

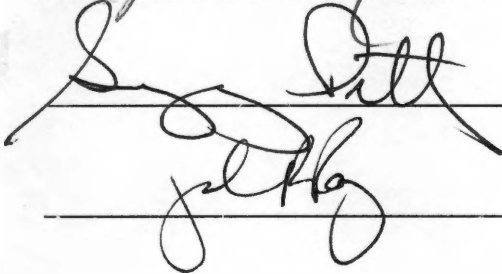
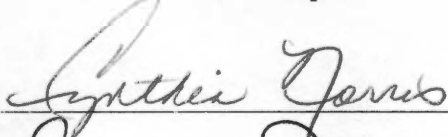
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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Gerald Garrison Miller entitled "Leadership Behavior of East Tennessee Directors of Public Schools and the Job Satisfaction of Principals." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education with a major in Educational Administration and Policy Studies.

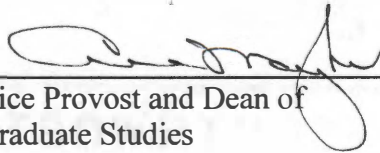


Gary Ubben, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council:



Vice Provost and Dean of
Graduate Studies

**Leadership Behavior of East Tennessee Directors
of Public Schools
and the Job Satisfaction of Principals**

**A Dissertation Presented
for the Doctor of Education Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

Gerald Garrison Miller

December, 2003

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2003b
1155

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Rebecca, and to our three sons, Thornton, Holden, and Lincoln, who each give to me a source of inspiration, support, and encouragement in all my endeavors.

Acknowledgements

The writer is grateful to his doctoral committee. Dr. Gary Ubben, major professor, and Drs. Greg Petty, Cynthia Norris, and John Ray for encouragement and assistance in the development and interpretation of this study.

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To his parents, Gerald Clay and Ida Miller, and mother- and father-in-law, Sue Roberts and the late Gordon Roberts, all great role models, the writer is grateful for their love and encouragement. The writer also sincerely wishes to acknowledge the love and support of the rest of his family. Their support has encouraged the writer to attain a major goal in his professional life.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the school district directors' leadership behavior and the principals' job satisfaction. In particular, the problem addressed by this study was which, if any, of the five leadership practices of school directors that were measured by the "Leadership Practices Inventory" (LPI) by Kouzes and Posner (1997), had a relationship to the job satisfaction of principals, as measured by the "Job Satisfaction Survey" (JSS) by Spector (1985).

The population included 526 eligible, K-12, East Tennessee public schools principals. The entire population was surveyed with 329 (63%) principals responding period. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section included the LPI that contained 30 items dealing with five leadership practices: Challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. The second section included the JSS that contained 36 items to measure facets of both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, as well as total satisfaction. The third section included demographic questions: Years of service, school setting, type of school, poverty rate, and gender.

The analytical procedures utilized to test the responses to the questionnaire were the Pearson Correlation and point-biserial correlation coefficient. These statistics were used to test the following questions at the .01 level of significance: Research Question 1: What is the relationship of the principals' ratings of school district directors compared with the level of satisfaction of principals? Research Question 2: What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables? Analysis of the data

revealed that each leadership practice measured by the LPI-Observer associated significantly statistically with the total job satisfaction scores of the principals.

The correlations between the directors' leadership practices and the job satisfaction facets of supervision, communication, and receiving contingent rewards were significant. The level of significance of the directors' relationship with co-workers, operating conditions, and promotion are associated. Yet, the size of each correlation was small. The correlations of pay, fringe benefits, and nature of the work were not significant.

The demographic variable, years of service revealed much when compared to the principals' job satisfaction. Beginning principals with 0-6 years of service ranked their job satisfaction higher than principals with 7 or more years of experience. The correlation coefficient for years of service and the job satisfaction of the principals suggested a negative association. Conclusions and implications drawn by the researcher from the results of this study included: The data supported the conclusion that school district directors lead their districts with the five leadership practices measured. The directors that successfully practice these behaviors are more likely to have principals satisfied with their jobs. The directors should consider their subordinates perception of their leadership and facet satisfaction. This assessment could allow for a more complete theory of transformational leadership to be practiced in participating school districts. Further study of the relationship between years of service and job satisfaction is needed.

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CHAPTER I

School District Leadership

Introduction

“Show me a good school district and I’ll show you a strong leader” is a statement that has filled political and policy makers’ worlds in recent years (Barker, 2001). This comment is central to much of the school research done during the 1990’s. People seek, admire, and respect leaders who make them feel significant; when a feeling of community is successfully engineered, it is so deeply gratifying that followers will call the person who created it their leader (Goffee & Jones, 2001).

At the center of the argument is the question of school district leadership practices. Bass (1960) suggested that without groups there would be no leaders. Bass defined leadership as “the observed effort of one member to change other members’ behavior by altering the motivation of the other members or by changing their habits. If the leadership is successful, what is observed is a change in the member accepting the leadership” (p. 449). Bass asserted that success as a leader depends on the perception of the other members as to the similarities of the present leadership-demanding situation to the other situation in which the one now attempting leadership has succeeded. Bass’ definition of leadership has as its central thrust the necessity of interaction among members.

The current leadership role of school district director or superintendent is shaped by a diverse set of issues. A number of books about the superintendency points to those issues and the stakeholders continuing reliance upon the leadership role of the

superintendent. The literature review included the following: *The American School Superintendent: Leading in an age of Pressure* (Carter & Cunningham, 1997); *The Changing Relationships Between Principal and Superintendent: Shifting Roles in an Era of Educational Reform* (Boris-Schacter, 1999); *The Lifeworld of Leadership: Creating Culture, Community, and Personal Meaning in Our Schools* (Sergiovanni, 2000); *Leading to Change: The Challenge of the New Superintendency* (Johnson, 1996). Publication of these books has suggested an interest by education scholars in the leadership role of the school district superintendent.

School district leadership must be honest, forward-looking, inspiring, and competent. Kouzes and Posner (2002) suggested that these traits are “essential leadership prerequisites;” collectively, they give a leader “source credibility” that is pertinent to leadership in the fields of management, medicine, politics, religion, and education (p. 24). Directors of school districts need to possess source credibility, and be ones who are trusted, who do what they say they will do, who are excited and enthusiastic about the direction schools are headed, and who possess the knowledge and skill necessary to be leaders.

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), developed by Kouzes and Posner (1997), is an instrument that assesses leadership practices and behaviors. *The Leadership Challenge* by Kouzes and Posner (1997) provided the theoretical basis for this study. Over 18 years of research pertaining to the study of leaders who manage, lead, and champion is in their database. Kouzes and Posner investigated both leader and follower perspectives of leadership practice. From their research, the authors developed a model of

leadership practices that provides a means by which leadership can be assessed and improved.

Kouzes' and Posner's leadership model (1997) consists of five leadership practices found in successful leaders across a variety of settings, organizations, and institutions. The five practices are (1) challenging the process, (2) inspiring a shared vision, (3) enabling others to act, (4) modeling the way, and (5) encouraging the heart. The leadership model is presented in detail in Table 1.

Superintendent Leadership in Reform

The term reform is often used in educational literature. Examples of initiatives include charter schools, shared decision-making, and standardized testing. School district reform initiatives primarily seek to more efficiently (1) achieve the basic purposes of the school district, (2) change personnel responsibilities (3) alter school practices, and (4) replace programs. The burden of reform or change can add to the complexity of the director's role. Widespread improvements in schools are unlikely to be realized unless superintendents are more substantially involved in the reform agenda; if school superintendents do not lead, then change will not occur (Murphy, 1991).

A major part of the superintendent's work is to ensure that staff members are focused on student learning, and are aware of the latest research and successful practice, while continuously improving the learning process in classrooms (Carter and Cunningham, 1997). In their review of the relationship between five superintendents and their principals, Boris & Schacter (1999) identified a need for

Table 1. Kouzes' and Posner's Leadership Model

TEN COMMITMENTS OF LEADERSHIP	
Practices:	Commitments:
Challenge the Process	1- Search out challenging opportunities to change, grow, innovate, and improve. 2- Experiment, take risks, and learn from the accompanying mistakes.
Inspire a Shared Vision	3- Envision an uplifting and ennobling future. 4- Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to their values, interests, hopes and dreams.
Enable Others to Act	5- Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust. 6- Strengthen people by giving power away, providing choice, developing competence, assigning critical tasks, and offering support.
Model the Way	7- Set the example by behaving in ways that are consistent with shared values. 8- Achieve small wins that promote consistent progress and build commitment.
Encourage the Heart	9- Recognize individual contributions to the success of every project 10- Celebrate team accomplishments regularly.

Note. From The leadership challenge, by Kouzes and Posner, Copyright © 1995.

more collaboration between the central office administration and the building principals. The researchers also recommended that new models for working together in reform are needed.

With publication of the National Commission on Excellence in Education's 1983 landmark report, "A Nation at Risk," leadership by both superintendents and principals has become a factor in ensuring that meaningful and lasting change occurs in improving schools. New initiatives require that central and local units need each other, amounting to simultaneous top-down and bottom-up influence, with neither role being successful without the cooperation of the other (Bjork, 1998). This type of professional relationship is not limited to top-down influence.

Fullan (1993) asserted that clarity in leadership practices of superintendents has led some states to establish legislative policies that link success in its school directorship to district achievement test scores of schools. Many states have implemented mandates that call for the dismissal of principals if their school's achievement test scores are inadequate. Therefore, high stakes testing policies have changed the focus of the superintendent and principal relationship.

Problem Statement

Certain leadership practices that are used by superintendents should contribute to the job satisfaction of principals. Yet, the knowledge of specific connections between superintendents' leadership and principals' job satisfaction are just emerging. Little empirical evidence exists to show a relationship between

principals' job satisfaction scores and school district directors' leadership practices. At the time of the study, East Tennessee school superintendents and principals were under reform mandates from the state. This pressure presented an additional concern regarding an investigation of the leadership practices of school directors and principal job satisfaction in that both needed the support of the other. Principals provided perceptual information and data relative to the leadership of the director and the impact of those practices on principal job satisfaction. "The question then becomes, "Does a school director's leadership practices affect the job satisfaction of principals?" The literature suggested a link between leadership performance and job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between directors' leadership and principals' job satisfaction. The leadership practices of directors were measured by the "Leadership Practices Inventory;" and the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of principals was measured by the "Job Satisfaction Survey."

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship of the principals' LPI ratings of school directors (LPI-Observer) compared with the level of satisfaction of principals (JSS)?
2. What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables (years of service, school setting, type of school, poverty rate, and gender)?

Definition of Terms

Accountability – Tennessee’s model holds individual schools and school systems answerable for student progress. A school’s achievements, or lack of achievement, is compared to its past record, not against other schools in other districts or to a state average. Schools measure a year’s worth of growth for a year’s worth of schooling.

Director – The chief executive officer (CEO) or head of each school district that is employed by the local school board. The director is legally assigned as the individual responsible for leading the school district and its program. The director’s behavior is the independent variable in this study.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) – The JSS provides information about job satisfaction. The individuals selected as followers (observers) will complete the survey. The JSS is designed to be used by multiple raters who can provide feedback on four intrinsic and five extrinsic job satisfaction factors.

