

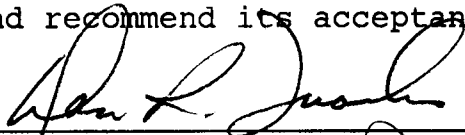
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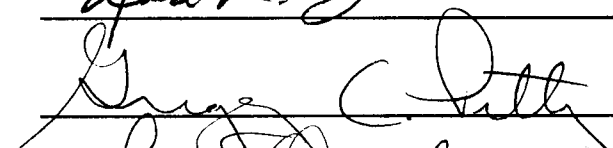
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by William K. Henry entitled "Leadership Styles of Principals and Teacher Job Satisfaction in Christian Fundamentalist Academic Schools." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.

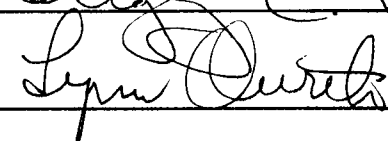


Gerald C. Ubben, Major Professor


We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:



Vice Provost
and Dean of the Graduate School

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHER JOB
SATISFACTION IN CHRISTIAN FUNDAMENTALIST
ACADEMIC SCHOOLS

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

William K. Henry
December, 1989

DEDICATION

The efforts of this time and the achievements of this work are dedicated to the Lord Jesus Christ from Whom comes every good and perfect gift. May His Name be blessed for His faithfulness and love.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express his gratitude and appreciation to the members of his doctoral committee, Dr. Lester L. Ourth, Dr. Gregory C. Petty, Dr. Dan R. Quarles and especially to Dr. Gerald C. Ubben, chairman, whose undying patience, encouragement and guidance were invaluable throughout the doctoral program.

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The writer wishes to thank his mother-in-law, Mrs. Dorothy M. Bedwell for her gifts and encouragement throughout this project. Further the writer also remembers the kindness of the late Mr. Ray O. Bedwell.

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Finally, it the writer's most heartfelt desire to thank his wife, Jan and his two boys, Andrew and John, for their patient understanding and self-sacrificing love over this prolonged study.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe teacher job satisfaction as measured by the Supervision Subscale of the Job Description Index and leadership styles of the principals as measured by the Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA) of a heavily value-laden subculture of Christian fundamentalists of the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools. Teachers' job satisfaction levels were analyzed by gender, age, educational background and two experience factors. Principals' leadership styles were measured using the Leader Behavior Analysis-Self (LBA-Self) questionnaire and by reports of the principals' teachers utilizing the Leader Behavior Analysis-Other (LBA-Other).

The study revealed that the majority of the principals (79%) perceived themselves as having multiple styles of leadership with a high relationship orientation while 86% of the teachers perceived their principals as exhibiting multiple styles of leadership with a high relationship orientation. This finding differs significantly from other studies that suggest this population would primarily utilize an authoritarian style with a high task orientation. Teachers overwhelmingly expressed satisfaction with the leadership style of their principal.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Much had been written about the effect of leadership, more specifically leadership styles and their effect on job satisfaction but very few questions have been asked about the values that the subjects espoused about leadership. Herzberg (1959), for example, sought to create a theory of job satisfaction by attempting to revise the thought that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction rested on the ends of a continuum. He proposed that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction actually were separate concepts. He believed if certain elements in a job were present, one would not become dissatisfied, rather a person was said to be neutral about the situation. In his original study he used engineers and accountants as his subjects.

Later, in his most definitive work, The Managerial Choice, he summarized the findings of all his research, concluding that supervision had a dissatisfying to neutral effect on job satisfaction in the normal situation. Although Herzberg did not write of leadership styles, his support of human relations theory is quite evident in the conclusions to

his findings. He also described the different populations/samples utilized in these studies. He stated,

The two sets of factors have emerged with air force personnel, nonprofessional workers, general managers, schizophrenic patients, and physical rehabilitation patients. Age, job tenure, place of work, and other demographic variables show no substantial effect on these relationships (pp. 217-218).

No questions were asked of the subjects in the studies relating to their values about leadership.

Sergiovanni (1967) later conducted a study based upon Herzberg's work. He categorized task oriented leadership and relationship oriented leadership as hygenic. His population was made up of 3,682 teachers from the Monroe County, New York School System. He, like Herzberg, concluded from his studies that relationship-oriented behavior by leaders was the most important element of successful leadership. However, he went further by stating that task-oriented behavior had emerged in his study as also being important.

No effort was made by Sergiovanni to discover the value orientation under which the subjects operated. In that same article, Sergiovanni also presented a list of different population subjects that had been studied based on Herzberg's work. He listed lower level supervisors, professional women, agricultural administrators, men about to retire from management positions, hospital maintenance personnel, manufacturing supervisors, nurses, food handlers, military officers, engineers, scientists, housekeepers, teachers,

technicians, female assemblers, accountants, Finnish foremen, and Hungarian engineers (p. 51). Again, no mention is made of any investigation into the values orientation of the subjects of these investigations.

In a study by Barnard (1983) of Tennessee public school faculty and administrators, the same pattern of the earlier studies was found. Barnard concluded that a positive relationship existed between satisfied teachers and those principals who were both high in initiating structure and consideration. Her population was made up of all teachers who were members of the Tennessee Education Association in East Tennessee. No investigation was undertaken to understand the value orientation of these teachers. Population descriptions in other studies dealing with leadership styles presented in Chapter II of this study continue to demonstrate that no studies have been conducted to ascertain the values held by the respondents.

The study of values in leadership styles is important. In the introduction of his book, Education and Values, Douglas Sloan (1980) discussed the values and the concepts important to man. He concluded his brisk discussion by stating, "Clearly, then, our values permeate the whole of our existence and are a major factor in determining what sort of human beings we are and how we will behave." (p. 19)

Subcultures by definition are heavily value-laden groups of individuals who are marked by definite patterns of behavior. In other words, certain values permeate the group so as to give it definition. One subculture in this country that has had a significant impact in education over the past few years was the Christian fundamentalist.

The term, "fundamentalist," had strong sociological meaning in its description as a population. David Moberg in his book, The Church as a Social Institution (1962), presented perhaps the most recognized definition of fundamentalism and its effects on those in the movement. He began his study of fundamentalism by describing the essence of what was a reaction to the Modernist movement of the late 19th century and the early 20th century in the United States.

The fundamentalists saw the modernists as attempting to make theology conform to the conclusions drawn from the sciences of that time frame and apply them to society and culture. Moberg stated,

The uniqueness of Christianity was denied; contributions of other religions to man's well-being were recognized. The "higher criticism" of the Bible, which emphasized scientific and historical techniques of checking its dependability, seemed to fundamentalists to remove all authority from the Book of Books. Human reason replaced Biblical revelation as the criteria for religious faith. (Moberg, p. 281).

He went on to state that, "The fundamentalist's sole basis of faith and conduct is the Bible. Revelation, not verified by experience, is the source of truth." (Moberg, p. 283)

This description finds much general agreement in sociological studies. Maranell, in his book, Responses to Religion, wrote that fundamentalists insist on a literal interpretation of the Bible, believing in an adherence to its teachings (1974). Davidson, in his research entitled, "Religious Belief as an Independent Variable" (1972), asked the question, "Under what conditions is religion more likely to perform its comfort and challenge functions?" He concluded that those who had a fundamentalist view of the Bible tended to be more comforted and challenged to live in accordance with the dictates of the Scriptures. DeJong and Ford (1965), in a study of religious fundamentalism in southern Appalachia, used a similar definition to that of the Moberg definition.

Only more recently was the concept of a fundamentalist given a more theoretical definition by such sociologists as Talcott Parsons of Harvard University (1966) and Ethridge and Feagin (1979) who, for their study, advanced a Parsonian definition in which boundary maintenance was the major conceptualization that allowed them to move out of the traditional, historical-specific definition described previously. However, their new conceptualization did nothing to hurt Moberg's original definition which, for the sake of this study, was applied to the Tennessee Association of

Christian School's academic institutions which participated in the study.

Perhaps the most significant work in this arena of fundamentalist Christian schools appeared in 1986. It did, however, only add to the evidence that fundamentalist Christian school members were a unique subculture that deserved to be studied apart from the general society or normal public/private school populations because of the uniqueness of their value system and its effects upon their behavior.

The title of this work was God's Choice, written by Alan Peshkin (1986). This was a case study funded by the Spencer Foundation and by the University of Illinois' Center for Advanced Study, Research Board, and College of Education. His purpose was to characterize a fundamentalist Christian school. The school chosen was a member of the Illinois Association of Christian Schools (ISAC) and an umbrella association of associations, the American Association of Christian Schools (AASC). The statements of faith of the school (Bethany Baptist School), the IACS and the AACS were conceptually the same as the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS). Charles Walker, the executive director of the TACS, was a board member of the AACS and was quoted by Peshkin in the book (p. 111).

For 18 months, Peshkin was "a participant in, and an observer of, the life" of this Christian school and the church which was its sponsor. Peshkin introduced his study in chapter 2, "'Blessed Assurance' The Dictates of Doctrine," where he stated that his characterizations of the school always related back to "the centrality of a rigid theological system." (p. 32) Peshkin saw several characteristics which related possibly to an understanding of why this subcultural school was unique. Obedience to the Bible was central, of course, but with further extentions of authority to all leaders. There was a hierarchy of pastor to principal to teachers which carried authority that had to be obeyed. Secondly, Peshkin found that the church and school sought diligently not only to speak in accordance with the Bible, but to live faithfully also. Such phrases as "total life" and "24-hour school" were believed to be apt descriptions of the commitment Peshkin saw among the members.

Other sociological works tend to bear out this conclusion as the authors begin to describe leadership in fundamentalism. C. Allyn Russell (1976) in his biographical studies of the early leaders of the fundamentalist movement of this century in the United States used words that would lead to the conclusion of a autocratic approach to leadership styles. He wrote of such leaders as J. Frank Norris, John R. Straton, J. Gresham Machen and Clarence E. Macartney. Each

of these men were described as highly goal or task oriented, mincing few words with their opposition. James Barr (1977) in his arguably anti-fundamentalist review of fundamentalism, described the pastors as unbending leaders, who forced their congregations to rely on them for leadership. Thus the popular notion appeared to be that fundamentalist leaders were very authoritarian in their leadership practices. However, no statistically verifiable studies were found.

In chapter 3, "The King's Witnesses Called to Teach," Peshkin began to describe the teachers. Their backgrounds were not all that different from public school teachers, with the exception that 92% (11 of 12 teachers) were products of either a Christian undergraduate or graduate program. All the teachers said they felt "called of God" to the ministry of teaching and to the school. Their commitment to church as well as school was observed to deepen, as seen through their voluntary activities for both. They demonstrated a commitment to the totality of the view that called for the integration of Scripture and the Christian life into all subject studies and extra-curricular activities. Peshkin presented descriptions of what teachers said was the ideal teacher behavior with administrators and a summary of his descriptions is in the following paragraphs.

Guided by scriptural injunctions about authority, we are to be submissive to our administrators. When we work

for somebody, we do things his way. All orders come from the top; administrators have the final authority and; therefore, teacher obedience is appropriate and expected. Of course, you won't always agree with your leader's policies, but you must accept them with a good attitude. The relationship is reciprocal: if you are obedient, dependable, prompt in your work, and willing to go that extra mile, administrators should be supportive and responsive to your concerns. Don't be afraid to bring any problem to them; above all, don't take your problems with them or the academy outside the academy. They expect your loyalty and you should give it.

The most important thing to know about "the headmaster" is that he is born again. This sums up a world of understanding that is the basis for a harmonious school. In a public school, teachers grate on each other as they work. Here the Holy Spirit adds the oil and things work more smoothly.

