teacher

absenteeism on student achievement, and designing programs that might help alleviate the problem.

Organizational and Work Environment Factors

Absenteeism and turnover are two of the most popular outcomes studied in organizational research (Mitra, Jenkins, Douglas, & Gupta, 1992). Several organizational and workplace environment factors may influence employee absence rates including organization size, climate, personnel policies and satisfaction with supervisor.

Organization Size

One organizational variable that seems to be directly related to absenteeism is the size of the district. Small districts tend to have lower absence rates than large districts (Capitan, et al., 1980). Additionally, teacher absenteeism was viewed as a high or very high management concern in 64.9% of school systems with 25,000 or more pupils; 45.4% in systems with 10,000 to 24,999 pupils; 38.6% in systems with 2,500 to 9,999 pupils; and 33% in systems with 300 to 2,499 pupils. (Elliot, 1982). Conflicting results were reported by the Pennsylvania School Boards Association (1978) which found that teachers in small systems (less than 200 employees) were absent at almost the same rate as large districts (more than 200 employees). Small districts reported an absence rate of 4.7% while large systems reported an absence rate of 4.8%.

Organizational Climate

One of the major underlying causes of teacher absenteeism is considered to be dissatisfaction with working conditions such as supervision, salary, and policies. When dissatisfaction with conditions becomes too great, employees may terminate employment, although some say absenteeism offers an alternative to quitting since it allows them an

opportunity to express their dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Jacobson, 1990). The advantages of high morale include low turnover, less absenteeism, and a better academic environment for instruction (Hunter-Boykin, Evans, & Evans, 1995).

Stallings and Mohlman (1981) found statistically significant correlations among several variables and teacher morale. Briefly, they found that teacher commitment and morale were higher in schools where rules were clear, clearly communicated, and enforced; and where principals respected teacher judgment and integrity. Principals who were open to allowing teacher input into decision-making experienced higher teacher morale in their schools. Stallings and Mohlman (1981) also noted that one way to improve teacher morale and ultimately teacher attendance is to clearly define polices and procedures and administer them consistently. As noted earlier, increased teacher morale and commitment yield lower teacher absenteeism.

Firestone and Rosenblum (1988) identified four important organizational factors which influence teacher commitment:

1. Sense of purpose about work
2. Mutual respect and affiliation
3. Administrative support
4. Opportunities for decision making

Each of these factors derives from the relationship between the teacher and principal. Anderman, Belzer, and Smith (1991) also suggested that teachers are more satisfied when the school fosters teacher involvement in school decisions, respect, encouragement, and the sharing of information with colleagues, as well as the feeling that teachers and administrators are working together.

Satisfaction with Supervisor

Ultimately, the school principal is the person who establishes the ground rules for the operational environment in the school and is directly responsible for developing and maintaining high teacher morale (Hunter-Boykin, et al., 1995). Teachers report greater satisfaction in their work when they perceive their principal as someone who shares information with others, delegates authority, and keeps open channels of communication with the teachers (Rossmiller, 1992). Workload and support from principals influence teacher burnout, job satisfaction, and occupational commitment (Starnaman and Miller, 1992). There are statistically significant direct relationships between principal leadership behavior, as perceived by the teacher, and satisfaction and commitment (Anderman, et al., 1991).

Anderman, et al. (1991) argued that teachers' perceptions of their principals will have a direct impact on their perceptions of school culture, and that this school culture will be related to a teacher's level of satisfaction and commitment. Schools must give more attention to increasing teacher job satisfaction (Heller, Clay, & Perkins, 1993).

Personnel Policies

Most school districts are experiencing teacher absenteeism rates of 8% - 10% (Warren, 1988). Excessive absenteeism among school personnel is one of the most neglected problems in public education (Grant, 2001). In recent years, however, personnel managers and boards of education have scrambled to develop policies to address the problem.

In its 1981 National Survey on Absenteeism, the Educational Research Service reported the average number of days absent per teacher by method of absence reporting was 9.1 days in systems using a telephone answering service, and 7.6 days when a specific person is contacted. In other words, systems which had a policy in place requiring absent teachers to contact a specific person experienced fewer absences than those which did not. Winkler (1980) found

that policies requiring teachers to provide proof of illness and to report illness directly to the principal were associated with lower absence rate. Dalton and Perry (1981) found that organizations that do not require proof of illness have higher rates of employee absenteeism. They also reported that organizations that do not reimburse earned but unused sick leave have higher rates of absenteeism. Elliott (1982) also reported that lower levels of teacher absence are associated with reporting procedures that require the teacher to speak directly with the immediate supervisor.

School district policies governing the annual usage of teacher leave days that appear in teacher contracts clearly influence teachers' usage of leave days (Ehrenberg, et al., 1989). Similarly, policies that allow teachers to accumulate days and use them toward retirement or that pay teachers for unused leave are both associated with lower leave usage. These types of "buy-back" policies were studied in Georgia, which is a non-negotiating state for teachers. Teachers in Georgia are non-unionized; therefore, collective bargaining does not exist. Boyer (1994) found that there is no significant relationship between buy-back policies and teacher attendance rates in Georgia. However, the directionality of the findings tended to support the idea that buy-back policies reduce teacher absences.

Collective Bargaining.

Absenteeism has continued to increase since the passage of collective bargaining legislation (Elliot, 1982). Collective bargaining has resulted in contract teachers being provided with more personal and sick leave time; as a result, students at all levels spend more instructional time with substitutes (Manlove & Elliot, 1979). Changes in federal or state labor laws may also result in teachers being eligible for more personal and sick leave days (Billman, 1994).

A 1970 Philadelphia study that involved 56 school districts and 12,000 teachers found that the 11 districts whose sick leave policies matched the minimum allowed by the state had the lowest rate of teacher absenteeism. Conversely, those systems that allowed more sick leave, as a result of collective bargaining, experienced higher attendance rates (Bamber, 1979). Yet another example is Clark County, Nevada which experienced an increase of 41% in teacher absenteeism in the three years following introduction of collective bargaining for teachers (Foster, 1987).

Paid sick leave is the widest held fringe benefit in the country. According to surveyed employers, six in ten sick calls are bogus. Workers typically take sick time to fulfill family obligations or attend to personal needs or simply because they think they deserve it (Lippman, 2001). A 1974-1975 study of 57 elementary schools in California and Wisconsin found that income protection plans for long-term sick leave were associated with higher absenteeism (Winkler, 1980). Elliott and Manlove reported that a nationwide survey revealed that 86% of responding school systems reported increased demand for substitute teachers following the establishment of more generous sick leave policies. Research has indicated that this is a direct result of policy shifts where teachers view these days as an employee benefit (Elliott & Manlove, 1977).

Simply put, the more sick leave available, the greater the rate of absenteeism (Pitkoff, 1993). The average number of days absent per teacher by personal leave provisions was 7.9 days in systems that provide three days or less of personal leave and 8.8 days in systems that provided more than three days of personal leave. One example of this is the Antioch Community Consolidated School System in Illinois which found the attendance rate for teachers lower than the attendance rate for students and non-certified staff. Teachers averaged

10 days absence from work compared to 7 days absence for students and 6 days for non-certified staff (Skidmore, 1984). In 1981, the National Survey of Absenteeism reported the average number of days absent per teacher by negotiating status of school system was 8.2 days in systems that negotiate with teachers and 7.2 days in systems that do not negotiate with teachers.