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) – The LPI provides information about leadership behavior. It does not measure IQ, personality, style, or general management skills. It is designed to be used by multiple raters (observers) who can provide feedback on five leadership practices. People selected as observers for the LPI must be those who directly observe the leader. Kouzes and Posner (1997) indicate that there is no universal right answer when it comes to leadership but the more frequently the LPI’s leadership behaviors/practices are demonstrated, the more likely one is seen as an effective leader.

Principal – The chief administrative officer or head at the school site, employed by the local school board as a Tennessee licensed principal and answerable to the director of the school district. The principal is legally assigned as the individual responsible for leading the school to which he/she is assigned and its programs. The responses of the principal are the dependent variables in this research.

Significance of the Study

Under the Tennessee Accountability Model (2002), principals are judged as either successful or not successful on the basis of their performance contract. In other states as well as in Tennessee, legislation has made it possible to reprimand and even suspend and/or remove principals on the basis of these arrangements that are developed, written, and evaluated by the school district's director.

Even though principals are being evaluated based on these binding contracts, adequate research on the relationship between superintendents' leadership practices and job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of principals is not available. Many directors strive to focus the efforts of each principal to his or her assigned school, and influence the principals to strive willingly to do work correctly and purposefully in accomplishing the goals (successful schools, successful students) of the school district.

As a principal, my experience suggests that principals possess critical insights into school district leadership practice. I believe that most school district leaders can not be fully in touch with the potential and range of their

influence. Therefore, this study will contribute to a better understanding of school district leadership by including data from the principals' perceptions of the leadership practices of their director; this research project will add to the body of knowledge that can enable school district directors to better utilize their leadership practices which influence subordinates.

Assumptions

The assumptions are:

1. Leadership practices will be similar across the professional boundaries.
2. The JSS will give a reasonable measure of job satisfaction and therefore will identify satisfied and dissatisfied categories.
3. The LPI-Observer will provide a valid score for assessing leadership practices in district school directors.

Delimitations

1. The study is delimited to public school principals in East Tennessee.
2. The study is delimited to principals' perceptions of the leadership behaviors of their immediate superior, the position of director in their respective school districts.
3. The study is delimited to the five dimensions of leadership behaviors as measured by the LPI instrument.
4. The study is delimited to the nine dimensions of job satisfaction in the principals as measured by the JSS. The JSS uses a summated rating scale

format with each of the nine subscales producing a separate facet score, and the total of all nine items producing an overall job satisfaction score.

Limitations

1. There may be some inherent limitations of the measuring instruments in that they are not perfect instruments, but have proven to be useful instruments for determining leadership behavior and job satisfaction, with the reliability coefficients: LPI-Observer .82 to .92; JSS .71 to .91.
2. The study is limited by the quality of the perceptions of the principals who will complete the instruments.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I presents the: Introduction, Superintendent Leadership in Reform, Problem Statement, Purpose of the Study, Research Questions, Definition of Terms, Significance of the Study, Assumptions, Delimitations, Limitations, and Organization of the Study. Chapter II includes a Review of the Literature and looks at the Role of the School District Director with an emphasis on leadership. Chapter III presents the Research Design and Methodology of the study. Chapters IV and V present the Findings, Summary, Conclusions, Discussion and Recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Introduction to Leadership

Leadership studies have produced some 350 definitions of leadership over the past quarter century (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). School district leadership has been studied, yet it has not been readily discernable. The literature has referred to school superintendents as managers, traditional leaders, instructional leaders, transformational leaders, and recently as chief architects of learning communities.

Superintendents have been placed in a role characterized by numerous and challenging demands as America enters the twenty-first century. Along with providing the money, human consultation, and technical services that allows schools to determine how best to get the job done, superintendent responsibilities have included: (1) defining the district's core beliefs about teaching and learning, (2) defining the goals and objectives of an educated student, (3) providing information and identification of common needs, and (4) coordinating and linking resources (Glickman, 1993).

Strong relationships between school district and building leaders that better promote meaningful change or reform have become increasingly important. Since publication of the 1983 critical report, "A Nation at Risk," and its reporting of low education and skill levels of high school graduates, Americans have demonstrated much interest and involvement in public education (Glass, 1992). Schools have become the focal point for the resolution of broad economic,

ideological, and societal issues. Educational issues that have been impacted include standards, textbooks, curriculums, and educational concepts.

Superintendents have also been called on to support and facilitate shared leadership, school-based decisions, and other site-based approaches to school leadership (Carter and Cunningham, 1997).

With on-going reform, there has also been an expectation that superintendents needed to lead in such an empowering manner that (1) allows personal mastery, (2) challenges and surfaces mental models, (3) builds a shared vision, (4) encourages team learning, and (5) engages in systems thinking (Senge, 1990). Successful school reform has required reculturing: “transforming the culture” or the way we do things. Superintendents must support and guide principals in a positive manner, facilitating their work, to better create a learning culture that allows every student to achieve goals (Fullan, 2001, p. 44).

Leadership Theories

Leadership has occupied the attention of authors and researchers since written communication became accessible. Chinese classics, as early as the sixth century B.C., are filled with leadership recordings pertaining to leadership duties. “Confucius urged leaders to set a moral example and to manipulate rewards and punishments for teaching what was right and good” (Bass, 1990, p. 3). Taoism encouraged leaders to liberate themselves from job duties by making followers believe that organizational success is due to their efforts (Bass, 1990).

A significant compilation pertaining to leadership evolution is the Holy

Bible: leaders as prophets, priests, chiefs, and kings serving as symbols, representatives, and models for the people in both the Old and New Testaments. It has been proposed that leadership began with Moses as he served as judge of the Israelite people. Stories have been passed from generation to generation about leaders' competencies and weaknesses, and leaders' rights and privileges, and leaders' duties and obligations (Bass, 1990).

Greek philosophers such as Plato (1985) in his work, The Republic, closely examined the qualifications for the ideal leader for the utopian city/state. Logical reasoning had been considered the most significant trait to be displayed by the exemplary leader, in the achievement of purposeful government.

Machiavelli (1976), in his work The Prince, explained, "There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things" (p. 21). These rules have become guidelines for leaders in educational organizations.

Aristotle (1905), in Politics, found a lack of morality among persons desiring to become leaders. He emphasized the need to educate youth promoting behavior that would better yield the right kinds of leaders. Plutarch (1973), in The Parallel Lives, compared behaviors exhibited by Greek and Roman leaders to support the belief that he held of the importance of leaders' and followers' rights in an organization. Hegel (1894), in Philosophy of Mind, asserted that only by serving as a follower can a leader best be understood, and he believed the practice

to be a significant requirement for leaders.

Study of leadership has been undertaken by many people and in various ways, yet it has remained an interesting study. Numerous schools of leadership theory have evolved over time; the explanations have advanced from the study of leaders' traits and behaviors to the exploration of interactions and leadership situations. The literature has indicated that this leadership evolution has moved from simple ideas to more complex concepts. Applicable to this study, Kouzes and Posner (2002) have identified an approach that includes five practices of exemplary leadership. Stogdill (1974) identified six leadership theory classifications: (1) great-man, (2) environmental, (3) personal situational, (4) interactional expectation, (5) humanistic, and (6) exchange. Chemers (1984) listed three chronological classifications for the study of leadership theory: (1) trait (1910-WW2), (2) behavior (WW2-late 1960s), and (3) contingency (late 1960s-present).

Trait Theory

The objective of trait research has been to identify specifically the unique features that are associated with leadership. The great man theory, grounded on the premise that leaders are born and not made, focused on efforts to uncover attributes of the born leader (Cimperman, 1986). Newell (1978) reported that the great man theory concluded that "leaders exert power because they possess qualities which differentiate them from and which appeal to the masses" (p. 226).

According to this theory, power had been vested in a limited number of people whose inheritance and destiny make them leaders. “Those of the right breed could lead; others must be led” (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p. 5).

In the mid-twentieth century, trait theory began to lose its significance (Gilbert, 1950; Goulder, 1950). Studies had failed to note distinctions between traits that facilitated a rise to leadership and ones that maintained it. Stewart (1978) explained that “one could always find leaders who lacked these supposedly defining characteristics” (p. 6).

Behavior Theory

In the 1950's, researchers began to place an emphasis on leadership behaviors by cataloging specific acts in which leaders engaged. Efforts by researchers initiated a shift from the analysis of personalities to the inquiry of what leaders do. The belief that “effective leaders utilize a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieve certain goals, resulting in high productivity and morale” (Landfair, 1986, p. 13) spurred the efforts.

The department of Ohio State University Leadership Studies produced two important comprehensive analyses of leader behavior: Hemphill's and Coons' (1957) The Leadership Behavior Description, and Fleishman's (1961) The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire. The assessment techniques utilized in the studies are designed to specifically measure the observed leadership influence of an individual as perceived by his/her superiors, peers, and/or subordinates as applicable, and to measure leadership style on group performance and satisfaction

utilizing two factors, initiating structure (task) and consideration structure (relationship). Early results proved the behavioral approach to leadership as a valid one. However upon completion of more research, few dependable patterns are specified, deeming behavior theory one-dimensional (Landfair, 1986).

Contingency Theory

Introducing the first contingency theory, Fiedler stated, “To be effective, leadership style must be appropriate in relation to the situation” (Newell, 1978, p. 233). Yet after several studies, researchers established that style, as a single factor, could not predict leader effectiveness. Different types of leadership are needed for different situations and circumstances that set the foundation for Fiedler’s contingency model. This model incorporated the following variables into leadership analysis: (1) leader/member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) power/authority structure (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) cultivated situational leadership, the third major contingency model. “This theory undertook to provide the leader with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the level of maturity of ones followers” (McElroy and Terry, 1983, p. 29). Relative to this development, the “Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description” was created in 1993 to measure three aspects of leader behavior: (1) leadership style, (2) extent of style, and (3) style accommodations.

Contingency theory has been a focus of leadership studies. “At the broadest levels, most contemporary theories adopt a contingency perspective. One

would be hard put to find an empirical theory of leadership which holds that one style of leadership is appropriate for all situations” (Chemers, 1984, p. 105). Simply put, contingency theory suggested that a leader’s interaction with his/her organizational environment constitutes leadership. Heller (1982) asserted that an effective leader’s behavior should consider the situation. Therefore, contingency paradigms have been confronted by their limitations.

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) in his landmark work, Leadership, suggested that transformational leadership is about change and about group members sharing a common purpose and similar values. Burns (1978) stated, “People can be lifted into their better selves” (p. 20). He further asserted that it is the possibility of this kind of transformation that gives leadership its moral purpose. Thus, “The leaders’ fundamental act is to induce people to be aware or conscious of what they feel, to define their values so meaningfully, that they can be moved to purposeful action” (Burns, 1978, p. 44). Bass (1985) suggested that this leadership style is based on influence, and that it is accomplished when leaders delegate and give up power over people and events in order to achieve power over accomplishments and goals.

Burns (1978) placed his theory of transformational leadership on a continuum with transactional leadership theory. He explained transformational leadership as seeking to satisfy the followers’ higher needs and aspirations. Building on his theory, Burns (1978) positioned transactional leadership on the

opposite end of the continuum. He stated that transformational leadership engages the full person of the follower,” and serves as an independent force in changing the makeup of the followers’ motive base through gratifying their motives (p. 20). Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is viewed as a function of ones position in the organization, and as centering on problems of directing people and the tasks to achieving the organization’s goals. From this perspective, the school superintendent would focus on a narrow range of goals, curriculum, and evaluation. Thus, transactional leadership placed the individual in a reactive rather than a proactive role (Burns, 1978).