Gripping, however, disrupts a school's harmony; it is strictly prohibited at Bethany. Unsaved persons and carnal Christians gripe. When you gripe, you complain about something nobody can change or about something legitimately out of order, but to the wrong person. We view gripping as a disease. It causes unhappiness, discouragement, and demoralization that spreads from

person to person and destroys an organization. So, you should take seriously, I Corinthians 1:10: ". . . that ye all speak the same thing, and that there be no divisions among you; but that ye be perfectly joined together in the same mind and in the same judgement." (p. 82, 83).

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

From the review of these sociological treatments of fundamentalism, two conclusions were drawn. First, it appeared that fundamentalist leaders were considered to be largely autocratic in leadership style. Further, at least from this very definitive study of Peshkin on fundamentalist teachers in fundamentalist schools, there appeared to be an acceptance of that style because of religious beliefs of the teachers. Several questions then could be asked of this sociologically significant subculture. First, did fundamentalist leaders of academic fundamentalist schools utilize mainly the authoritarian "Telling style" of leadership as defined by Hersey and Blanchard? Regardless of the answer to the first question, were fundamentalist teachers in fundamentalist schools satisfied with their fundamentalist leadership styles?

Thus, two factors led to the statement of the problem from the review of the literature. First, there was a globally understood and accepted relationship between

leadership styles and job satisfaction. Second, fundamentalists as a group had a definite value orientation that affected their response to all of life. As later described research will demonstrate, adequate theories of leadership exist for research purposes, making the next step the utilization of these theories for the refining of existing knowledge.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to describe the styles of leadership behavior of fundamentalist school principals and the job satisfaction of fundamentalist school teachers. The population selected for the study was the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools. Its population consisted of 67 elementary and secondary schools in Tennessee.

Leadership styles were defined in accordance with those established by Hersey and Blanchard through their Situational Leadership Model, as measured by the Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA) instrument developed by Blanchard, Hambleton, Zigarmi and Forsyth (1981). The LBA is a survey instrument that presented the same 20 hypothetical situations to the leader and the followers, with four possible alternatives representing four different styles of leadership that each

individual might choose as the most likely response of the leader.

Job satisfaction, its existence and its strength, was measured by the Job Description Index authored by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1975). This is a survey completed by a follower, asking the respondent to describe his or her job, rather than their feelings about the job, in five different areas. Only the Scale: Supervision was utilized in this study. This was done for two reasons. Primarily, the other scales: Work, Pay, Promotions and Co-workers, while having some interrelated effects, were not the focus of this study. The supervisor alone was the focus of this study as the causal factor job satisfaction in the teacher. The second reason issued from the first in that, the scales did stand alone in validity and reliability. This gave the opportunity for the focus. No other instrument was found that offered this stand-alone data gathering ability.

The study, therefore, was designed to gain an understanding of the perceptions of both leaders (principals) and followers (teachers) as to leadership styles (multiple or single) of the principals and the job satisfaction of the followers in fundamentalist schools.

Questions

The following questions were used to guide this study:

1. Was there a difference in the perceptions of teachers and principals as to the style or styles of leadership characteristics of the principals?

2. Were there any similarities between the use of multiple leadership styles or the use of single leadership styles and the job satisfaction of the teachers?

3. Were the teachers and principals in agreement regarding the behavior of the principals as to whether one was consistently using a single style approach or a multiple style approach?

4. Were the perceptions of the teachers and the principals in a high degree of agreement with regard to the leadership styles established by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) indicating a dominate style used by the principals?

5. Did principals who used multiple styles of leadership have more formal training in situational leadership theory than those who used predominately one style of leadership?

6. Did age, sex, level of training, source of training or experience as a principal have any relationship to the use of single style or multiple style leadership behavior?

7. Did age, sex, level of training, source of training or total experience as a teacher or experience with the

principal under study have any relationship to the level of job satisfaction of each teacher?

IV. ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions were made with respect to this study:

1. The valid and reliable assessment of leadership was made through the Leader Behavior Analysis for this particular study.

2. The valid and reliable assessment of teacher job satisfaction was made through the Job Description Index for this particular study.

3. The respondents in this study understood the perceptions requested in the instruments and they provided said information.

4. The leader of each school was designated as and, thus, assumed to be the principal.

V. LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

The following limitations and delimitations affected the applicability of the study.

Limitations

As all measuring instruments were considered imperfect, exactly accurate data was considered impossible to obtain. However, the instruments used for this study in determining

leadership styles and job satisfaction were reported to be supported by strong reliability and validity studies.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to Christian school teachers and principals whose schools were members of the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools.

VI. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Classroom teacher or teachers. Any teacher employed by a TACS school who spent a majority of his or her day in direct contact with students.

Dominant leadership style. One or more leadership styles as defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1984) which when studied through the Leader Behavior Analysis were found occur as the choice of style for 60% of the twenty situations or in the case of multiple dominate styles were found to be the choices in 80% of all the responses with the second most numerous style receiving no less than 30% of the responses.

Job Description Index. This survey, developed primarily by Patricia C. Smith of Bowling Green State University (1975), was designed to gain a self-report of an individual's job satisfaction in five (5) areas: work, supervision, pay, promotion and co-workers. For the purpose of this study, only the Scale: Supervision, was utilized.

Job satisfaction. For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction was defined as the effective range of reactions of satisfaction to dissatisfaction as affected by the principal's style of leadership behavior.

Leader's or leadership style. This term was defined as a consistent pattern of behaviors of an individual either real or perceived, that attempted to or did effect another individual, causing the latter to respond.

Member school. A member school was defined as one whose principal, pastor or board chairman had signed the statement of faith and had paid the dues to the TACS for the academic year.

Multiple leadership style. This term was defined as a description of the style of a leader where one single style of leadership did not appear as the response choice in 60% or more of the twenty situations on the LBA.

Principal. The chief building-level administrator of the school who had primary responsibility for the administration and supervision of all academic and related school programs.

Single leadership style. Any of the leadership styles which, when studied through the Leader Behavior Analysis, was found to occur as the choice of style in 60% of the responses to the twenty situations.

Subculture. A group of individuals having characteristic patterns of belief or exhibiting characteristic patterns of

behavior, or both, sufficient to distinguish that group from others within an embracing culture or society.

Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS). This organization was a unique, albeit loose confederation of schools owned and operated by fundamentalist Christian churches for the express purpose of educating children under a specific philosophy based on the Holy Bible, believing the Bible to be the only authentically written revelation of and by God to and for man. Student populations in the 67 schools ranged from 15 to 892 students in grades K-4 through 12.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a review of selected literature in the areas of leadership and job satisfaction. One criterion for the selection of each study was its contribution to understanding one or both of the pertinent theories to this study and its application. The other criterion regarded the methodology of the study and any relevant findings concerning the process of this study. Lastly, this chapter describes the empirical support regarding the reliability and validity of the instruments utilized to gather data for this study.

II. LEADERSHIP THEORY

The following definitions of leadership were utilized in the study and practice of leadership for many years.

1. Leadership is defined as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement (Stogdill, 1950).

2. Leadership is a process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner (Bennis, 1959).

3. Leadership is interpersonal influence, exercised by the situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals (Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik, 1969).

4. Leadership is typically defined as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal accomplishment (Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer, 1979)

[All four of the definitions presented leadership as a process.

A review of the history of leadership theory described how these process definitions came to this current construction.]

In fact, in a later book, Hersey and Blanchard (1982)

continued to elaborate on the definition by stating, "From this definition of leadership, it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables-- $L=f(l,f,s)$ " (p. 23).

[Szilagyi and Wallace (1980) in their review of this history, identified three distinct stages in the growth of leadership theory: trait theories, behavioral theories and situational theories. They believed that modern leadership theory had always sought to identify the elements that resulted in leadership effectiveness.

The first set of theories identified as "trait theories" appeared to stand on one basic assumption. It was believed that there were individual characteristic differences between effective leaders and non-effective leaders. As research based on these theories did not answer the questions of leadership effectiveness, a concern for leadership behavior developed, shifting the attention of the researcher from who the individual leader was to how the individual leader behaved. However, an analysis of the research literature

again proved to give inadequate answers for effectiveness. A new dimension was added under which this study was conducted, the situation. Briefly, some of the more salient theories from each of these three distinct yet overlapping stages were reviewed to add perspective to the research presentation accomplished later in this chapter.

Trait Theory

Arthur R. MacFadden (1974), in his dissertation on leadership, opened his review of the literature with a unique demonstration of the acceptance of trait theory. He reached all the way back to the writings of Plato. However, more current research has demonstrated that much confusion on such theory still existed.

Stogdill (1948) reviewed all the early research on the subject. He came to the conclusion that different situations demanded a unique set of characteristics or traits in order for effective leadership to take place. Stogdill wrote:

A person does not become a leader by virtue of some combination of traits, but the pattern of the personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers (p. 38).

Eugene Jennings (1961) in his study of the literature concluded, "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders," (p. 2). Jennings, then through a qualitative approach, began to define traits

of courage, vision, and willingness to struggle as the traits of successful leadership.

Fiedler (1961) concluded from his study of small groups that leadership traits could be understood under certain circumstances. The leadership-effectiveness traits were defined as "personality attributes of the leader which promoted a high level of group productivity" (1961, p. 180). He qualified his findings with the idea that a differentiation between effective and ineffective leadership traits could not be made unless the leader was in a position to influence his groups. Using the Assumed Similarity between Opposites instrument, Fiedler demonstrated the theory that more productive groups in each of five studies had leaders who were more psychologically distant from the least-preferred co-worker.

Ghiselli (1963) proposed a concept he entitled "Managerial Talents." He defined managerial talent as "individuality and the desire for self-realization through creative activity" (1963, p. 641). He wrote that the leader was,

. . . well endowed intellectually, gifted with the capacity to direct the efforts of others, self-stimulated to action, confident in his abilities and striving for a position where he can most fully utilize them (p. 641).

Earlier he stated, "While management is not synonymous with leadership, managerial talent does manifest itself in the effective directions of others" (1963, p. 640).

Then in 1974, Stogdill published his results of a study on leadership traits completed in 1970 similar to the 1948 study reviewed above. He reviewed 163 studies and came to somewhat different conclusions based on "improvements" in methodology. Stogdill flatly stated that:

The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem-solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, the ability to influence other persons' behavior and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand (1974, p.81).

He stated that these characteristics could be used to distinguish both leaders from followers, and effective leaders from ineffective leaders, plus levels of leadership. He felt that these characteristics could not be considered in isolation from the situation or from combinations of traits. He further stated that in the past the trait approach tended to study each characteristic whereas the situational approach denied these individual differences. He hoped his research would present a modification to both approaches.

Behavioral Theory

From the dissatisfaction with the ability of trait theory to provide useful insight into effective leadership, behaviorists began to come to the forefront to describe what

was happening in effective leadership, not the person who was leading. Andrew W. Halpin (1959) wrote:

. . . consider the concept of "leader behavior" and what it implies. First of all, it focused upon observed behavior rather than upon a posited capacity inferred from this behavior. No presuppositions were made about a one-to-one relationship between leader behavior and an underlying capacity or potentiality presumably determinative of this behavior (p. 42).

The first prominent studies recognized by most respected students of leadership were the "Ohio State Studies" (Fleishman, 1957). The overall objective of those studies was to determine how leadership behavior affected both job performance and job satisfaction. From these studies two independent leadership styles (termed dimensions) were identified: initiating structure and consideration. The significance of this positive identification was to be strategic in the effort to understand leadership effectiveness over the next three decades.