Professional Leave.

There are many contributors to the rising rates of teacher absenteeism; however, it seems that a large contributor to teacher absenteeism is the mandatory leave for professional development training programs (Griswold & Hughes, 1997; Hawkins, 2000). In fact, the state of Georgia now includes a required professional development component for every teacher as part of the teacher's annual evaluation. Along with the obvious issue of the teacher being absent from the classroom, there is the added issue that many times the training received by the teacher is not always useful (Hawkins, 2000). Matthews (2000) reported Teachers in Grosse Pointe, Michigan were discouraged that their professional development consisted of vague or irrelevant speeches by college professors or book authors who had never taught a class of freshmen. Matthews also reported other teachers complained that, although some of the in-service activities were good, they seemed to be getting what the administration wanted and not necessarily what the teachers or students needed. Compounding the problem of the teacher being absent from the classroom is the fact that student learning is interrupted with the use of a substitute.

Teacher Absenteeism and Student Achievement

After a national survey of selected principals in 1978, Manlove and Elliot found six major costs associated with teacher absenteeism:

(1) Instructional costs
(2) Financial costs
(3) Management costs
(4) Program costs
(5) Organizational costs
(6) Credibility costs.

Financial costs have been discussed previously; however, the loss of instructional time is the most serious of all the problems associated with teacher absence (Elliot, 1982). The fact that students are not achieving and that teacher attendance rates are rising reflects the need for change in the way schools are organized and the way instruction is delivered (Pitkoff, 1993). "Liberal contracts for teachers, provisions of the Family and Medical Leave Act, and mandatory in-service training have all led to teachers spending less time in their classrooms and to a greater need for substitute teachers" (Jones, 1999, p. 2).

Research on effective teaching highlights time-on-task as a significant variable in student achievement (Anderson, Evertson, & Emmer, 1980). The more time teachers spend away from class, the more time students spend with substitute teachers. Wiley and Harnischfeger (1974) found in terms of typical gains in achievement over a year's period, that in schools where students receive 24% more schooling, they increase their average gain in reading comprehension by two-thirds and their gain in mathematics and verbal skills by more than one-third.

If teachers are dissatisfied with their work lives, not only will they suffer, but their students will suffer as well (Bryk & Driscoll, 1988). Referring to administrators' need to reexamine their roles as instructional leaders and personnel managers, Deay and Bontempo (1986) suggested that administrators not fail to consider the potential impact of substitute

teachers on student learning. “Substitutes are rarely as effective as the regular teachers they replace; therefore, valuable instruction is lost and student achievement may suffer as a result” (Jacobson, 1990, p. 78). Rarely do students, teachers, or administrators regard substitutes as full professionals who meet accepted standards of practice (Abdal-Haqq, 1997). However, most school systems are not adequately preparing or training their substitutes. In fact, a survey conducted by the Substitute Teaching Institute at Utah State University found that 64.8% of school districts do not require substitute teachers to complete an orientation session. Additionally, 91.8% of school districts provide no ongoing training for current substitute teachers (Hawkins, 2000). “It would be safe to say that in many districts substitutes are selected for their availability more often than they are selected for successful teaching” (Capitan et al., 1980, p. 2).

Pitkoff’s (1993) Brooklyn study revealed significant relationships between increased teacher absenteeism and the following:

(a) Lower student achievement in reading writing, and math,

(b) poor student attendance,

(c) higher student drop out rates,

(d) high minority enrollment, especially Hispanic students, and

(e) poverty, as measured by eligibility for free lunch.

Leadership

Acknowledgement of the impact of principals’ leadership behaviors on school outcomes has generated an extensive body of research over the past decade (Leithwood, Bagley, & Cousins, 1991). The importance of strong leadership at the school level and the effect of certain leadership behaviors of the principal are both explicit and implicit in professional literature and

research. The principal has been singled out as the most important factor in effective schools (Gallmeier, 1992). Yet, the majority of studies on leaders over the last 50 years were conducted in industrial and military settings. Early principal studies borrowed heavily from these studies (Thomas, 1997). A key point in the early development of models and theories of leadership was made by Lewin and Lippit in 1938. They suggested that three different approaches to leadership could be:

(1) autocratic, characterized as directive and task-oriented

(2) democratic, characterized as participative and process and relationship oriented; and

(3) laissez-faire, characterized as non-directive and lacking formal leadership.

In 1960, McGregor developed the Theory X/Theory Y model in which he states that Theory X leadership resembles authoritarian behavior and is based on the assumption that the power of the leader comes from the position he occupies, and that people are basically lazy and unreliable. Theory X leaders also assumes that most people prefer to be directed and desire safety above all else. Conversely, Theory Y leadership resembles democratic behavior and assumes that the power of leaders is granted to them by those they are to lead, and that people are basically self-directed and creative if properly motivated. It would stand to reason then that the task of management would be to unlock the potential in individuals.

On the surface, one might get the impression that managers who subscribe to Theory X would usually control, direct and closely supervise individuals, while managers who subscribe to Theory Y would be more supportive and facilitating of individuals, attempting to unlock their potential. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) caution against this, though. They suggested that Theory X and Theory Y are attitudes, or predispositions, managers have toward people.

Consequently, although Theory Y assumptions may be the best the attitudes for a manager to have, it might be necessary to behave in a Theory X manner toward immature employees who might need “directing” or “controlling.”

Another common model of leadership, situational leadership, was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977). In this model, two dimensions of leadership behavior, task and relationship behavior, are characterized in one of four ways:

(1) low task and low relationship;

(2) high task and low relationship;

(3) high relationship and low task; and

(4) high task and high relationship.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) proposed that leaders’ behaviors should be different in terms of emphasis on task and behavior depending on the maturity of the followers. In other words, a leader might find it necessary to operate in all four dimensions depending on the readiness of the individual to follow the leader. For the purposes of this research, principal leadership style is examined under the Theory X and Theory Y model of leadership proposed by Douglas McGregor.

Job Frustration/Job Satisfaction

Much research is available on the teaching profession and stress and burn out. However, little research has been conducted on the symptoms of teacher stress. Derobbio and Iwanicki (1996) listed frustration, among a cadre of other symptoms, as a symptom of stress and burnout. Kyraicou (1987) defined teacher stress in terms of experiences by teachers of unpleasant emotions resulting from aspects of their work. Such emotions might include tension, frustration, anxiety, anger, and depression. So, although little research has been

conducted on teacher frustration, many researchers identify frustration as a symptom of a much greater and more researched problem – teacher stress and burnout.

Gold and Roth (1993) defined stress as "a condition of disequilibrium within the intellectual, emotional, and physical state of the individual; it is generated by one's perceptions of a situation, which result in physical and emotional reactions. It can be either positive or negative, depending on one's interpretations." The principal plays a key role in teacher burnout and stress, both as a major source of support and the main source of stress. Teachers often cite stress as a reason for leaving the profession, including stress caused by negative relationships with their building principals. These negative relationships may lead to stress-induced illness behavior in teachers (Blase & Kirby, 1992).

Grossnickle (1980) identified six sources of workplace related teacher stress:

(1) Relationships with colleagues, administrative staff, clerical staff, and students

(2) Complex communication needs

(3) Inattentive students

(4) Discipline

(5) Daily abuse from parents and students

(6) High community standards for teacher conformity to social values.