The model of transformational and transactional leadership theory has suggested important implications for the current reform movement in education. Bass and Avolio (1997) identified five factors that represent the behavior components of transformational leadership: (1) idealized influence (attributes), (2) idealized influence (behavior), (3) inspirational motivation, (4) intellectual stimulation, and (5) individualized consideration. Three factors identified and defined the behavioral components of transactional leadership: (1) contingent reward, (2) management by exception – active, and (3) management by exception – passive. Bass and Avolio (1997) asserted that the transformation and transactional leadership approach builds trust, respect, and commitment on the part of followers to work collectively toward the achievement of the same desired goals.

The challenges brought to schools by restructuring have been cited as reasons for advocating transformational leadership in schools. This type of leadership has been viewed as sensitive to organization building, developing shared vision, distributing leadership, and building school culture which have been necessary to recent restructuring efforts in schools (Leithwood, 2001). Sashkin and Sashkin (1990) also provided strong support for the claim that transformational leadership contributes to more desirable school cultures.

Kouzes and Posner (1995) stated, "Transformation leaders resemble the leaders that we describe in The Leadership Challenge, by inspiring others to excel, giving individual consideration to others, and stimulating people to think in new ways. Transactional leaders, on the other hand, tend to maintain a steady-state situation and generally get performance from others by offering rewards" (p. 321). Hater and Bass (1988) found that while both leadership styles were positively associated with effectiveness, the transformational factors of leadership were more highly related to job satisfaction and effectiveness than were transactional leadership factors. Certainly, the models of transformational leadership by Bass and Avolio (1997) and by Kouzes and Posner (1995) should continue to be explored as a way for school district directors to better understand their responsibilities and values.

Assessing Leadership of School District Directors

Responsibilities of the school superintendent have seen considerable change over the last half of the twentieth century. The 1950s have been

considered coherent years of national political conservatism, population shifts from farm to city and city to suburb, reasserting of humanitarian concern for racial minorities, and the expansion of schooling. Except for the Sputnik era (1958-1960) that propelled greater scientific expectations, the perspective of the 1950s had schools as an expanding, essential operation highly regarded by most communities. The 1960s however have been referred to as turbulent years with the rise of popular protest against racial injustice, active federal concern for social issues, continual economic prosperity, and the impact of Great Society programs. With the perspective of a decline in educational quality, increasing numbers of citizens began losing confidence in schools and with more groups, especially in civil rights, making more demands than previously. Superintendents in the 1960s faced unfamiliar demands, expectations, and groups (Cuban, 1977).

With cultural turbulence and pedagogical upheavals continuing, schools in the early 1970s embraced open education as a remedy (Graham, 1992). In 1975, the state of the nation's schools became a national political issue with the press reporting that SAT scores for college admission had fallen sharply since 1963-64. Students' scores on most other national and state tests also fell during the 1970s. The low scores helped fuel the "back to basics" movement (mid 1970s). And by the mid- to late 1970s, most states had established minimum competency tests (Ravitch, 2000). The vast majority of superintendents of the 50s, 60s, and into the 70s trailed behind the civil rights groups, the courts, and the governmental regulators on the school issues of equal educational opportunities.

Superintendents along with their staff had to change their ways, with many having lacked both a commitment and the expertise to educate the new populations effectively (Graham, 1992).

Superintendents have faced new challenges associated with the 1980s' and 1990s' multiculturalism, education standards, globalization, and curriculum reform efforts, along with national and state directives. In 1983, "A Nation at Risk" and its body of education reform literature initiated the challenge of responding with new initiatives to perceived low school district performance. The commission recommended: (1) study of the "new basics" by all high school students, (2) new grading and testing expectations, (3) more time spent on academics, and (4) upgrading of standards for teachers.

Superintendents in the late 1980s faced disenchantment with school district bureaucracy; this led to more localized structuring with superintendents being caught in a cross axes of a public viewing the superintendent position as problematic (Murphy, 1991). A problem for many superintendents has been that they are perceived as resisting new demands on curriculum, graduation, and testing of students (Glass, 1992). Once considered the expert in most communities, the superintendent has increasingly become the target of criticism and placed at the center of controversy, forced to become the defender of policy, the implementer of state mandates, and to become the conductor of diverse interests seeking to influence schools (Norton, Webb, Dlugosh, & Sybouts, 1996). By the late twentieth century, the superintendent had become a manager of labor

relations, strategic planning, budgeting, legislation, and political relationships (Ravitch, 2000).

Examples of challenges that twenty-first century directors of school districts have come to face include charter schools, parental choice, site-based management, the empowerment of certain groups, and federal mandates (Boris & Schacter, 1999). Superintendents have also come to face challenges to their authority and policy influence, with the expectation of change. As Ted Sizer has asserted, “Lasting reform requires creating a climate for local educators and community members to craft their own improvement strategies. Our research suggested that you are not going to get significant long-term reform unless you have subtle but powerful support and collaboration among administrators, teachers, students, and the families of those students in a particular community” (O’Neil, 1995, p. 4).

Carter and Cunningham (1997) suggested that superintendents of today and tomorrow must model leadership skill, vision, and a strong desire to use his/her power to improve the lives of children. The researchers asserted that superintendents can have a profound impact on future generations.

Leadership Role of the Superintendency

Gerstner Jr., Semerad, Doyle, and Johnston (1994) stated, “Without leaders, organizations will do the same thing tomorrow that they are doing today” (p. 117). Burns (1978) suggested that an important concept is to increase shared decision making opportunities. Such a goal is different from the traditional superior/

subordinate or financial recompense goal from an earlier organizational management time. Leithwood (1992) described transformational leadership as empowering those involved in the decision-making process, and as helping them recognize what needs to be done to achieve a desired outcome. An observable higher level of leadership ability is thereby demanded of the transformational leader over the more traditional style.

Transformational superintendents have directed their efforts to building and strengthening organizational norms and attitudes, largely through concern about the development of staff skills and beliefs. Those superintendents believe that quality education will arise when professional staff agrees about educational goals and strategies for their attainment. Mitchell & Tucker (1993) asserted that due to more recent job demands, school district directors must be able to generate a shared vision of what their schools might be, cultivate a team spirit, build trust, and share the decision making with the school district.

Norton (1996) suggested that today's superintendent must build and promote a community. To achieve this job demand, superintendents must not only possess considerable leadership skill, but be capable of employing leadership practices. Norton explained that this demand impacted change in the leadership paradigm across school district organizations. Thus, the challenge for superintendents is to begin claiming and asserting a leadership role for reform that still lies ahead for most school districts.

Walsh and Sattes (2000) suggested a dynamic and interactive conceptual

framework for accomplishing this type of work with five components, (1) vision, (2) mission, (3) core beliefs, (4) strategic structures, and (5) distributed accountability. By focusing attention on core beliefs, strategic structures, and distributed accountability, leadership is perceived to be proactive by their subordinates. This approach posited that while individual behaviors are guided initially by intrinsic beliefs, behaviors can be modified by strategic structures designed to reinforce organizational core beliefs as stated in the vision/mission components.

Walsh and Sattes (2000) explained that over time, changes in behaviors can foster distributed accountability for each member of the learning culture. This approach to creating a culture that supports high levels of performance is neither simple or linear. The components are dynamic and interactive; the elements to facilitate a school district are interconnected. This blueprint is action oriented and nurtures a culture to evolve into a learning community.

In Tennessee, the importance that policy makers and politicians have placed on the role of superintendent in the educational process has been evident by the inclusion of performance contracts for school district directors as part of the 1992 Tennessee Educational Improvement Act. This school improvement legislation made sweeping changes in the conditions of the employment of superintendents. One of the changes included the appointment of superintendents by boards of education throughout the state; therefore, election of the school superintendent became a thing of the past. Another change included the principal

employment contract containing specific language. Section 49-2-303 (a)(1) allows for non-renewal of the contract if the principal performance standards are not met. In spite of significant legislation and the conclusion from research on school reform that the district school director is key to leading positive change, minimal research has been completed to determine a relationship between school district directors' leadership practices and principals' job satisfaction.

Some researchers have questioned whether leadership practices have any significance. Tannenbaum (1968) asserted that the more people believe that they can influence and control the organization, the greater organizational effectiveness and member satisfaction will be. Thus, shared power can result in higher job fulfillment and performance throughout the organization.

Introduction to Job Satisfaction

Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as the feelings (likes or dislikes) a worker has about his or her job, and as to some extent a reflection of good feeling about the job, or as a related constellation of treatment. The facets of job satisfaction are the perceived characteristics of the job, relating to an individual's frame of reference. Job satisfaction can be considered as a global attitude of various aspects of the work.

Job Satisfaction Theories

Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Theory

Maslow's (1954) needs hierarchy theory divided people's needs into five basic categories that are arranged in an ascending hierarchical order:

physiological, safety, belongingness/love, self-esteem, and self-actualization.

1. **Physiological needs** – Physiological needs are the most basic human needs, those required for human existence (water, food, vitamins, hormones, etc.) and those that include sensory pleasures (tastes, smells, etc.) which may become goals of motivated behavior.
2. **Safety needs** – Beyond physiological needs, safety needs are those which seek physical and psychological security and stability (dependency protection, freedom from fear, structure, order, etc.).
3. **Belongingness and love needs** – Having met the physiological, physical and psychological needs, the individual seeks the companionship and friendship of others. These are the hunger for affectionate relationships, namely, a place within the individual's group or family.
4. **Self-esteem needs** – The esteem needs are those desires for self-respect and self-esteem, along with the desire for reputation, prestige or status in the opinions of others. Satisfaction of the esteem need leads to self-worth, self confidence, and strength.
5. **Self-actualization needs** – Self-actualization needs are categorized in the desire to achieve ones ultimate potential. In reality, self-actualization needs are the most difficult to fulfill and can never be fully realized.

According to Maslow's theory, once lower level needs are satisfied, higher level needs will then become more important. Those needs that have

already been satisfied cease to be effective motivators, unless for some reason, that level ceases to be fulfilled. The level not achieved focuses as the primary motivational force in an individual's life; the application to an individual's work environment is the degree to which the environment satisfies the need.

Maslow's theory of needs hierarchy was based on the assumption of internal needs acting as motivators, with satisfaction perceived as actually meeting a need. Maslow believed that the nature of man is such that basic needs can be seen in a hierarchy. Physiological needs are defined as most powerful; man's need for food, drink, and shelter are basic. Maslow's theory has indicated that principals' basic needs can be characterized by their need for environmental control, number of faculty and students, and funding.

