

THE INTERACTING EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIOR AND SITUATIONAL VARIABLES
ON TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION

By

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

The present study was designed to replicate, in an educational context, previous research based on the Path Goal Theory of Leadership by determining the effects of leader behavior on teachers' job satisfaction under varying conditions of role clarity and locus of control. The basic hypotheses under examination reflect the propositions of the Path-Goal Theory that leaders influence their subordinates' perceptions of work goals, personal goals and paths to goal attainment. The leaders' influence is seen as effective when the basic needs of subordinates are associated with specific leadership behaviors and these variables are, in turn, positively related to job satisfaction.

Perhaps no topic has generated as much interest in behavioral science research as the concept of leadership. The pursuit of effective methods of managing the human potential in organizations has resulted in an abundance of empirical investigations in the last 75 years. Much of this research has been centered on the study of those leadership behaviors which distinguish group effectiveness from group ineffectiveness.

Several scholars who have conducted independent reviews of the leadership and effectiveness research literature conclude that the

results between studies are frequently inconsistent (Schriesheim and De Nisi, 1980). To explain these patterns of inconsistency, contingency theories were developed.

The general proposition of contingency theory is that the leadership style necessary to achieve group effectiveness is contingent upon situational variables (Fiedler, 1967). Since a group's success in accomplishing selected tasks depends upon how appropriately the leader and situation are matched, there is no one leadership style most effective in all situations (Hoy and Miskel, 1978).

One of the earliest contingency theories, Fiedler's Contingency Model, is often not appropriate for educational research because of several theoretical assumptions which are frequently violated in school settings. First, the theory is relevant only to those situations in which there are interacting groups, that is, groups whose members depend upon one another to accomplish the primary goal. Research designs incorporating groups whose members accomplish goals either independently of each other or in competition with one another violate the interaction group assumption. Second, the definition of effectiveness includes only primary task completion of the production function. Thus, other outcomes, such as positive self-concepts or job satisfaction, exceed the theoretical definition. And finally, Fiedler deals with the construct of leadership style as opposed to leadership behavior. Leadership style is defined as a trait versus a state, that is as a relatively enduring personality characteristic rather than a pattern of behavior. Thus the leaders in Fiedler's model are not free to adapt to a situation, but rather must seek a situation in which their particular leadership style is congruent with the context.

Since much of what is done in education is accomplished with groups who work independently of each other, with goals which are far too complex to include only instrumental task completion, and with leaders who must be flexible enough to adapt to ever-changing situations; Fiedler's Model is often inappropriate.

Thus it appears important to base leadership investigations on a theoretical model which has the potential for explaining inconsistent research findings as well as rendering itself compatible with the social situation to be studied. One such theoretical possibility, Path-Goal Theory of Leadership, will be the focus for this study. Accordingly, the purpose of this study will be to test the basic model of the Path-Goal Theory to determine its validity in educational settings.

Significance of the Study

Silver (1983) states that, while leadership behavior can be measured, a theory for interpreting it is lacking. Without a theoretical foundation, research results lose their significance for interpretation, a task endemic to the field of research. The intent of this study was to examine the theoretical adequacy of the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership in an educational setting. The corroboration of the propositions advanced in the theory will aid in the further development of leadership theory.

As more evidence is compiled regarding the relevance of the theory to educational research, wider implications will be drawn from the theory. If a number of studies validate the model, it will be useful in training leaders and aspiring leaders to acquire appropriate leadership skills and to learn to modify their leadership behavior to fit the

demands of the task, the individual and the environment.

Definition of Terms

Leadership Behaviors - three major behavioral dimensions emerging from leadership research are identified as:

Initiating Structure: the degree to which the leader initiates psychological structure for subordinates by defining a role and letting followers know what is expected by specifying procedures to be followed and scheduling work to be done (House, 1971).

Tolerance of Freedom: the degree to which the leader allows followers scope for initiative decision and action (Stogdill, 1975).

Consideration: The degree to which the leader regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), 1967).

Locus of Control: degree to which an individual sees the environment as responsive to one's behavior (Rotter, 1966).

Internal: individual who believes that events happen because of one's personal behavior or attributes; that one has personal control over rewards and will take action when action is perceived to lead to rewards that are valued or desired (Spector, 1982).

External: individual who believes that events happen to him because of luck or chance and occur independently of one's own actions; who may ignore the reinforcement contingencies in a situation as a result of not taking responsibility for the action (Spector, 1982).

Role Ambiguity: degree to which a subordinate sees the work role demands as ambiguous and unpredictable (Fulk and Wendler, 1982).

Leadership Effectiveness Variables

General Job Satisfaction: an aspect of a job perceived as the worker would like it to be and is a composite of both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction (MSQ Manual, 1967).

Intrinsic Satisfaction: an employee's feelings of self-worth and well-being emanating from type of work performed, achievement and ability utilization (MSQ Manual, 1967).

Extrinsic Satisfaction: an employee's feelings of self-worth and well-being emanating from environmental factors such as working conditions, supervision, co-workers, and company (MSQ Manual, 1967).

Theoretical Background

Although classified as one among several contingency theories, the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership originates from the broader expectancy theory of motivation proposed by Vroom (1964). Evans (1969) related and extended relevant expectancy concepts to the area of leadership. The resulting Path-Goal Theory was modified by House in 1971 and again in 1974 by incorporating situational variables into the model. The revised theory defines the relationship between leader behavior, moderating situational variables and effectiveness.

Since the revised path goal is eclectic in nature, a brief description of its evolution will be offered in the following sections: Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Evan's Path-Goal Theory, and House's revised version of Path-Goal Theory.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom (1964) proposes an expectancy theory as an explanation of

work behavior. It is one of a class of theories which revolves around the principle of expected values. The theory combines two major elements: one's belief that a personal action will have a specific outcome (expectancy), and the belief that an indirect outcome with a valence will follow the direct outcome (instrumentality). Thus, according to the theory, an individual chooses a behavior based on the belief that one's behavior will result in an outcome and that there are reinforcements with positive or negative valences forthcoming.

Outcomes desired by an individual are considered positively valent and outcomes not desired are negatively valent. As a result, valences can extend over a wide range of values. Vroom emphasizes that the individual's perception of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction to be gained is the important element of expectancy theory.

Evans' Path-Goal Theory

Evans (1969) proposes a Path-Goal Theory of leadership within the expectancy theoretical framework. In examining the behavior of the leader, he attempts to explain how the supervisor motivates the subordinate. In doing so, he outlines a motivational model (see Figure 1).

According to Evans (1970), path-goal instrumentality can be defined simply as: the degree to which the individual perceives that a given path will lead to a particular goal. It is at the point of path-goal instrumentality that the leader has the greatest opportunity to influence the subordinate.

Evans uses two dimensions of supervisory behavior, Initiating

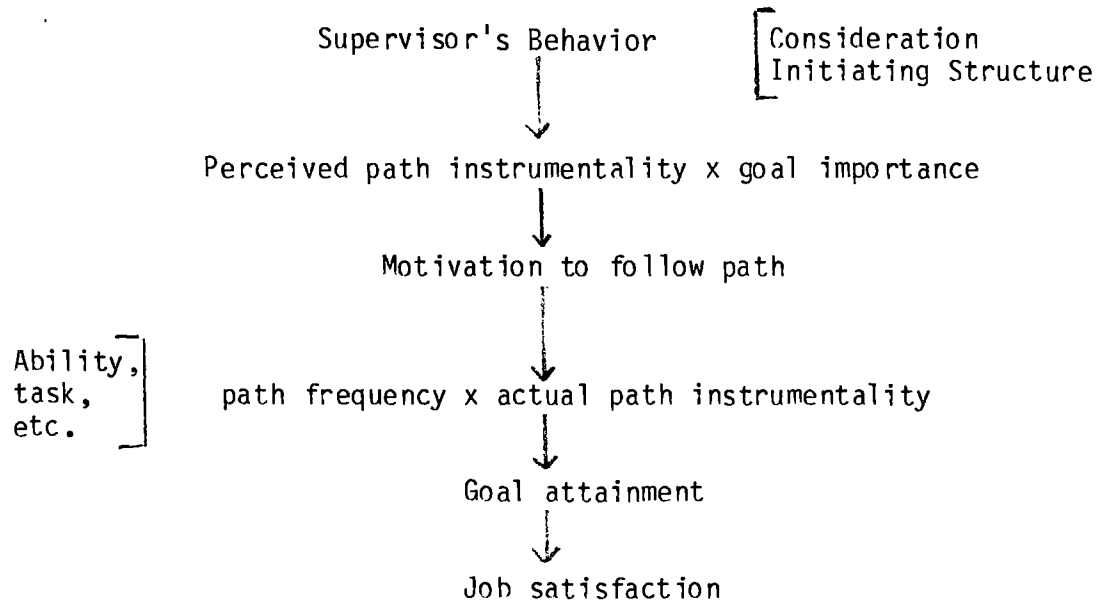


Figure 1. Motivational Model

Structure, and Consideration, to explain their effects on path-goal instrumentality and its subsequent influence on leader effectiveness.

The exact nature of this process is set out in the following propositions:

1. The subordinate must perceive the possibility of goal achievement with a supply of rewards available. Generally, the leader is the source of reward supplies. The considerate leader will, according to theory, offer rewards in all subordinate need areas such as pay, security, promotion, social and esteem, and he will distribute these rewards according to the individual subordinates' desires. The less considerate leader will reward in the limited areas of pay and security and will make the choice as to which subordinates receive the rewards.
2. The subordinate must perceive a connection between a (personal) behavior and the reward outcome. The leader who exhibits initiating structure will have the greatest impact on this level. A leader high in initiating structure will indicate which paths to follow and will link the rewards to successful following of a path.
3. Through initiating structure, the leader indicates the paths believed to be most appropriate for the role of the subordinate (p. 96).

As seen, consideration and structure together influence path-goal instrumentality. Consideration affects the supply of rewards but does not affect the contingency that a particular path will lead to the outcomes. Structure affects the contingency whereby paths are rewarded but does not affect the reward supply.

In summary, Evans (1969) states that supervisory behavior will only have an impact on worker behavior and satisfaction if the following conditions are met:

1. Supervisory behavior is related to the path instrumentalities perceived by the worker.
2. Path instrumentalities are related to satisfaction and performance (p. 96).

House's Path-Goal Theory

While Evan's theory provided the link between leader behavior and subordinates' expectations that one's efforts will lead to rewards, it remained for House to advance a more complex theory within this framework.

House (1971) introduced two types of situational variables which were proposed to influence the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction. The two variables were: (a) personal characteristics of the subordinates, and (b) environmental characteristics. Conceptually, personal characteristics, such as the subordinates' locus of control, were thought to determine how the subordinate perceives the leader's behavior. Whether that behavior is seen as a source of satisfaction or instrumental to future satisfaction reflects the degree to which the subordinate has an external or internal source of motivation. The environmental characteristics included those factors determined to be outside the control of the individual but which serve to motivate or constrain the subordinates' behavior. House and Mitchell (1974) identified tasks of the subordinate, authority system of the organization and the primary work group as three classifications of contingency factors in the environment.

House's Path-Goal Theory sets forth four basic propositions. The first asserts that one of the functions of the leader is to clarify the paths subordinates travel to their goals so that they are motivated to perform and to achieve satisfaction. The second states that when the leader exhibits clarifying behavior, role ambiguity will be reduced for the subordinates, resulting in increased motivation. A third proposition declares that when tasks are routine, attempts by the leader

to clarify the path-goal relationship will be seen by the subordinates as redundant, thereby decreasing satisfaction. And finally, attempts made by the leader to satisfy subordinates' needs will mean increased performance since satisfaction determines the valence associated with subordinates' goals.

In summary, House (1971) proposed that leaders have extensive influence over the subordinates' work behaviors in several ways. In their positions as leaders, they are able to control the rewards for work achievement as well as the kinds of rewards, whether financial, promotional or individual growth and development opportunities. As a result, leaders are able to control extrinsic outcomes which are available to the subordinate.

The leaders are able to clarify the paths subordinates take in an effort to achieve their goals. Leaders accomplish this task by consistently recognizing and rewarding work-goal achievement which is expected to increase the subordinates' path instrumentality.

Additionally, leaders can show support for the efforts the subordinates make in achieving goals and this support increases the subordinates' chances of success.

The leaders can also increase the valence the subordinates have for the task by allowing worker input in goal setting. The more the subordinates are allowed to participate in their own goal setting, the more they value work-goal achievement.

The leader's final influence is concerned with the ability to make the subordinates' paths to their goals easier by removing any barriers which might frustrate progress.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The three dimensions of Path-Goal Theory; leader behavior, situational factors and leader effectiveness; will be used as organizing elements for a review of the literature.