A number of researchers have studied the relationship between principals' leadership style and decision-making processes and teacher satisfaction and performance (Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995). In a study of metropolitan Washington, D.C. schools, Hunter-Boykin, et al. (1995) found a low but positive relationship between principals' leadership styles and teachers' morale. Broiles (1982) reported that one-third of California teachers surveyed rated their jobs as stressful or extremely stressful. Long-term exposure to

stress in the workplace provokes sickness absence, psychosomatic symptoms, and burnout (Imants & VanZoelen, 1995).

Teacher stress is not a dilemma that is limited to the United States. “The research evidence from studies of teacher stress carried out in different countries not only attests to the endemic and cross-cultural nature of the phenomenon, but also to how serious the problem is” (Borg, & Riding, 1991, p 263). In a survey of comprehensive school teachers in England, Kyraicou and Sutcliffe (1979) found that 30.7% of teachers rated teaching as either stressful or extremely stressful. Researchers also have found a statistically significant, negative relationship between teacher stress and teacher job satisfaction. In a study of 545 teachers in the Malta educational system, Borg and Riding (1991) reported statistically significant, positive relationship between teacher stress and satisfaction in teaching.

Yet another type of stress that teachers must face is the stress of public scrutiny. “The stress of public scrutiny and educational reforms over the past three decades underscored teacher burnout as one of the most common and serious afflictions of the nation’s educators,” according to Dunham (1992, p. 2). Burnout has struck all professions, but a review of professional literature and news media reports over the past decade reveals that burnout has struck the teaching profession extremely hard (Kiff, 1986).

Burnout begins as an emotional problem like energy deficiency, nervousness, knots in the stomach, irritability, anxiety, and difficulty in making the minutest decisions. If the underlying causes of stress are not dealt with, then burnout may progress to behavioral or physical problems. According to Kiff (1986), if steps are not taken to alleviate the stressful situations, burnout can ruin the health of the sufferer. Kiff (1986) also noted the following five causes of burnout:

1. Expectations to conform to a code of conduct which exceeds general community standards;

2. Parents blaming teachers when progress is not made by children who have emotional problems or learning disabilities;

3. Threat of direct physical abuse;

4. Pressure applied by administrators in the form of teaching overloads and time consuming non-instructional activities; and

5. Internal self-imposed stress by teachers who are inadequately trained or those not suited for the profession.

The effects of teacher burnout are difficult to measure directly, but statistical trends indicate the problem is significant and widespread. Over the past two decades, large numbers of teachers have left the profession for jobs they feel are less stressful and more financially rewarding (Kiff, 1986). Additionally, Kiff noted that teachers with only a few years of experience on the job are more likely to leave; that a number of career teachers are opting for early retirement; and that the number of medical claims filed by teachers is rising.

A growing number of researchers report that burnout can result in ulcers, high blood pressure, headaches, and depression. “Burnout is real, it is insidious, and it robs many teachers of their hunger to pursue their chosen profession while devastating their health. Simply stated, burnout is defined as both emotional and physical exhaustion brought on by unalleviated job strain” (Kiff, 1986, p. 15).

Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism

Absenteeism is not a frequently researched effect of work stress. Additionally, theories of absenteeism seem to neglect stress at work as a cause of absence behavior (Smulders &

Nijhuis, 1999). However, stress has been identified as one of the factors related to teacher attrition and is believed to be a cause of high teacher turnover and absenteeism (Hammond & Onikama, 1997).

In 1991, Scott and Wimbush found that job satisfaction was the single most important factor affecting attendance motivation. Savage (1967) found that achievement, recognition, interpersonal relations with students, and the work itself were all factors that led to teacher job satisfaction. However, Sergiovanni (1967) found that interpersonal relations with subordinates, supervisors, and peers, as well as technical supervision, school policy, administration, and personal life to be factors contributing to low teacher morale.

As politicians scramble to bring about education reform, teachers find themselves struggling to adapt to changes that literally change with each political election. Societal demands and increased public demands on education have produced adverse classroom situations that have led to increased emotional and physical disabilities among teachers (Chance, 1992). For example, Dutch researchers discovered that more than 50% of sickness absence is caused by combinations of psychological factors and the workplace conditions affecting stress (Imants & VanZoelen, 1995). Druss, Schlesinger, and Allen (2001) reported, “If absenteeism can be viewed as a form of withdrawal, teachers are withdrawing from coming to schools in which they themselves are not successful” (2001). For example, A New York study found that teachers in Brooklyn high schools were absent an average of 7.8 days per school year. Almost one-fourth of the teachers were absent 10 or more days, exceeding their contractual allowance (Pitkoff, 1993). Additionally, a study conducted for the American Psychiatric Society (2001) found that absenteeism due to health problems was twice

as high for employees with depressive symptoms. It also revealed the likelihood of decreased performance on the job is seven times higher for depressed employees .

Chapter Summary

While research shows that teacher absenteeism is a growing concern, what little research that has been conducted reveals inconsistent findings concerning what variables may contribute to the phenomenon. What is known through inspection of data is that, for whatever reason, teacher absenteeism continues to rise and so does the expense for paying for those absences, not only financially, but also in the realm of student achievement.

Very little research has focused on the possible relationships among teacher absenteeism, principal leadership style, and teacher frustration level. Considering that previous research on other variables has yielded inconsistent findings, it is vital that researchers continue their efforts to identify possible causes of the problem so that solutions may be developed to curb the escalating rate of teacher absenteeism. Solutions would not only save school systems significant amounts of money, but also student achievement would rise as qualified teachers spend more time in direct instruction with their students.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methods used to complete this study. Included in this chapter are the research questions, a description of the subjects, a description of the teacher absence data, a description of assessments used, data collection procedures, and the method of data analysis.

Research Questions

As already noted in the review of literature, teacher attendance in the public schools continues to be major problem for administrators and personnel officials around the country. More generous leave policies as a result of collective bargaining, greater workload demands on teachers, and difficult working conditions have all been established through research to have some impact on teacher absenteeism. With the financial costs of paying for substitutes and, more importantly, the cost in student learning, it is critical that research in the area continue so that changes may occur. This study looks specifically at the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the rate of teacher absenteeism and the principal's leadership philosophy?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the rate of teacher absenteeism and the teachers' frustration levels?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between the principals' leadership philosophy and the teachers' frustration levels?

Research Design

The study is a non-experimental ex post facto analysis. Research will try to establish relationships between pre-existing conditions and whether or not they may relate to subsequent differences in the group of subjects. Variables in the study include principals' leadership styles, teachers' frustration levels, and teacher absenteeism. All 32 principals in a suburban Atlanta school system were surveyed with the Managerial Philosophies Scale (Jacoby & Terborg, 1975a). All teachers (approximately 1,650) in the same system were surveyed with the Organizational Frustration Scale (Spector, 1975). Teacher attendance data from the previous semester were obtained from the school system's computerized personnel records. The study will be concerned with the relationships among these sets of data.

Correlational studies benefit researchers in two ways. First, they indicate the “strength or amount of the relationship so that a single value will tell us at a glance how two variables are related” (Bartz, 1999, p. 163). Secondly, they help researchers to predict scores on one variable based on the knowledge of another. Bartz (1999) reported an additional reason to analyze data with correlations. He noted that they are informative and descriptive tools that can be easily understood by nonstatisticians.

Strengths of the Design

Spector (1981) identified the following as strengths in the correlational design:

1. Ease of administration.
2. Usefulness in determining relationships among variables.
3. Ability to be repeated over time and become part of a longitudinal survey.