Maslow (1970) suggested that when physiological needs known only by the individual are met at a minimum level, the person will become concerned about safety and security. Maslow's theory has indicated that principals looking for satisfaction will find it through job security, benefits, and a safe workplace. The literature has suggested that social needs (belongingness and love needs) are largely inter-changeable and will be met through companionship and affection. Here, a principal can begin to assess the quality of his or her relationships with followers, superiors, and work groups. Johnson and Holdway (1991) discovered that when principals feel that they have achieved successful relationships, their basic needs have been met. A principal's self-esteem needs are associated with respect and status. Esteem needs can be met through merit pay, recognition, and

responsibility. With meeting the belongingness need, principals can focus on high priority areas of need in their respective schools. The upper-limit of the scale includes the self-actualization needs which are defined as the need to fulfill ones potential through achievement or growth. A principal can attempt to satisfy those needs through curriculum development, accepting a difficult assignment, or attempting a new leadership model.

Maslow has not been without his critics. Locke (1976) questioned the existence of the higher order needs and the basis on which those needs are determined. Randolph (1985) noted that an individual's needs may change over time, or that their priority of needs may change.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

In identifying job factors that make a person satisfied or dissatisfied with the job, Herzberg (1987) maintained that there are two independent sets of needs and that both sets of needs affect the individual's behavior differently. This became known as Herzberg's two-factor theory. Herzberg (1968) developed the two-factor theory in an effort to distinguish facets of work life, when not present, that are truly satisfying or dissatisfying. What he suggested is a continua results theory for work and life, known as motivational hygiene theory. Herzberg utilized Maslow's (1954) Needs Hierarchy and Porter's (1961) Theory to more fully develop the concept.

Herzberg (1968) asserted that satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors are independent of each other, and that factors involved in producing job

satisfaction are separate from factors producing job dissatisfaction. Thus, satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors are not on a continuum, and dissatisfaction is not the opposite of satisfaction. Various aspects of a person's job may also influence feelings of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, the growth or motivator factors that are intrinsic to the job are achievement, recognition of achievements, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement or growth. The dissatisfaction/ avoidance (hygiene) factors that are extrinsic to the job include administration, company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationships (peers, superiors, and subordinates), working conditions, salary, status, and security.

Sergiovanni's (1967) study supported the belief that intrinsic factors are more important contributors to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction than extrinsic factors. Smith (1969) noted that the hygiene factors are associated with the individual's ability to achieve, allowing for psychological growth. Thus, Smith's view posited that workers are not motivated by the extrinsic factors of salary and working conditions, but by the intrinsic factors of achievement, recognition, and responsibility.

More exacting studies have verified much of Herzberg's work. Gawel (1997) designed a study based upon the Herzberg model. The study's purpose sought to identify those factors associated with teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and to determine their relationship to factors that affect teacher satisfaction in the Tennessee Career Ladder Program. Specifically, the study sought to determine the influence of educational training, goal setting, and gender

of the teacher upon the occurrence of factors affecting teacher satisfaction, and to compare those findings with Herzberg's findings. Gawel determined that achievement, recognition, and interpersonal relations with students were significant factors that increase the satisfaction of teachers, while the characterization of salary as a hygienic factor was not proven to be a significant factor in increasing teacher satisfaction.

Knight and Westbrook (1999) replicated the Herzberg study with employees in traditional job structures and telecommuting jobs. Their study supported Herzberg's hypothesis that satisfiers and dissatisfiers tend to be mutually exclusive. The study determined that factors accounting for high attitudes in workers relate to the conditions or environment of work; and that a predominance of achievement, recognition, and responsibility relate to teacher job satisfaction. The low attitude facets revealed factors that are not in themselves work centered, rather they center on the conditions and people that surround the actual work. The dissatisfaction factors that are identified for workers tend to focus on conditions that workers expect to be maintained at acceptable levels. It seems reasonable that workers should expect fair supervision, supportive work policies, directives, and pleasant working conditions.

Herzberg's critics suggested a lack of confidence in his theory. For example, Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel (1967) stated, "The two factor theory has fared poorly . . . regardless of the methodology used. It seems that the evidence

is now sufficient to lay the two-factor theory to rest . . . so that researchers will address themselves to studying the full complexities of human motivation” (173).

Lortie (1975) proposed a third type of reward that promotes job satisfaction. In addition to extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, he suggested ancillary rewards or objective characteristics (e.g., work schedules). Lortie suggested that employees will concentrate on the intrinsic rewards if available, and the energy directed toward attaining those rewards could have a significant impact on the achievement of organizational goals.

ERG Theory

The next theory to be examined is Alderfer’s 1972 existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory. Alderfer (1972) studied and reassessed the human needs categories. He began his definition of those concepts as (1) biologically based, yet able to be strengthened through learning, and as (2) addressing the “subjective states of satisfaction and desire” (p. 7). Alderfer suggested that satisfaction is the result of interactions between a person and his or her environment, with the opposite of satisfaction being frustration.

Alderfer claimed that Maslow’s 1954 work in gratification theory had been updated and made current through his 1972 research. ERG areas of research are identified as differing from Maslow’s theories. Alderfer’s (1972) basic needs fell into three basic categories, existence, relatedness, and growth. (1) Existence needs include both material and physiological desires. Examples of those needs are hunger in the physiological realm and job security in the material realm.

(2) Relatedness needs are those involving relationships with significant others.

Aldefer asserted that satisfaction is not based necessarily upon a positive relationship alone; the closeness of the relationship versus the distance of a said relationship is perceived as most significant. And (3) growth needs can fall into the areas of productive and creative thinking.

Alderfer (1972) identified seven propositions to provide a basis for testing, where the hypothesis is an attempt to relate satisfaction to desire. He explained that needs related to one area should have some verifiable relationship to satisfaction related to that same area. The propositions are as follows:

1. The less existence needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired . . .
2. The less relatedness needs are satisfied, the more existence needs will be desired . . .
3. The more existence needs are satisfied, the more relatedness needs will be desired . . .
4. The less relatedness needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired . . .
5. The less growth needs are satisfied, the more relatedness needs will be desired . . .
6. The more relatedness needs are satisfied, the more growth needs will be desired . . .
7. The more growth needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired . . . (Aldefer, 1972, p. 13).

These propositions suggested that any desire can have multiple satisfactions; satisfaction can affect several desires. The said relationships asserted the concepts of interchangeability (e.g., pay to buy food) and transferability (e.g., husband chosen as a father figure).

Alderfer proposed the model of frustration-regression and satisfaction-

progression precept: Progression is the more intrinsic, less material rewards when the more concrete needs are met; regression is the idea of moving toward the more concrete satisfaction of existence when relatedness needs are not met. Alderfer presented three propositions that aid in differentiating the degree of need of each category:

1. - When existence materials are scarce, then the higher chronic existence desires are, the less existence satisfaction.
 - When existence materials are not scarce, then there will be no differential existence satisfaction as a function of chronic existence desires.
2. - In highly satisfying relationships, there is no differential relatedness satisfaction as a function of chronic relatedness desires
 - In normal relationships, persons very high and very low on chronic relatedness desires tend to obtain lower satisfaction than persons with moderate desires.
 - In highly dissatisfying relationships, then, the higher chronic relatedness desires, the more relatedness satisfaction.
3. - In challenging discretionary settings, then the higher chronic growth desires, the more growth satisfaction.
 - In non-challenging, non-discretionary settings, there will be no differential growth satisfaction as a function of chronic growth desires (Alderfer, 1972, pp. 18-20).

The relationships of Maslow's and Alderfer's categories are presented in Table 2. The second difference between the two theories is that ERG's propositions three and six have an orientation to hierarchy, whereas Alderfer did not consider his a strictly ordered hierarchy.

Maslow (1943) stated, "There are other, apparently innately creative people in whom the drive to creativeness seems to be more important than any other

Table 2. Category Comparison of Maslow and Alderfer

Maslow's Needs Categories	Alderfer's ERG Categories
Safety-material Safety-interpersonal	Physiological Existence
Love/belongingness Esteem-interpersonal Esteem-self-confirmed	Relatedness
Self-actualization	Growth

counter-determinant. Their creativeness might appear not as self-actualization released by basic satisfaction, but in spite of the lack of basic satisfaction" (p. 386).

Other Theories

In addition to Maslow's, Herzberg's, and Alderfer's theories, others have offered a number of explanations of job satisfaction. During the 1960's, job satisfaction theory was placed on a continuum, and so discrepancy theory became established. Discrepancy theory defined an individual's level of satisfaction within a certain facet. Katzell (1964) questioned, "What is actually received?" Locke (1969) asked, "What is perceived to be gained?" Porter (1961) raised suggested that equity theory is perceived inputs to perceived returns; satisfaction the question in terms of what should be received, not desired. Adams (1963) results when inputs and incentives are equal, and dissatisfaction results when the individual perceives he is under-rewarded or over-rewarded

Vroom (1964) authored the book titled Fulfillment Theory; he explained the measure of satisfaction as a simple interview technique of asking how much of a given outcome an individual receives. Vroom explained that the noticeable weakness of fulfillment theory is that it assumes facet satisfaction can be discerned without understanding the individual's desires.

The facet approach of the 1970s and 1980s can be used to find out which parts of the job produce satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Locke (1976) explained job satisfaction as being determined by the fulfillment of individual values. Locke suggested that needs are representative of biological necessities, and values are subject to conscious or subconscious individual desires. Lawler (1973) in his book, Motivation in Work Organizations, identified four theoretical approaches to understanding job satisfaction with fulfillment theory being the first or initial approach. Lawler asserted that equity theory and discrepancy theory were constructed as a reaction to the shortcomings of fulfillment theory, and that two-factor theory, the fourth approach, allowed satisfaction and dissatisfaction to fall on two continua.

Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics theory suggested that people can be motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction that they find in doing job tasks. Thus, when work is enjoyable and meaningful, people will like their jobs and will be motivated to perform their jobs well. According to Hackman and Oldham, the core characteristics of the job induce psychological states that in turn lead to job performance, job satisfaction, motivation, and turnover. The characteristics of (1) skill variety, (2) task

identity, and (3) task significance combine to induce experienced meaningfulness of work; (4) autonomy leads to feelings of responsibility; (5) feedback results in knowledge of results about the products of work. And the psychological states in turn contribute to important outcomes of job satisfaction and motivation of employees.

Research Relating Leadership Theory to Job Satisfaction

The purpose of the review of leadership in the previous section was to define the initiating variables. The researcher believed that a need existed for principals' job satisfaction to be better understood. The variable of job satisfaction has also been reviewed in this section.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) asserted that job satisfaction factors are work related, and job dissatisfaction factors are work environment related. Their concept of motivation suggested a significant relationship with leadership practices. And leader and follower relationships are clearly perceived as a factor in a subordinate's job satisfaction.

Sergiovanni's (1967) study supported Herzberg's theory of motivation. He discovered motivators of achievement, recognition, and responsibility as significant. Sergiovanni & Starratt (1983) stated, "Virtually every decision supervisors make about school and classroom organization, curriculum development and implementation, materials selection, and teaching itself has implications for building commitment and motivation in teachers" (p. 16).

Barnard (1983) studied teacher perception of leadership behavior and its

relationship to job satisfaction. Using a random sample of 580 teachers from a population of 12,096 East Tennessee teachers, Barnard asserted that teachers desire a leader who is both high in initiating structure and high in consideration.

Finley (1991) studied high school administrators in Tennessee; a key finding of his research was that black administrators have a higher level of job satisfaction. Adams (1999) suggested that the erosion of an administrator's authority to effect change in the organization escalates accountability, fringe benefits, and increased promotion and advancement opportunities, leaving principals in a stressful environment. Pierce (1998) determined that principals have a need for increased pay, appreciation, and shorter working hours.