The four resulting sections and the order of presentation are as follows:

1. Studies of the relationships between leader behaviors and situational factors.
2. Studies of the relationship between leader behaviors and leader effectiveness.
3. Studies of the relationship between situational factors and leader effectiveness.
4. Studies of the interaction effects of leader behavior and situational factors on leader effectiveness.

Studies of Relationships Between Leader Behaviors and Situational Factors

It is generally accepted that leadership is a complex phenomenon, and that leadership effectiveness is often contingent upon the situation. While there are many factors which have been investigated as important components of leadership effectiveness, role ambiguity and locus of control are situational variables which appear often in the

literature. Therefore, this section is arranged according to the studies of relationships between leader behavior and locus of control and leader behavior and role clarity.

Studies of the Relationship Between Leader Behavior and Locus of Control

The focus of recent leadership research has been on the relationship between leadership behavior and various situational variables. Locus of control of the subordinate is often researched as one antecedent variable which is useful in predicting effective leadership behavior.

Rotter (1966) uses an individual's perception of how much personal control is being exerted over the events in one's life to delineate two prototypes. A person with an internal locus of control sees the outcome of behavior as the result of one's own efforts. The person with an external locus of control believes that the events in life are beyond personal control and are attributable to fate, luck or destiny.

Findings in a study by Pryer and Distefano (1971) related that subordinates who were identified as external according to Rotter's Internal-External scale perceived their supervisors as exhibiting less considerate behavior. Three groups were involved in the study and this relationship was consistent in all groups.

Durand and Nord (1976) reported similar findings in a study conducted at four locations of a midwestern textile and plastics firm. External workers perceived their leaders as high in initiating structure and low in consideration. Consistent with what is known about

externals, subordinates who believe they have little or no control over their environment make no attempt to influence their working conditions or supervisors. As a result, the supervisor does not respond to the needs of the externals, reinforcing those subordinates' belief that their leaders are low in consideration.

In a recent study Spector (1982) examined the relationship between supervisory style and locus of control. He found that external subordinates exhibit more compliant behavior than internals. Internals are prone to be resistant to control by those in leadership positions. As a result, external subordinates would be easier to supervise since they would be more likely to follow directions.

In a 1973 study, Runyon tested the hypothesis that internal subordinates would be happier with a leader who exhibited participative style than would external subordinates. Runyon's sample was 110 hourly employees divided into two groups: those working for a participative supervisor and those working for a directive supervisor. The participative style of management allowed the internally controlled worker to experience more freedom on the job in terms of personal initiative and responsibility. In contrast, an externally controlled subordinate required more direction and structure and became unhappy with a participative leadership style.

Craven and Worchel (1977) conducted a laboratory simulation of a repetitive job in an attempt to examine the reaction of subordinates to leaders' behavior. They cited data which suggested that externals would likely conform to direct attempts to control their behavior but that internals would likely resist control attempts. The study indicated that internals complied less frequently with the coercive supervisor than

did externals. There were no differences with the noncoercive supervisor.

Attempting a similar analysis, Biondo and MacDonald (1970) tested 198 undergraduate students to examine how externals or internals would react to low and high influence messages from a supervisor. Results show that internals were resistant to the influence while externals moved in the conforming directions. As hypothesized, externals were significantly conforming to both low and high influence messages while internals moved against the high influence message. Results of internals responding to low influence were not significant.

These studies support the proposition that effective leadership styles may vary depending upon the subordinates' locus of control. Generally, it is suggested that externals prefer a more structured style while internals prefer a participative leadership style.

Studies of Relationship Between Leader Behavior and Role Clarity

Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) created a twelve item questionnaire to test role ambiguity against leadership variables identified by the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Stogdill, 1963). It is reported that when leaders and subordinates have more direct contact, role ambiguity in subordinates is lower. Direct contact is described as the leader's emphasis on production when conditions are uncertain, providing structure and standards for the subordinate, facilitating teamwork, tolerating freedom and exerting upward influence.

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) concluded that a

leader's ability to communicate reduces role ambiguity. As an organization increases in size and complexity it becomes more difficult for a leader to respond to subordinate needs. This results in subordinate role ambiguity. Without leader communication, the subordinates who do not know what their duties are, what authority they have or how they are to be evaluated will use trial and error learning in meeting the expectations of the organization.

In a recent study, Frost (1983) investigated the relationship between leaders' behaviors and subordinate role ambiguity. He cited Buck (1972) and Rizzo, et al. (1970) as reporting evidence which indicated the "boss" often serves as a source of stress for employees, and role ambiguity is an example of this stress. He used data from 123 male officers in a large fire department. He administered the scale developed by Rizzo and others for role perception and gave each officer's immediate supervisor the LBDQ measure. The measures were adapted to reflect those items indicating leader behavior such as: consideration, production emphasis, initiating structure, boss clarity and boss conflict. Boss clarity indicates a leader who provides clarity to the subordinates' role and boss conflict indicates a leader behavior which forces subordinates to deviate from standard operating procedure. In the study, boss conflict and boss ambiguity were strongly correlated with role ambiguity.

As indicated by these studies, one of the major psychological functions a leader performs for subordinates is the reduction of role ambiguity. It is suggested that this might be accomplished by engaging in a more structured leadership behavior.

Studies of Relationships Between Leader Behaviors and Leader Effectiveness

Studies relating to leader behavior and effectiveness yield inconsistent results. The studies presented in this section, therefore, will be grouped according to the following categories: studies showing no relationship between leader behavior and leader effectiveness, studies showing a negative relationship between leader behavior and leader effectiveness, and studies showing a positive relationship between leader behavior and leader effectiveness.

Studies Showing No Relationship Between Leader Behavior and Leader Effectiveness

In two separate studies, one by Badin (1973) and one by Greene (1979), it was determined that there was not a significant relationship between leader initiating structure and leader effectiveness as measured by a rating scale completed by superintendents. Badin tested 489 employees in a large manufacturing firm. In one of two studies which Greene investigated, relationships were inconclusive or did not support the theory.

Downey, Sheridan and Slocum (1975) in an analysis of relationships among leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction concluded that leader initiating structure was not significantly related to the dimensions of job satisfaction. In both structured and unstructured task situations the leadership style explains only a small portion of the variance in the subordinate's job satisfaction.

Lowin, Hrapchak and Kavangh (1969) found a lack of relationship

between initiating structure and productivity. They proposed several factors which were believed to affect this finding, including the complexity of the task, the expertise of the subordinate and the expertise of the supervisor.

Pfeffer (1982) contends that leadership has little observable effect on organizational performance. He states leadership is limited as a result of a social system which constrains and inhibits the leadership behavior, forcing conformity and suppressing creativity. He further suggests that external forces such as state and federal laws require decisions of the leader which limit effectiveness.

Eitzen and Yetman (1972) replicated a study by Grusky (1963) whose intent was to study the relationship between administrators and the degree of organizational effectiveness. To investigate this relationship, Grusky used the records of professional basketball teams because each team is alike in terms of size, official goal and authority structure. Research was based on the premise that three consequences can result from a change in leadership; the effectiveness of the organization may increase, decrease, or stay the same. Yetman's study examines college basketball teams' records and found coaching changes and team effectiveness to be inversely related but this relationship depended on team performance prior to the change. This led to the conclusion that coaching shifts do not affect performance.

Similar results were found by Salanick and Pfeffer (1977) in a study of municipal performance. They studied the impact mayors had on city government in 30 cities over an 18 year period. They found that situational factors had the greatest influence on organizational performance. The magnitude of the leaders' influence on performance was

not more than 15 percent. Popular views had overestimated the mayor's influence on changes in the city.

Lieberson and O'Connor (1972) compared leadership influence in 167 corporations and from their 20-year longitudinal analysis concluded that more variance in organizational performance could be a result of environmental factors rather than leadership influence. They found that no more than 15 percent of performance variance was explained by variance in individual chief executive officers.

Coltrin and Glueck (1977) examined the relationship of levels of productivity of research professors and the leadership role of university administrators. Administrators' roles were divided into seven dimensions including behaviors such as integrity, helpfulness and communications. Results indicated subordinate productivity did not appear to be significantly influenced by leadership style. Authors suggested this may be a result of subordinates perceiving their superiors as having little influence or control over the reward system.

Studies Showing an Inverse Relationship Between Leadership Behavior and Effectiveness

Szilagyi and Sims (1974) collected data from paramedical and support personnel at a major medical center. They tested the hypothesis that according to past research efforts, a positive relationship would exist between leader initiating structure and subordinate satisfaction. They found a significant inverse relationship between leader initiating structure and subordinate satisfaction and offered several conclusions: the path-goal theory may need further development, testing was conducted

in a humanistic or service environment rather than an industrial setting or the various testing instruments may account for differences.

Fleishman and Harris (1962) examined the leadership behavior of fifty-seven production foremen. The sample was drawn from employees in a truck manufacturing plant. The criteria used to evaluate leader effectiveness were the number of written grievances and the amount of voluntary turnover among the subordinates during an eleven month period. The larger the number of grievances reported, the greater the leader's ineffectiveness. Results indicate that those supervisors high on initiating structure had more turnover and grievances in their work units than did those leaders exhibiting high consideration.

Studies Showing a Positive Relationship Between Leader Behavior and Leader Effectiveness

Studies which report positive correlations between leader behaviors and leader effectiveness are abundant.

Schrusheim and De Nisi (1980) using a two-sample test related consistent and strong support for the path-goal theory. Researchers tested only one leadership dimension, an instrumental style, and discovered that instrumental leader behavior has a significant positive effect on subordinate satisfaction with supervision.

In a 1971 study, House reported that a high degree of leader supportiveness is required for organizational effectiveness and member satisfaction. Also reported were findings that leader initiating structure will have a positive effect on both performance and member satisfaction.

House, Filley, and Kerr (1971) tested the hypothesis that leaders' consideration behavior will have a significant effect on subordinates' satisfaction across three different organizations. The data were gathered from employees in a petroleum refinery, a business machine manufacturer, and an air-frame manufacturer. All the satisfaction scores (with company, job, advancement, pay, job security, job freedom) for all three companies were positively related to leader consideration. The strongest correlations at the .01 level between consideration and satisfaction were concerned with satisfaction with company and satisfaction with job security.

Johns, (1978) with a sample of 700 employees, found the relationship between structure and satisfaction measures was positively related and inversely related to turnover intentions. Under all task conditions, consideration was positively related to satisfaction measures.

In a study relating leadership behavior to satisfaction and performance, authors Roberts, Miles and Blankenship (1968) found the democratic-participative leadership behavior is positively related to satisfaction and performance. Attitudes of support and confidence in subordinates as shown by leadership behavior were also found to be related to satisfaction and performance.

Smith, Carson, Alexander (1984), sampled 50 Methodist ministers in an effort to determine if effective leaders had an impact on organizational effectiveness. The hypothesis tested was that effective leaders would have a greater, positive effect on church variables than the average or low performing leader. The variables were identified as attendance membership, property value, general giving, total giving, United Methodist women giving, and salary earned. as found that effective ministers led congregations who experienced more membership growth and

Additional support was found in studies by Weiner and Mahoney (1981), and Bowers and Seashore (1966). Results indicated that initiating structure and consideration were significantly related to all dimensions of job satisfaction in both structured and unstructured tasks.

Another study indicating similar findings is that of Fulk and Wendler (1982). The sample for the study included 308 clerical and managerial employees of a large public utility company. The primary effects of leader behaviors on the subordinate's satisfactions level were analyzed. The leader behaviors tested included achievement-oriented, contingent approval, arbitrary and punitive, and influencing. Contingent approval behavior was most strongly related to supervision satisfaction. This behavior involves the leader's delivery of positive feedback in the form of recognition and approval.

In an educational setting and under experimental conditions, Dawson, Messe¹ and Phillips, (1972) conducted a study in which consideration and initiating structure behaviors were manipulated. Results indicated students in classes taught with teachers high in consideration were higher on three measures of performance than students taught with teachers low in consideration. Students taught with teachers high in initiating structure also performed high on the first measure, submission of bibliographies. Overall the results established the positive influence of consideration and initiating structure on performance.

Kunz and Hoy (1976) note that high performance rating and high satisfaction generally are associated with high performance on both

initiating structure and consideration. Their conclusion was that this style of school administrator would likely affect a school situation in which teachers would have a wider professional zone of acceptance than would teachers supervised by principals who were low in one dimension or another. They found that strength in initiating structure appeared to be significantly related to teacher' ability to accept administrative directives without respect to the degree of consideration. They concluded that principals who are reluctant to initiate structure in their leadership behavior will be at a disadvantage in creating effective schools, even if the leader exhibits considerate behavior.