The initiating structure dimension was defined as a continuum of how much or how little the leader participated and controlled such things as goal setting, organization, assigning tasks and evaluating performance results with the implication of effecting the workers' status because of that production. The consideration dimension was also described as a continuum, regarding the relationship of the leader to the followers. Here the description focused upon how much

effort or time was placed into building trust, friendship, support for follower needs and mutual respect.

Also, during this start-up period of behavioral research, the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan (Katz, Macoby and Morse, 1950) conducted similar studies. These studies focused upon a job-centered leadership style, roughly analogous to the initiating structure dimension and upon employee-centered leadership, closely related to the consideration dimension of the Ohio State Studies. The results of these studies indicated that not only must short-run job performance be measured, but also long-run job satisfaction. The findings indicated that employee-centered leaders were as effective in short-run job performance and even more effective in bringing long-run job satisfaction into the work place.

Blake and Mouton (1964) popularized the single behavior approach with their concept of the "Managerial Grid" from the Ohio State Studies. They created a grid structure of two axes. The vertical axis measured an individual's demonstrated concern for production while the corresponding horizontal axis measured the demonstrated concern for people. The strength of each concern was measured in terms of one (weakest) to nine (strongest) degree. On the grid, five basic styles of leadership were described by both a name and a grid pair. The first numeral in the grid pair indicated

the degree of concern for production and the second, the degree of concern for people.

The ideal manager description in Blake and Mouton's model was the Team (9,9) manager. This statement reflected their basic assumption that in any given situation, the leader believed he could integrate the needs of the organization with the needs of the people. Inherent in their scheme was the assumption that man has a need to be satisfied with his work, to be valued and to contribute to the overall success of the production. Blake and Mouton stated that because 9,9 leaders required a great deal of interaction they created an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect.

The other four areas reflected a marred understanding of motivation and human relations according to Blake and Mouton. The Impoverished (1,1) manager gave minimal emphasis to both production and human relations. He was doing just enough to maintain his membership in the organization. The Task (9,1) manager was viewed as an authoritarian, dictatorial leader whose only concern was for production. All interpersonal conflict would be met with disciplinary action. The Country Club (1,9) manager believed if he created a happy work environment that a reasonable amount of productivity would be maintained. The last manager style, the Middle-of-the-Road (5,5) manager, while recognizing the need for balance in his

concern levels, saw his role more as a juggling act. He believed that a basic distrust between management and labor could not be overcome.

Situational Theory

[In their book, Supervision for Better Schools, Lovell and Wiles (1983) expressed two conclusions that seem to have moved many researchers from a single behavior approach to a multiple behavior approach. First, they presented this definition which attested to the origin of their conclusion in the measurement of behavior, "Leadership is behavior that is generated to cause other individuals to act, feel and think in certain ways" (1983, p. 75). Later in that same section, they drew this conclusion, "Leadership shifts from situation to situation" (p. 77). Their understanding of leadership agreed with the effective line in that if following did not happen, then leadership was not leading. They saw leadership as a selection by a group to achieve certain goals that could not otherwise be obtained.]

Therefore, this alternative approach, [the multiple styles approach, by definition did not allow one style to be the best in all situations. Rather, it assumed that when one substituted different variables into the same equation, one would receive different answers, so when a leader using one theory substituted different situational variables,

that leader would receive different guidance from the theory on leader behavior.

One of the oldest situational leadership theories to surface was Fred E. Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Theory (1967). Fiedler's construct was based on four factors. The first, leadership style assessment, described the motivation of the leader through the Least Preferred Co-Worker Questionnaire. The other three: task structure, group atmosphere, and position power were used to define favorableness of the leadership situation in the group. From his studies, Fiedler developed the "Suggested Effectual Leadership Styles." See Figure 2.1.

This attempt at a situational theory should probably be described as the bridge between the best style theorist and the multiple style theorist. Fiedler's writings, especially concerning the leadership style assessment, carried with them the underlying assumption that an individual's leadership style was fixed with some strength such that change was not very likely. Fiedler said change the leader, not the leadership style. Further, his graphic illustration of his theory marches along a single style continuum rather than looking at the task-oriented behaviors and the relationship-oriented behaviors on different axes as could be seen in Blake and Mouton's "Managerial Grid."

Situational Favorableness	Cell	Leader-Member Relations	Task Structure	Leader Position Power	Suggested Effectual Leadership Styles
Favorable	1	Good	Structured	Strong	Task oriented
	2	Good	Structured	Weak	Task oriented
	3	Good	Unstructured	Strong	Task oriented
Moderately Favorable	4	Good	Unstructured	Weak	Employee oriented
	5	Moderately poor	Structured	Strong	Employee oriented
Unfavorable	6	Moderately poor	Structured	Weak	Employee oriented
	7	Moderately poor	Unstructured	Strong	Employee oriented
	8	Moderately poor	Unstructured	Weak	Task oriented

Figure 2.1. Suggested Effectual Leadership Styles.

Source. F. E. Fiedler (1967), A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 37.

Robert J. House (1971) defined a "path-goal" theory based on the expectancy theory of motivation: The role of the leader was found to be much the same as in earlier studies with some expansion in definition. House presented four leadership styles that affect the valence and expectancy perceptions of the subordinates: instrumental behavior, supportive behavior, participative behavior, and achievement behavior. This model was situational in that the choice of style was based on the characteristics of the subordinates and the characteristics of the work environment. The

complexity encountered here was first seen in attempting to measure leadership by a behavioral instrument and second in measuring the situational variables.

Complexity may have caused concern to practitioners and may have given rise to a simpler theoretical construct, as in the instance of Reddin's book, Managerial Effectiveness (1970). Reddin took his "3-D Theory" from the Ohio State Studies. He kept the visual matrix as the basic two axes diagram for explanation. His two styles of leadership were termed "task-oriented" and "relationship-oriented." See Figure 2.2. Task-Oriented (TO) was defined as "the extent to which a manager directs his own and his subordinates efforts, characterized by initiating, organizing and directing"

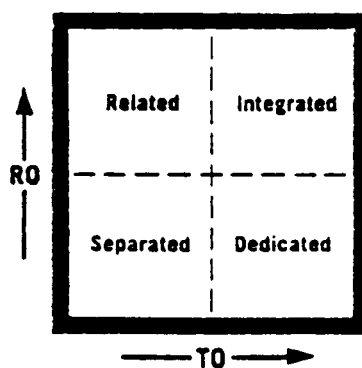


Figure 2.2. Reddin's Four Basic Styles of Leadership.

Source: W. J. Reddin (1970), Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 13.

(p. 12). Relationship-Oriented (RO) was seen as "the extent to which a manager has personal job relationships, characterized by listening, trusting, and encouraging" (p. 13).

The amount of the total time spent in TO behavior or RO behavior during an event defined the TO,RO behavior description. For example, a leader might be said to have a high task-oriented approach and low relationship-oriented approach. The language of the theory would be high TO, low RO. The following Figure 2.3 defined these:

<u>STYLE</u>	<u>STYLE NAME</u>
High TO, High RO	Integrated
High TO, Low RO	Dedicated
Low TO, High RO	Related
Low TO, Low RO	Separated

Figure 2.3. Reddin's Four Styles of Leadership.

Source: W. J. Reddin (1970), Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, developed from definitions on p. 26-7.

A short summary of Reddin's description of the management style follows:

Integrated managers. They were concerned with production and with other attempts to manage through a teamwork concept, solving problems by bringing the

appropriate team and meeting the situation head on. They valued their superiors and subordinates based on how well they fit into the team. They feared lack of involvement and team member dissatisfaction.

Dedicated managers. They were concerned with production, attempting to increase production regardless of the long-run effects on relationships. Problems were solved by personal control and suppression of alternatives. They valued their superiors who valued them and looked at subordinates as tools, fearing the losses of power and production.

Related managers. They were concerned with others, attempting to maintain harmony in the working organization. They attempted to solve problems by glossing over them. They valued the respect of their supervisor and treated subordinates as part of the family, fearing rejection and conflict.

Separated managers. They were concerned with the status quo, attempting to standardize operations and solving problems by establishing more controls. They valued the supervisor's intellect and looked at their subordinates as a part of a machine, fearing emotional and irrational actions.

The "3-D" or three-dimensional concept came from adding effectiveness descriptors to each leadership style. There were eight descriptors, four for more effective leadership style usage and four for less effective leadership style usage.

The integrated leader, when more effective, was labeled the "executive" and when less effective, the "compromiser." See Figure 2.4. The executive was "perceived as a good motivating force who sets high standards, treats everyone somewhat differently and prefers team management." The compromiser was as follows:

. . . perceived as being a poor decision-maker, as one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much, and as avoiding or minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long-term production (p. 16).

The dedicated style leader, when seen as more effective was labeled as the "benevolent autocrat" or the less effective, the "autocrat." The more effective leader using this style was described as "knowing what he wants and how to get it without creating resentment." The less effective usage was described as "having no confidence in others, as unpleasant, and as interested only in the immediate task" (p. 16).

The related approach to management was viewed as either the more effective "developer" or the less effective "missionary." The more effective developer was credited with "having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals." The missionary was seen only as "being interested in harmony," not production or development (p. 17).

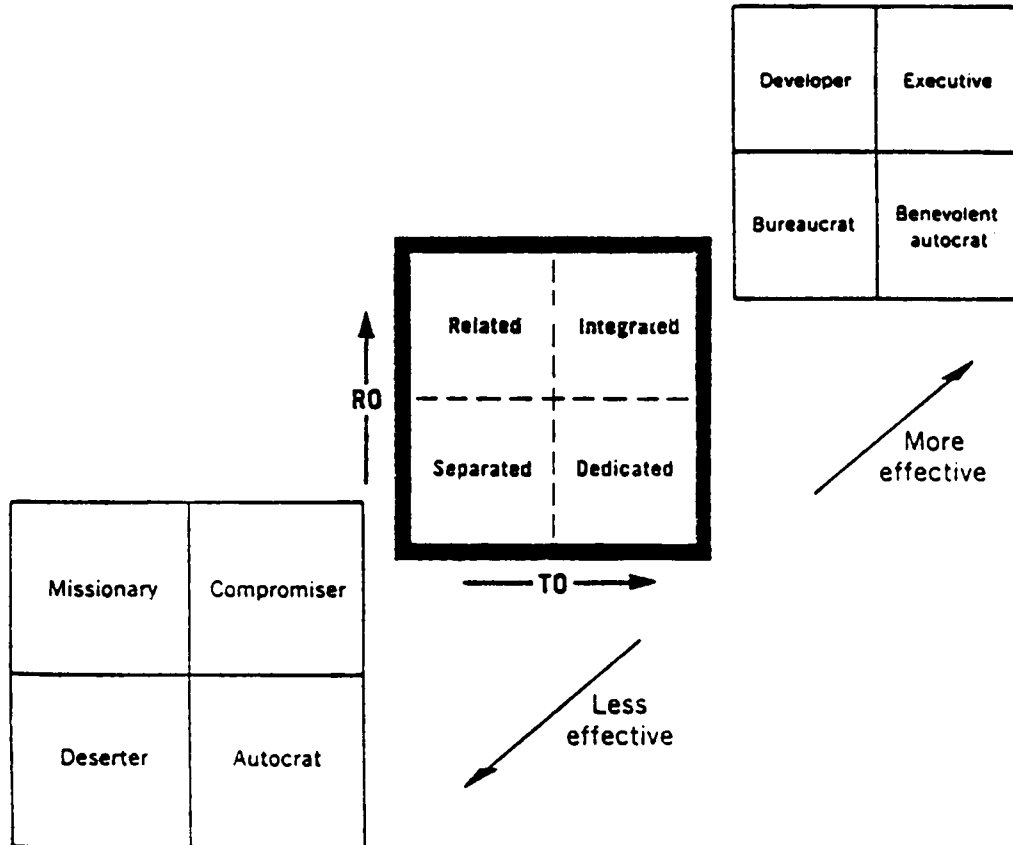


Figure 2.4. Reddin's Three-Dimensional Effectiveness Diagram.