Because the superintendency is a profession, the research presented is not limited to the elementary/secondary education arena. MacFadden (1974) conducted a study titled, "Faculty preference of leadership behavior of potential presidents of public community colleges or technical institutes in Tennessee." From the study of 305 participants, MacFadden concluded that the president's leadership style must be characterized by flexibility; and that he must have a high concern for appropriate communications that involve much consultation with faculty on important decisions. Participant job satisfaction further proved to be a matter of the president's ability to judge the needed level of involvement with his subordinates.

Graen and Cashman (1975) strongly confirmed the concept of situational leadership. Graen, Dansereau, and Minami (1972) described the follower's

competence, trustworthiness, and initiative as “in-group” and “out-group.” Graen et al. identified a middle group, termed vertical dyad linkage. In this model, work (tasks) needs and relationship (interpersonal) needs were distinct characteristics. As supported by earlier studies, the authors reported that job satisfaction proved greater from those classified as in-group.

Abbey and Esposito (1985) surveyed elementary teachers from one school district to determine if their principals’ compliance system or base of power (as perceived by the teachers) had a relationship to social support (perceived to be given) from the principal. The study’s data supported the conclusion that teachers who differ in their reasons for compliance also differ in their perceptions of the amount of social support received. Teachers who rated their most important reason for compliance as dependent upon legitimate power perceived significantly more social support from their principals than did teachers who rated their most important reason for compliance as dependent upon coercive power. The study suggested that the authors’ conceptualization of the power bases most likely affected the maturity level of followers in a positive manner.

In leadership effectiveness studies, the term moderator is discussed in relation to path-goal theory. Moderators are defined as behaviors that have an effect on the relationship of the leader. Skaret and Bruning (1986) compared work group cohesion and task structure, utilizing the “Leadership Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire” and the “Job Descriptive Index.” Skaret and Bruning suggested that moderators influence both leadership and job satisfaction relationships; and that task

structure is negatively correlated with satisfaction of the superior. And as task structure increases, the relationship between leader initiating structure and satisfaction should decrease or become increasingly negative.

Vecchio (1987) reported that situational leadership theory has received little empirical attention. Vecchio's study of principals and teachers indicated a significant difference in performance, relationship, and job satisfaction. Having partitioned the data on the basis of the followers' maturity (low, moderate, or high), the strength for this difference clearly came from the data on low maturity employees. For moderately mature employees, high consideration was coupled with both high structuring and low structuring. In the high maturity level, support data could not be generated. Therefore, this theory may be valid, but its focus improperly conceptualized. Further studies on the maturity differences within leadership and other fields are recommended by the authors.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) asserted that leadership is a set of practices that individuals learn. Their research considered leadership from the perspective of both leader and follower. "Good leadership, it seems, is not only an understandable but a universal process" (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 25). Kouzes' and Posner's research explained that the leadership stories of managers express tales of change, action, development, and shifts in employee morale. Jones' (1999) viewed the superintendent/principal relationship as one of a partnership: "The ideal partnership is one in which each person can question, re-examine, and re-evaluate the other's norms and behaviors as well as his/her own" (p. 10).

Evaluating Leadership Practices and Job Satisfaction

The Leadership Practices Inventory by Kouzes and Posner (1997) was developed through both quantitative and qualitative research methods and studies.

In-depth interviews and written case studies of leaders' from the Personal-Best Leadership Experiences Questionnaire generated the conceptual framework.

Leaders who were studied in the Leadership Practices Inventory research base detailed events that involved leading organizations into new territory with narratives describing departures from their organizations' past. The Leadership Challenge, (2002) Third Edition, and the Leadership Practices Inventory (1997), Second Edition, were written by Kouzes and Posner to assist people in improving their ability to lead effectively. The LPI assessment has relevance to leadership roles in the public or private sector on the front line or in top management.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) found that when leaders are at their best, they are utilizing five leadership practices:

1. Challenging the process – Leaders look for opportunities to change the status quo. They look for innovative ways to improve the organization and do so by experimenting and taking risks, accepting inevitable disappointments as learning opportunities.
2. Inspiring a shared vision – Leaders passionately believe that they can make a difference. They create an ideal and unique image of what the organization can become. Through their magnetism and quiet persuasion, leaders enlist others in

their dreams. They breathe life into their visions and get people to see exciting possibilities for the future.

3. Enabling others to act – Leaders foster collaboration and build spirited teams. They understand that mutual respect is what sustains extraordinary efforts; they strive to create an atmosphere of trust and human dignity. Leaders make others feel powerful
4. Modeling the way – Leaders establish principles concerning the way people should be treated and the way goals should be pursued. They create standards of excellence, and set an example for others to follow; they set interim goals so that small wins are possible as they work toward larger objectives. Leaders use signposts, unravel bureaucracy, and create opportunities for victory.
5. Encouraging the heart – Leaders recognize contributions that individuals make. Members share the rewards of their efforts. Leaders celebrate accomplishments and help others feel like heroes.

Kouzes and Posner (1997) designed the LPI to be used by multiple-raters, including individuals who directly observe an individual as a leader. There is no universal right answer when it comes to leadership, but Kouzes' and Posner's research suggested that the more frequently a leader demonstrated the behaviors included in the LPI, the more likely they are to be perceived as a strong leader.

Good instruments have sound psychometric properties of reliability and validity. The LPI is internally reliable, has test-retest reliability, and its five scales are generally independent. Kouzes and Posner indicated that the 1997 LPI survey

has both face validity and predictive validity and can therefore be used to make associations about leadership practices. The reliability for the LPI by respondent category is presented in Table 3.

Along with face validity and predictive validity, the LPI-Observer (1997) has results that make sense and significant correlations to various performance be used to measure school district directors' leadership practices.

The JSS was chosen because it asked the respondents to describe their job satisfaction with regard to their supervisor. The JSS contained nine measurable facets, as well as an overall total satisfaction score. Each facet was assessed with measures. The instrument chosen to assess leadership practices in this study can four items, and a total score is computed from all 36 items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from "strongly disagree" to

Table 3. Reliability for the LPI by Respondent Category

Leadership Practice	Observers (All)	Manager	Co-Worker or Peer	Others
Model	.88	.86	.87	.87
Inspire	.92	.92	.91	.91
Challenge	.89	.89	.88	.88
Enable	.88	.86	.87	.88
Encourage	.92	.92	.92	.93

Note. From The leadership challenge by Kouzes and Posner, Copyright © 1995.

“strongly agree.” Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. Reliability (coefficient alpha) for the JSS is presented in Table 4 based on a sample of 2,870.

Summary

In summarizing the literature, there is not a discussion presented that refutes the concept that job satisfaction is important to the motivation and efficiency of any employee. A positive relationship between leadership and job satisfaction was widely accepted. However, adequate research was lacking establishing the relationship that leadership practices might have on the job satisfaction of populations differentiated by any other category other than career or level of responsibility.

Regarding instrumentation, the literature supported the construction of a self-reporting demographic survey instrument to be typical of most research because of the unique requirements of most studies. Instruments were found that allowed for an understanding of leadership practices and job satisfaction theories to be evaluated. The use of the LPI and JSS allowed the researcher to look at the relationship of certain leadership behaviors of superintendents and their relationship to the job satisfaction of the principals.

This study sought to investigate the leadership practices of superintendents and the job satisfaction of principals, adding to the body of research on public school district director leadership and principal job satisfaction. The literature review suggested that

Table 4. Reliability for the JSS

Scale	Coefficient Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, rewarding good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

Note: From Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, cause, and consequences, p. 10, by Spector, Copyright © 1997.

certain leadership practices of school district directors contributed to job satisfaction in principals. Yet, data relating to the knowledge of such connections are only emerging.

CHAPTER III

Research Methods

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between the leadership practices of public school district directors and the job satisfaction of school principals. The relationship was studied by comparing superintendents' leadership practice scores as perceived by the principals on the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the job satisfaction scores of principals on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Recent Tennessee legislation requires school principals to work only one-year contracts under the direction of the school district director, which is a questionable practice. The study was designed to gather data about the director/principal relationship. This chapter explains how the study was designed; how the population and sample, the instruments, the data collection procedures, and the data were treated.

Design of the Study

This study followed a linear rather than a curvilinear approach to determine the relationships between variables. The general model looks and flows like this:

Directors' Leadership Practices → Principals' Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

The Pearson product – moment correlation coefficient was used to analyze the data in this study to answer the first research question:

(1) What is the relationship of the principals' LPI ratings of school directors (LPI-Observer) compared with the level of satisfaction of the principals (JSS)? Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (1998) asserted that statistically significant relationships can exist between criterion variables and the linear combination of independent variables. In this study, the analysis sought to determine if there was a significant relationship between the school principals' perceptions of school district directors' leadership practices and the principals' job satisfaction. The significance of the leadership practice variables (modeling the way, enabling others to act, challenging the process, encouraging the heart, and inspiring a shared vision) were compared for association to the job satisfaction of principals (JSS total score).

A special case of Pearson r was used to analyze the data in the second research question: (2) What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables? The relationships of gender, school setting, type-of-school, type- and years-of-experience, and percentage of free and reduced price lunch were compared to the principals' job satisfaction (JSS total score). The dichotomous or nominal variables have been shown to indicate the presence or absence of a particular characteristic (Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs, 1998). The second research question was analyzed by point-biserial correlation coefficient. This special case of Pearson r analyzed the relationship between the job satisfaction of principals to specific demographic data. An example of dichotomous variables in this study is gender (1 = female and 0 = male). This

study sought to compare the relationship of certain demographic variables to the principals' job satisfaction. Data was compiled and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables? Significance was established at the 0.01 level.

Population

The Tennessee School Accountability Model has defined and identified successful schools and districts in Tennessee on the basis of each school's achievement test-score results. Many directors are provided monetary rewards and financial incentives if their school districts have successfully reached their annual achievement-testing goal. Whereas, principals may face severe sanctions up to and including dismissal if their school's achievement test scores are low. Since this study could be an aid to the future success of school district leadership and ultimately the future success of schools, the population for this research study was the Tennessee State Department of Education's East Tennessee Region school principals.

At the time this study was initiated, a total of 604 principals were identified as public school principals of grades K-12 in East Tennessee. Districts that had five or more principals who had served at least one year with their school superintendent were considered eligible for the study. Thus, 526 principals met the study's criteria. The entire population of school principals was selected as the target for the study. The principals were asked to rate their bosses' leadership behavior in their school district, while assessing their job satisfaction. The goal

was to gain information from the principals in the East Tennessee Region. For this study, the Tennessee Department of Education provided a list of East Tennessee principals; this was the base list from which the participants were drawn.

Instrumentation

Investigating school district directors' leadership behavior and their subordinates' job satisfaction required that certain leadership practices be identified, and that both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction variables be defined. The relationship of the leadership practices of school district leaders was compared to the job satisfaction scores of principals. This was accomplished by using survey instruments appropriate for identifying leadership practices; by selecting a sample population of principals; and by using a statistical method for determining any significant relationships among leadership practice variables and job satisfaction variables indicated by principals.