Glueck and Thorp (1973), examined the extent to which university research administrators influence the satisfaction and performance of professors. Professors seemed to prefer the leaders in the role of resource persons and coordinators to an administrator with "no particular role pattern" and "troubleshooter." Results indicate that administrators who use rewards affect subordinates satisfaction. In general, the greater the perceived power of the administrator, the greater the professors' satisfaction and the greater the perceived productivity of teaching goals.

Brown and Anderson (1967) examined leadership style and its frequency as it relates to faculty satisfaction. Leadership style was measured as person-oriented (consideration) or system-oriented (initiating structure) and frequency was determined by how often the principal exhibited identified behaviors. They discovered that faculty were satisfied with all aspects of the teaching situation in schools whose principals exhibited person-oriented behavior. Perceptions of principal effectiveness (combined person-task) were also greater in

principals exhibited person-oriented behavior. Perceptions of principal effectiveness (combined person-task) were also greater in schools whose principals exhibit leader behavior with high frequency as opposed to those who exhibit it with moderate or low frequency.

In summary, a number of inconsistencies appear in the literature. In some studies there is not a significant relationship between leadership behavior and effectiveness measures; in other studies there is an inverse relationship between certain leadership behaviors and effectiveness measures; and finally, in still other studies there is a positive relationship between those same leadership behaviors and effectiveness measures.

Studies of Relationships Between Situational Factors and Leader Effectiveness

Studies in the following section will be grouped according to relationships between locus of control and leader effectiveness and between role clarity and leader effectiveness.

Studies Showing a Relationship Between Locus of Control and Leader Effectiveness

Broedling (1975) reports that internals as employees were more motivated to work than externals, performed better and were seen as being more instrumental in obtaining their desires. Subjects were 80 officers and 127 enlisted naval personnel from 12 locations.

According to Andrisani and Nestel's (1976) study with a representative sample of 2,979 respondents, internals tend to be more highly satisfied in their work than externals. Additionally, internals experience more favorable employment circumstances such as greater

earnings, more pronounced advancement in annual earnings and job satisfaction than the external employee.

Using a sample of 94 scientists, Organ and Greene (1974) conclude that internals report less role ambiguity and greater work satisfaction than their external counterparts. Results indicate that locus of control correlates significantly with work satisfaction and general satisfaction.

Norris and Neibuhr (1984) studied 116 respondents to discover relationships between locus of control and leader effectiveness. Results indicated a significantly stronger relationship between performance and satisfaction for individuals with internal orientations. This could be related to the belief that internals are more likely to experience heightened affective reactions. Satisfaction with pay and promotion was higher for internals. It was hypothesized that internals tend to be more alert to certain aspects in the work environment which might result in increases in pay and performance.

Studies Showing A Relationship Between Role Clarity and Leader Effectiveness

When role ambiguity exists, it leads to a variety of organizational dysfunctions such as job dissatisfaction, turnover, anxiety and others.

In a study by Stout and Posner (1984) the strongest relationships were found between stress, role ambiguity and job satisfaction. According to the authors, stress and role ambiguity were found to be significantly related. High stress levels tend to be significantly associated with high role ambiguity and low job satisfaction.

Dougherty and Pritchard (1985) researched new methods of measuring role ambiguity. It was expected that ambiguity would be related to lower job satisfaction and job performance and to higher levels of absence, tension and propensity to leave. The sample was 85 attorneys in a large energy corporation. Correlations indicated that role ambiguity was significantly negatively related to overall job satisfaction, extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction.

These results are consistent with those in a study of role variables as reported by Fisher and Gitelson (1983). They analyzed results of 43 studies of relationships between role conflict and ambiguity and the 18 most frequently researched correlates. Specific results indicate that ambiguity was negatively related to subordinates' satisfaction with co-workers and with promotion.

Arvey and Dewhirst (1976) found evidence that when supervisors clarified subordinates' roles and activities, subordinates experienced greater satisfaction. In a study of scientists and engineers in a large nuclear research and development center, the mean satisfaction scores were positively related to role clarity.

Bernardin (1979) found that ambiguity was significantly related to overall performance ratings, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with supervision. He examined the work behaviors of patrol officers who volunteered for the project. Bernardin defined role ambiguity as the discrepancy in effectiveness ratings of critical work behaviors between an individual and the supervisor. These discrepancies would indicate the presence and degree of ambiguity. Volunteers completed the Rizzo, House and Lirtzman measure of role ambiguity and results indicated role

clarity was significantly positively related to satisfaction with supervision and work.

Role clarity was found to be positively related to work satisfaction in an analysis by Lyons (1971). The sample consisted of 156 staff registered nurses. Subjects were dichotomized into low and high need for clarity in which they answered questions related to the importance of knowing in detail the kind of work to be done, how to do the job, feedback regarding the job and knowing the limits of their authority. Lyons found role clarity was related negatively to turnover, propensity to leave and job tension, while being positively related to work satisfaction. After the subjects' scores were dichotomized, correlations for subjects who have a low need for clarity were not significant but were significantly higher for the group of subjects who express high need for clarity when related to all three variables.

In a study by Organ and Greene (1974) results indicate that role ambiguity was significantly negatively related to work satisfaction but not to general job satisfaction. This led the researchers to suggest that a worker could hold negative feelings toward specific work tasks but this would not affect the worker's overall attitude towards the organization.

Tosi and Tosi (1970) examined ambiguity in public school settings to determine its relationship to job satisfaction. They hypothesized that role ambiguity and role conflict would be negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to job threat and anxiety perceived by teachers. Subjects included 68 elementary and secondary teachers. Results indicate job satisfaction was not significantly related to role ambiguity (-.08), but to role

conflict (.48). In other words, as teacher's perception of role conflict increased, the degree of satisfaction decreased. They concluded that while a person may be dissatisfied with a job, this condition is not related to high degrees of insecurity about their future in the job.

In summary, these results suggest that role clarity may be an important determinant of how subordinates perceive their jobs in terms of job satisfaction. Although there is tendency for role ambiguity to be inversely related to satisfaction, there are sufficient contradictions to warrant further investigations.

Studies of the Interacting Effects of Leader Behavior and Situational Factors on Leader Effectiveness

Downey, Sheridan and Slocum, (1974) tested two propositions related to leader behavior and effectiveness. One proposition tested was that the more unstructured the task, the more positive the relationships between leader initiating structure and subordinate job satisfaction and performance. Results indicated that task structure did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship. Initiating structure was not generally related to job satisfaction except for the satisfaction that machine operators felt toward their supervisor. With regard to the relationship between leader initiating structure and satisfaction with the work itself, results were near significant in structured task situations and significantly higher than the same relationship in unstructured task situations. The authors state that

these findings are in direct contrast with path-goal theory expectations. They suggest that the model does not include all the necessary variables needed to explain the leadership process.

In a study conducted by Stinson and Johnson (1975), results do not provide support for predictions of the path-goal theory regarding initiating structure behavior. Findings indicate the relationship between initiating structure and satisfaction variables are more positive under conditions of low task structure and high task repetitiveness than under conditions of low task structure and low task repetitiveness. The hypothesis tested is based on the assumption that instrumentalities are unclear in highly unstructured tasks. When task clarity is needed, leader initiating structure will lead to subordinate satisfaction.

Mitchell, Smyser and Weed (1975) further tested the leader behavior and subordinate locus of control hypothesis. They suggested that internals and externals would evaluate their supervisors differently depending upon whether the leader exhibited directive or participative management style. Findings support the concept that internal subordinates were more satisfied with a participative leader than were external subordinates. It was also determined that both external and internal subordinates were more satisfied with high participation than low participation.

Badeian, Mossholder and Armenakis (1983) hypothesized that the role of the supervisor could moderate the effects of subordinate role ambiguity. Registered practical nurses were the respondents along with nurse administrators, practitioners and assistants. It was found that supervisory interaction moderated the relationship between subordinates'

ambiguity and propensity to leave. When negative relationships appeared between supervisor and subordinates resulting in ambiguity, authors suggest it may have been a result of the supervisor's inconsistent behavior. Inconsistent behavior on the part of the supervisors results in ambiguity and at the same time makes it difficult for the subordinate to develop coping strategies in order to reduce the resulting stress.

A study by Valenzi and Dessler (1978) of 342 employees in two manufacturing plants confirmed the positive relationship between leader consideration and subordinate satisfaction. It was also found that role ambiguity was a moderating influence on this relationship. Specifically, mean subordinate satisfaction increased more in the high role ambiguity subgroup as consideration changed from low to high. The same study found role ambiguity did not influence the relationship between initiating structure and subordinate satisfaction.

Weed, Mitchell and Moffitt (1976) examined the interactions between leadership style, subordinate personality, task type and the effect on satisfaction. This investigation involved 48 male college students and three selected leaders. The leaders were divided into: (1) high in both task and human relations orientation; (2) high in task, low in human relations orientation; and (3) low in tasks and high in human relations orientation. The high task/high human relations oriented leader with low dogmatism subordinates performed significantly better than the other leader dimensions. The low task/high human relations leader with high dogmatism subordinates working on the difficult--ambiguous task appeared to be the poorest fit in terms of satisfaction with supervision.

Researcher Cummins (1972) found that leader-member relations served as moderators between leader behavior and leader effectiveness. One hypothesis tested was that initiation of structure should be more strongly related to performance in work groups with good leader-member relations than in groups with poor leader-member relations. The rationale for this is that a leader who has good member relations will likely obtain cooperation and as a result will have an effect on performance. Results indicated an agreement with the hypothesis in that when leader-member relations were poor, initiating structure was significantly negatively related to performance.

Nealey and Blood (1968) investigated the relations of leader behavior to subordinate job satisfaction at two organizational levels. The hypothesis proposed was that effective leadership behavior would differ across supervisory levels. This hypothesis was confirmed in tests of nursing personnel in a veterans' administration hospital. It was found that consideration behavior was positively valued by subordinates at both supervisory levels. Initiating structure was also positively valued at the first level of supervision but was negatively valued at the second level of supervision. The interpretation was that second level supervisors were RN's and shared the same professional qualifications as their leaders. Those subordinates of the first level supervisors looked to their leaders for both consideration and structure because they needed the professional job expertise available for aid.

Confirming previous conclusions, Abdel-Halim (1981) reported corroborating research findings regarding the moderating role of task structure on leader behavior and job satisfaction. Leader consideration was found to be associated with higher intrinsic satisfaction and job

involvement for subordinates on relatively simple, structured jobs than for those on relatively complex, unstructured jobs. Leader initiating structure interacted significantly with locus of control but in an unexpected way. Internal subordinates under high initiating structure were more involved in their jobs than were externals under high initiating structure. There are two possible explanations for this finding. One, internal subordinates are more motivated to control and may use their involvement in the job as a shield from the initiating structure behavior of their supervisors. Two, internal subordinates may use their leaders as sources of needed information and may accept a "state of limited coexistence" in return for the information.

LaRocco and Jones (1978), suggested a need to discover factors which might alleviate subordinates' stress resulting from role ambiguity. Their study explored the relationship between ambiguity and the social support emanating from the leader. In an analysis of results, obtained from 3,727 U.S. Navy enlisted men, they found no evidence that leaders could affect the stress outcomes associated with role ambiguity. When low levels of leader support were noted, subordinates developed coping strategies which reduce the impact on stress.

Dessler and Valenzi (1977) tested the hypothesis that initiation of structure and job satisfaction would be mediated by occupational level. Data were collected from persons in a large holding company that included 26 supervisors and 47 assemblers. Researchers hypothesized that the higher the occupational level of the group, the more positive the relationship between initiating structure and intrinsic job satisfaction, but results did not support the conclusion. Instead,

supervisors or higher level occupational groups experienced decreased satisfaction events as leader initiating structure increased.

Halpin (1955), compared two groups of leaders, educational administrators and aircraft commanders, to examine leadership style effective institutional settings. Sixty-four administrators and one hundred thirty-two commanders made up the sample. The leaders in both samples indicated they should show more consideration and initiating structure than their subordinates perceive them as doing. The two groups of leaders did not differ significantly with respect to a rating of highly effective or highly ineffective leader. The administrative leaders who did not score highly effective or highly ineffective were characterized by high consideration and low initiating structure. In the commander group, those leaders scoring neither effective nor ineffective, were characterized by high initiating structure and low consideration. Aircraft commanders tend to show less consideration than is desirable and educational administrators tend to show less initiating structure than is desirable.

Martin, Isherwood, and Lavery (1976) analyzed the relationship between leadership style and favorableness of the situation. Their unit of analysis was 41 teacher probation committees required of beginning teachers in Montreal. The hypothesis under consideration was that a task-oriented leader (initiating structure) will be more effective in unfavorable situations. The findings point out that relationship-oriented leaders (consideration) were more effective in unfavorable situations and task-oriented leaders were more effective in favorable situations. An explanation of the findings opposed to the hypothesis suggests that the presumption that the principal was the

leader of the probation committee was in error. The principal could not act with power over the committee; he could not hire or fire, give raises in pay or rank. The researchers state that results were reversed because the leader's role is in question.