Source. W. J. Reddin (1970), Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 13.

The last leadership style was termed the separated style. The more effective usage was labeled "bureaucrat" and the less effective utilization was termed "deserter." The "bureaucrat" did well the job of maintaining the rules and

procedures of the organization, being very conscientious at his job. The less effective deserter, however, was viewed as "uninvolved, passive or negative " (p. 17).

Reddin believed that each leader had a dominate style (the one mostly utilized) and a supporting style (next most frequently utilized). He also saw an over-rejected style, (a style underused to the detriment of the task or relationships). Even though Reddin went on to express a concept he called "style flex," he appeared to hold more to the Fiedler assumption of style rigidity.

Turning to the situational aspect of Reddin's theory, five elements were described as impacting the leader. The elements were the supervisor, the co-worker, the subordinate, the organization and the technology. Note was also made of the supervisor's and subordinate's style and expectancy. No specific definitions were given for these terms; they were to be generally applied. Reddin then added to the already complex theory, three skills that needed to be developed and placed into the "stew" over which each decision must be cooked.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) regarded Reddin's work as the next step forward from the Ohio State Studies. These men, acknowledging Reddin's work, developed the Tri-dimensional Leadership Effectiveness Model. However, at that point Hersey and Blanchard branched out from the other

theorists by claiming that their model was set to study behaviors, not attitudes. Their concern for the other models was wrapped up in one sentence: "What we're suggesting is that values set can evoke a variety of behaviors" (p. 31). Another statement that set the structure for this entire study was, "What we are saying is that if you are going to assess performance, you don't evaluate the stimulus, you assess the results--the response" (1982, p. 102).

Hersey and Blanchard thus offered a behavioral model for leadership called the "Situational Model." To introduce their concept of situational leadership, they cited A. K. Korman in his extensive review of the Ohio State Studies to demonstrate the need for their model and the idea for their model. They quoted Korman as saying:

What is needed. . . . in future concurrent (and predictive) studies is not just recognition of this factor of "situational determinants" but, rather, a systematic conceptualization of situational variance as it might relate to leadership behavior (initiating structure and consideration) (1982, p. 150).

Korman also suggested that a curvilinear relationship existed between initiating structure and consideration as structured in the Ohio State Studies. Hersey and Blanchard believed their model fulfilled this conceptualization.

The basic concept of Situational Leadership was that there was no one best leadership style for all situations but rather a style should be chosen in relation to the maturity of the follower. This significantly decreased the number of

variables to be handled by the leader when making decisions. More specifically, this model interacted between first, the relative levels of the quantity and specificity of the guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives and secondly, the quantity and depth of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior). These relative levels were a function of the interaction between the maturity level of the follower with respect to ability and with respect to motivation. Maturity levels were to be assessed by specific tasks to be performed as these levels would obviously vary. Figure 2.5 is a graphic depiction of the model. Figure 2.6 gives a deeper insight into the concept of follower maturity.

The model portrayed the curvilinear relationship between style and maturity levels. This bell-shaped curve was to be the mechanism that determined the style from the maturity level. This curve was entitled "The Prescriptive Curve." The following discussions described the relationship between the maturity levels and the style levels prescribed.

Moving in ascending order, the first style discussed was the S1 (telling style) with the M1 (low maturity level). The follower in this instance was considered to be both unable and unwilling. The unwillingness was described as coming from a disgruntled attitude or an insecure attitude. The perception for success was a direct telling style that provides specific and detailed instruction coupled with close

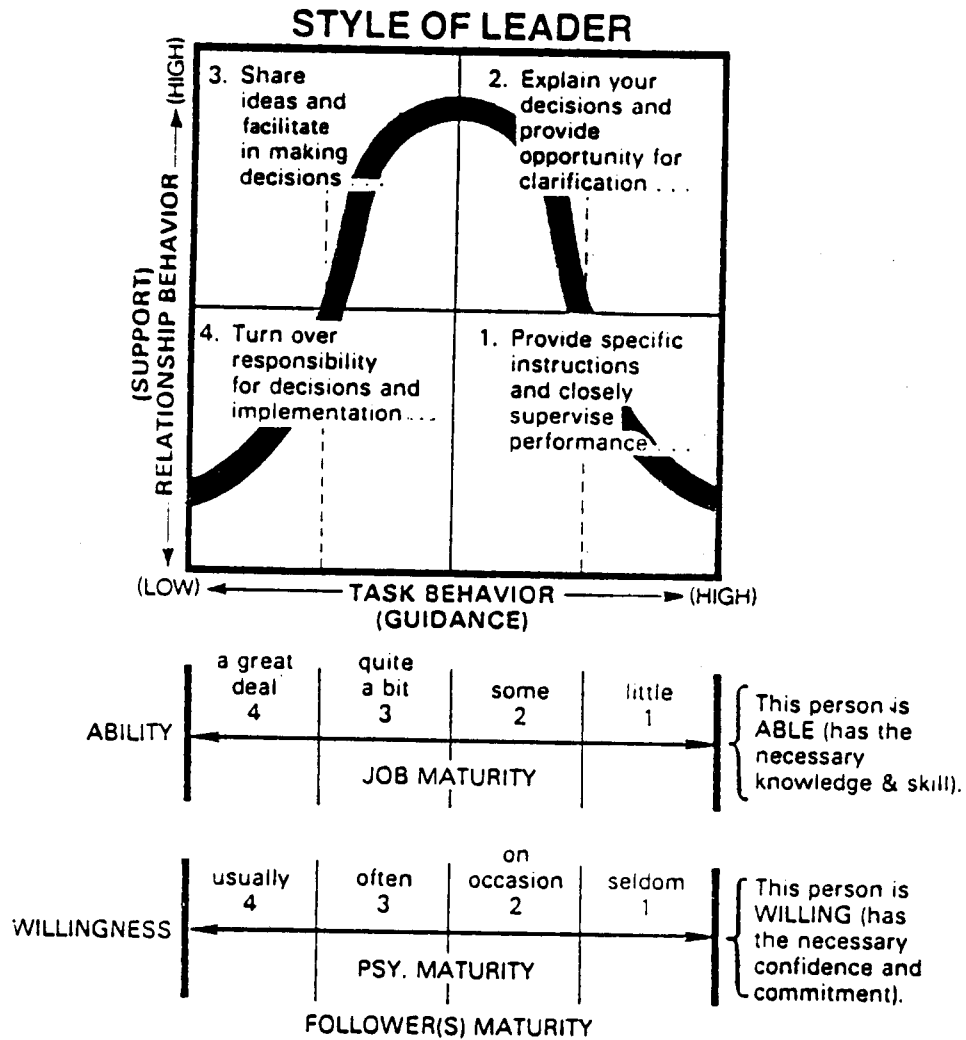


Figure 2.5. Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model.

Source. P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard (1982), Management of Organizational Behavior (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., p. 161.

JOB MATURITY SCALES

This person		in performing this objective											
Scales	8	High	7	6	M3	5	Moderate	4	M2	3	2	Low	1
		M4									M1		
1. Past Job Experience	8	Has experience relevant to job					4	Does not have relevant experience					1
2. Job Knowledge	8	Possesses necessary job knowledge					4	Does not have necessary job knowledge					1
3. Understanding of Job Requirements	8	Thoroughly understands what needs to be done					4	Has little understanding of what needs to be done					1

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY SCALES

This person		in performing this objective											
Scales	8	High	7	6	M3	5	Moderate	4	M2	3	2	Low	1
		M4									M1		
1. Willingness to Take Responsibility	8	Is very eager					4	Is very reluctant					1
2. Achievement Motivation	8	Has a high desire to achieve					4	Has little desire to achieve					1
3. Commitment	8	Is very dedicated					4	Is uncaring					1

Figure 2.6. Hersey and Blanchard Maturity Rating Scheme.

Source. P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard (1982), Management of Organizational Behavior (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., p. 159.

supervision. According to the authors of this model, too much supportive behavior in this situation could be viewed as rewarding poor performance or encouraging mediocrity. Thus, the relative style was said to call for high task, low relationship behaviors by the leader.

The second level, S2, was entitled the "selling style," and it was related to the M2 level (low to moderate maturity). The maturity of the follower was defined as unable but willing or having confidence. In this situation the leader's behavior style should be encouraging and reinforcing the follower's willingness. The object of the leader's behavior was to get the follower to "buy into the desired behaviors." This style interaction was described as high task, high relationship behaviors.

The third level was termed "participating or S3" for the leader's behavior and M3 (moderate to high maturity) for the follower. In this situation, the follower was characterized by ability to do the task but lacking in motivation. The authors of this model assumed that the individual either lacked self-confidence or felt a lack of acceptance on the part of his supervisors. In either case the key area was motivation. Therefore, the interactive style of the leader should have been supportive and non-directive with joint decision-making as the mode of operation. The main role of the leader was facilitating and communicating. This interactive style was basically characterized as low task, high relationship in behavior.

Lastly, the fourth leadership style was S4, "delegating," the counterpart was M4 (high maturity). In this case Hersey and Blanchard saw the follower as quite

capable and willing to do the task required. The leader was directed to take a low-key approach with little direction and little support. More of either behavior could have been viewed as lack of trust or intrusion. Therefore, being that little time was required of the leader, the interactive style was described as both low task, low relationship in behavior.

From this formulation of relationships, the authors developed a table that should have been predictive of what behaviors in rank order would best bring about success given the maturity level of the follower. It should be noted that Hersey and Blanchard have interchanged "Q" and "S" when they felt the style choice was ineffective. See Figure 2.7.

M1	S1 High, S2 2nd, Q3 3rd, Q4 Low Probability
M2	S2 High, S1 2nd, S3 3rd, Q4 Low Probability
M3	S3 High, S2 2nd, S4 3rd, Q1 Low Probability
M4	S4 High, S3 2nd, Q2 3rd, Q1 Low Probability

Figure 2.7. Hersey and Blanchard's Style Match.

Source: P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard (1982), Management of Organizational Behavior (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. p. 155.

Kenneth Blanchard of the Hersey and Blanchard team with Drea Zigarmi and Patricia Zigarmi modified the theoretical structure of situational leadership to present Situational Leadership II (1987). This was first published in book form under the title Leadership and the One Minute Manager (1985). The major change in conceptualization was that the concept of development was enhanced greatly while the idea of maturity was de-emphasized. Also, the title of the S2 leadership behavior was changed from "selling" to "coaching."

Blanchard, et al., said that the key factor in determining leadership style was the developmental level of the follower for the specific task. Developmental level was determined by a combination of the degree of competence and degree of commitment that a subordinate used in a particular task. These descriptors had been changed from ability and willingness respectively. Competence was chosen because it was a word that carried with it the idea of development of knowledge, skills gained either through formal training or experience. Commitment was seen as being composed of two concepts: confidence (how well a person can do the task without supervision) and motivation (how interested and enthusiastic a person was in doing the job). The visual representation of this concept was set in the form of the maturity design of situational leadership theory as seen in Figure 2.8.

High Competence	High Competence	Some Competence	Low Competence
High Commitment	Variable Commitment	Low Commitment	High Commitment
D4	D3	D2	D1

Figure 2.8. Development Levels.

Source. K. Blanchard, D. Zigarmi, and P. Zigarmi (1985), Leadership and the One Minute Manager, New York: William Morrow, p. 7.