The LPI (1997), developed by Kouzes and Posner, was the instrument chosen through which leadership practices and behaviors of superintendents were measured. The LPI provides a means to measure leadership practices, whereby leadership can be evaluated and ultimately improved. Five key leadership practices are included in the model: (1) Enabling others to act, (2) inspiring a shared vision, (3) challenging the process, (4) modeling the way, and (5) encouraging the heart.

The JSS by Spector (1985) was the instrument chosen for determining the

job satisfaction of principals. The JSS measures nine facets of perceived job satisfaction, four items measure intrinsic job satisfaction and five items measure extrinsic job satisfaction. The intrinsic factors are related to self-esteem/self-respect, personal growth and development, achievement, and expectations. The factors on the JSS that indicated extrinsic job satisfaction characteristics were (1) respect and fair treatment, (2) being informed, (3) amount of supervision by the immediate supervisor, and (4) opportunity to participate in the methods, procedures, and goals of the organization.

Leadership Practices Inventory

Kouzes and Posner (1997) developed the LPI through a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods and studies. In-depth interviews and written case studies from individuals' included in the "Personal Best Leadership Experiences" (PBLE) questionnaire generated the conceptual framework that consisted of five key leadership practices: modeling the way, enabling others to act, challenging the process, encouraging the heart, and inspiring a shared vision. The LPI provided scores in all five practices.

The LPI is based upon responses to the PBLE Questionnaire. Kouzes and Posner have completed this questionnaire with more than 2,500 individuals and have completed its shorter version with another 5,000 individuals. Additionally, they have interviewed over 300 individuals who were managers from middle- to senior-level in the organizations.

Kouzes and Posner along with chosen others, who were knowledgeable about their evolving leadership model, wrote statements describing each of the leadership actions and behaviors. Each statement was cast on a five-point Likert scale with the higher value representing greater use of the behavior. These statements were then modified, discarded or required lengthy discussions and repeated feedback sessions with the respondents as well as select subject matter experts. Empirical analysis then occurred on various sets of the behaviorally based statements. Kouzes and Posner (1997) amassed nearly 60,000 respondents to the LPI; its refinement continues today.

The LPI is comprised of thirty statements; each of the five leadership practices has six statements. The LPI is typically voluntary and anonymous, with the instruments being returned directly to the researchers or seminar facilitators; the LPI typically takes 8-10 minutes to complete and can be self or computer scored. The LPI asks respondents to answer by scoring a ten-point frequency scale, from #1 indicating almost never to #10 indicating almost always.

Utilizing the responses from the LPI-Observer, as measured by the LPI, Kouzes and Posner examined the relationship between leaders' effectiveness and their leadership practices in validating the instrument. By looking only at the observers' responses this was a relative independent assessment and minimized the potential for self-report bias. Regression analysis was performed, with the effectiveness of the leader as the dependent variable and the five leadership practices as the independent variables. The regression equation was highly

significant ($F=318.88$, $p < .0001$). The leadership practices explained over 55 percent (adjusted $R^2 = .756$) of the variance around constituents' assessments of their managers' effectiveness (Kouzes and Posner, 1995, p. 350).

Kouzes and Posner (1995) reported that a diverse number of other researchers have utilized the LPI in their dissertation investigations of various leadership issues. It was used in the following three dissertation studies looking at (1) effectiveness and professional credibility in the high school principalship at the University of Nebraska (Larson, 1992), (2) principals' leadership role in effective site-based managed elementary schools at the University of Bridgeport (Aubrey, 1992), and (3) principals' leadership behavior and school effectiveness in rural schools in Saskatchewan, Canada (Brice, 1992). Kouzes and Posner (1995) indicated that these independent research efforts with university dissertation programs further substantiate the utility and robustness of the LPI. Correlations with other sociological and psychological instruments from such studies have further enhanced confidence that the LPI measures what it is purported to measure (p. 350).

The LPI (1997) has sound psychometric properties. Internal reliabilities for the five leadership practices as assessed by the LPI-Observer version are very good and are consistent over time. The underlying factor structure has been sustained across a variety of studies and settings, and support continues to be generated for the instrument's predictive and concurrent validity. For the most part, findings are relatively consistent across people, genders, and ethnic and

cultural backgrounds, and across various organizational characteristics, such as the functions the organization employs, its size, and its public- or private-sector status (Kouzes and Posner, 1995, p. 351).

Based upon Kouzes' and Posner's research, enabling others to act is perceived by respondents and their constituents as the leadership practice most frequently used. This is followed by challenging the process, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. Both respondents and their constituents perceived inspiring a shared vision as the leadership practice least frequently utilized.

Kouzes and Posner reported that internal reliabilities (Chronbach alphas) on the LPI range between .81 and .91 with reliabilities for the LPI-Observer ranging between .82 and .92. The internal reliability is substantial and reliable over time as other studies have supported. The means, standard deviations, and reliability indexes for the LPI categories are presented in Table 5. Scores for the LPI have been relatively stable and not related to the demographic factors of age, marital status, years of experience, and educational level. This is also true of organizational characteristics such as size, functional area, and line versus staff positioning. These research findings concerning the LPI, have extended across a variety of settings other than business, including public school district directors and principals. The LPI-Observer was an appropriate instrument to use for this study since it soundly measured the director's leadership practices (Kouzes and Posner, 1995).

Kouzes and Posner (1997) have completed a detailed chart of LPI percentile rankings. This chart ranked the five leadership practices of the LPI

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Indexes for the LPI

Leadership Practice	Mean	Standard Deviation	LPI (N=43,899)	LPI-Self (N=6,651)	LPI-Observer (N=36,248)
Challenging the Process	22.38	4.17	.81	.71	.82
Inspiring a Shared Vision	20.48	4.90	.87	.81	.88
Enabling Others to Act	23.89	4.37	.85	.75	.86
Modeling the Way	22.18	4.16	.81	.72	.82
Encouraging the Heart	21.89	5.22	.91	.85	.92

Note. From The leadership challenge by Kouzes and Posner, Copyright © 1995.

based on the percentage of people since 1986 who score at or below a given number in Kouzes' and Posner's database of more than 12,000 leaders and 60,000 observers. This ranking was determined by the percentage of people who score at or below a given number. If your score on "challenging" is at the 70th percentile this means that your score is higher than 70 percent of all the people who have taken the LPI. You would place in the top 30 percent of this dimension. Kouzes' and Posner's study indicated that a high score is one at the 70th percentile or above; a low score was a score at the 30th percentile or below. A score that fell between these ranges was considered a moderate score.

The LPI scores were tallied after they were scored for this study. LPI

practices are displayed in order of highest to lowest average observer scores, making them quickly identifiable as areas that observers perceive to be strengths as well as areas that are opportunities for leadership improvement. The score for each practice ranged from a high of 60 to a low of 6.

Job Satisfaction Survey

The JSS by Spector (1985) assessed nine facets of job satisfaction as well as total overall satisfaction. Thus, the JSS yielded 10 scores. Each of the nine JSS subscales contained four items and was scored by combining responses to the four items. Each of the items was a statement that is either favorable or unfavorable about an aspect of the job. Respondents were asked to circle one of six numbers that corresponded to their agreement or disagreement about each item. The response format consisted of a 6-point Likert-type scale that measures job satisfaction with one being the lowest score and six being the highest score

The JSS used a summated rating scale format. To compute the various scores, responses to the individual items were summed together. As the responses to the JSS items are numbered from 1 to 6, a respondent can have a score from 1 to 6 for each item. However, some of the items are scored in a positive and some in a negative direction. A positively worded item is one for which agreement indicated job satisfaction. The first item in the scale, "I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do," is positively worded. A negatively worded item is one for which agreement indicates dissatisfaction. Item number 10, "Raises are too few and far between," is negatively worded. Before the

items are combined, the scoring for the negatively worded items must be reversed. People who agree with positively worded items and disagree with negatively worded items will have high scores representing satisfaction. People who disagree with positively worded items and agree with negatively worded items will have low scores representing dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997).

Spector (1997) explained that without item reversals, most respondents will have middle scores because they will tend to agree with half and disagree with half of the items, just because they are worded in opposite directions. To reverse the scoring, the responder must renumber the negatively worded item responses from 6 to 1 rather than 1 to 6. The response Disagree Very Much becomes a 6 rather than a 1. The response Agree Very Much becomes a 1 rather than a 6. Likewise, Disagree Moderately becomes a 5 rather than a 2, and Agree Moderately becomes a 2 rather than a 5, and Disagree Slightly is scored 4 rather than 3, and Agree Slightly is scored 3 rather than 4. An easy way to reverse-score an item was to subtract respondent scores on the item from the sum of the lowest and highest possible responses. After the items were reversed, the numbered responses for the appropriate items were summed. The total satisfaction score was the sum of all 36 items. Individual facet scores were computed by summing the appropriate items. Each item's score could range from 1 to 6. Therefore, individual facet scores ranged from 4 to 24. This is because each facet had four items, so the lowest score is the sum of four 1's, and the highest score is the sum of four 6's. The total scores ranged from 36 to 216 (9×4 to 9×24).

Spector (1997) reported that validity evidence for their job satisfaction scales were provided by studies that compared different scales with one another on the same employees. For example, five of the JSS subclass (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and nature of work) correlated well with corresponding subscales of the Job Descriptive Index by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) which has been considered one of the most carefully validated scales of job satisfaction. These correlations ranged from .61 for coworkers to .80 for supervision. And the JSS has correlated well with a number of scales and variables that have been shown in the literature to correlate with other job satisfaction scales. These included the job characteristics as assessed with the Job Descriptive Survey by Hackman & Oldham (1975) of age, organization level, absence, organizational commitment, leadership practices, intention to quit the job, and turnover.

A summary of the JSS results are given in table form. This table shows how the JSS scores are summed after they were scored for this study. JSS scores are displayed in order of highest to lowest scores of satisfaction, making them quickly identifiable. Each facet of satisfaction can have a score of 1 to 6.

Data Collection Procedures

The design and statistical analysis of this study was supported by the Department of Educational Administration and Leadership at the University of Tennessee (UT) before this project commenced. Approval of the prospectus from the Institutional Review Board of UT was obtained. The LPI (1997) was purchased from Pfeiffer (Jossey-Bass); and permission secured from James

Kouzes and Barry Posner at TPG/Learning Systems for use in this study.

Permission to use the JSS by Spector (1985) for student papers was given on page 74 (Spector, 1997). The instrument was piloted before this research project was formally initiated to ensure that there were no flaws in the duplicated materials, cover letters, and return mailing directions.

Principals were asked to complete their surveys promptly upon receipt. After completion, principals sealed and mailed the surveys back to this researcher during December, 2002 and January, 2003. Because of the unique relationship between director and principal, this choice provided an added measure of participant confidentiality. When principals did not return data, a second survey was mailed attempting to secure principals' participation. The second letter was sent approximately two weeks after the initial survey.

Data Analysis

The Pearson product – moment correlation coefficient was used to analyze the data in this study to answer the first research question, (1) What is the relationship of the principals' LPI ratings of school directors (LPI-Observer) compared with the level of satisfaction of the principals (JSS)? The significance of the leadership practice variables (modeling the way, enabling others to act, challenging the process, encouraging the heart, and inspiring a shared vision) were compared for association to the job satisfaction of principals (JSS total score). In this study, the results of the correlation only point to a relationship, not a cause and effect.