In conclusion, the majority of studies indicated strong support for the proposition that situational variables moderate the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate job satisfaction, although not always in the direction suggested by the theoretical propositions.

Hypotheses and Rationale

Using both the basic theoretical framework presented in chapter one and the empirical evidence presented in this chapter, a number of research hypotheses are generated to indicate the interaction effects of the principal's leadership behavior patterns and situational variables on teacher job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1a:

When supervised by a principal who exhibits high leader initiating structure behavior, external teachers will experience significantly greater levels of job satisfaction than their internal counterparts.

Rationale: External teachers are more satisfied with leaders who provide information, assistance and resources and, in general, emphasize control of the environment because externals will experience anxiety in an unstructured situation.

Hypothesis 1b

When supervised by a principal who exhibits high tolerance of

freedom leadership behavior, internal teachers will experience significantly greater levels of job satisfaction than their external counterparts.

Rationale: Internal teachers are self-motivated and see more involvement in their work. This tendency can best be expressed in a participative environment.

Hypothesis 1c

Under conditions of high role ambiguity, teachers supervised by principals exhibiting high leader initiating structure behavior will experience significantly greater levels of job satisfaction than teachers supervised by principals who exhibit low leader initiating structure behavior.

Rationale: When task-role demands are ambiguous and non-predictable, principals who exhibit path-clarifying, close, directive behavior will reduce teachers' anxiety and stress emanating from ambiguity.

Hypothesis 1d:

When role ambiguity is high, internal teachers supervised by a principal high in leader initiating structure behavior will experience significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than external teachers under the same conditions.

Rationale: When task-role demands are structured and predictable, internal teachers will resent leaders who use unnecessary control. External teachers will not resent this manipulative behavior to the same degree as their internal counterparts because externals tend to shift the responsibility for their behavior to significant others because

ultimately to them, satisfaction is the result of luck, chance or circumstance.

Chapter III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to test, in an educational setting, several hypotheses based on propositions associated with the Path-Goal Model of Leadership.

In order to accomplish this, it was necessary to select a sample, measure the constructs and analyze the data. A description of these procedures is related in the following sections: population and sample, instrumentation, data collection and treatment of data.

Population and Sample

The study was based on a sample of teachers in five high schools in the northeast quadrant of Oklahoma. The collected data pertaining to age, educational status, and years of teaching experience derived from the responses to the research instruments are shown in Table I and II. In Table III, frequency scores indicate that school Chi teachers held higher educational degrees as a group than did the other schools. The highest educational status of teachers in school Chi was Master's level plus 15 hours, while teachers in school Beta held the lowest level at the Bachelor degree. Overall the range of educational level was fairly close for all schools.

TABLE I
 FREQUENCY TABLES OF EDUCATIONAL STATUS AND GENDER OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE

School	Educational Status												Female		Male	
	B.S.	%	B.S. 15 hours	%	M.S.	%	M.S. 15 hours	%	M.S. 30 hours	%	Ed.D. or Ph.D.	%	%	%	%	
Alpha	28	29	19	20	27	28	15	15	5	5	3	3	66	68	31	32
Beta	23	34	14	21	20	29	3	4	6	9	2	3	46	68	22	32
Chi	9	20	9	20	9	20	10	23	6	14	1	2	21	48	23	52
Delta	7	17	13	32	7	17	6	15	8	20	0	0	26	63	15	37
Epsilon	8	21	10	26	8	21	6	16	6	16	0	0	23	61	15	39

TABLE II
MEAN SCORES OF AGE AND YEARS OF TEACHING
EXPERIENCE FOR TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE

School	Age	Years of Teaching Experience
Alpha	37.22	11.19
Beta	37.27	11.34
Chi	38.38	13.39
Delta	38.28	13.25
Epsilon	37.92	12.41
Total Sample	37.76	12.09

TABLE III
 RELIABILITIES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND RANGES OF TEST
 INSTRUMENTS FOR THE SAMPLE IN THIS STUDY

Instrument	Alpha Reliability	Mean	SD	Range
<u>Minnesota Satisfaction</u>				
<u>Questionnaire</u>				
General	.9049	74.08	12.22	33-99
Intrinsic	.8857	48.23	7.85	15-77
Extrinsic	.8088	18.40	4.82	6-30
<u>House, Rizzo and Lirtzman</u>				
Role Ambiguity	.8421	13.65	4.90	6-30
<u>Rotter's Social Reaction</u>				
<u>Inventory</u>				
Locus of Control	.7699	8.20	3.92	0-21
<u>Leadership Behavior Description</u>				
<u>Questionnaire</u>				
Leadership Behavior				
Representation	.7724	20.10	3.29	12-25
Reconciliation	.7939	19.29	3.29	11-25
Tolerance of Uncertainty	.8123	35.16	5.70	21-50
Persuasiveness	.9218	37.61	7.32	24-48
Structure	.9164	39.32	6.72	24-50
Tolerance of Freedom	.8601	38.84	5.22	28-48
Role Assumption	.8535	38.39	6.83	21-49
Consideration	.9000	36.36	7.33	17-48
Productive Emphasis	.8866	33.52	7.39	18-49
Predictive Accuracy	.8172	18.07	3.05	13-24
Integration	.8257	18.07	3.26	13-25
Superior Orientation	.7983	36.74	5.10	27-45

Teachers in school Chi were older as a group than the other schools, at 1.04 above the mean age for all schools. The age mean for teachers in school Chi was 38.8 years.

School Chi also had teachers with more years of teaching experience than the other schools used in this study. The mean of teaching experience for school Chi was 13.39 while the group mean for all schools is 12.09 years.

While schools were clustered for purposes of cross validation on the basis of school size, origin or revenue, and funding classification, other similarities soon became apparent which supported this grouping. Teachers in school Chi-Delta-Epsilon as a group are older than teachers in schools Alpha-Beta. Teachers in Alpha-Beta are below the mean age for the entire group and teachers in Chi-Delta-Epsilon are above the group mean.

Teachers in Alpha-Beta schools are below the total group mean for the years of teaching experience, while those teachers in school Chi-Delta-Epsilon are above.

The selection of these schools was based on several practical considerations. These will be described in the paragraphs which follow.

First, sample size had to be of sufficient number and similarity to satisfy requirements for statistical analysis. According to Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973), the recommended ratio of independent variables to sample size should be, "at least thirty subjects per independent variable" (p. 282).

Second, to determine the degree of shrinkage of the regression equations, two samples of adequate size were needed. Since most secondary schools in this area do not have sufficient numbers of faculty to support the recommended ratio of independent variables to sample size,

it was necessary to cluster several schools together. Each pair in a set of sample schools needed to be matched as closely as possible according to size and school characteristics to control for a threat to external validity, that is, the interaction between the independent variables and situational characteristics. Such a threat might prevent the generalization of the results of this study to other districts of dissimilar size and wealth from the sample used in the development of the regression equation. Additionally, each set needed to be sufficiently dissimilar from the other set to enhance the possibility of generalizing to other secondary schools in the state within the same range of average daily attendance.

Third, the schools selected needed to be within a fifty mile driving radius of the researcher to allow for promptness in the dissemination and collection of questionnaires.

Fourth, it was necessary that each superintendent grant permission to conduct research at the school site.

The decision to cluster schools into distinguishable groups was based on the size of the school. The data reported in Table IV depict comparable characteristics between schools considered together as a set. Schools Alpha and Beta comprised one set while schools Chi, Delta and Epsilon comprised another.

Size

School district average daily attendance and high school student numbers were measures of similarity. The mean ADA in district Alpha-Beta was 6,973.69 and for schools Chi-Delta-Epsilon was 4,191.06, a difference of 2,782.63 students between clusters. The mean for the high school

TABLE IV
COMPARISON OF THE SCHOOLS IN THIS STUDY

School	Student ADA District	Student Pop. School	Percentage of Total Revenue Received From			Hold Harmless or Basic Formula
			LOCAL	STATE	FEDERAL	
Alpha	6549.19	2000	53.02	45.45	1.51	Hold Harmless
Beta	7398.20	1511	53.78	44.67	1.54	Hold Harmless
Alpha-Beta Mean	6973.69	1755	53.40	45.06	1.52	
Chi	5175.05	1270	22.96	70.67	6.35	Basic Formula
Delta	4175.26	1100	25.42	70.38	4.18	Basic Formula
Epsilon	3222.89	848	26.78	69.29	3.92	Basic Formula
Chi-Delta- Epsilon Mean	4191.06	1071	25.05	70.11	4.81	

student population for samples Alpha-Beta is 1,755 students and samples Chi-Delta-Epsilon is 1,071 a difference of 684 students between clusters.

Origin of Revenue Sources

The fact that valuable industrial property is located within a district creates measurable differences in wealth between schools. Schools Alpha and Beta draw a major portion of district funding from local appropriations due to the presence of taxable manufacturing and industrial locations lying within the district's boundaries. These schools received 53 percent of their total revenue from local ad valorem assessment while relying on state funds for 33 percent with 1.5 percent coming from federal sources for the district's total budget (State Department of Education, 1985).

This pattern is not true of schools Chi, Delta and Epsilon. These schools obtain less revenue from local sources and as a result rely to a greater degree on state and federal funding. This is true for most districts in Oklahoma. As a rule, the state provides more than half the money for schools with approximately one-third coming from the local level and about seven percent coming from federal funds. Schools Chi, Delta and Epsilon obtained an average of 25 percent of their total revenue from local taxes, 70 percent from state sources and 5 percent from federal funds (Oklahoma State Department of Education Annual Report, p. 4).

Funding Classification

Another distinction separating the samples is the funding classification

Alpha and Beta schools are classified as 'hold harmless' while Chi, Delta and Epsilon schools are called 'basic formula' schools. Hold harmless is a concept initiated in 1981 when a new financial formula was approved by the state legislature. It is a provision intended to protect those districts which might be affected by a decrease in state funding by guaranteeing minimum revenue during a transitional period. These districts are assured of receiving no less state aid under the new formula than the district received in the previous year (Parker and Pingleton, 1985).

A major difference between "hold harmless" and "basic formulas" is that in a 'basic formula' school, as ad valorem taxes increase in a district, this amount is deducted from state aid, resulting in an off-setting process. In a hold harmless school, an increase in ad valorem revenue does not result in any additional 'chargable' income against the district. Correspondingly, when attendance falls in a basic formula school, that district receives less money in state aid. Hold harmless schools do not lose money when enrollment or attendance drops. As a result, hold harmless schools benefit from increases in local revenue, increases in student attendance, and guaranteed funding (Salwaechter, 1986).

Instrumentation

The reliability, mean scores, standard deviation and ranges computed for the total sample in this study are presented in Table IV. A description of each instrument used in the study, including a thorough review of the validity and reliability results, will be presented in the following sections

TABLE V
 RELIABILITIES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND RANGE OF TEST
 INSTRUMENTS FOR THE SAMPLE IN THIS STUDY

Instrument	Alpha Reliability	Mean	SD	Range
<u>Minnesota Satisfaction</u>				
<u>Questionnaire</u>				
General	.9049	74.08	12.22	33-99
Intrinsic	.8857	48.23	7.85	15-77
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<u>Rotter's Social Reaction</u>				
<u>Inventory</u>				
Locus of Control	.7699	8.20	3.92	0-21
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Superior Orientation	.7983	36.74	5.10	27-45

Leadership Behavior

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Form XII, was developed to obtain descriptions of a supervisor by the group members who are supervised.

The original leadership behavior description questionnaire was a result of work by J. K. Hemphill and was further developed by the staff of Ohio State Leadership Studies in 1945.

The questionnaire consists of 100 items which ask respondents to describe how frequently the leader engages in the described behavior. Examples of statements which describe the leader behavior are: "Act as the spokesperson of the group," or "Allows the members complete freedom in their work." The responses are based on a range from A (always) to E (never).

There are twelve subscales in the LBDQ and each subscale is made up of five or ten items on the test:

1. Representation - speaks and acts as the representative of the group (5 items).
2. Demand Reconciliation - reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system (5 items).
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty - is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset (10 items).
4. Persuaviness - uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions (10 items).
5. Initiation of Structure - clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected (10 items).