The new construct assumed that when a person came to a new task, he had little prior experience and possibly little knowledge. They further assumed that the person brought a high degree of enthusiasm and was ready to learn. This was development level "D1" and he needed the "Directing" style of leadership. As he progressed, he became more disillusioned either because the task was tougher than he anticipated or the tasks was not as interesting as he thought it would be. He was not coded at a development level of "D2" and needed a "Coaching" style of leadership. After learning to perform the task well, the follower began to feel the alternating emotions of self-confidence and self-doubt as to whether he could accomplish the task as well on his own. He would now be classified as "D3" and will benefit from a "Supporting" style. Lastly, as he became a peak performer with a high level of competence and commitment, he was labeled a "D4,"

and he would be most effectively led by an individual using a "Delegating" style.

The differences were significant because the D1 level became the M2 level in that both were characterized by low competence (D1) or low ability (M2) and high commitment (D1) or high willingness (M2). The M1 level (unable and unwilling) was dropped. The new D2 gave a progression and the whole model assumed that, given enough time and the right kind of leadership, a person will develop into a highly competent and committed worker. This change was based on research conducted on the stages of group development by Lacoursiere (1980).

This new conceptualization appeared to add strength to the arguments of Vecchio (1987) in that it appeared that the difficulty with the model was not leadership behavior principles but rather what type of jobs the model could accurately describe as to its important dynamics. Initial impressions of this model when first studied in 1980, were that this was a good way to view higher level management stratagems in dealing with up and coming managers or leaders. This newer version appeared to have greater application to the more project oriented operations where little decision-making was required in completing the task. However, again the final conclusion was that researchers were still faced with a plethora of leadership models.

III. JOB SATISFACTION THEORY

In the previous section, the purpose of the review of leadership theory was to build one half of the foundation for this study by reviewing and defining the initiating variables. This section will complete the foundation of the study by reviewing and defining the basis and value of gaining a better understanding of the resultant variable of job satisfaction.

First a definition of job satisfaction was chosen for this study. The definition of job satisfaction was rather mercurial in nature, in that it was very hard to pin down. A definition was chosen and set forth at the end of the review of the theories of job satisfaction along with some related motivational theory which included some explanations and helpful descriptions.

The second question was related to the concept of "felt need." In other words, was it important that job satisfaction of teachers be understood? The first determination had to be made before the second question could be answered.

E. E. Lawler, III in his book Motivation in Work Organizations (1973) indentified what he considered to be the four theoretical approaches to understanding job satisfaction. He identified the fulfillment theory as the earliest approach. He then said that the equity theory and the discrepancy theory were constructed as a reaction to the

shortcomings of the fulfillment theory. He called the fourth theory the two-factor theory where satisfaction and dissatisfaction fell on two continua.

In the book Fulfillment Theory, Victor Vroom (1964) quoted R. H. Schaffer as saying "Job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual can be satisfied" (p. 68). The measure of satisfaction was a simple interview technique of asking how much of given outcome an individual receives. The glaring weakness of this first attempt was that it assumed some sort of global satisfaction made up of several different facets that could be pinpointed without understanding the individual's desires.

Discrepancy theory. This type of theory put satisfaction on a continuum rather than an emotion or feeling by asking two questions: what did you expect to receive, and what you did receive? The discrepancy defined an individual's level of satisfaction within a certain facet. The question of what was received would be asked in two different ways. Raymond A. Katzell (1964) asked the question about what was "actually" received. Edwin A. Locke (1969) asked the question as to what was "perceived" to be gained. Lyman Porter (1961) asked the question on the expectancy side in terms of not what was desired but what should be received.

Equity theory. J. Stacy Adams (1963) expounded the concept equity theory as an equality of perceived inputs to perceived returns. Satisfaction resulted when inputs and rewards were equal. Dissatisfaction occurred when the individual perceived he was being under-rewarded, which gave one feelings of injustice or if being over-rewarded, which gave one feelings of guilt.

Two-factor theory. Herzberg (1968) presented his two-factor theory in an effort to distinguish between those things which were truly satisfying and those things that were only truly dissatisfying when they are absent. Thus, what he postulated was a two continua results theory for work and life. This theory has also been entitled the "Motivation-Hygiene Theory." In order to explain this concept more fully, a short review of two motivation theories is required: Maslow's Needs Hierarchy (1954) and Porter's (1961) updated version.

Needs hierarchy theory. Maslow's theory was based on the assumption of internal needs acting as a motivator to action. Satisfaction, although not defined thoroughly, was indicated as a perceptual or an actual meeting of the need. He felt that the nature of man was such that basically his needs can be seen in a hierarchy of prepotency. Maslow argued that in general a hierarchy could be seen in the order herein

identified: physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteem and self-actualization.

Physiological needs were defined as the most powerful. Examples would be the need for food, drink, shelter, and rest. This need among teachers might be characterized, for example, by their concern for salary, environmental control, number of classes or students for which they were responsible.

Maslow theorized that when the physiological needs were met at some subjective minimum level known and defined by the individual, the individual would become concerned about the next most important needs, safety and security. His writings indicated that teachers looking for satisfaction of these needs were looking at salary increase, job security, environmental security, fringe benefits and retirement benefits, to name the most obvious.

The next two levels of need, belongingness and esteem needs, were somewhat interchangeable according to Maslow. For the sake of continuity, however, the levels will be taken in their original order. Therefore, the next level was the belongingness need area. These social needs, as some writers dub them, were the needs for companionship, affection and friendship. Here the teacher would begin to look at such factors as his relationship with supervisors and followers, a work group with approximately the same goals as the

individual. The quality of friendships could be very important to the individual also.

Once this prepotency had been sufficiently satisfied, the next rung on the ladder was esteem needs. These needs were related to recognition, status and respect. Some things that teachers might be concerned with here were merit pay or promotions, peer recognition, level of responsibility, type of classes to teach or extra duties.

The last need to be met in order of prepotency was the self-actualization need. This was defined as the need to fulfill the individual's potential through achievement or growth. A teacher might attempt to satisfy these needs through curriculum development, teaching the "most difficult" class in the department, or attempting some new, innovative and creative approach to education.

Lyman W. Porter (1961) updated Maslow's hierarchy with the subtraction of physiological needs and the addition of autonomy needs. He did this, he said, to make a good theory more practical when looking at middle management. Porter considered teachers to have autonomy needs. The autonomy need appeared to be a combination of possibly the esteem need and the self-actualization need.

The purpose of this presentation on the needs hierarchy was to make more lucid Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg might ask the question: did everything satisfy or

did the presence of some conditions in a job make the job not dissatisfying? His answer was that there are hygiene factors in each job which become neutral as far as motivation is concerned when present but are definite dissatisfiers when absent. These, he felt, had to do with the context surrounding the job, not the job itself or the work itself. Therefore, such things as job security, salary, working conditions, interpersonal relationships would be considered hygiene factors. Motivation factors, that is, factors that induce an individual to increase performance rather than to minimally participate, would be categorized by such words as achievement, responsibility, advancement and growth.

Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (ERG) theory. The last theory to be reviewed in this section is the ERG Theory (Alderfer, 1972). The three letters, ERG, stood for "Existence," "Relatedness," and "Growth." Alderfer gave credit to Maslow for his work in need gratification theory in the field of motivation. He considered that his work carried forward the work of Maslow. On the other hand he presented some alternatives to Maslow's precepts based upon more current research. Three areas emerged from his effort as significantly different from Maslow's views.

First, as is indicated above, Alderfer redefined the major categories of human needs. He began his definition of these new (reorganized) categories by developing some

concepts that helped explain his changes. To begin with, he considered his three need categories as biologically based (i.e., primary motives) but able to be strengthened through learning (secondary motives). Secondly, he stated that his theory was designed to help understand "subjective states of satisfaction and desire" (1972, p. 7). He thus considered it a "content" theory. He defined satisfaction as a fulfilling result of interactions between a person and his environment, regardless of whether it was a real or perceived interaction. The opposite of satisfaction was frustration. Lastly, he distinguished between episodic needs (needs based on a specific situation) and chronic needs (enduring state needs).

Having the concepts enumerated, the description of Alderfer's (1972) three basic categories of need will follow. Existence needs included all the basic physiological and material desires. Examples of these needs were hunger or thirst in the physiological realm and pay, fringe benefits or job security in the material realm, the latter being the means to the former. Relatedness needs involved relationships with significant others. Satisfaction was not based necessarily on the positive relationship, although much was, but was possibly also based on the closeness of relationship versus the distance of the relationship. Growth needs move into the realm of creative and productive thinking.

From this Alderfer presented seven major propositions to provide a basis for testing, where the hypothesis is an attempt to relate satisfaction to desire. The conceptualization of testing was to relate indicators of satisfaction in each of the three areas and to relate indicators of desire in each of the three areas defined above. It should follow then that needs related to one area should have some verifiable relationship to satisfaction related to that same area. The major propositions are as follows:

The less existence needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired

The less relatedness needs are satisfied, the more existence needs will be desired

The more existence needs are satisfied, the more relatedness needs will be desired

The less relatedness needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired

The less growth needs are satisfied, the more relatedness needs will be desired

The more relatedness needs are satisfied, the more growth needs will be desired

The more growth needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired (Alderfer, 1972, p.13).

These propositions were written to show that any desire can have multiple satisfactions and that any satisfaction may affect several desires. These relationships demonstrated the concepts of interchangeability (pay to buy food) and transferability (a husband chosen as a father figure). Also Alderfer brought a frustration-regression and satisfaction-progression precept. Regression was the idea of moving toward the more concrete satisfactions of existence if

relatedness needs were not being met. Progression was the inverse concept of moving to more intrinsic, less material rewards when the more concrete needs were met.

Alderfer next presented three propositions that aid in differentiating the degrees of need of each category.

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 (1972, p. 18).

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.

In challenging discretionary settings, then, the higher chronic growth desires, the more growth satisfaction.

In nonchallenging, nondiscretionary settings, there will be no differential growth satisfaction as a function of chronic growth desires (1972, pp. 19-20).

The relationship of Maslow's categories and Alderfer's categories are presented in Figure 2.9.

The second difference between the two theories was that while ERG in its propositions three (3) and six (6) have an orientation to hierarchy, Alderfer did not consider his a strictly ordered hierarchy. He quoted Maslow:

There are other, apparently innately creative people in whom the drive to creativeness seems to be more important than any other counter-determinant.

<u>Maslow's Categories</u>	<u>ERG Categories</u>
Physiological	Existence
Safety-material Safety-interpersonal Love (belongingness) Esteem-interpersonal Esteem-selfconfirmed	Relatedness
Self-actualization	Growth

Figure 2.9. Category Comparison: Maslow and Alderfer.

Source. C. P. Alderfer (1972), Existence, Relatedness and Growth: Human Needs in Organizational Settings. New York: The Free Press, p. 25.

Their creativeness might appear not as self-actualization released by basic satisfaction, but in spite of the lack of basic satisfaction (1943, p. 386).

IV. RESEARCH RELATING LEADERSHIP THEORY TO JOB SATISFACTION THEORY

In 1959 Fredrick Herzberg conducted his research on the Two Factor Theory, bringing out the notion that factors that were satisfying were work-related while factors that indicate dissatisfaction were work environment-related. (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959). It could be argued that although Herzberg saw leader/follower relationships as hygiene factors, his concept of motivator (i.e., responsibility) carried some concepts that could also relate to leadership styles. The point was well illustrated in

Herzberg's work, "One more time: How do you motivate employees?" (1968). He defined a new concept at that time called job enrichment. He differentiated that term from job enlargement by what he called horizontal loading and vertical loading of job designs. Horizontal job loading had to do with the idea of job rotation or adding on more tasks of the same kind. By job enrichment he desired to increase the opportunity to become a specialist, solving greater problems. In Figure 2.10 his seven principles of vertical job loading are presented.