For the second research question, (2) What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables, the relationships of gender, years-of-experience, and percentage of free- and reduced-price lunch were compared to the principals' job satisfaction (JSS facets and total score). The data were compiled and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Significance was established at the 0.01 level.

Summary

Chapter III outlined the methods and procedures used in this research study. Part of Chapter III included a description of the instruments used in the study. Chapter IV will report the results of the study. Chapter IV utilizes eight tables to present the findings.

CHAPTER IV

Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if a significant relationship exists between school district directors' leadership and principals' job satisfaction. The leadership practices of school district directors were measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory. The job satisfaction of principals was measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey.

Findings

The findings of this study are the result of an analysis of the LPI scores of school district directors' leadership practices as perceived by the principals compared to the job satisfaction scores of principals. Table 6 demonstrates the number of participating principals in the study.

Table 7 indicates the correlations of leadership practices and total job satisfaction. The directors' leadership behavior correlated with the principals' job satisfaction facets are statistically significant. The principal's satisfaction with his/her immediate supervisor's leadership is perceived as important to their relationship. Each of the directors' five leadership practices surveyed suggest a significant relationship with the principals' total job satisfaction score.

Statistical findings are presented for each research question as follows:

Research Question No. 1: What is the relationship of the principals' LPI ratings of

Table 6. Number of Participating Principals in the Study

Qualifying Principals	Principals Meeting Requirement*	Participating Principals	Principal Response Rate
604	526	329	62.8%

Note. *Principal must have served with director at least 1 year.

Table 7. Correlations of Leadership Practices to Total Job Satisfaction

	Enabling Others to Act	Modeling the Way	Inspiring a Shared Vision	Encouraging the Heart	Challenging the Process
<u>Total JSS Score</u>	.419**	.454**	.381**	.409**	.391**

N = 329

Note: **Significant at the 0.01 level.

School directors (LPI-Observer) compared with the level of satisfaction of the principals (JSS)?

In Table 8, correlations of leadership practices and job satisfaction facets are shown. Satisfaction with the supervision of the principal's immediate supervisor is perceived as important to their relationship. The directors' leadership practices are correlated significantly with the communication facet of job satisfaction. The principal's satisfaction with communication by his/her immediate supervisor is perceived as important to their relationship. Each of the directors' five leadership practices suggests a significant relationship with the communication facet of the principals' job satisfaction score.

The directors' leadership practices correlations to the principals receiving contingent rewards are significant. Receiving contingent rewards by the principals from their immediate supervisor is perceived as important to their relationship. Each of the directors' five leadership practices suggests a significant relationship with the receiving contingent rewards facet of the principals' job satisfaction score.

The directors' relationships with co-workers, operating conditions, and promotion suggest significance. Yet, the size of each correlation is small. The correlations of pay, fringe benefits, and nature of the work are not significant.

Research Question #2: What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables?

In question 2, the goal was to describe the relationship of selected demographic variables (years-of-service, school setting, school type, % of students

Table 8. Correlations of Leadership Practices and Job Satisfaction Facets

	LPI Challenging the Process	LPI Inspiring a Shared Vision	LPI Enabling Others	LPI Modeling the Way	LPI Encouraging the Heart
JSS Supervision	.502**	.539**	.628**	.598**	.519**
JSS Contingent Rewards	.373**	.381**	.381**	.406**	.450**
JSS Communication	.419**	.422**	.454**	.481**	.415**
JSS Nature of Work	.118	.141	.112	.123	.105
JSS Operating Conditions	.199**	.162**	.223**	.205**	.218**
JSS Fringe Benefits	.067	.037	.090	.117	.124
JSS Promotion	.261**	.269**	.239**	.300**	.243**
JSS Pay	.107	.077	.088	.145**	.108
JSS Co-workers	.216**	.190**	.231**	.243**	.151**

Note: **Significant at the 0.01 level

receiving free/reduced lunch, and gender) and the principals' job satisfaction.

Utilizing these descriptors, Pearson's point-biserial correlation coefficient was completed to determine the relationship between selected principals; and the relationship between the demographic data of each variable and their total job satisfaction.

The results of the correlations are presented in tables. Each table gives the correlation coefficient, the number of cases, and the test of significance. The correlation coefficient was an important piece of information used for determining the relationship between the principals' demographic data and job satisfaction.

Table 9 presents the correlation of the principals' job satisfaction and years-of-service. Principals with zero to six years experience were coded as zero, and principals with seven or more years experience were identified as one. The correlation of principals' years of service and their total job satisfaction score indicates a negative association of experience with principals' job satisfaction.

In Table 10, the correlation of principals' job satisfaction and school setting was correlated. Principals leading rural schools were coded as zero, while urban and suburban school leaders were identified as one. The correlation between principals' school setting and job satisfaction was not significant.

In Table 11, the correlation of principals' job satisfaction and school type was correlated. Principals managing elementary schools were coded as zero, and middle and high school principals were identified as one. The correlation between principals' school type with their job satisfaction is not associated.

Table 9. Correlation of Principals' Job Satisfaction and Years of Service

Factor	Results
Correlation Coefficient	-.138
Number of Cases	329
Test of Significance	0.01

Table 10. Correlation of Principals' Job Satisfaction and School Setting

Factor	Results
Correlation Coefficient	.110
Number of Cases	329
Test of Significance	0.01

Table 11. Correlation of Principals' Job Satisfaction and School Type

Factor	Results
Correlation Coefficient	-.049
Number of Cases	329
Test of Significance	0.01

Table 12 gives the correlation of principals' job satisfaction and percentage of free/reduced lunch price. Principals with zero to forty-nine percent free/reduced Price lunch were coded as zero, and principals with fifty percent or higher lunch rates were identified as one. The attribute of high free/reduced price lunch is not associated with principals' job satisfaction scores.

Table 13 shows the correlation of principals' job satisfaction and gender. Gender was coded as follows: 0 = male and 1 = female. The correlation of gender with principals' total job satisfaction scores is not associated.

Written Responses

Unsolicited comments written on the questionnaires were collated and grouped according to the practice referred to in the response. No additional information about the constructs was obtained from a review of the comments.

Summary

A review of the findings indicated the predominate leadership practice of the superintendents as "modeling the way," as defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002). Also,

Table 12. Correlation of Principals' Job Satisfaction and Percentage of Free/Reduced Lunch Price

Factor	Results
Correlation Coefficient	.041
Number of Cases	329
Test of Significance	0.01

Table 13: Correlation of Principals' Job Satisfaction and Gender

Factor	Results
Correlation Coefficient	-.016
Number of Cases	329
Test of Significance	0.01

the superintendent behavior was characterized by communicating the way goals should be pursued. The principals perceived the use of the other four leadership practices (enabling others to act, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging the heart, and challenging the process) as important.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the study's findings related to the two questions that directed the research: (1) What is the relationship of the principals' LPI ratings of school directors (LPI-Observer) compared with the level of satisfaction of the principals (JSS)? (2) What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables?

This chapter is organized into four sections. Section one contains the introduction. Section two summarizes the study and the findings of the study. The third section contains the conclusions of the research. The fourth and final section contains implications and recommendations for further study.

Summary

This study examined the relationship of the leadership practices of public school district directors and principals' job satisfaction in East Tennessee. Principals' observer scores on the LPI (1997) provided an assessment of superintendents' leadership practices. Principals also completed the JSS (1985), which provided assessment of both facet and total satisfaction.

The review of leadership and job satisfaction in Chapter II suggested the important contributions of this study. Two important factors were that (1) principals from diverse settings, types of schools, and school administrative experience are included in the study; and (2) two reliable instruments are

utilized in the study to measure both leadership practices and job satisfaction.

The use of the principals' perception in the sample to measure their boss' leadership practices is important to the study.

A total of 526 principals were asked to complete the Leadership Practices Inventory and Job Satisfaction Survey. The LPI, developed by Kouzes and Posner, contained 30 questions that measured five key practices. The five practices included in the LPI are challenging the way, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. The nine facets of the job satisfaction survey included supervision, contingency rewards, communication, nature of the work, co-workers, operating conditions, fringe benefits, promotion, and pay; plus a total satisfaction score. The questionnaire contained five demographic variables that were included in the study. The variables were years of service as a school administrator, school setting, type of school, percentage of students on free- and reduced-priced lunch, and gender.

Data were collected for analyses from 329 principals in K-12 public schools. The five leadership practices of the superintendents as perceived by the principals were correlated with the principals' job satisfaction scores. Selected demographic data were correlated with the total job satisfaction score of the principals.

Given that there was strong theoretical support for the instruments used in the research and that the research questions asked about relationships, Pearson r

correlational analysis was used to analyze the data. The demographic data were analyzed by point-biserial correlation coefficient, a special case of Pearson r . The sums of each leadership practice and job satisfaction facet were used to calculate correlations for each of the variables. The data were compiled and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. The tests measured the relationship between variables. Significance was established at the 0.01 level.

Summary of Findings for Research Questions

A summary of the findings for the research questions under investigation in this study are presented below.

Research Question 1

(1) What is the relationship of the principals' LPI ratings of school directors (LPI – Observer) compared with the level of satisfaction of the principals (JSS)? The question sought to determine if any relationships exist between the perceived leadership practices of superintendents by the principals and the job satisfaction of principals. Each of the five leadership practices measured on the LPI-Observer are statistically significant at the 0.01 level when correlated with the total job satisfaction scores of the principals. The more the superintendent is perceived to be engaged in leadership with principals, the higher the satisfaction of principals.

There are statistically significant relationships between the leadership practices and job satisfaction facets of supervision, contingent rewards, and communication. There are also less statistically significant low positive

relationships between leadership practices and job satisfaction facets of co-workers, operating conditions, and promotion. There are no statistically significant relationships indicated between the leadership practices and the job satisfaction facets of nature of the work, fringe benefits, and pay.

Research Question 2

(2) What is the relationship between job satisfaction and selected demographic variables (Years of service, school setting, type of school, poverty rate, and gender)? The principals' years of service and job satisfaction score indicates a negative association. This finding suggests that principals' with 0-6 years of service rated their job satisfaction scores higher than veteran principals with 7 or more years of experience. The relationship between principals' job satisfaction and the demographic variables of school setting, school type, percentage of free and reduced lunch, and gender are not statistically significant.

Conclusions

Based on the study's findings and the comparison of those data with other research, the following three conclusions were drawn regarding this population.

Conclusion 1

The more involved the superintendent is in using leadership practices, the greater the likelihood that principals will have higher total job satisfaction. The finding of a relationship between superintendent practices and principals' job satisfaction supports a key finding of the leadership literature. Kouzes and Posner (1995) asserted that the more engaged the leader is in the use of exemplary leadership practices, the more

likely it is that one can have a positive influence on others in the organization. This research also indicated that school district directors lead their district foremost with the leadership practice, modeling the way. The director that successfully practices this behavior is more likely to have principals who are satisfied with their jobs. Since directors are perceived by the principals to practice the leadership of modeling the way more successfully, the practices of enabling others to act, encouraging the heart, challenging the process, and inspiring a shared vision should be better interpreted by school district directors and used more extensively in their leadership practices and behaviors. Bass (1985) investigated the nature and effects of two types of leaders: transformational and transactional. Kouzes and Posner (1995) asserted that transformational leaders closely resemble the leaders that incorporate the practices in their leadership practices model. The transactional leader closely resembles the traditional definition of the manager. In measuring the influence of both types of leaders, Bass (1985) found that transformational leadership factors were more highly related than transactional leadership factors to satisfaction. It is sometimes presumed that principals want a well defined job description and little interference from top management. The results of this research indicated that principals look to their boss for transformational leadership. Principals also want a credible superintendent who shares their values, sets the example, builds commitment, makes consistent progress, and strengthens others.