6. Tolerance of Freedom - allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action (10 items).

7. Role Assumption - actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others (10 items).

8. Consideration - regards the comfort, well being, status, and contribution of followers (10 items).

9. Production Emphasis - applies pressure for productive output (10 items).

10. Predictive Accuracy - exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately (5 items).

11. Intergration - maintains a closely knit organization; resolves intermember conflicts (5 items).

12. Superior Orientation - maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status (10 items).

A revision of the LBDQ was undertaken by B. J. Winer to identify empirically the factor structure of the questionnaire (Fleischman, 1953). The analysis revealed two major factors reduced from a larger number of leader behavior descriptions. The preponderance of empirical research has continued to employ those two dimensions of leadership: consideration and initiating structure. Stogdill identified twelve patterns of leadership behavior and suggested that a number of variables were needed in order to measure leadership behavior.

The samples used to test the LBDQ consisted of commissioned and noncommissioned officers in an army combat division, the administrative officers in state highway patrol headquarters office, executives in an

aircraft engineering firm, ministers of various denominations of an Ohio community, leaders in the community throughout the state of Ohio, presidents of corporations, labor unions, colleges and universities and United States Senators. The mean scores of consideration ranged from a low mean of 36.9 with a standard deviation score of 6.5 to a high mean score of 42.5 with a standard deviation score of 5.8.

The mean scores on initiating structure ranged from 36.6 with a standard deviation score of 5.4 to a high mean score of 39.7 with a standard deviation of 4.5. The mean scores on tolerance of freedom ranged from a low of 35.9 with a standard deviation score of 6.5 to a high mean score of 39.6 with a standard deviation score of 3.9.

Reliability of the subscales was determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. The modification meant that each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its subscale rather than with the subscale score including the item. This procedure yields conservative estimates of subscale reliability. Scores on the subscale Consideration ranged from a low of .76 for Army and College Presidents to a high of .87 for highway patrolmen. Initiating structure ranged from a low of .70 for ministers to a high of .80 for college presidents. Tolerance of freedom ranged from a low of .58 for labor presidents to a high of .86 for aircraft executives and community leaders.

Locus of Control

Rotter (1966) developed the Social Reaction Inventory to determine the internal/external control tendencies of a subject. Locus of control is concerned with a continuum of associations about the individual's

belief about the nature of the world. At the lower end of the continuum are internals who believe that reinforcements are contingent upon their own behavior. At the upper end of the continuum, externals believe that reinforcements are not under their personal control but rather are under the control of fate, luck or chance. Paired statements which indicate external locus of control are: "What happens to me is my own doing and sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking."

A series of studies were undertaken in an effort to develop an instrument to measure the concept. Phares (1957) developed the first individual control scales. Phares' scales were Likert-type scales which contained 13 items identified as external attitudes and 13 items as internal attitudes.

In that same year, James (cited in Rotter, 1966) added items to those which appeared to be successful from Phares' study. Liveraut, Rotter and Seeman (cited in Rotter, 1966) expanded the test by adding subscales for achievement, affection and general social and political attitudes and social desirability. In a final revision, Rotter, Liveraut and Crowne created the 29 item, forced-choice test which includes six filler items. Scores are calculated by summing the total number of externally oriented responses for each pair. Scores range from 0-23 with low scores indicating an internal locus of control and high scores indicating an external locus on control.

Test data were obtained in a series of samples, including 251 Ohio State University elementary psychology students and 80 Ohio Federal

prisoners. The reliability coefficient for the sample, a .79 was determined with the Spearman-Brown Formula.

Role Ambiguity

Rizzo, House, Lirtzman (1970) developed a questionnaire designed to measure role ambiguity. The questionnaire originally consisted of 15 items. An example of a role clarity question is "I feel certain about how much authority I have" with answer possibilities ranging from definitely true of my job to true, slightly true, uncertain, slightly not true, not true and definitely not true of my job."

The Rizzo, House, Lirtzman questionnaire defined role as a set expectation about an individual's behavior in a position within a social structure. The expectations are defined by both incumbents occupying the position and by others who have opinions about the roles. Further, role ambiguity is the predictability of the outcomes or responses to one's behavior and the clarity of the expectations of the role.

The questionnaire was first administered to the central office and main plant personnel of a firm and to a ten percent sample of the research and engineering department. Items used were subjected to Kuder-Richardson internal consistencies reliabilities and Spearman-Brown corrections. Reliability scores for both sample 'A' and 'B' were high, recorded as .808 for sample 'A' and .780 for sample 'B'.

Job Satisfaction

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was developed by the Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, also called the Work

Adjustment Project, as the result of a series of studies related to the general problem of adjustment to work. These studies began in 1957 and use the relationship between work personality and work environment as the explanation for job satisfaction. Work personality is defined as vocational abilities and needs while the work environment includes ability requirements of the job and the reinforcer system.

The purpose of the original research was to develop the necessary instruments to determine an applicant's potential for vocational rehabilitation and to measure work adjustment outcomes.

The first satisfaction measures used by the work adjustment program came from two satisfaction scales, Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank and Employee Attitude Scale. The resulting questionnaire was then used to develop a 20 scale Likert format questionnaire which sampled intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcement dimensions. Some of the scales are ability utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices and compensations.

A short form of the MSQ was developed by choosing 20 representative items, one from each scale. The items chosen were those which correlated the highest with their respective scales. The short form MSQ can be scored on three scales: intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction. General satisfaction is defined as an aspect of a job perceived as the worker would like it to be and is a composite of both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. Extrinsic satisfaction is defined as satisfaction with environmental or extrinsic reinforcement factors such as working conditions, supervision, co-workers, and company. Intrinsic satisfaction is defined as the feeling of accomplishment a

worker receives from the job and the chance to do something that makes use of one's abilities.

The short-form MSQ was normed on the following groups: assemblers, clerks, engineers, janitors and maintenance men, machinists and salesmen.

In general, the reliability coefficients obtained for each normal group were high. For the Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale, the coefficients range from .84 (for the two assembler groups) to .91 for the engineers. For the Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale, the coefficient vary from .77 (for the electronics assemblers) to .82 (for engineers and machinists). On the General Satisfaction Scale, the coefficient vary from .87 (for assemblers) to .92 (for engineers). Median reliability coefficients are .86 for Intrinsic Satisfaction, .80 for Extrinsic Satisfaction and .90 for General Satisfaction.

Stability scores are not available for the short-form MSQ. However, stability for the General Satisfaction Scale may be inferred from data on the General Satisfaction Scale of the long-form MSQ since both scales use the same 20 items. Data on the Stability of the scores on the long-form MSQ scales were obtained for one week and one year. The test-retest correlation of General Satisfaction Scale yielded coefficients of .89 over a one-week period and .70 over a one-year interval.

Evidence for the validity of the short-form MSQ is based on studies of occupational group differences and studies of the relationship between two variables independent of each other, satisfaction and satisfactoriness. Occupational group differences in mean satisfaction scores were statistically significant for general (38.01), intrinsic (38.15) and extrinsic (22.24) satisfaction. These results were similar

to those obtained for the long-form MSQ which yielded evidence of construct and concurrent validity. Satisfaction and satisfactoriness were considered by the authors to be independent variables. Thus, it was believed that data which showed a lack of relationship between these variables would be an indication of support for construct validity of the MSQ scales. Less than two percent of the variance was common between any satisfaction scale and any satisfactoriness scale (MSQ Manual, p. 25).

The MSQ short-form consists of 20 items with responses of "Very Dissatisfied; Dissatisfied; Neither; Satisfied; Very Satisfied." Sample questions include, "On my present job, this is how I feel about my pay and the amount of work I do." The short-form takes 5 minutes to administer. The most meaningful scores to use in interpreting the MSQ, according to the manual, are the percentile scores for each scale obtained from the most appropriate norm group for the individual. A percentile score of 75 or higher would be taken to represent a high degree of satisfaction; a percentile score of 25 or lower would indicate a low level of satisfaction; and scores in the middle range of percentiles indicate average satisfaction.

Data Collection

An initial contact was made with the superintendent of each selected school to explain the study, outline the procedure, and request permission to conduct the research.

This was followed by a personal visit with the contact person suggested by the superintendent, usually the principal of the school.

During this visit, discussion was held concerning the procedures to be employed, the general body of leadership research, and special concerns or requests of each principal. In one instance the researcher met with the director of research rather than the principal. During these visits the researcher also made a point to talk briefly with the office personnel of each building, since they were involved in the process to some extent.

The superintendents, administrative contacts and office personnel were very receptive to the research topic and the method of procurement and expressed an interest in the results.

The principals met with their faculty to explain that a research instrument would be placed in their mailboxes. The principals of two schools also placed reminders to teachers to complete the questionnaires and return them.

A roster of teachers' names was obtained from the administrative contact in each district. Teachers in each school were assigned a number. This list of numbers corresponded to numbers on the test packet. The packets were coded according to the school site and the teachers' assigned numbers so that follow-up questionnaires could be provided if teachers lost, misplaced or forgot to complete the first set of questions. Once the teachers were given a second opportunity to complete a survey, the master list of teachers' names and numbers was destroyed to protect the anonymity of respondents.

A randomly selected sample to teachers was chosen from each school to complete the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire. According to Halpin (LBDQ manual, 1957), a minimum of four respondents per leader is

desirable and suggests six or seven respondents per leader as a good standard. A mean score is then computed and used as the leadership score for one principal at that building. Each school had ten teachers who received the LBDQ (See Appendix A). Since five to eight teachers in each school completed the LBDQ, there was no need for followup efforts on this part of the survey.

On April 7, 1986, packets with all test items were delivered to each participating school. The principal of the school designated someone to place the packets in each teacher's mailbox along with an accompanying letter from the researcher (See Appendix B). A large box was provided in the principal's outer office for the return of the completed packets.

The researcher returned to each school on April 9, 1986 to collect the packets. It was at this time that a second packet was placed in the mailboxes of those who failed to return the completed questionnaires (See Appendix C). The researcher picked up this second group on April 11, 1986. One school did not follow this time-line and placed the packets in the teachers' mailboxes three days later than the others (See Table V).

Four hundred and sixteen survey packets were delivered to five schools on April 7, 1986. Of those, 239 packets or 57 percent were returned. Of the second round of packets delivered, 111 or 38 percent were returned. A total of 291 of the 416 packets or 70 percent were returned.

Treatment Of The Data

In order to test the four hypotheses relating to the interaction effects of principals' behavior and situational factors on teachers' job

TABLE V
QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

Sample	Total Number Delivered	First Returns Number	Returns (Percent)	Total Returns Number	Returns (Percent)
Alpha	126	83	(66)	97	(76)
Beta	97	59	(61)	70	(72)
Chi	68	30	(44)	44	(64)
Delta	62	35	(56)	41	(66)
Epsilon	63	32	(51)	39	(61)
TOTAL	416	180	(57)	291	(70)

satisfaction, four basic regression models were constructed. When one of the hypothesized interaction terms was significant, that model containing the significant interaction term was used in the double cross validation procedure.

A prediction equation, which is used with a group other than the one on which the equation was originally developed, results in shrinkage.

Because the size of the first sample is finite, the optimizing linear combination between the actual variable (Y) and the predictor variable (Y') will be fitted to the idiosyncracies of the first sample and will result in a higher correlation for that sample and a bias known as "shrinkage" (Herzberg, 1969). To test for shrinkage, a double cross validation procedure was used with two subgroups of the population. One sample consisted of two school sites, Alpha-Beta and the other sample consisted of three school sites, Chi-Delta-Epsilon. As part of this procedure, each model with a significant interaction term was used with both sets of samples. If the degree of shrinkage is minimal, it is preferable to use a combined sample because the larger sample is associated with more stable Beta weights (Mosier, 1951).

An R^2 and regression equation were computed for each sample. The resulting regression equation from each set was then applied to the predictor variables of the other sample. An ryy' was calculated for each set by determining the relationship between the predicted scores and the actual scores. One thus has two R^2 s calculated directly in each sample and two ryy' s calculated on the basis of the regression equation obtained from alternate samples (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973). To determine degree of shrinkage, a comparison was made between the R^2 , ryy' and regression equations for each sample.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of collected data. The analysis of data was based on responses to the research instruments by a sample of 291 teachers in five selected schools. The research instruments used to collect the data were the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman Role Clarity Questionnaire, and the Rotter Social Reaction Inventory. Demographic data were also collected in order to provide a general description of the background of the respondents in the survey.

The results of this study will be organized as follows: testing of the hypotheses of the study, the double-cross validation procedure, and a summary of non-hypothesized interaction.

Testing of the Hypotheses of the Study

The literature suggests that subordinate traits and certain environmental conditions will moderate the effect of leader behavior on satisfaction. Accordingly, the effects of principal's leadership behavior, moderated by teacher's role ambiguity and locus of control, on teacher's job satisfaction were investigated. The hypotheses which guided this study will serve as a focus for the reporting of the results.

H.1.a. When supervised by a principal who exhibits high leader initiating structure behavior, external teachers will experience significantly greater levels of job satisfaction than their internal counterparts.