Weaknesses of the Design

Spector (1981) also identified the following weaknesses in the correlational design:

1. Usefulness is only in establishing relationships.
2. Subjects' failure to respond honestly and accurately could lead to false relationships.
3. The Hawthorne Effect could become an issue as subjects become aware of their participation in a study.

Null Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1A: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

Hypothesis 1B: There is no statistically significant negative relationship between teacher absenteeism and the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the teachers' frustration levels.

Hypothesis 3A: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels.

Hypothesis 3B: There is no statistically significant negative relationship between the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels.

Limitations

Like most studies, this research project has its limitations. These limitations are:

1. Correlational studies may only suggest, but they can not establish, causation (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990).
2. The MPS (Jacoby & Terborg, 1975a) was the sole instrument used to determine principal leadership style.
3. Teachers' frustration levels were determined solely by their responses on the OFS developed by Spector (1975).

4. The study was conducted in a single suburban Atlanta school district and my not be generalized to other systems.

5. It was impossible to control all of the variables that might have influence on the results of the study.

6. The validity of the outcomes on the survey instruments depended on the truthfulness with which subjects responded to their surveys.

Subjects

The school system in which this study was conducted is large, geographically encompassing 393 square miles. Population in the county is growing at a rapid rate. In the last four years, the school system has opened five new schools. According to 2000 census data, the total population for the county was 139,277, an increase of 45.9% over the previous census period. Of the total population, 80.8% are white and 7.3% are black. Hispanics comprise 19.6% of the total population (2003, *Georgia Department of Community Affairs*). The median household income was $38,438. During the 2002–2003 school year, the school system reported a total student enrollment, pre-K-12 of 21,533. Slightly more than 40% of the student enrollment qualified for the federally subsidized free and reduced lunch program. Average daily attendance for the student population surpassed the 95% mark; the pupil to teacher ratio was 16.5:1; and the per pupil expenditure for the system was $6,250.

To provide a sample size large enough to insure valid results in this study, every principal and teacher in a suburban, metropolitan Atlanta school system was asked to participate in this study. The system is currently undergoing massive demographic changes moving it rapidly from a rural school system to a suburban school system. The subject pool consisted of 19 elementary school principals, 6 middle school principals, 6 high school

principals, 1 evening school principal, and every teacher from each school. Of the 32 principals in the system, 3% held master's degrees, 60% held education specialist degrees, and 37% held doctoral degrees. The average number of years that the administrators have served in education is 25. The return rate of the MPS by the principals was 100%. Of the 1,605 teachers employed in the 32 participating schools, 1,160 returned surveys. The percentage of teachers completing the OFS ranged from 44.44% to 100% (see Table 1), with the mean participation rate being 77%. Additionally, of the 1605 teachers in the system, 36% held bachelor's degrees, 46% held master's degrees, 16% held specialist's degrees, and 2% held doctoral degrees. The number of years experience for the teachers participating in the study was represented by the following: 22.8% of all teachers in the system have taught from 1–5 years; 21% of teachers in the system taught between 6–10 years; 19.25% of teachers in the system taught between 11-15 years; and 36.95% of teachers in the system taught 16 years or more.

Attendance Incentive Plan

To promote good attendance by teachers, the school system being studied offered several incentives to personnel. First, any classroom teacher who began the school year with an accumulated balance of 45 sick leave days and did not miss any days received a bonus of $125. A person who misses all or a portion of one day received $50. Additionally, a sick leave bank was available to all employees who have five days of accumulated leave. To join the bank, the employee must donate one sick leave day to the bank. When an employee is ill, he or she may withdraw up to 50 days from the bank. Also, the Teacher Retirement System in Georgia now allows teachers to apply unused sick leave towards early retirement.

Table 1

Number and Percentage of Teachers Responding to the OFS by School

School Number	Number of Teachers Employed	Number of Teachers Responding	Percentage of Teachers Responding
1	66	61	92.42
2	62	36	58.06
3	63	40	63.49
4	71	44	61.97
5	72	67	93.05
6	67	49	73.13
7	65	54	83.07
8	58	54	93.10
9	62	42	67.74
10	60	56	93.33
11	68	41	60.29
12	62	48	77.42
13	39	24	61.54
14	39	28	71.95
15	46	36	78.26
16	40	30	75.00
17	42	24	57.14
18	31	31	100.00
19	59	36	61.02
20	54	24	44.44
21	34	20	58.82
22	50	44	88.00
23	54	47	87.04
24	35	29	82.86
25	34	32	94.12
26	44	27	61.36
27	47	37	78.72
28	49	31	63.27
29	52	25	48.07

table continues

School Number	Number of Teachers Employed	Number of Teachers Responding	Percentage of Teachers Responding
30	36	27	75.00
31	37	29	78.38
32	7	7	100.00

Teacher Absence Data

Teacher attendance data was obtained from computerized records maintained by the school system central office. The report reflects all certified teachers in the district by code and by school. To prevent long-term illnesses, major surgery, maternity leave, and anyone taking leave under the Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA) from skewing the data, employees who were absent 30 or more days were excluded from the average teacher absence rate for the school. Generally speaking, maternity leaves and major surgeries constitute a six-week period, while use of the FMLA could incorporate as much as 12 weeks; consequently, 30 days of absences was selected as the cut-off for this study. Absences of 30 or more days are, most probably, a result of a personal or a family-related major medical condition and not a result of principal leadership style or teacher frustration level. Absences due to the request of a government agency were not considered in figuring the teacher absence rate.

Measurement Instrumentation

There were two instruments administered to produce this research: the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the Organizational Frustration Scale.

The Managerial Philosophies Scale (MPS)

Jacoby and Terborg (1975b) used the principles of Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y assumptions of the nature of man to develop the MPS. McGregor (1960) asserted that the way in which a manager interacts with superiors, peers and especially subordinates depends on the manager's philosophy of what motivates human behavior. Prior to the development of the MPS by Jacoby and Terborg (1975a), little empirical research had been done to confirm or discount McGregor's managerial theories. Since that time, a number of studies have confirmed the validity of McGregor's assertions (Donnell, & Hall, 1988). Specifically, Hall and Donnell (1979) found that high achievers held significantly fewer Theory X assumptions than do either average or low achievers.

Scoring the MPS

The MPS consists of 36 items which subjects respond to on a scale ranging from +3 (I agree very much) to -3(I disagree very much). Scoring the instrument yields two scores – the Theory X score indicates the degree to which the respondent subscribes to a more pessimistic view of human nature and the Theory Y score which indicates the degree to which the respondent subscribes to a more positive outlook of the nature of human work. Raw scores on the Theory X scale range from 33 to 130 and from 28 to 85 on the Theory Y scale. Respondents convert their raw scores into percentiles and, using a philosophy scoring graph, determine the degree to which they agree or disagree with Theory X and Theory Y philosophies (Jacoby, & Terborg, 1975c).

Reliability and Validity of the MPS

Based on data collected from 161 supervisors and 275 non-supervisors, the authors constructed a 24 item X scale and a 12 item Y scale, each having high internal consistency (r =

.85 and r = .77, respectively) and acceptable test-retest reliability. In a separate study, Pearson reported alphas of .89 and .75 for the X and Y scales. The X and Y scales are negatively correlated ($r = -.55$, $p < .001$, $N = 436$), and X scores are positively correlated with Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, a measure of general authoritarianism ($r = .42$, $p < .01$, $N = 77$), giving evidence of construct validity.