When looking at the decisions that were being made based upon these principles, it became apparent that one common denominator for this was autonomy. Autonomy, while not expressed in Hersey and Blanchard's explanation as such, played a significant part in the understanding of leadership decision making in their theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 200).

Herzberg then gave an example of a study of stockholder correspondents employed at a very large corporation. Using a control group, two "uncommitted groups" to take into account the "Hawthorne Effect" and an experimental group, he added each of the principles of vertical job loading, one each week. At first the experimental group dropped below the control group in efficiency. By the end of the six month experiment, however, the experimental group had demonstrated

a significant production increase, a greater liking for their work, plus a lower absentee rate. This intervention was undoubtedly due to leadership style function which related to autonomy.

Sergiovanni (1967) also found support for Herzberg's theory of motivation. He found that factors such as those identified by Herzberg (i.e., Achievement, Recognition, Responsibility) were motivators. See Figure 2.9. Further, he came to the same conclusions made above about job satisfaction. When reviewing the work of job enrichment theorists, Hackman, Oldham, Johnson and Purdy (1975), it appeared motivators were influenced by leadership styles. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983) stated that:

Job enrichment theory suggests that virtually every decision supervisors make about school and classroom organization, curriculum development and implementation, materials selection, and teaching itself has implications for building motivation and commitment of teachers (p. 16).

In her study of leader behaviors of principals in East Tennessee, Sue Barnard, a student (The University of Tennessee, Knoxville) structured her research around teacher perception of leadership behavior and its relationship to job satisfaction. She used, as her population, the public school classroom teachers of East Tennessee who were members of the Tennessee Education Association. She took a random sample of 580 teachers from that population of 12,096. No other

<u>PRINCIPLE</u>	<u>MOTIVATIONS INVOLVED</u>
A. Removing some control while retaining accountability	Responsibility and personal achievement
B. Increasing the accountability of individuals for their own work recognition	Responsibility and accountability
C. Giving a person a complete natural unit of work (module, division, area and so on)	Responsibility, achievement and recognition
D. Granting additional authority to an employee in his activity, job freedom	Responsibility, achievement and recognition
E. Making periodic reports directly available to the worker himself rather than to the supervisor	Internal recognition
F. Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled	Growth and learning
G. Assigning individuals specific, growth or specialized tasks, enabling them to become experts	Responsibility and advancement

Figure 2.10. Herzberg's Vertical Loading Principles.

Source. F. Herzberg (1968), "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?", Harvard Business Review, 46, p. 59.

information about the teachers or their respective principals was given in her study. She asked four questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the principals' LBDQ score on consideration as perceived by the teachers

and the job satisfaction score of the teachers (as determined on *Brayfield's Index of Job Satisfaction)?

2. Is there a relationship between the principals' LBDQ score on the initiation of structure as perceived by the teachers and the job satisfaction score of the teachers?

3. Is there a relationship between the principals' LBDQ score of high consideration and low consideration as perceived by the teachers and the job satisfaction score of the teachers?

4. Is there a relationship between the principals' LBDQ score of high initiation of structure and low initiation of structure as perceived by the teachers and the job satisfaction score of the teachers?

(Barnard, 1983, p. 74). (Brayfield's Index of Job Satisfaction was used in each test.)

The statistical applications used to analyze her data revealed that all her null hypotheses were rejected. Thus, Barnard ended her dissertation by concluding that teachers desire a leader who is both high in initiating structure and high in consideration. Although Barnard did not state it, it appeared that she would likely support a Managerial Grid approach to leadership from her concluding words.

Because teaching is a profession, the research presented hereafter was not all necessarily from the educational arena. Rather, research on the relationship between an executive and manager was presented, as it was believed that this relationship more nearly approximated the principal to teacher relationship.

House, Filley and Kerr (1971) published a study that tested two hypotheses. They first investigated whether or not the satisfaction of subordinates was positively related to leader consideration and with low consideration. The

second suggested that satisfaction was negatively related to initiating structure, with high consideration positively related to satisfaction. Subjects from three companies (air frame company, refining company and business machine company) were utilized giving a total of 690 respondents. Although supervision was not measured as part of the job satisfaction instrument such as is done in the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and although stratification of population did not take place, the results of this study were helpful in that they did confirm again a positive relationship between consideration and job satisfaction.

Robert Quinn and William Cobb, Jr. (1974) in their research article, "The 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey: Continuing Chronicles of an Unfinished Enterprise," rehearsed a history of the not-so-successful effort to identify the basic dimensions of job satisfaction. However, their review of this research again produced a conclusion in their mind that "supervision" was a key factor in job satisfaction. Not only did they use Vroom (1964) as a source, but they added Herzberg (1959) and Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1975).

Duane E. Thompson (1971), University of Iowa, following Likert and the human relations school of thinking, studied leadership and job satisfaction from the view of the principal of supportive relationships. He quoted Likert

(1971, pp. 1-2), "If experience falls short of expectation, unfavorable attitudes occur. Where our experience is better than our expectations we tend to have favorable attitudes." Utilizing the Administrative Attitude Questionnaire, it was hypothesized that individuals having a high self-perception would experience less job satisfaction from a given supervisory style than those with low self-perception. One hundred twenty-eight administrators and professional employees of a state department of public education were studied with the result of the hypothesis being positively confirmed.

The title, "Faculty Preference of Leadership Behavior of Potential Presidents of Public Community Colleges or Technical Institutes in Tennessee" was the main question in this study put forth by Arthur R. MacFadden (1974). The population of 305 respondents were primarily a middle-aged faculty, holding a Masters Degree plus, teaching experience of 0 to 11 years. This accounted for 77% of the faculty. Only 24 (6%) were tenured. MacFadden concluded that the leadership style of a president must be characterized by flexibility. He would have to have a high concern for appropriate communications involving a great degree of consultation with faculty members on important decisions. Otherwise, he was to be a coordinator, integrator, and role clarifier. Job satisfaction then became a matter of the president's ability to judge the level of involvement and

communication required during each activity, a difficult job at best, according to McFadden.

Research in the area of leadership further categorized as a process of reciprocal communication was carried out by Charles N. Green (1975) of Indiana University. In this study, styles of leadership (consideration and initiating structure) were compared to subordinate satisfaction in three organizations over three one-month intervals. One-hundred three first-line managers were rated by two of their employees using the work satisfaction section from Stogdill's Job Expectation Questionnaire. The managers reported their leadership styles through the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Green saw a definite positive relationship between consideration behavior and job satisfaction which, when coupled with unusually high initiating structure behavior, caused higher performance.

Gary Johns of Concordia University (1978) investigated the question of the effect of task moderators on the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. The LBDQ and the JDI, Subscale: Supervision was utilized to report the relationship through moderators measured by the Job Rating Form (Hackman and Oldham, 1974). The population was at the operative level, 700 members of a paper products plant. This would not be considered for teacher/principal level type of relationship. However, what was interesting

was that a positive relationship between both initiating structure existed as well as consideration with job satisfaction. In fact, initiating structure was stronger. It was postulated that relationship strength was due to job content.

Added to the concept of situational leadership was a social aspect first described by Graen, Dansereau, and Minami (1972) labeled the Vertical Dyad Linkage. The concept was truly fleshed out as a model by Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) and Graen and Cashman (1975) where their studies found that nearly all leaders differentiated between subordinates in terms of leader behavior. This theory described the social responses of a leader as being based on the follower's competence, trustworthiness, and initiative. There was an "in-group" and an "out-group", plus there was a middle group. Thus, what was termed as the average leadership style (ASL) was somewhat moderated by the vertical dyad linkage (VDL). In this model Work Activities were somewhat akin to Task Oriented Activities, while Job Needs and Interpersonal Sensitivity indicated Relationship Oriented Activities. Job satisfaction was measured by the Role Orientation Index created by Graen, et al., (1972) which was much like the Job Description Index. As predicted from these earlier studies, greater job satisfaction was indicated from those classified as "in-group."

Jermier and Berkes (1979) looked at leadership styles in the context of a police command bureaucracy. Studying the responses of 158 policemen, 3 hypotheses were tested in a research atmosphere that had established the "quasi-military command model" as the classical organization where there was a preference among policemen for authority in interpersonal relationships and highly structured work environment. The results of the study indicated that participative decision-making was a significant predictor of job satisfaction along with supportive leader behavior.

In 1984, William H. Hendrix and Charles W. McNichols of Clemson University reported on research carried out by the Leadership and Management Development Center of the United States Air Force at Maxwell Air Force Base. The purpose of the study was to gain a more objective knowledge of the relationship of management (leader) style, situational environment, and effectiveness criterion in leadership. Using a mixed stratified and random sampling procedure, some 4,786 Air Force enlisted, officer, and civilian personnel participated in the study that asked the question, were different managerial styles differentially effective under different situational environments (1984, p. 146). With respect to the issue of job satisfaction as one criterion for effectiveness, the results were supportive not of the contingency theory but of the "one best" style theory. It

was noted of all three criteria (organizational climate, perceived productivity, and job satisfaction) when the managerial style described as the "group processing style" was utilized, were found to be the factors that predicted the highest level of probable success as a leader.

Abbey and Esposito (1985) carried out a study surveying 233 elementary teachers from one school division to determine if the compliance system (base of power) perceived by the teachers as utilized by their principals had any relationship to social support perceived to be received from the principal. The authors' data did support the conclusion that teachers who differed in their reasons for compliance also differed in their perceptions of the amount of social support experienced. Abbey and Esposito stated that:

Teachers who perceived that their major reasons for compliance were referent, expert and reward power perceived significantly more social support from their principals than those whose most important reasons for compliance were coercive and legitimate power. Teachers whose most important reasons for compliance depended upon legitimate power perceived significantly more social support from their principals than those teachers whose most important reason for compliance was coercive power (1985, pp. 330-331).

Without documentation, Abbey and Esposito (1985) went on to suggest that current research literature supported a relationship between perceived compliance systems and job satisfaction. They expounded on this thought:

High job satisfaction is related to the referent and expert compliance systems. Low job satisfaction is related to principal use of the coercive system. Social

support has also been identified as a factor in employee preceptions of job satisfaction. Employees who perceive that they receive adequate social support from superiors experience greater job satisfaction (1985, p. 331).

Abbey and Esposito's data can be connected to leadership styles through the work of Hersey and Blanchard themselves (Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer, 1979). Whereas in Abbey and Esposito's study, French and Raven's five types of power were utilized (1959); Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer expanded the power bases from five (coercive, expert, legitimate, referent and reward) to seven, adding information power from the work of Raven and Kruglanski (1975) and connection power, their original which was defined as power:

. . . based on connections with influential or important people. A leader high in connection power induces compliance from others because they try to gain favor or avoid disfavor of the powerful connection (1979, p. 419).

Without proceeding into a lengthy discussion on the relationships, the figure below represents the authors' conceptualization of the power bases most likely to affect the maturity level of followers in a positive manner. See Figure 2.11.