This hypothesis was not supported. According to the statistical data reported in Table VI, between the variables initiating structure and locus of control, the only variable which contributes significantly to the variance in teacher job satisfaction is locus of control.

H.1.b. When supervised by a principal who exhibits high tolerance of freedom leadership behavior, internal teachers will experience significantly greater levels of job satisfaction than their external counterparts.

This hypothesis was completely supported. The interaction of tolerance of freedom and locus of control contributed to the variance in teachers' general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction as shown in Table VII.

The direction of the interactions was also supported. According to the statistics of mean scores in Table VIII, internals experience significantly greater levels (at a .05 or a .01) of job satisfaction than externals when supervised by a principal who exercises high tolerance of freedom. External teachers appeared to be somewhat unaffected by tolerance of freedom leadership behavior as evidenced by the stable mean scores for external teachers under both high and low tolerance of freedom conditions.

H.1.c. Under conditions of high role ambiguity, teachers supervised by principals exhibiting high leader initiating structure behavior will experience greater levels of job

TABLE VI

A MODERATED REGRESSION EQUATION SHOWING EFFECTS OF INITIATING,
LOCUS OF CONTROL, AND INTERACTION TERM ON JOB SATISFACTION

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction		
	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T
Initiating Structure	.000	-.180	.73	.002	-.056	.33	.000	-.004	.94
Locus of Control	.291	-.174	.00*	.196	-.015	.00*	.230	-.100	.07
Interaction Term Initiating Structure X Locus of Control	.293	-.023	.66	.197	-.032	.57	.231	-.026	.64

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

TABLE VII

A MODERATED REGRESSION EQUATION SHOWING EFFECTS OF TOLERANCE
OF FREEDOM, LOCUS OF CONTROL, AND INTERACTION TERM
ON JOB SATISFACTION

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction		
	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T
Tolerance of Freedom (TF)	.006	.117	.05**	.005	.104	.08	.015	.151	.01*
Locus of Control (LC)	.076	-.262	.00*	.058	-.229	.00*	.050	-.186	.00*
TF X LC	.097	-.143	.00*#	.073	-.126	.01*#	.059	-.096	.05**#

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

One-tailed test

TABLE VIII

MEAN JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL
TEACHERS: A CONFIRMATION OF THE DIRECTION OF
SIGNIFICANT INTERACTIONS

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction Moderator Variable:		Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction Moderator Variable:		Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction Moderator Variable:	
	Internal X	External X	Internal X	External X	Internal X	External X
Tolerance of Freedom						
High	173.49	64.91	104.47	42.68	52.65	26.73
Low	133.29	67.92	81.67	44.52	38.66	23.04

satisfaction than teachers supervised by principals who exhibit low leader initiating structure behavior.

This hypothesis was not supported. According to the statistical data reported in Table IX, between the variables initiating structure and role ambiguity, the only variable which contributes significantly to teacher job satisfaction was role ambiguity.

H.1.d. When role ambiguity is high, external teachers supervised by a principal high in leader initiating structure behavior will experience significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than internal teachers under the same conditions.

This hypothesis was partially supported. According to the statistical data reported in Table X, the impact of role ambiguity and initiating structure on locus of control contributed significantly to the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction but not to general job satisfaction or intrinsic satisfaction. The variables, role ambiguity and locus of control, were found to contribute independently to teacher job satisfaction.

The direction of the interaction is displayed in Table XI and supports the hypothesis. Under conditions of high initiating structure and high role ambiguity, external teachers experienced greater levels of job satisfaction than their internal counterparts. Under high initiating structure and low role ambiguity, there was no difference in the job satisfaction level of internal and external teachers. It should be noted in Table XI that two of the main effects, role ambiguity and locus of control, contributed to general intrinsic satisfaction while only role ambiguity contributed significantly to extrinsic satisfaction.

TABLE IX

A MODERATED REGRESSION EQUATION SHOWING EFFECTS OF ROLE AMBIGUITY,
INITIATING STRUCTURE AND INTERACTION TERMS ON
JOB SATISFACTION

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction		
	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T
Initiating Structure	.004	-.015	.77	.002	-.052	.36	.000	-.000	.99
Role Ambiguity	.259	-.479	.00*	.170	-.383	.00*	.219	-.451	.00*
Interaction Role X Structure	.291	-.007	.89	.196	.013	.82	.230	-.003	.95

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

TABLE X

A MODERATED REGRESSION EQUATION SHOWING EFFECTS OF INITIATING STRUCTURE,
 ROLE AMBIGUITY, LOCUS OF CONTROL, AND INTERACTION TERMS
 ON JOB SATISFACTION

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction		
	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T
Initiating Structures (IS)	.001	-.019	.72	.001	-.049	.39	.000	-.021	.70
Role Ambiguity (RA)	.259	-.478	.00 *	.170	-.370	.00*	.219	-.481	.00*
Locus of Control (LC)	.291	-.174	.00*	.196	-.158	.00*	.230	-.094	.09
IS X RA	.291	.001	.98	.196	-.017	.77	.230	-.019	.98
RA X LC	.292	-.035	.51	.196	-.008	.88	.230	-.000	.98
LC X IS	.293	-.025	.65	.197	.018	.76	.231	-1.090	.27
RA X LC X IS	.293	.008	.88	.201	-.064	.28	.253	2.778	.00*#

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

One-tailed test

TABLE XI
 MEAN JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL
 TEACHERS: A CONFIRMATION OF THE DIRECTION OF
 SIGNIFICANT INTERACTIONS UNDER CONDITIONS
 OF HIGH INITIATING STRUCTURE

Independent Variables:		Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction	
		Moderator Variable: Internal External	
		\bar{X}	\bar{X}
Role Ambiguity:			
	High	3.85	7.53
	Low	15.60	15.63

Double-Cross Validation Procedure

It is widely accepted that as a given set of data is applied to a second set of data, even if groups are comparable in characteristics, the yield in the latter data will be less due to a concept known as "shrinkage" (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973).

To test for shrinkage, the total sample was broken down into two smaller samples. Alpha-Beta schools comprised one sample, Chi-Delta-Epsilon comprised the other. Three criteria were used to determine the degree of shrinkage for those models with significant interaction terms. First, the strength of the correlation coefficient ($r_{yy'}$) between the predicted scores and the actual scores was determined for each sample. Second, the degree of explained variance (R^2) for each sample was compared. Third, the degree and direction of Beta weights in the regression equation for each sample were compared. The results of that analysis will be presented under the following headings: a comparison of $r_{yy'}$ scores, a comparison of R^2 scores, and a comparison of constants and nonstandardized Beta weights.

Comparison of $r_{yy'}$ Scores

The $r_{yy'}$ score is the correlation between the actual and predicted scores of the calibration sample which is derived from the regression equation of the screening sample. Each sample serves, in turn, as both the calibration and screening sample, thus, the procedural label double-cross validation.

In model two (tolerance of freedom, locus of control and the interaction of locus of control and tolerance of freedom) the relationship

between Chi-Delta-Epsilon's actual and predicted scores was a .75 for general job satisfaction, .88 for intrinsic job satisfaction, and .77 for extrinsic job satisfaction. In the same model, the relationship between Alpha-Beta's actual and predicted scores was a .59 for general job satisfaction, .93 for intrinsic job satisfaction, and .65 for extrinsic job satisfaction.

In model four (initiating structure, role ambiguity, locus of control, and the associated interaction terms), the relationship between Chi-Delta-Epsilon's actual and predicted scores was .76 for extrinsic job satisfaction. The relationship between Alpha-Beta's actual and predicted score was .73 for extrinsic job satisfaction.

For the most part the relationship between the predicted and observed scores was moderately high, ranging from a .59 to a .93. Based on this criterion, therefore, it seemed appropriate to combine both samples.

Comparison of R² Scores

R² scores indicate the percentage of variance in job satisfaction which is explained by leader behaviors, locus of control, and role ambiguity and interactions of these variables. As seen in Table XII, the degree of variance explained by the independent variable in Model Two (tolerance of freedom, locus of control, tolerance of freedom X locus of control) was not very high for either sample. Although the degree of variance associated with the Alpha-Beta sample is less, the differences are minimal.

Specifically, the degree of variance for general satisfaction for Alpha-Beta was .06, and for Chi-Delta-Epsilon, .15. The degree of

TABLE XII

A DOUBLE CROSS VALIDATION OF MODELS OF SIGNIFICANT INTERACTIONS
WITH TWO PATTERNS OF SCHOOL COMBINATIONS: ALPHA-BETA
AND CHI-DELTA-EPSILON

Model	Screening Sample	Direct R ²	P	Calibration Sample	ryy'	P
Dependent: General Satisfaction	Alpha-Beta	.06	.03**	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.75	.00*
Tolerance of Freedom (TC)						
Locus of Control (LC)	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.15	.00*	Alpha-Beta	.59	.00*
TF X LC						
Dependent: Intrinsic Satisfaction	Alpha-Beta	.04	.12	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.88	.00*
Tolerance of Freedom (TC)						
Locus of Control (LC)	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.13	.00*	Alpha-Beta	.93	.00*
TF X LC						
Dependent: Extrinsic Satisfaction	Alpha-Beta	.07	.02**	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.77	.00*
Tolerance of Freedom (TF)						
Locus of Control (LC)	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.09	.01*	Alpha-Beta	.65	.00*
TF X LC						
Dependent: Extrinsic Satisfaction	Alpha-Beta	.25	.00*	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.76	.00*
Initiating Structure (IS)						
Role Ambiguity (RA)	Chi-Delta-Epsilon	.36	.00*	Alpha-Beta	.73	.00*
Locus of Control (LC)						
IS X RA; RA X LC;						
LC X IS; RA X LC X IS						

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

variance for intrinsic satisfaction for Alpha-Beta sample was .04 and for Chi-Depta-Epsilon sample, .13. The degree of variance for extrinsic satisfaction for Alpha-Beta was .07 and for Chi-Delta-Epsilon, .09.

In model four (initiating structure, role ambiguity, locus of control and the interaction of these variables), the degree of variance for Alpha-Beta was .25 and for Chi-Delta-Epsilon, .36. Both correlation coefficients represent a moderately low relationship between the independent and criterion variables.

Because there was very little difference for both samples in the amount of variance explained, except by the independent measures, it seemed appropriate to combine both samples in order to stabilize the Beta weights.

Comparison of Constants and Non-standardized Beta Weights

Kerlinger and Pedhazer (1973) suggested comparing regression equations between samples used in cross-validation procedures to determine similarities or differences. In this study, constants and Beta weights of one sample are compared in weight and direction to the constants and Beta weights of the second sample. In model two, a comparison indicated the constants and Beta weights associated with tolerance of freedom, locus of control, and tolerance of freedom X locus of control were very close and, with only one exception, were in the same direction (See Table XIII).

In model four (See Table XIV) there were three instances of directional differences but only one was of any magnitude. For teachers in Chi-Delta-Epsilon schools, initiating structure leadership behavior

TABLE XIII
REGRESSION EQUATION OF MODELS OF SIGNIFICANT INTERACTIONS OF ALPHA-BETA
AND CHI-DELTA-EPSILON SAMPLES

Sample	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction				Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction				Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction			
	Constant	Tolerance of Freedom	Locus of Control	Tolerance of Freedom X Locus of Control	Constant	Tolerance of Freedom	Locus of Control	Tolerance of Freedom X Locus of Control	Constant	Tolerance of Freedom	Locus of Control	Tolerance of Freedom X Locus of Control
Alpha- Beta	80.89*	1.283	-.768*	-.156	51.26*	.234**	-.451	-.078	.20.51*	.947*	-.184	.009
Chi-Delta- Epsilon	80.63*	.710	-.772*	-.338*	52.11*	.373	-.370*	-.215*	.20.12*	.363	-.253**	-.090**
Sample Aggregate	80.93*	.833**	-.807*	-.281*	51.93*	.470	-.446*	-.157**	.20.31*	.432*	-.230*	-.076**

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

TABLE XIV

REGRESSION EQUATIONS OF MODELS OF SIGNIFICANT INTERACTIONS
OF ALPHA-BETA, CHI-DELTA-EPSILON AND AGGREGATE SAMPLES

Sample	Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction							
	Constant	Initiating Structure	Role Ambiguity	Locus of Control	Role X Structure	Role X Locus	Locus X Structure	Role X Locus X Structure
Alpha-Beta	19.35*	-.370	-.482*	-.017	-.019	-.010	-.029	-.006
Chi-Delta- Epsilon	18.54*	.224	-.537*	-.298*	-.020	-.006	-.071**	-.014
Sample Aggregate	18.42*	-.031	-.474*	-.116**	.005	-.000	-.024	-.011*

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence

** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

resulted in higher levels of job satisfaction, while for their counterparts in Alpha-Beta schools, initiating structure was associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

Because the differences in the direction and magnitude of the regression coefficients of both samples did not appear to be excessive, it seemed appropriate to combine the samples.