The Organization Frustration Scale (OFS)

Developed in 1975 by Paul Spector, the OFS was used to measure the level of frustration experienced by teachers on the job (Appendix A). The OFS is a 29-item, six- choice, Likert format questionnaire designed to measure the level of frustration experienced by any employee in their job. An original item pool of 37 was generated from responses of approximately 25 people responding to the question, "What is frustrating?" The items that were generated concerned aspects of a job, supervisor, or job environment which fit a very broad definition of frustration.

Scoring the OFS

Subjects completing the OFS indicated their agreement or disagreement with a statement by choosing a number on a range from +3 (agree completely) to -3 (disagree completely). Of the 29 items on the OFS, 24 are positively worded. That is, a +3 indicates maximum frustration for one of these items while a -3 indicates minimum frustration. The remaining five items are negatively worded. A +3 for one of these items indicates minimum frustration while a -3 indicates maximum frustration. A mean score was obtained for each school.

Reliability and Validity of the OFS

To determine reliability, the original 37 item pool was administered to 82 people. Following an item analysis of the responses, 29 items which exhibited a correlation of .43or greater were retained. The 29-item scale was readministered to a group of 50 people and the item analysis repeated. All 29 items were retained. A coefficient alpha of .88 was found.

In testing for validity, 82 people completed the OFS and a response to the OFS. "Significant correlations were found ranging from .25 to .64 between frustration as measured by the OFS and behaviors which were predicted a priori to be related to it, such as sabotage, hostility, and indirect aggression" (Spector, 1975, p. 1). In two additional studies, OFS scores were found to be correlated with consideration of quitting the job ($r = .64, .77$). There was also additional support found that correlated frustration level to turnover (Spector, 1975).

Data Collection Procedure

Principals' leadership philosophies data were obtained at a regularly held monthly staff meeting at the central office. Once a month, each school principal in the system meets at the central office for the purposes of discussing old and new items of business in the areas of physical operations, fiscal operations, personnel, and curriculum issues. During one of these meetings, each principal was administered the Managerial Philosophies Scale (MPS). A cover letter describing the purpose of the study and instructions for completing the MPS was included (Appendix D).

On completion of the MPS, each principal was given enough Organizational Frustration Scales (OFS) for each teacher in their respective schools. Included with the OFS was a cover letter for the teacher describing the purpose of the study and instructions for completing the OFS (Appendix D). An instruction letter was also included with the packet for the principal.

The principal was asked to select a faculty member to administer the OFS during a faculty meeting and to return the completed forms in a sealed envelope within a four-week period. Those schools who did not return their instruments within the time period received a follow-up phone call reminding them to return their surveys. The goal of the study was 100% participation by the administrators and a minimum of 70% of the teachers.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to identify any statistically significant relationships that might exist among teacher absenteeism, principal leadership style, and teacher frustration level. To determine these relationships, absenteeism rates for each school in the system were compared to the managerial philosophy of each school's leader, as identified by the Managerial Philosophy Scale, and to the mean scores of each school's teachers, as measured by the Organizational Frustration Scale.

The most often used method to establish relationships among sets of data is correlational. Because the Pearson-Product-Moment correlation coefficient is the most widely used measure of relationships existing among data (McMillan, & Schumacher, 1984), it was used to measure the relationships among the data in this study; that is, principal's leadership styles, as determined by the MPS, and the teachers scores on the OFS were correlated to the absence rate of each school in the system for the Fall semester to determine if a relationship existed. In this study the Pearson r determined whether relationships found in the study were positive or negative, strong or weak. All hypotheses were tested using a one-tailed test of statistical significance at the .05 level.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among teacher absenteeism, principals' leadership styles, and the frustration levels experienced by teachers on the job, and the extent to which these are related. Variables included the individual schools' mean absence rate, the principals' Theory X scores, the principals' Theory Y scores and the teachers' mean frustration level scores. The data collected in the study was analyzed using the Pearson product-moment correlation with significance being determined at the .05 level. One hundred percent of the 32 principals in the participating school system responded to the Managerial Philosophies Scale and 1160 (72.27%) of the 1605 teachers in the participating system responded to the Organizational Frustration Scale.

The following were the null hypotheses considered in this study:

Hypothesis 1A: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

Hypothesis 1B: There is no statistically significant negative relationship between teacher absenteeism and the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the teachers' frustration levels.

Hypothesis 3A: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels.

Hypothesis 3B: There is no statistically significant negative relationship between the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels.

Description of the Absence Data

Teacher absence data were collected from the participating school system's database of teacher attendance for the fall semester of the 2003-2004 school year. At the 32 participating schools, the mean absence rate per employee for each school ranged from 1.29 to 6.02 days. The mean teacher absence rate for the system was 4.51. Of the participating schools, 18 of the 32 posted a mean absence rate below the system average with the remaining 12 posting absence rates above the system mean (see Table 2).

For the semester, the teachers in the participating system were absent 64.13% of the time for illness, 15.16% of the time for personal reasons, 16.56% of the time for professional leave, 3.02% of the time was leave without pay, and 1.13% of their absences were donated to the system-wide sick bank. The total monetary cost to the school system for paid teacher absences, not including the cost for paying substitute teachers, for the first semester of the 2003-2004 school year was $352,047.46.

Table 2

Absence Rates by School

School Number	Absence Rate
1	5.64
2	4.47
3	3.93
4	4.78
5	4.25
6	3.24
7	4.17
8	4.97
9	4.48
10	5.94

table continues

School Number	Absence Rate
11	4.08
12	5.87
13	4.56
14	4.24
15	5.64
16	4.49
17	4.01
18	6.02
19	4.75
20	4.38
21	5.22
22	3.7
23	4.91
24	3.69
25	3.93
26	4.91
27	5.03
28	5.11
29	4.24
30	4.44
31	3.97
32	1.29

Description of Principals

The 32 principals in the participating system were asked to respond to a data sheet that requested their age, sex, years in administration, years in present position, degree, and undergraduate major. Of the group, the mean age was 49.2 years, the mean number of years in administration was 14.05, and the mean number of years in current position was 6.3

(see Table 3). Principals ranged in age from 34 to 61 years. The number of years in administration ranged from 3 to 26 years. Years in current position ranged from 1 to 17 years.

Table 3

Descriptive Data for Principals (N=32)

	Mean	SD
Age	49.8	5.48
Years in Administration	14.53	7.45
Years in Current Position	6.13	4.97

Of the 32 principals responding to the biographical questionnaire, 1 held a Master's degree (3.12%), 20 held Specialist's degrees (62.5%), and 11 held Doctoral degrees (34.38%). Undergraduate degrees held by the participating principals included the following: Elementary Education – 10 (31.25%); Physical Education – 7 (21.88%); Music Education – 2 (6.25%); Social Studies – 2 (6.25%); Art – 1 (3.12%); Biology – 1 (3.12%); Communications – 1 (3.12%); Distributive Education – 1 (3.12%); Economics – 1 (3.12%); English – 1 (3.12%); Home Economics – 1 (3.12%); Math Education – 1 (3.12%); Middle Grades Education – 1 (3.12%); Sociology – 1 (3.12%); and, Special Education – 1 (3.12%). Considering gender, 17 of the participating principals were males (53.12%), while 16 were females (46.88%).