Moderator was a descriptive term that was being discussed more frequently, it appeared, in current research on leadership effectiveness. The term was first employed by House (1971) as he proposed his path-goal theory. Moderators were defined as those things that have an effect on the relationship of the leader and could significantly alter the

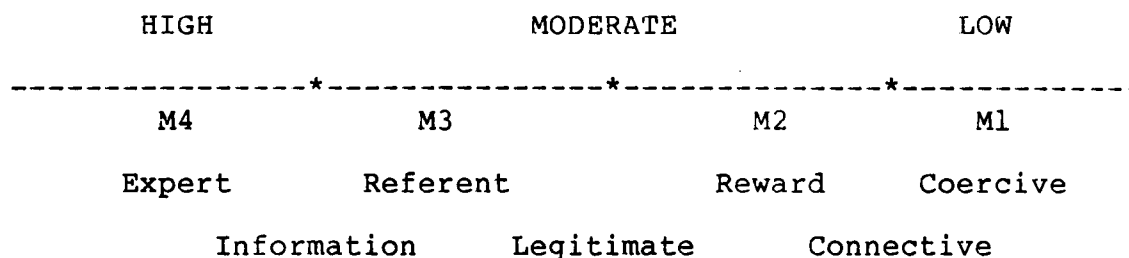


Figure 2.11. Maturity and Power Basis.

Source. P. Hersey, K. H. Blanchard, and W. E. Natemeyer (1979), "Situational Leadership, Perception, and the Impact of Power," Group and Organization Studies, 4(4), p. 425.

relationship when present. Kerr and Jermier (1978), as discussed earlier, have suggested that these moderators may have the power of leader "substitutes."

An example would be the study by Skaret and Bruning (1986) where the moderating effects of the work group and task structure on leadership behavior dimensions and job satisfaction facets were explored. The study, utilizing the LBDQ XII and the Job Descriptive Index, Subscale: Supervision (JDIS), compared the findings from the use of the instruments with the concepts of work group cohesion/arousal and task structure. The results demonstrated that the moderators had effects on the leadership/job satisfaction relationship. Specifically, task structure was negatively correlated with satisfaction with the supervisor, which means, ". . . as task structure increases, the relationship between leader initiating structure and job satisfaction

dimensions should lessen or become more negative" (1986, p. 260). On the other hand, work, cohesiveness and arousal had no significant moderating influence on leader initiating structure and job satisfaction with the supervisor, but did with job satisfaction with co-workers.

Another study with group cohesiveness as a moderator was conducted by Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986). Again the path-goal theory of House (1971), based on the expectancy theory proposed by Vroom (1964) and Porter and Lawler (1968), was the theoretical basis of this research. This study compared the leadership behaviors of cadet leaders at a southeastern university with satisfaction of the cadet subordinates and group satisfaction of cadet subordinates. They hypothesized the following:

The relationship between leader consideration and subordinate satisfaction should be more positive in low-cohesiveness groups than in high cohesiveness groups (1968, p. 206).

Secondly, they suggested that:

. . . the relationship between leader initiating structure and subordinate satisfaction will be more positive in low-cohesiveness groups than in high-cohesiveness groups (1968, p. 206).

The analysis of the results of the study indicated that the hypotheses were incorrect. Two implications of the study were important. First, satisfaction was related to a one-type leadership style of high-initiating structure and high-consideration, again as in Blake and Mouton (1964). The

other, an even more interesting finding, was that satisfaction with leadership was not effected by leadership style, group cohesiveness or any combination thereof.

Howell and Dorfman (1986) continued along this line of research on moderators by giving these concepts that can have effects on the relationship of leader behavior and job satisfaction the title "Substitutes" for leadership. In this particular study the question of substitutes was related to the stratification of populations into the categories of professionals and nonprofessionals. The study used general job satisfaction as one of its dependent variables. The results of the study indicated that two very strong substitutes emerged as viable for supportive leadership behavior: intrinsic task satisfaction and importance placed on organizational rewards. This could have implications for understanding why Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model prescribed low leadership interaction with mature (M4) subordinates.

Thus, it appeared that some shifting toward path-goal theory for understanding the effect of leadership behavior was a newer trend in the research. Furthermore, there was certainly an increasing interest in the concepts of moderators or substitutes. However, the studies were still not conclusive. The next study presented dealt specifically with the validation of the Situational Leadership Theory

(SLT) of Hersey and Blanchard as a prescriptive theory (Vecchio, 1987).

Vecchio came to a rather interesting conclusion or alternative conceptualization of the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). His research indicated that the Situational Leadership Theory had received little empirical attention. He cites Hableton and Gumpert's (1981) study where 159 managers were asked to select four subordinates at random and ask them to complete the LEAD instrument in rating their leaders. Only 65 managers participated. The managers assessed the maturity of these subordinates. A match/mismatch study was conducted on subordinate perceived leadership styles and manager assessed maturity levels. Matches occurred only 29% of the time. However, a comparison of performance ratings did indicate that matches received a significantly higher performance rating than did mismatches. Vecchio also reported the study of Blank, Weitzel and Green (1986) involving 27 hall directors and 343 resident advisors at 2 large universities. The study was a comparison of job satisfaction using the JDI and the interactions between maturity and each of the leadership dimensions. The research did not indicate support for the theory; however, it must be noted that the research did not correctly conceptualize the variables because it did not take into account the inter-

action of the "initiating structure" and "consideration" leader behaviors.

Vecchio then turned to his own research. His subjects were 303 full-time teachers and 14 principals in one school district. From the match/mismatch approach of testing the theory, the data revealed again (as in Blank, Weitzel and Green, 1986) that only 14% were matches. Again, there was a significant difference in performance, leader-member quality of relationship and job satisfaction for the matches in a supportive direction for the theory. When the data was partitioned on the basis of maturity of the follower (low, moderate and high), it was clear that the strength of this support came from the data on low maturity employees. For the moderately mature employees, high consideration was coupled with both high structuring and low structuring. In the high maturity level little support could be generated.

Vecchio then produced an unusual but thoughtful analysis.

Perhaps SLT is better viewed as being prescriptive across job categories This restatement of SLT suggests that the underlying principles of SLT may be valid but that the theory may be improperly conceptualized, such that the current focus is on maturity differences within jobs rather than across jobs (1987, p. 450).

This led to his suggestion, as has earlier literature, that perhaps the notion of substitutes for leadership could be incorporated into the theory.

IV. INSTRUMENTATION

In a study of this nature, three types of instruments were considered as necessary for gathering data. First a demographic instrument was required in order to gain a profile of the principal and teacher group population in the study. Second an instrument to measure leadership styles was required. Third a measurement of job satisfaction was required.

A search of the literature on demographic survey tools did not reveal any particular strength to using any validated forms to gather this kind of data. The vast majority of those reviewed were unique to the study and the data were gathered on a straight forward self-report format. Therefore, no comparison or analysis was made. Three instruments were selected for review in order to gain insight into the leadership styles of the principals. They were the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire XII (LBDQ XII), the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA) questionnaire. They were chosen for review because each purported to lend themselves to the analysis of leadership styles as defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1982).

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire XII was a modification of the Leadership Behavior Description

Questionnaire developed by Hemphill and Coons modified by Stogdill in 1963. He developed the LBDQ XII around what he considered the twelve most important dimensions of leadership. (See Figure 2.12.)

1. Representation--the leader speaks and acts as the representative of the group.
2. Demand Reconciliation--the leader reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system.
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty--the leader is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.
4. Persuasiveness--the leader uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions.
5. Initiation of Structure--the leader clearly defines his own role and lets followers know what is expected of them.
6. Tolerance of Freedom--the leader allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action.
7. Role Assumption--the leader actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.
8. Consideration--the leader regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers.
9. Productive Emphasis--the leader applies pressure for productive output.
10. Predictive Accuracy--the leader exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.
11. Integration--the leader maintains a closely knit organization and resolves intermember conflicts.
12. Superior Orientation--the leader maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence with them, and strives for higher status (Stogdill, 1963, p. 3).

Figure 2.12. Stogdill's Twelve Dimensions of Leadership.

Source. R. Stogdill (1963), Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII. Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, p. 3.

The two dimensions of interest to this study, initiating structure and consideration, were measured with the Initiating Structure and the Consideration Subscales of the Form XII. Each of the 10 items on the two subscales asked the subordinate to report the frequency with which the superior would perform one of the dimension behaviors. An example of an item would be "He schedules the work to be done." To this the subordinate would respond on a scale of one to five points with: 5=always, 4=often, 3=occasionally, 2=seldom and 1=never. Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986) report a coefficient alpha of .91 for the Initiating Structure subscale and .94 for the Consideration subscale.

The second instrument that was considered, was the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD). This was the initial instrument developed by Hersey and Blanchard. It first appeared as the Leadership Adaptability and Style Inventory (LASI) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1974). The LEAD instrument came in two parts: LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. The LEAD-Self was designed as the leader's self-report of what his choice of leadership behavior would be based on a given situation. Twelve situations are provided with four forced-choice alternatives, each one being keyed to a specific theoretical leadership quadrant in the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership model. From the scoring manipulations, dominant leadership style or styles could be

determined along style effectiveness and adaptability. The LEAD-Other is a mirror image instrument provided to subordinates of a leader who had taken the LEAD-Self. This would provide a comparison of the perceptions of the leader and his or her subordinates.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) report the following on reliability and validity concerns.

The LEAD-Self was standardized on the responses of two hundred sixty-four managers constituting a North American sample. The managers ranged in age from twenty-one to sixty-four; 30 percent were at entry level of management; 55 percent were middle managers; 14 percent were at the high level of management. The twelve-item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52 and ten of the twelve coefficients (83 percent) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than 80 percent with respect to selection frequency. The stability of the LEAD-Self was moderately strong. In two administrations across a six-week interval, 75 percent of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71 percent maintained their alternate style. The contingency coefficients were both .71 percent and each was significant ($p .01$). The correlation for the adaptability scores was .69 ($p .01$). The LEAD-Self scores remained relatively stable across time. . . . (1982, p. 105).

No studies were found on the reliability and validity of the LEAD-Other, nor were any outside verifications of this data found.

The last leadership style measuring instrument reviewed was the Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA). This instrument is a commercially prepared near facsimile of the LEAD with two major exceptions. First, as would be expected on copyright

material, the situations and the accompanying alternatives were different. Secondly LBA had 20 different situations instead of 12. Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated had yet to provide any reliability and validity data as promised when material was purchased. One study conducted by Hambleton and Gumpert (1981) reported the LBA to have a parallel form reliability of .80. Of the LBA they wrote:

The LBA (Leader Behavior Analysis) is a 20-item enlarged research version of the more widely known LEAD instrument (Hersey and Blanchard, 1973). The LBA was developed for research purposes, since the LEAD, due to its brevity and simplicity, is by design most appropriate to training situations. The LBA is structured like the LEAD and yields similar results. The wider spread of scores, however, makes the LBA more useful as a research tool (p. 241).

Three job satisfaction instruments were considered for this study. These were the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Survey of Organization, and the Job Description Index.

The Survey of Organizations was written by Taylor and Bowers (1972). This was a 98 question survey with a 5 question section on satisfaction. In the 1969 edition, item number 16 asked, "All in all, how satisfied are you with your foreman?" The respondent was to choose one to five answers based on a Likert-type scaling: 1=Very dissatisfied, 2=Somewhat dissatisfied, 3=Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4=Fairly satisfied, and 5=Very satisfied. With respect to construct validity, the authors ran a Cross-Lag

analysis by category for all multi-wave administrations of the 1969 edition of the survey. Satisfaction with the supervisor was not viewed independently of the five questions in the satisfaction category. Content validity was assumed in the satisfaction arena since the questions were based on the work of Kahn and Morse (1951) and Seashore (1955). Reliability measurements were made with respect to the total instrument and its ability to predict profitability in 6 companies through 11 surveys. The coefficients ranged from .75 to -.03 in the first year. The Sign test of Correlation Direction yielded $+ = 27$ significant at $p < .01$. None of the measures were utilized to focus on job satisfaction alone.

The next instrument that was considered was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Davis, England, and Lofquist, 1967). In its long form, there are 20 scales, 4 of which impact job satisfaction. The four were authority, company policy and practices, supervision-human relations, and supervision-technical. The long form required 15 to 20 minutes for administration. Each scale was given five items for testing responses and those on a five point Likert-type scale.