Summary of Non-Hypothesized Interactions

There are 12 subscales in the Leadership Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire which measure a leader's behavior. Respondents in this study completed all 12 subscale questions. Because only two leadership subscales were used in this study, analysis opportunities were available for ten additional leadership measures. Therefore, it was possible to substitute these additional leadership behaviors for the two leadership behaviors which were originally hypothesized in the four original regression models.

Only 12 equations representing models one, three, and four had significant interaction terms (See Table XV). In model one (leadership behavior, locus of control and leadership behavior X locus of control) there was a significant relationship between the interaction of locus of control and leader consideration at the .05 level of confidence. In model three (leadership behavior, role ambiguity and leadership behavior X role ambiguity) the interaction effect of role ambiguity and tolerance of uncertainty on general job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction was significant at the .01 level of confidence. In model four (leadership behavior, role ambiguity, locus of control, and their interactions), there were 11 significant terms at the .01 level of confidence. All of

TABLE XV

THREE MODERATED REGRESSION EQUATIONS SHOWING SIGNIFICANT
INTERACTIONS OF LOCUS OF CONTROL, ROLE AMBIGUITY
AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS ON
JOB SATISFACTION

Independent Variables: Interaction Equations	Dependent Variable: General Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction			Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction		
	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T	R ²	Beta	Sig. T
Model I									
Locus of Control X Consideration	.091	-.123	.02**						
Model III									
Role Ambiguity X Tolerance of Uncertainty	.310	.151	.00*				.250	.147	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Role Assumption				.207	-.117	.02*			
Model IV									
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Superior Orientation				.223	-.140	.01*	.261	.161	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Representation							.262	.157	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Reconciliation							.256	.148	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Persuasiveness							.253	.154	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Role Assumption				.225	-.144	.00*	.259	.156	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Consideration							.265	.146	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Production Emphasis							.256	.164	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Predictive Accuracy							.254	.156	.00*
Role Ambiguity X Locus of Control X Integration							.265	.162	.00*

* Significant at the .01 level of confidence ** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

the additional leadership behaviors, with the exception of the tolerance of uncertainty, interacted with locus of control and role ambiguity to contribute to the variance in general, intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present an explanation of the research findings and to formulate conclusions that have been developed from an analysis of the data. For organizational clarity, this chapter will be presented within the following framework: a theoretical explanation of results, the practical implications of results, and recommendations for further research.

Theoretical Explanation of Results

The primary purpose of this research was to investigate the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership in an educational setting. This theory has as its foundations the emphasis on the paths, needs, and goals of the subordinates. House (1974) proposed that leaders are most effective when able to clarify the task of the subordinate, make the paths to subordinate's goals easier to follow by reducing barriers and by increasing opportunities for satisfaction. House hypothesized that the task and locus of control moderate the relationship between leader initiating structure and subordinate satisfaction.

Four predictions were generated from the theory relating to the moderating effects of role ambiguity and locus of control on the relationship between leadership behavior and subordinate job satisfaction. It was determined that the effects of initiating structure

on job satisfaction were not moderated by either role ambiguity or locus of control as hypothesized. However, it was also determined that locus of control and role ambiguity jointly moderate the effects of initiating structure on job satisfaction. And, finally it was determined that locus of control moderates the effects of the superordinates' tolerance of freedom behavior on teachers' job satisfaction.

Three of the four hypotheses incorporated locus of control, role ambiguity or the combination of locus of control and role ambiguity as moderators of the effect of initiating structure on job satisfaction. These three hypotheses will be discussed together in the following section because the interpretation of the results of each regression model influence the interpretation of the other. This discussion will be followed by an explanation of locus of control as a moderator of the effects of tolerance leadership behavior on job satisfaction.

Locus of Control and Role Ambiguity as Moderators
of the Effects of Initiating Structure
on Job Satisfaction

In the absence of role ambiguity, locus of control does not moderate the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction, nor does role ambiguity, in the absence of locus of control, moderate the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction; but together, role ambiguity and locus of control do moderate the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction.

Authors Zedeck, Cranny, Vale, and Smith (1971) suggested that researchers should consider the possibility that several moderators may have to be combined rather than considered one variable at a time. It is

conceivable that two potential moderators when, operating separately, will not influence the relationship between a predictor and criterion variable. Research by Weed, Mitchell, and Moffit (1976) clearly supported this conclusion. They found that when tasks were both difficult and ambiguous, the leader behavior which resulted in the highest performance was high initiating structure. This was true, but only when additional leadership characteristics such as supportive behavior were present.

Other researchers have concluded that the variable consideration or supportive behavior, should be emphasized over structured behavior in the study of role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Schriesheim and Von Glinow (1977) found that initiating structure alone is a transitional construct and the relationship based on leaders' initiating structure behavior and job satisfaction relies on a number of other situational variables.

It was hypothesized that external teachers would be more highly satisfied with a principal who exhibited a high initiating structure leadership behavior than their internal counterparts. It was determined however, that the differences in degree of job satisfaction for internal and external teachers were constant across all levels of initiating structure with internals being more satisfied than externals. Perhaps external teachers required emotional support from their principals rather than task structure and role clarification. They may prefer that the individual, on whom they depend for their rewards, be empathic and considerate of their needs rather than structured.

It was hypothesized, that under conditions of high role ambiguity, teachers would be more satisfied with principals who exhibit high initiating structure behaviors than principals who exhibit low initiating

structure behaviors. It was determined, however, that differences in levels of job satisfaction for teachers with high levels of role ambiguity and teachers with low levels of role ambiguity are constant across all levels of initiating structure. Further, role ambiguity makes a significant contribution to the variance in job satisfaction, and higher levels of role ambiguity are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. Thus, such acts as defining roles and expectations do not reduce role ambiguity. Perhaps role ambiguity would be moderated by leadership behaviors which support the emotional needs of the teachers, thereby liberating them so that they might personally seek information which would reduce role ambiguity.

Although locus of control and role ambiguity were not moderators of initiating structure when separated, they jointly influenced the impact of initiating structure on extrinsic job satisfaction. It was hypothesized that external teachers would experience higher levels of job satisfaction than internal teachers when role ambiguity and principals' initiating structure behaviors are high. Why locus of control and role ambiguity influence the impact of initiating structure on job satisfaction jointly and not singularly is an interesting question. Perhaps, internal teachers experience reduced levels of satisfaction when more than one stressor is present. Thus, high role ambiguity could be managed if not accompanied by autonomy-reducing leadership behaviors which could impede the internal's gathering of clues from the environment. Conversely, high initiating structure behavior might be acceptable if role ambiguity were low. External teachers, on the other hand, accept high initiating structure behavior because those acts reduce high levels of role ambiguity for them.

Why locus of control and role ambiguity influence the effect of initiating structure on extrinsic job satisfaction rather than general and intrinsic satisfaction is also of some interest. Perhaps internal and external teachers do not perceive that principals' leadership behaviors have any influence on their level of general or intrinsic satisfaction because the principals do not control general and intrinsic motivators.

Locus of Control and Tolerance of Freedom as
Moderators of the Effects of Initiating
Structure on Job Satisfaction

The results of this research revealed a significant relationship between principals' tolerance of freedom behaviors and teachers' locus of control. Teachers who have an internal locus of control and who were supervised by principals who exhibit high tolerance of freedom will experienced significantly greater levels of job satisfaction than external teachers under the same conditions. Internals perceived greater control over their environment due to their own actions and the choices they had in situations. Teachers with an internal locus of control favored leader behaviors which allow teachers the freedom to make decisions, take initiative implement any subsequent action. As a result, such individuals, who were surrounded by evidence of encouragement to assume responsibilities, reported high satisfaction levels.

Practical Implications

Results of this study have clear implications for the educational practitioner. Careful attention should be given to individual differences in teachers' personalities. This means that to ensure a

greater degree of subordinate job satisfaction, principals should provide external teachers in highly ambiguous roles with better feedback, more information and greater resources. For the internal teacher, principals should attempt to change or improve behavior by allowing them greater responsibility for teaching behavior.

Some writers suggest that the selection of leaders in education is a matter of chance, and principals are often chosen more for their image and the way they might fit into the community than for their leadership qualities. Hiring priorities should be focused on leaders who have had training in identifying person-situational interactions.

It is important for educational administration preparation programs to be established at the university level which will equip aspiring administrators and current role incumbents to recognize situational factors that influence subordinates' job satisfaction.

The results of this study also indicated a need for teacher selection to be made by the building level principals rather than superintendents. The principal is in a better position to match the teachers' characteristics to the job task.

Recommendations for Further Study

While this study has confirmed several instances of interaction between leadership behaviors and certain situational variables it is recommended that other researchers replicate and extend the findings of this study in educational organizations. Although the Path-Goal Theory has been tested extensively in industrial settings, it lacks the same rigorous application in educational contexts.

The extent to which initiating structure behavior is related to job

satisfaction appears to be a function of the presence of both role ambiguity and locus of control. This finding will, therefore, require replication in order to explore the predictive validity of these measures. It is possible that locus of control is an antecedent of and, at the very least, influences perceived role ambiguity or that both variables are affected by age, tenure, or other independent variables.

Additional studies need to be conducted to determine the moderating effects of age, gender, years of experience, and educational status on role ambiguity and locus of control. While such personal data were measured in this study, they were used, not for this purpose, but for the comparison of samples.

Although Contingency Theory may provide a broad outline, it is important that researchers continue to identify specific moderating variables which influence the relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction.

The data were obtained from five selected schools with a total sample size of less than 3000. It is suggested that in the future, large samples be randomly selected and include both elementary and secondary school levels.

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this research. First it appears there is some support for the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. Although, subordinates' locus of control and role ambiguity separately did not interact with leadership initiating structure behavior to determine job satisfaction, together they did influence teachers' job

satisfaction. Tolerance of freedom leadership behavior was found to significantly affect an internal teachers' job satisfaction. These findings suggest that under highly ambiguous working conditions or when tasks are structured and routine, subordinates require emotional support from their leaders. Internals teachers react favorably to leaders who provide a great deal of freedom. Under a flexible, open, considerate environment, job satisfaction is significantly influenced by tolerant leader behavior. These findings provide a heuristic framework on which to base future research.

A second conclusion to be drawn from this study is that since the predicted criterion score for teachers in the Alpha-Beta and Chi-Delta-Epsilon samples correlated highly with their actual criterion scores, the equation could be applied with some degree of confidence to teachers in other districts of dissimilar size and wealth. This increases the possibility of generalizing the results of the study to teachers and principals in school districts with a range of average daily attendance between 3,500 students and 6,500 students, with school populations of 950 students to 2,000 students, and with similar patterns of district wealth.

A final conclusion to be drawn from this research is that the interaction effect of leadership behavior and the characteristics of the subordinates on job satisfaction is likely to be complex and moderated by a variety of contingency factors. Viewed within a contingency context, results preclude the establishment of simple, direct relationships in a study of the interaction of leadership variables on job satisfaction.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE—Form XII

**Originated by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies
and revised by the
Bureau of Business Research**

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "group," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members," refers to all the people in the unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

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DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether he/she (A) *always*, (B) *often*, (C) *occasionally*, (D) *seldom* or (E) *never* acts as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around *one* of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

- e. MARK your answers as shown in the examples below.