Description of Data from MPS and OFS

The Managerial Philosophies Scale (MPS) and The Organizational Frustration Scale (OFS) were the two instruments used in this study. In this study the MPS was administered to

32 principals in a suburban school system in Georgia. The Managerial Philosophies Scales were scored with each principal receiving both a Theory X score and a Theory Y score. The principals Theory X raw scores ranged from 41 to 101. Theory Y raw scores ranged from 31 to 89. The mean of the Theory X raw scores was 71.13 and the mean Theory Y score was 69.65 (see Table 4).

In the participating school system, 1160 teachers were administered the Organizational Frustration Scale. The mean scores per question ranged from 1.0 to 5.23 on a 1-7 scale. The question that had the low mean score for responding teachers was question 5 which reads, “My principal is always chewing me out.” The question that had the highest mean score was question 13 which reads, “I often feel that I am being run ragged.” The overall mean score on the Organizational Frustration Scale for the schools in the system was 2.14 (see Table 4).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Schools on Absence, Frustration, Theory X, and Theory Y (N=32)

	Mean	SD
Absence	4.79	.89
Frustration	2.14	.32
Theory X	71.13	17.35
Theory Y	69.65	7.57

Tests of the Null Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1A – Null Accepted

Hypothesis 1A determined the relationship between teacher absence rates for the participating schools and the principal's Theory X-scores on the Managerial Philosophies Scale. Since the r-value of .195 was not significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted; therefore, no significant, positive relationship existed between teacher absenteeism and the Theory X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

Hypothesis 1B – Null Accepted

Hypothesis 1B determined if a statistically significant negative relationship existed between teacher absence rates for the participating schools and the principal's Theory Y-scores on the Managerial Philosophies Scale. Since the r-value of -.317 was not significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted (see Table 5); therefore, no significant positive relationship existed between teacher absenteeism and the Theory Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

Hypothesis 2 – Null Accepted

Hypothesis 2 determined if there was a statistically significant, positive relationship between teacher absence rates for the participating schools and the teachers' mean scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale. Since the r-value of .195 was not significant at the.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted (see Table 4); therefore, no statistically significant, positive relationship existed between teacher absence rates and teachers' frustration levels as measured by the Organizational Frustration Scale.

Table 5

Correlation Matrix for Hypotheses

	Theory X	Theory Y	Frustration Mean
Frustration Mean	.335*	-.163*	
Absence Mean	.195	-.317	.195

*$p < .05$

Hypothesis 3A – Null Rejected

Hypothesis 3A determined if a significant, positive relationship existed between the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers mean scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale. Since the r-value of .335 was significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 4); therefore, a statistically significant, positive relation did exist between the X-scores of principals and the teachers' frustration levels as measured by the Organizational Frustration Scale.

Hypothesis 3B – Null Rejected

Hypothesis 3B determined if a statistically significant, negative relationship existed between the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers mean scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale. Since the r-value of -.163 was significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 4); therefore, a significant, negative relation did exist between the Y-scores of principals and the teachers' level of frustration as measured by the Organizational Frustration Scale.

Post-hoc Analysis of "Principal" Items in the Organizational Frustration Scale

In the Organizational Frustration Scale, there were six items directly related to the principal of the school. These questions were:

Question 5 – My principal is always chewing me out.

Question 6 – My principal feels my performance is poorer than it is.

Question 7 – I find it easy to talk to my principal.

Question 17 – My principal always seems to be looking over my shoulder.

Question 18 – My principal does not trust me.

Question 21 – I dread having to interact with my principal.

In an effort to determine if the six "principal" items on the Organizational Frustration Scale had any statistically significant relationship with teacher absenteeism, Theory-X scores of principals, and Theory-Y scores of principals, the mean scores of these six items for each of the participating schools were correlated with the mean absence rate the schools, Theory-X scores and Theory-Y scores of principals.

Looking at the six "principal" items on the Organizational Frustration Scale, they correlated to the mean absence rate with an r-value of .258. Since this value was not significant at the .05 level, it was determined that there was not a significant, positive relationship. An r-value of .191 was produced when the six "principal" items on the Organizational Frustration Scale were correlated to Theory-X scores of principals. Since the r-value was not significant at the .05 level, it was determined that a significant, positive relationship did not exist. Finally, when correlated to Theory-Y scores of principals, the six "principal" items produced an r-value of -.163 which was not significant at the .05 level; therefore it was determined that a significant, positive relationship did not exist (see Table 6).

Table 6

Post-hoc Correlation of the Six “Principal Item"

Frustration Mean with Theory X and Y

Scores and Absence Mean

	Theory X	Theory Y	Mean Absence
6 Principal Items	.191	-.163	.258

Chapter Summary

Analyzing the data resulted in the acceptance of three of the five null hypotheses. Null hypotheses 3A and 3B that were rejected suggest that there is a statistically, significant positive relationship that exists between the Theory-X style of leadership as measured by the MPS and teacher frustration level and that a statistically, significant negative relationship exists between Theory-Y leadership and teacher frustration levels as measured by the OFS. Outside of the relationship between Theory-X and Theory-Y style leadership and teacher frustration, the data suggests that no significant relationship exists between Theory-X style leadership and teacher absence rates, Theory-Y leadership style leadership and teacher absence rates, or teacher frustration level and teacher absence rate.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was a replication study of one that was conducted approximately 16 years ago in a large metropolitan school system in Georgia. Particularly, this study was conducted to see if data would suggest different findings in a suburban school system in Georgia. Principally, this study investigated the relationships among teacher absenteeism, principal leadership styles, and teacher frustration levels. The study was concerned with the following questions:

1. What relationship exists between teacher absenteeism and the leadership style of principals? Do schools with Theory-X style leaders have different absence rates than schools with Theory-Y style leaders?

2. What relationship exists between teacher absenteeism and teacher frustration levels? Do schools with higher levels of teacher frustration levels experience greater teacher absenteeism?

3. What relationship exists between principal leadership style and teacher frustration levels? Specifically, do schools with Theory-X or Theory-Y style leadership experience greater or smaller levels of teacher frustration?

Based on these questions, the following hypotheses were formed:

1A) There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

1B) There is a statistically significant negative relationship between teacher absenteeism and the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale.

2) There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teacher absenteeism and the teachers' frustration levels as evidenced by their scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale.

3A) There is a statistically siginificant positive relationship between the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels as evidenced by their scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale.

3B) There is a statistically siginificant negative relationship between the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers' frustration levels as evidenced by their scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale.

Summary of Findings and Conclusions

Hypotheses 1A and 1B.

Data determined that a significant positive relationship at the .05 level between teacher absenteeism and Theory-X style leaders as measured by the Managerial Philosophies Scale did not exist. Much of the review of literature supports the idea that the school principal has significant impact on school operations, both positively and negatively (Anderman, Belzer, & Smith, 1991; Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988; Hunter-Boykin, Evans, & Evans, 1995; Jacobson, 1990; and, Stallings & Mohlman, 1981). Additionally, there is a great deal of literature from business and industry that supports the notion that managerial style has significant influence on employee attendance (Capitan, Costanza, & Klucher, 1980; Lippman, 2001; Mitchell, 2001; Pellicer, 1984, and Steers & Rhodes, 1990). Yet, regardless of what historical research suggests about managerial style and employee absenteeism, no statistically, significant positive

relationship was found to exist between Theory-X or Theory-Y style leaders and teacher absenteeism.