Conclusion 2

This research suggested that leadership practices can not be considered an entity in, and of, themselves. A director that is striving to practice successful leadership must keep in mind that behaviors will influence principals in the district. Indicative of the study, job satisfaction is affected by each of the five leadership practices.

Positive correlations between the five leadership practices and the extrinsic job satisfaction facets of supervision, promotion, communication, co-workers, and operating conditions were associated. The intrinsic facets of job satisfaction that were associated with leadership practices included both contingent rewards and promotion. Herzberg et al. (1959) asserted that factors that were satisfying are work-related, and factors that indicate dissatisfaction were work environment-related. This study suggested that factors such as those identified by Herzberg (i.e., recognition, advancement) are motivators for the principals' job satisfaction. Thus, the principals' job satisfaction was influenced by each leadership practice of the superintendents.

Conclusion 3

Job satisfaction of principals can be increased with little or no cost to the school system. Principals many times are stereotyped as being motivated only by increases in fringe benefits or salary. A more complimentary stereotype is that principals will be more satisfied with fewer working hours, larger budgets, or

capital improvements. This research points to supervision that could be improved with little or no cost. If superintendents were made aware of the importance of the leadership practices of challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart, and sought to improve their behaviors accordingly, the result could be significant increases in principals' morale and job satisfaction. Burns (1978) stated that transformational leadership occurs when, in their interactions, people "raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality." Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused . . . But, transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and the led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both" (p. 20).

Recommendations

Four recommendations are made on the basis of the findings and conclusions drawn from the analysis of data gathered in this study:

1. Agencies should include more sessions dealing with the development of leadership practices as skills for more successfully administered school districts. Increases in principal's job satisfaction could result with emphasis on these practices placed at the local district level.
2. This study should be replicated to include a more diverse population, since it had only a regional scope. Other leadership behaviors that affect the job satisfaction of principals could be included. Thus, a more complete theory of the relationship

between school district leadership practices and principals' job satisfaction could be developed.

3. Encourage state agencies to include Kouzes' and Posner's (2002) leadership practices framework into the school district director's evaluation model. This model could also provide development opportunities for beginning district administrators to practice, assess, and reflect upon their leadership practices.
4. The findings contradicted the conclusions presented by Kouzes' and Posner's (1995) leadership practices framework. As presented in Chapter III, Kouzes and Posner (1995) concluded that "enabling others to act" was the dominant practice of leadership. Numerous other studies also supported the conclusion that top management leaders lead first with enabling. However, this study suggested that "modeling the way" was the most significant practice of top school district leadership. Further research should be conducted to clarify contributing factors for this apparent contradiction.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Questionnaire

JAMES M. KOUZES/BARRY Z. POSNER

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LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY (LPI) – OBSERVER

School District _____

School _____

INSTRUCTIONS

You are being asked by a fellow principal, Mr. Gerald Miller, to assess your school district director's leadership behaviors. On the next two pages are thirty statements that describe various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully. Then look at the rating scale and decide *how frequently this leader engages in the behavior* described.

Here's the rating scale that you'll be using.

1 = Almost Never

2 = Rarely

3 = Seldom

4 = Once in a While

5 = Occasionally

6 = Sometimes

7 = Fairly Often

8 = Usually

9 = Very Frequently

10 = Almost Always

In selecting each response, please be realistic about the extent to which the leader actually engages in the behavior. Do not answer in terms of how you would like to see this person behave or in terms of how you think he or she should behave. Answer in terms of how the leader *typically* behaves, on most days, on most projects, and with most people. For each statement, decide on a rating and record it in the blank to the left of the statement. When you have responded to all thirty statements, turn to the last sheet of the packet. Now you will answer questions about your job satisfaction as a school principal.

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY (LPI) -- OBSERVER
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To what extent does this person *typically* engage in the following behaviors? Choose the number that best applies to each statement and record it in the blank to the left of the statement.

1 = Almost Never
 2 = Rarely
 3 = Seldom
 4 = Once in a While
 5 = Occasionally

6 = Sometimes
 7 = Fairly Often
 8 = Usually
 9 = Very Frequently
 10 = Almost Always

He or She:

- _____ 1. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities.
- _____ 2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
- _____ 3. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he or she works with.
- _____ 4. Sets a personal example of what he or she expects from others.
- _____ 5. Praises people for a job well done.
- _____ 6. Challenges people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.
- _____ 7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.
- _____ 8. Actively listens to diverse points of view.
- _____ 9. Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principles/standards that have been agreed on.
- _____ 10. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.
- _____ 11. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his or her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
- _____ 12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.

LPI-Observer (Continued)

1 = Almost Never

2 = Rarely

3 = Seldom

4 = Once in a While

5 = Occasionally

6 = Sometimes

7 = Fairly Often

8 = Usually

9 = Very Frequently

10 = Almost Always

He or She:

- ___ 13. Treats others with dignity and respect.
- ___ 14. Follows through on the promises and commitments that he or she makes.
- ___ 15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contribution to the success of projects.
- ___ 16. Asks "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.
- ___ 17. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
- ___ 18. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.
- ___ 19. Is clear about his or her philosophy of leadership.
- ___ 20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
- ___ 21. Experiments and takes risks even when there is a chance of failure.
- ___ 22. Is contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.
- ___ 23. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
- ___ 24. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
- ___ 25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.
- ___ 26. Takes the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.

LPI-Observer (Continued)

1 = Almost Never

2 = Rarely

3 = Seldom

4 = Once in a While

5 = Occasionally

6 = Sometimes

7 = Fairly Often

8 = Usually

9 = Very Frequently

10 = Almost Always

He or She:

____ 27. Speaks with actual conviction to the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

____ 28. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

____ 29. Makes progress toward goals one step at a time.

____ 30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

Now turn to the job satisfaction survey and follow the instructions.

Appendix B

Survey

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

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PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.

Disagree Very Much = 1	Agree Slightly = 4
Disagree Moderately = 2	Agree Moderately = 5
Disagree Slightly = 3	Agree Very Much = 6

-
- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 5. I receive the recognition I should when I do a good job. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 6. Many of our rules/procedures make doing a good job difficult. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 7. I like the people I work with. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 9. Communications seem good within this organization. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 10. Raises are too few and far between. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of promotion. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 12. My supervisor is unfair to me. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape. | <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 6 |

JSS (Continued)

- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 16. I have to work harder because of others incompetence. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 17. I like doing the things I do at work. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 19. I feel unappreciated when I think about what I am paid. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 20. People get ahead here as fast as they do in other places. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 21. My supervisor shows little interest
in subordinates feelings. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 22. The benefit package we have is equitable. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 23. There are few rewards for those who work here. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 24. I have too much to do at work. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 25. I enjoy my coworkers. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 26. I often do not know what is going on within
the organization. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 29. There are benefits we should have that we do not have. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 30. I like my supervisor. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 31. I have too much paperwork. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way
they should be. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |
| 34. There is too much bickering and fighting at work. | <u>1 2 3 4 5 6</u> |

35. My job is enjoyable. 1 2 3 4 5 6

36. Work assignments are not fully explained. 1 2 3 4 5 6

Background Questions to Interpret the Data

Years of service as an administrator (check one):

0-6 _____ 7-12 _____ 12-18 _____ 19-24 _____ 25+ _____

The school is (check one):

Rural _____ Suburban _____ Urban _____

Percentage of students on Free and Reduced-price lunch (check one):

0-29% _____ 30-49% _____ 50-69% _____ 70-89% _____ Above 90% _____

The gender of the principal is (check one):

Female _____ Male _____

If you would like to make any additional comments about how your school director's leadership practices contribute to your job satisfaction, please do so in the space provided below.

"Thank you for your time and effort. Your contribution to our research is greatly appreciated."

Appendix C

Letter

Ottway Elementary School
2705 Ottway Road
Greeneville, TN 37745
(423) 234-8511

Dear Principal,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in completing two relatively quick surveys that relate to our work as principals. I am beginning my 18th year in public education and my ninth year as an elementary school principal. I am a candidate for the Ed. D degree in Leadership Studies at The University of Tennessee. My dissertation is on school director behaviors and principal job satisfaction. The leadership practices and job satisfaction surveys are part of my research. Answer the questions based on your current school assignment.

The leadership practices questionnaire asks 30 questions about five areas that research suggests might be important to school district leadership. The five areas are: modeling the way, enabling others to act, challenging the process, encouraging the heart, and inspiring a shared vision. From this research, we hope to learn more about how these leadership areas could improve our job satisfaction.

Please complete the surveys within a week, **using a #2 pencil, seal them in the envelope provided, and place the envelope in the mail back to me.** You may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. **Your responses will be confidential.** After a school responds, all identification on the surveys will be removed and destroyed. Then, a tally will combine each school's response with responses from other schools across East Tennessee. Thus, **individual principal responses will not be reported.**

"Thank you" for your time, and if I can answer any questions please feel free to contact me. If you would like a copy of the final research results, just let me know. I will be glad to send you a copy. You can reach me at the above address and phone number or at my home phone (423) 639-8020 or e-mail address millerger@ten-nash.ten.k12.tn.us

Sincerely,



Gerald Miller, Principal

Enclosures

VITA

Gerald Garrison Miller, was born in Morristown, Tennessee on August 30, 1963. He graduated from West Greene High School in Mosheim, Tennessee in 1981. He earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Elementary Education from Tusculum College, Tusculum, Tennessee in 1985. In the fall of 1985 he began teaching with Greene County Schools in Mosheim, Tennessee, as a fifth grade teacher at Mosheim Elementary School.

He entered the Master's program in Administration in 1987 at East Tennessee State University and was awarded the Masters of Arts degree in 1989. In the fall of 1994, he was selected as an Interim Principal for the Greene County Schools and assigned to Glenwood Elementary School. In 1995, he was employed as principal of Glenwood Elementary School, serving in that capacity until 2002. In 2002, he was appointed principal of Ottway Elementary School where he continues to serve in that capacity. Under his leadership, Ottway Elementary School in the summer of 2002 changed from a traditional school curriculum to a contemporary curriculum.

In August of 1997, he entered the Graduate School at the University of Tennessee in the inaugural Graff Scholars Leadership Studies doctoral program. He received the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Administration and Policy Studies in December, 2003.

His professional affiliations include National Association of Elementary School Principals and Tennessee Principals Study Council. His recreational activities

include golfing, swimming, and serving as coach of basketball, soccer, and T-ball teams in which his sons are participants.

He is married to Rebecca Roberts-Miller and has three children, Lincoln Thomas, a personal trainer in Knox County, Tennessee, Thornton Miller, a 5th grade student at Hal Henard Elementary School in Greeneville, Tennessee, and Holden Miller, a 1st grade student also at Hal Henard School in Greeneville, Tennessee.