Example: Often acts as described A B C D E

Example: Never acts as described A B C D E

Example: Occasionally acts as described A B C D E

1. Acts as the spokesperson of the group A B C D E
2. Waits patiently for the results of a decision A B C D E
3. Makes pep talks to stimulate the group A B C D E
4. Lets group members know what is expected of them A B C D E
5. Allows the members complete freedom in their work A B C D E
6. Is hesitant about taking initiative in the group A B C D E
7. Is friendly and approachable A B C D E
8. Encourages overtime work A B C D E
9. Makes accurate decisions A B C D E
10. Gets along well with the people above him/her A B C D E
11. Publicizes the activities of the group A B C D E
12. Becomes anxious when he/she cannot find out what is coming next A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. His/her arguments are convincing | A | B | C | D | E |
| 14. Encourages the use of uniform procedures | A | B | C | D | E |
| 15. Permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems ... | A | B | C | D | E |
| 16. Fails to take necessary action | A | B | C | D | E |
| 17. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 18. Stresses being ahead of competing groups | A | B | C | D | E |
| 19. Keeps the group working together as a team | A | B | C | D | E |
| 20. Keeps the group in good standing with higher authority | A | B | C | D | E |
| 21. Speaks as the representative of the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 22. Accepts defeat in stride | A | B | C | D | E |
| 23. Argues persuasively for his/her point of view | A | B | C | D | E |
| 24. Tries out his/her ideas in the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 25. Encourages initiative in the group members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 26. Lets other persons take away his/her leadership in the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 27. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation | A | B | C | D | E |
| 28. Needles members for greater effort | A | B | C | D | E |
| 29. Seems able to predict what is coming next | A | B | C | D | E |
| 30. Is working hard for a promotion | A | B | C | D | E |
| 31. Speaks for the group when visitors are present | A | B | C | D | E |
| 32. Accepts delays without becoming upset | A | B | C | D | E |
| 33. Is a very persuasive talker | A | B | C | D | E |
| 34. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 35. Lets the members do their work the way they think best | A | B | C | D | E |
| 36. Lets some members take advantage of him/her | A | B | C | D | E |

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 37. Treats all group members as his/her equals | A | B | C | D | E |
| 38. Keeps the work moving at a rapid pace | A | B | C | D | E |
| 39. Settles conflicts when they occur in the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 40. His/her superiors act favorably on most of his/her suggestions | A | B | C | D | E |
| 41. Represents the group at outside meetings | A | B | C | D | E |
| 42. Becomes anxious when waiting for new developments | A | B | C | D | E |
| 43. Is very skillful in an argument | A | B | C | D | E |
| 44. Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done | A | B | C | D | E |
| 45. Assigns a task, then lets the members handle it | A | B | C | D | E |
| 46. Is the leader of the group in name only | A | B | C | D | E |
| 47. Gives advance notice of changes | A | B | C | D | E |
| 48. Pushes for increased production | A | B | C | D | E |
| 49. Things usually turn out as he/she predicts | A | B | C | D | E |
| 50. Enjoys the privileges of his/her position | A | B | C | D | E |
| 51. Handles complex problems efficiently | A | B | C | D | E |
| 52. Is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty | A | B | C | D | E |
| 53. Is not a very convincing talker | A | B | C | D | E |
| 54. Assigns group members to particular tasks | A | B | C | D | E |
| 55. Turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it | A | B | C | D | E |
| 56. Backs down when he/she ought to stand firm | A | B | C | D | E |
| 57. Keeps to himself/herself | A | B | C | D | E |
| 58. Asks the members to work harder | A | B | C | D | E |
| 59. Is accurate in predicting the trend of events | A | B | C | D | E |
| 60. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members | A | B | C | D | E |

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 61. Gets swamped by details | A | B | C | D | E |
| 62. Can wait just so long, then blows up | A | B | C | D | E |
| 63. Speaks from a strong inner conviction | A | B | C | D | E |
| 64. Makes sure that his/her part in the group is understood
by the group members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 65. Is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action | A | B | C | D | E |
| 66. Lets some members have authority that he/she should keep | A | B | C | D | E |
| 67. Looks out for the personal welfare of group members | A | B | C | D | E |
| 68. Permits the members to take it easy in their work | A | B | C | D | E |
| 69. Sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated | A | B | C | D | E |
| 70. His/her word carries weight with superiors | A | B | C | D | E |
| 71. Gets things all tangled up | A | B | C | D | E |
| 72. Remains calm when uncertain about coming events | A | B | C | D | E |
| 73. Is an inspiring talker | A | B | C | D | E |
| 74. Schedules the work to be done | A | B | C | D | E |
| 75. Allows the group a high degree of initiative | A | B | C | D | E |
| 76. Takes full charge when emergencies arise | A | B | C | D | E |
| 77. Is willing to make changes | A | B | C | D | E |
| 78. Drives hard when there is a job to be done | A | B | C | D | E |
| 79. Helps group members settle their differences | A | B | C | D | E |
| 80. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors | A | B | C | D | E |
| 81. Can reduce a madhouse to system and order | A | B | C | D | E |
| 82. Is able to delay action until the proper time occurs | A | B | C | D | E |
| 83. Persuades others that his/her ideas are to their advantage | A | B | C | D | E |

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 84. Maintains definite standards of performance | A | B | C | D | E |
| 85. Trusts members to exercise good judgment | A | B | C | D | E |
| 86. Overcomes attempts made to challenge his/her leadership | A | B | C | D | E |
| 87. Refuses to explain his/her actions | A | B | C | D | E |
| 88. Urges the group to beat its previous record | A | B | C | D | E |
| 89. Anticipates problems and plans for them | A | B | C | D | E |
| 90. Is working his/her way to the top | A | B | C | D | E |
| 91. Gets confused when too many demands are made of him/her | A | B | C | D | E |
| 92. Worries about the outcome of any new procedure | A | B | C | D | E |
| 93. Can inspire enthusiasm for a project | A | B | C | D | E |
| 94. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations | A | B | C | D | E |
| 95. Permits the group to set its own pace | A | B | C | D | E |
| 96. Is easily recognized as the leader of the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 97. Acts without consulting the group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 98. Keeps the group working up to capacity | A | B | C | D | E |
| 99. Maintains a closely knit group | A | B | C | D | E |
| 100. Maintains cordial relations with superiors | A | B | C | D | E |

APPENDIX B

TEST PACKET



OKLAHOMA PUBLIC SCHOOL RESEARCH COUNCIL

AFFILIATED UNIVERSITIES
The University of Oklahoma
Oklahoma State University

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
Stillwater, Oklahoma
74074

OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
Gundersen Hall, Room 309
Phone 624-7244

April 7, 1986

Dear teacher,

Educational leadership has been widely researched, yet continues to provide valuable insight into the principal-teacher relationship. You have an opportunity to increase our knowledge of leadership. We are conducting a research study of the leadership behavior of principals and the effect on teachers' role clarity, job satisfaction and personal feelings of control and we would like your input.

Please be assured that your response will be treated confidentially. The code which appears at the top of the questionnaire is used only to identify those who do not respond to the first request so that another set of forms may be provided.

The questionnaires used to collect this data are short and easy to understand. Please remember to read the directions which precede each section as they differ slightly. Also, please answer each question.

You are a busy person, in the midst of a busy time, but the few minutes you could give would mean a great deal to our profession.

We have provided a box in which to place the completed surveys. They will be picked up in two days.

Again, thank you for your contribution to this study.

Sincerely,

Lynn K. Arney

Dr. Lynn K. Arney
Professor

Billie R. Ross

Billie R. Ross
Graduate Researcher

minnesota satisfaction questionnaire
(short-form)



Vocational Psychology Research
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell **how you feel about your present job**, what things you are **satisfied** with and what things you are **not satisfied** with.

On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of the things people **like and dislike about their jobs**.

On the next page you will find statements about your **present job**.

- Read each statement carefully.
- Decide **how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job** described by the statement.

Keeping the statement in mind:

—if you feel that your job gives you **more than you expected**, check the box under **"Very Sat."** (Very Satisfied);

—if you feel that your job gives you **what you expected**, check the box under **"Sat."** (Satisfied);

—if you **cannot make up your mind** whether or not the job gives you what you expected, check the box under **"N"** (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied);

—if you feel that your job gives you **less than you expected**, check the box under **"Dissat."** (Dissatisfied);

—if you feel that your job gives you **much less than you expected**, check the box under **"Very Dissat."** (Very Dissatisfied).

- Remember: Keep the statement in mind when deciding **how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job**.
- Do this for **all** statements. Please answer **every** item.

Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your **present job**.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

INSTRUCTIONS: This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives numbered 1 or 2. Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief; obviously there are no right and wrong answers.

Your answer, either 1 or 2 to each question on this inventory, is to be reported beside the question.

Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer for every choice. For each numbered question make an X on the line beside either the 1 or 2 whichever you choose as the statement most true.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

Remember: Select that alternative which you personally believe to be more true.

I more strongly believe that:

- | | | |
|-----|---|----------|
| 21. | (1) Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much. | 1. _____ |
| | (2) The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them. | 2. _____ |
| 22. | (1) Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck. | 1. _____ |
| | (2) People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make. | 2. _____ |
| 23. | (1) One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics. | 1. _____ |
| | (2) There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them. | 2. _____ |
| 24. | (1) In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. | 1. _____ |
| | (2) Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries. | 2. _____ |
| 25. | (1) The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. | 1. _____ |
| | (2) Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings. | 2. _____ |
| 26. | (1) Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. | 1. _____ |
| | (2) Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities. | 2. _____ |

27. (1) No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. 1. _____
 (2) People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others. 2. _____
28. (1) Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. 1. _____
 (2) It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like. 2. _____
29. (1) I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. 1. _____
 (2) Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action. 2. _____
30. (1) In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. 1. _____
 (2) Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless. 2. _____
31. (1) Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. 1. _____
 (2) Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time. 2. _____
32. (1) The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. 1. _____
 (2) This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it. 2. _____
33. (1) When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. 1. _____
 (2) It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow. 2. _____
34. (1) There are certain people who are just no good. 1. _____
 (2) There is some good in everybody. 2. _____
35. (1) In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. 1. _____
 (2) Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin. 2. _____
36. (1) Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. 1. _____
 (2) Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it. 2. _____
37. (1) As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control. 1. _____
 (2) By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events. 2. _____

38. (1) Most people can't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings. 1. _____
(2) There is no such thing as "luck". 2. _____
39. (1) One should always be willing to admit his mistakes. 1. _____
(2) It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes. 2. _____
40. (1) It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you. 1. _____
(2) How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are. 2. _____
41. (1) In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. 1. _____
(2) Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three. 2. _____
42. (1) With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. 1. _____
(2) It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office. 2. _____
43. (1) Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give. 1. _____
(2) There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get. 2. _____
44. (1) A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do. 1. _____
(2) A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are. 2. _____
45. (1) Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me. 1. _____
(2) It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life. 2. _____
46. (1) People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. 1. _____
(2) There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you. 2. _____
47. (1) There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school. 1. _____
(2) Team sports are an excellent way to build character. 2. _____
48. (1) What happens to me is my own doing. 1. _____
(2) Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking. 2. _____
49. (1) Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do. 1. _____
(2) In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level. 2. _____

INSTRUCTIONS: The statements listed below may describe some specific characteristics about your job. For each statement please rate how true the characteristic is of your particular job.

CIRCLE the number which best indicates your feelings about the behavior described by the item.		DEFINITELY TRUE				SLIGHTLY NOT TRUE		DEFINITELY NOT
		OF MY JOB	TRUE	SLIGHTLY TRUE	UNCERTAIN		NOT TRUE	TRUE OF MY JOB
50.	I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	I know that I have divided my time properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

INSTRUCTIONS: Select the number that best answers the question and write it in the space to the left of the question number.

- _____ 56. What is your educational status?
1. Bachelor's degree
 2. Bachelor's degree with 15 hours
 3. Master's degree
 4. Master's degree with 15 hours
 5. Master's degree with 30 hours
 6. Ed. D or Ph. D.

- _____ 57. What is your gender?
1. female
 2. male

DIRECTIONS: Fill in the blank to the left of the question number.

- _____ 58. What is your age?
- _____ 59. Including this year, how many years of total teaching experience do you have?

APPENDIX C

FOLLOWUP LETTER



OKLAHOMA PUBLIC SCHOOL RESEARCH COUNCIL

AFFILIATED UNIVERSITIES
The University of Oklahoma
Oklahoma State University

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
Stillwater, Oklahoma
74074

OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
Gundersen Hall, Room 309
Phone 624-7244

April 9, 1986

Dear teacher,

A few days ago you received a letter and survey requesting your participation in a research project which we are conducting. The project is related to the leadership behavior of the principal and the resulting effect on the teacher's job satisfaction.

We realize that your schedule may have prevented you from responding or you may have lost the first set of questions. We would be very grateful if you would take a few minutes to complete the attached survey. Your input into this project is needed.

We have provided a box for the completed responses and they will be picked up in two days.

Again, your response to this study is needed and very much appreciated.

Thanks,

Lynn K. Arney
Dr. Lynn K. Arney
Professor

Billie R. Ross
Billie R. Ross
Graduate Researcher

VITA

BILLIE R. ROSS

Candidate for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Thesis: THE INTERACTING EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AND SITUATIONAL
VARIABLES ON TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION

Major field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Claremore, Oklahoma, March 8, 1938, the
daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Cullis Mayes England.

Education: Graduated from Claremore High School, Claremore,
Oklahoma, in May, 1956; attended Northeastern State College,
Tahlequah, Oklahoma, received Bachelor of Arts in Education
degree in Education in 1973; received Master of Education in
1977; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education
degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in
December, 1986.

Professional Experience: English and Journalism teacher, Claremore
High School, Claremore, Oklahoma, 1973-76; Counselor, Claremore
City Schools, Claremore, Oklahoma, 1976-79; Public Relations
Director, Claremore City Schools, Claremore, Oklahoma, 1977-85;
Federal Programs Director, School Treasurer, Administrative
Assistant to the Superintendent, Claremore City Schools,
Claremore, Oklahoma, 1986-86.