Hypothesis 2.

Although research has linked teacher frustration to job satisfaction (Pellicer, 1984), this study found no statistically significant, positive relationship between teacher frustration level, as measured by the OFS, and teacher absenteeism at the .05 level. According to Pellicer (1984), a lack of job satisfaction caused serious withdrawal problems among teachers that resulted in excessive absenteeism. Elliott (1982) also identified several characteristics of job satisfaction that he found to be related to teacher absenteeism. He found that high levels of absenteeism occur in school districts where there are low levels of faculty agreement about the goals and policies of the community and district. However, low levels of absenteeism are reported in districts with high levels of community support and policy agreement, and when there are smaller sub-units within the school, and the teachers in those units are interdependent. Other factors contributing to teacher frustration like job assignment, salary, and organization size and climate have also been linked to higher levels of job dissatisfaction (Pitkoff, 1993; Elliott, 1982; Rossmiller, 1992; Hunter-Boykin, Evans, & Evans, 1995). Yet, despite the findings of earlier research in teacher frustration, defined by some as job satisfaction, being linked to teacher absenteeism, this research study concurs with Rocquemore (1988) in finding that there is no significant relationship between the two.

Hypotheses 3A.

Unlike Rocquemore's (1988) study, a significant, positive relationship at the .05 level was found between Theory X-scores of principals as measured on the MPS and teacher frustration levels as measured by the OFS. In the participating system, these findings suggest

that teachers in schools where principals posted higher Theory-X scores experienced greater levels of frustration.

Hypothesis 3A intended to determine if a significant, positive relationship existed between the X-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers mean scores on the Organizational Frustration Scale. Since the r-value of .335 was significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 4); therefore, a significant, positive relation did exist between the X-scores of principals and the teachers' frustration levels as measured by the Organizational Frustration Scale. Similar findings were found by Blase and Kirby (1992). They found the principal plays a key role in teacher burnout and stress, both as a major source of support and the main source of stress.

According to McGregor (1967), managers who subscribe to Theory-X style leadership hold underlying assumptions about their employees. Among other assumptions, Theory-X style managers assume most people prefer to be directed, are not interested in assuming responsibility, and want safety above all else. Managers who accept these assumptions attempt to control, structure and closely supervise their employees and believe that external control is appropriate for dealing with unreliable and irresponsible employees. Based on the findings of this research, principals with higher levels of Theory-X beliefs had teachers with higher levels of frustration. Literature has already established that frustration is a symptom of stress (Derobbio & Iwanicki, 1996). Teachers often cite stress as a reason for leaving the profession, including stress caused by negative relationships with their building principals. Acknowledgement of the impact of principals' leadership behaviors on school outcomes has generated an extensive body of research over the past decade (Leithwood, Bagley, & Cousins, 1991). The importance of strong leadership at the school level and the effect of certain

leadership behaviors of the principal are both explicit and implicit in professional literature and research. The principal has been singled out as the most important factor in effective schools (Gallmeier, 1992).

Hypothesis 3B – Null Rejected

Hypothesis 3B intended to determine if a significant, negative relationship existed between the Y-scores of principals on the Managerial Philosophies Scale and the teachers mean scores on the OFS. Since the r-value of -.163 was significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 4); therefore, a significant, negative relation did exist between the Y-scores of principals and the teachers' level of frustration as measured by the OFS.

In contrast to Theory-X beliefs of human nature, managers who adhere to Theory Y beliefs believe that people are not naturally lazy and unreliable. In fact, Theory Y style managers believe that people are self-directed, creative, and motivated intrinsically rather than extrinsically. McGregor (1967) cautioned against oversimplifying his theory by assuming that Theory-X style leadership is bad and that Theory-Y style leadership is good. However, data from this research alludes to greater positive outcomes in the form of less teacher frustration from principals with stronger Theory Y beliefs. A number of research studies over the last decade have analyzed the relationship between principals' leadership style and decision-making processes and teacher satisfaction and performance (Kirby et al., 1992; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995).

Recommendations for Further Study

Considering the great financial costs and the loss of instructional time students suffer, the investigator recommends further study regarding teacher absenteeism. The following recommendations are recommended based on the findings of this study and previous research:

1. Further research in the area of teacher absenteeism and principal leadership style is not recommended.

2. Based on the rejection of null hypothesis 3A and 3B in this study, the researcher recommends additional research be conducted regarding the relationship between the level of frustration experienced by teachers and the managerial style of principals.

3. Based on the findings of this research and previous research (Roquemore, 1987), the investigator does not believe additional research should be conducted regarding the relationship between teacher absence rate and teacher frustration level based on school means.

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APPENDIX A

Letters of Approval

711 Green Street
Suite 100
Gainesville, Georgia 30505-0298
770-534-1080
FAX 770-535-7404

HALL COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM

OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

DENNIS L. FORDHAM
Superintendent

October 3, 2002

Mr. John Barge
Chestatee High School
3005 Sardis Road
Gainesville, Georgia 30506

Dear Mr. Barge:

Pursuant to your request in your letter of September 25, 2002, you are hereby granted permission to survey the principals and teachers in each Hall County school to collect data for your doctoral dissertation study.

Sincerely,

D L Fordham

Dennis L. Fordham

CHESTATEE HIGH SCHOOL

3005 SARDIS ROAD
GAINESVILLE, GEORGIA 30506
770-532-1162
FAX: 770-532-2202

JOHN D. BARGE
PRINCIPAL

ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS
DR. TERRY SAPP
LORRAINE HOOPER
STAN LEWIS

September 18, 2002

Dr. Paul Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida
Tampa, Florida 33620

Dear Dr. Spector:

I am replicating a study conducted in a metro-Atlanta school system 15 years ago. In this previous study, the researcher used a measurement entitled the Organizational Frustration Scale. I am interested in using the OFS in a new study of teacher absenteeism in a suburban Atlanta school system. The purpose of the study is, as it was then, to examine the relationship between teacher frustration levels and teacher absenteeism. Additionally, the study will examine the relationship between principal leadership styles and teacher frustration levels.

If you could furnish me with a copy of the questionnaire and any information on the previous use of the instrument, I would appreciate it. Additionally, could send information regarding the reliability and validity of the instrument along with a copy of the article entitled "The Reactions of Employees to Frustration in an Organizational Setting?"

If I am given permission to use the instrument, I will gladly supply you with all the data concerning it's use in my study. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

John Barge

John Barge

Chestatee . . . The Place To Be!

Industrial/Organizational Psychology
Department of Psychology
Tampa, Florida 33620

September 27, 2002

John Barge, Principal
Chestatee High School
3005 Sardis Road
Gainesville, GA 30506

Dear Mr Barge:

You have my permission to use the OF Scale, the Organizational Constraints Scale, and any of the other scales mentioned on my website for your research.

Sincerely,

Paul E. Spector, Ph.D.
Professor and Director
Industrial/Organizational Psychology Doctoral Program

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Page: 1

(770) 532-1162 Ext. 000

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John Barge
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Gainesville GA 30506

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John Barge
3005 Sardis Rd
Gainesville GA 30506

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APPENDIX B

Managerial Philosophies Scale

Managerial Philosophies Scale

The following list of statements includes some conflicting and opposing points of view. You may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing strongly with others, and not really knowing how you feel about still others.

Whether you agree or disagree with a statement, you can be sure there are other people who feel pretty much as you do. The point is that there are no right or wrong answers on this scale, just different points of view. So the *best* response is *your* personal opinion, *your point of view.*

The major benefit from completing this scale is information about yourself, so respond to all the statements honestly. Attempts to give a "correct" response or to answer the way you think others would want you to will only reduce the accuracy and value of your scores.

Please read each statement and, using a pencil or a ball point pen, *circle* the appropriate value to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Press hard enough to make an impression on the NCR page inside.

	I Agree				I Disagree		
	Very Much	On The Whole	A Little	Uncertain	A Little	On The Whole	Very Much
1. The average human being will avoid work if possible.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
2. The best way for a manager to get things done is to use personal authority to direct people.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
3. The potentialities of the average human being are far above those which are typically recognized in organizations today.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
4. Good managers should strive for rationality and the elimination of emotional factors on the job.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
5. Most people work only because they have to.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
6. Most employees are capable of exercising a certain amount of autonomy and independence on the job.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
7. It is only natural for people to seek their most rewarding experiences off the job.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
8. Most employees want maximum reward for minimum effort.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
9. In most organizations one can generally trust one's subordinates.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
10. The average human being prefers to be directed.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
11. Problems which arise in the organization should always be considered coldly and objectively.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
12. Even the lowliest untalented laborer seeks a sense of meaning and accomplishment in work.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
13. In order to insure that they work toward the organization's goals, employees must be controlled and directed by supervisors.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
14. The average human being wants security above all.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
15. Under proper conditions, the average person in an organization learns not only to accept but to seek responsibility.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
16. People's personal goals run counter to those of organizations.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3

	I Agree				I Disagree		
	Very Much	On The Whole	A Little	Uncertain	A Little	On The Whole	Very Much
17. Even increased pay is usually not enough to overcome people's inherent dislike of work.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
18. In most organizations one can generally trust one's superiors.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
19. Employees will always try to get away with as much as they can.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
20. The most prevalent type employee wants security.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
21. For many organizational tasks, managers can rely on the individual to exercise inner self-control.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
22. Most people are by nature either indifferent or antagonistic toward the goals of the industrial enterprise.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
23. Most employees in any organization do not possess the potential to be "self-starters" on the job.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
24. Most employees have the capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
25. The average human being has relatively little ambition.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
26. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
27. People do not need external controls and the threat of punishment, but will exercise inner self-direction and self-control to attain organizational objectives to which they are personally committed.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
28. In order for people to really be productive in an organization they must be motivated by outside incentives such as money and fringe benefits.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
29. The average human being wishes to avoid responsibility.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
30. In most organizations one can generally trust one's peers and colleagues.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
31. The best strategy for dealing with potential conflict from subordinates is to "divide and rule" — that is, to promote interaction between oneself and individual subordinates, and to discourage interaction between subordinates themselves.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
32. Giving greater independence to most employees would be bad for the organization.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
33. The average human being can find work a source of satisfaction.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
34. People must usually be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
35. It is frequently a wise procedure never to be too trusting of others in a working organization.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3
36. People are primarily self-motivated and self-controlled.	+3	+2	+1	?	−1	−2	−3

APPENDIX C

The Organizational Frustration Scale

Organizational Frustration Scale

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following:

+3 = Agree completely	-3 = Disagree completely
+2 = Agree pretty much	-2 = Disagree pretty much
+1 = Agree slightly	-1 = Disagree slightly

1.	People act nasty toward me at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
2.	I find that everytime I try to do something at work I run into obstacles.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
3.	There are a lot of petty and arbitrary rules at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
4.	I feel thwarted in my efforts to be creative.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
5.	My supervisor is always chewing me out.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
6.	My supervisor feels my performance is worse than it is.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
7.	I find it easy to talk to my supervisor.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
8.	I feel that I am accomplishing something worthwhile at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
9.	I enjoy my job.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
10.	The demands made of me at work are reasonable.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
11.	Policies at work are not fair.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
12.	My work area is a pleasant place to be.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
13.	I often feel that I am being run ragged.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
14.	I am given entirely too much work to do.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
15.	I find that some of the people I have to deal with are not competent.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
16.	I often have problems doing my job becasue of the incompetence of others.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
17.	My supervisor always seems to be looking over my shoulder.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
18.	My supervisor does not trust me.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
19.	I feel trapped in my job.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3

+3 = Agree completely
+2 = Agree pretty much
+1 = Agree slightly
-1 = Disagree slightly
-2 = Disagree pretty much
-3 = Disagree completely

20.	My job is not at all fulfilling.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
21.	I dread having to interact with my supervisor.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
22.	I do not like many of the tasks I have to do.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
23.	My job is boring and monotonous.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
24.	I get blamed for things that are not my fault.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
25.	I don't have the authority to do what I am supposed to do at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
26.	It seems that one person tells me to do one thing and another person tells me to do something else at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
27.	I am told to do things I don't think I should do at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
28.	I often have to waste time doing administrative tasks at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
29.	I often feel frustrated at work.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3

APPENDIX D

Letters to Principals and Teachers

Dear Colleague,

I'm writing to request your participation in a research project that will investigate "The Relationships Among Teacher Absenteeism, Principals' Leadership Styles and Teachers' Frustration Level." The study is being conducted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for my Doctorate of Education degree in Educational Leadership from the University of Georgia and may be published. This study has been approved by:

Dr. Thomas Holmes, Professor
College of Education, School of Leadership and Lifelong Learning
129 River's Crossing
850 College Station Road
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30602
(706)542-3891

The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationships among teacher absenteeism, principals' leadership styles and teachers' frustration level. Results of the study could provide administrators with insight into the variables which may influence teacher frustration and absenteeism.

Your participation in the study is strictly voluntary and you may choose to withdraw at anytime. You may express your intent to withdraw by simply returning your incomplete survey to me. However, I would hope that you see the potential benefit in this research and choose to participate. Please know that although there are school identifiers on your surveys, it is simply in order to link your surveys with your teachers' surveys, and your answers are strictly confidential. Neither your school nor the school system will be identified in any final write ups and all data will be presented as aggregates. The survey is a simple 36 item questionnaire that should take you approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask now or to call or email me at a later date.

Sincerely,

John Barge
(770)532-1162
john.barge@hallco.org

For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.

Dear Teacher,

I'm writing to request your participation in a research project that will investigate the relationships among teacher absenteeism, principals' leadership styles and teachers' frustration level. The study is being conducted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for my Doctorate of Education degree in Educational Leadership from the University of Georgia and may be published. This study has been approved by:

Dr. David Weller, Professor
College of Education, School of Leadership and Lifelong Learning
129 River's Crossing
850 College Station Road
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30602
(706)542-3891

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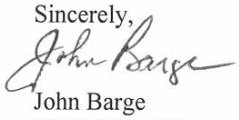
Your participation in the study is strictly voluntary and you may choose to withdraw at anytime. You may express your intent to withdraw by simply returning your incomplete survey to the surveyor. However, I would hope that you see the potential benefit in this research and choose to participate. Please know that your participation is anonymous. All teachers in your school are being asked to participate. The identifiers on your surveys are simply there to link your schools' results to your administrator's scores on the Managerial Philosophies Scale. DO NOT place your name on the instrument. The survey is a simple 29 item questionnaire that should take you approximately 10 minutes to complete. Once you have completed the instrument, return it to the surveyor.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask now or to call or email me at a later date.

Sincerely,



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