With respect to reliability and validity, the reliability factor was reported by Albright (1972) to be based on the high redundancy of items within scale. Hoyt reliability coefficients numbered 567 when comparing 27

occupational groups with the 20 scales plus general satisfaction, which was a derived twenty-first scale. It was reported that 83% of the coefficients were .80 or higher and only 2.5 were lower than 70%. When retested at both the one week- and one-year point correlations did drop. A mean of .83 was derived for the one-week retest and a mean of .61 for the one-year retest.

Validity was discussed as construct validity based on the Theory of Work Adjustment. Several studies were made but Albright wrote that these results were not clearcut. Guion (1978) quoted the authors taking pains ". . . to point out (that) the scales (are) not 'performing according to theoretical expectations'" (p. 1679).

The third instrument reviewed was the Job Description Index developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1975). The JDI was an indirect survey of job satisfaction, asking the respondent to describe his or her job rather than his feelings about it.

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1975) established the definition of job satisfaction as "feeling a worker has about his job" (p. 12). Further, they said that the frame of reference was all important to the understanding of these feelings.

Frame of reference is the internal standard (or standards) a person uses in making an evaluation. This standard is related to his prior experience, his set (of predilection) for making a given response, his expectations and his threshold for change in a given stimulus dimension (p. 13).

Three dimensions were addressed as relates to "frame of reference" in the study. The first was time perspective. Is the attitude of the subject based on long-term considerations over years, for instance, or over a more short-term time frame such as an hour during work? The second dimension had to do with absolute and relative measures. An absolute measure of salary was considered to be a more global information base as the average salary for the position in the United States; whereas, a relative measure involves a comparison with the worker's salaries in his office. The final dimension accounted for in their study was a continuum of descriptive versus evaluative measures. The evaluative measure asked the subject to make an inference about good or bad; a descriptive measure required the instrument's authors to make that judgment in the construction of the instrument. The construction of the instrument was designed to take these things into account (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1975, pp. 15-23).

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1975) agreed that job satisfaction was made up of many factors. Their research supported the inclusion in their instrument of five different areas: work, pay, promotions, supervision, and co-workers. They accepted that the list was incomplete but stated that

they felt "that these five areas of satisfaction are of primary importance across the range of conditions we wish to study" (pp. 26-30).

The JDI was designed as five different scales. In each scale a list of words was given and the individual was asked to describe his work rather than his feelings about his work. Regarding emotions, the authors felt it to be much easier to be specific about an aspect of work than ". . . an internal state of feeling, particularly for less verbal and for poorly educated subjects" (p. 71).

The Supervision Scale is one of the five scales. It consisted of 18 items to which the respondent was asked to answer "yes," "no," or "?." Those answers "yes" and "no," which were answered in the "satisfied" direction, were awarded three points. Those items answered in the "dissatisfied" direction were given zero points. Indecision was allowed by choosing the "?" as the answer and one point was awarded, thus, leaning towards dissatisfaction. Figure 2.13 describes these responses and their awarded points. The concept of positive and negative responses was added to protect from leading the subjects. Thus, in the Supervision Scale there were eight positively worded items and ten negatively worded items.

From this description, two questions presented themselves. First, what was the degree of reliability and

validity of this instrument? Secondly, if only one scale (i.e., Supervision) was utilized, how would that methodology affect the validity of the instrument?

<u>Response</u>	<u>Weight</u>
Positive answer (yes or no)	3
Neutral answer (?)	1
Negative answer (yes or no)	0

Figure 2.13. Weights for Direct Scoring of Job Description Index (JDI) Items.

Source. P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin (1975), The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, p. 79.

Five studies were conducted by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1975) to determine what items and scales were to make up the final JDI. The result for the scale, Supervision, utilizing 18 items was median item validity of .50 and median item intercorrelation of .29 with a range of -.16 to .78, which demonstrated a positive relationship to all other items and to the total score for the instrument (1969, p. 73). The validity of the scale was degraded somewhat because the scale did not come with adequate instructions to the teachers. These instructions were subsequently added.

Little outside testing had been carried out. DeWine and Pearson (1985) reported an internal consistency of .77 on the

supervision scale. They further reported that the average reliability score using coefficient alpha, based on five other studies was .86. No validity testing was reported. The average number of subjects on each study was 219, with 18% being teachers.

IV. SUMMARY

In summarizing the literature, a positive relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction did appear to be widely accepted. Further, there was no discussion presented that refuted the concept that job satisfaction was important to the motivation, effectiveness, and efficiency of any employee. However, what was lacking was research establishing the effect leadership style had on job satisfaction with populations differentiated by any other category other than career or level of responsibility. No research was extant that differentiated a population by philosophy or religion.

Regarding instrumentation, the literature basically supported the construction of a straightforward, self-reporting demographic survey instrument to be typical of most research because of the unique requirements of most studies. Secondly, three instruments could be found that allow for an understanding of leadership styles under the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory. The use of the

Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire XII would require an interpolation for scoring to look at relationship between levels of initiating structure behavior and consideration behavior. The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description was developed by Hersey and Blanchard for use as a seminar teaching tool. The longer Leader Behavior Analysis was developed as a research tool, as it had 20 questions and 5 questions for each style rather than 12 questions with only 3 items for each style.

Finally, three instruments were discussed that asked the respondent to describe his or her job satisfaction with regard to his or her supervisors. The Survey of Organizations had only one question specifically keyed to job satisfaction and the supervisor. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire had four scales that would require interpolation to come out with an understanding of job satisfaction as relates to supervisory personnel. The Job Description Index had a scale, Supervision, that stood alone with respect to reliability.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the methodology for constructing the study will be delineated. This will be detailed in four sections: Population, Instrumentation, Procedures, and Analysis.

II. POPULATION

This research was designed to study the total population of principals in charge of schools which were members of the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools (TACS) and a maximum of six teachers who have spent at least one year under the supervision of the principal. TACS records indicated that there were 67 principals or administrators of Christian fundamentalist schools during the year of the study. Where more than six teachers were available, principals were to choose the two teachers who had served with the principal the most number of years, the least number of years but at least one year, and two teachers who have been with the principal for the average number of years of the entire faculty having over one year of service. No consideration was given to the total length of service of each teacher in this study.

III. INSTRUMENTATION

Principal and Teacher Identification Questionnaires

Two identification questionnaires were constructed for both the principals and the teachers as identical images of each other with one exception. The teacher questionnaire had an additional question regarding the number of years of experience the teacher had while serving with the principal in the study. The questionnaire was designed to provide data that might give insight into any trends found in the study of the relationship of leadership style to job satisfaction. See Appendices A through K for examples of these questionnaires and other survey documentation.

Leadership Behavior Analysis (LBA)

The Leader Behavior Analysis was the instrument chosen to ascertain the leadership style. It was chosen over the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire XII because the LBA was designed for research purposes predicated on Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership theory. Therefore, no interpolation of scores was necessary to relate the findings to Situational Leadership theory. Secondly the LBA was chosen over the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description because the LEAD was designed as a seminar instrument and the LBA for research. The LBA forms were chosen for financial considerations and the verbal

promise of (validity and reliability data by Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated; however, the validity and reliability data were never received.)

The author of the LBA according to the main office of the Blanchard Leadership Institute was Dr. Drea Zigarmi. On repeated occasions, information regarding the validity and the reliability of the LBA were sought by letter and by telephone. Dr. Zigarmi did not send the promised data nor did he make himself available for a telephone interview. Reviewing the standard sources for such data (e.g. Burros Mental Measurement Yearbook) produced no information regarding the instrument. An interview was obtained from Stacy C. Stewart, an organizational effectiveness consultant, who at one time worked for Dr. Blanchard and Dr. Zigarmi. At the time of the interview, he was utilizing the Situational Leadership theory and this instrument in his work. He said that no standard reliability or validity testing was ever conducted on the instruments prior to their publication for commercial use. Also, it was not possible to use the Leader Behavior Analysis II as the instrument was developed after the date of the data collection for this project.

In order to obtain a description of the leadership style of each principal as perceived by self-report and by a review of his subordinates, the responses were interpreted

as described in Figure 3.1. The LBA-Self and the LBA-Other were developed to use the same interpretation key. The situations and answers were worded in either the self-report style or other-report style.

<u>QUESTION NUMBER</u>	<u>S 1</u>	<u>S 2</u>	<u>S 3</u>	<u>S 4</u>
1	A	C	D	B
2	A	C	B	D
3	A	B	C	D
4	C	B	D	A
5	D	A	C	B
6	A	C	D	B
7	B	D	A	C
8	C	B	A	D
9	D	B	A	C
10	B	C	D	A
11	B	C	D	A
12	A	C	B	D
13	B	C	D	A
14	D	B	A	C
15	A	C	B	D
16	B	D	C	A
17	B	D	A	C
18	A	B	C	D
19	B	D	A	C
20	D	A	C	B

Figure 3.1. Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA) Style Effectiveness Scoring Key.

Source. Blanchard, Hambleton, Forsyth and Zigarmi (1981), Leader Behavior Analysis: Scoring Directions, Escondido: Blanchard Training and Development, Inc., p. 1.

Job Description Index, Scale: Supervision (JDIS)

The interpretation of the Job Description Index, Scale Supervisor (JDIS) was based on the assignment of

points for positive, negative and neutral answers to the items on the survey questionnaire. (See Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3.) The expected scores under the assumptions of Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1975) for the supervision subscale were interpreted as follows. As can be seen in Figure 3.2, a score of 54 was the maximum positive score (18 items X three points). A score of 18 was assumed to have described indifference. A balanced attitude (27 points) was represented by a score midway between a perfect negative (0 points) and a perfect positive score. The adjusted neutral point was a score extrapolated from comparison of responses of the JDIS and the Descriptive Faces Test.

<u>Description</u>	<u>Score</u>
Maximum Positive Attitude	54
Indifference	18
Balanced Attitude	27
Adjusted Neutral Point	33
Maximum Negative Attitude	0

Figure 3.2. Weights for Direct Scoring of the Job Description Index (JDI) Items.

Source. P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin (1975), The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, p. 79.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Score</u>
Asks my advice	Y
Hard to please	N
Impolite	N
Praises good work	Y
Tactful	Y
Influential	Y
Up-to-date	Y
Doesn't supervise enough	N
Quick-tempered	N
Tells me where I stand	Y
Annoying	N
Stubborn	N
Knows job well	Y
Bad	N
Intelligent	Y
Leaves me on my own	Y
Lazy	N
Around when needed	Y

Figure 3.3. Supervision Scale Code with Satisfaction Answers.

Source. P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin (1975), The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, p. 83.

IV. PROCEDURES

Each school identified for the study was mailed a survey packet consisting of a principal's subpacket and six teacher's subpackets as outlined in Appendix A. A letter of introduction signed by the executive director of the Association (Appendix B) and a letter of endorsement signed by the president of the Association (Appendix C) were provided along with a letter of general instructions (Appendix D) to each principal. In the principal's

subpacket, each principal was sent a letter of instructions (Appendix E), a Principal's Identification Questionnaire (Appendix F), an LBA-Self (Appendix G) and a self-addressed, stamped envelope for the return of the documents. Each teacher received a letter of instruction (Appendix H), a Teacher's Identification Questionnaire (Appendix I), an LBA-Other (Appendix J) and a Job Description Index, Subscale Supervision (Appendix K). One teacher was designated as a collector for the data and was to mail all teacher packets back in an enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Sixty-nine packets were mailed out to the schools listed in the Tennessee Association of Christian School's directory of schools in April. By early May, 41 completed packets were returned. Two packets came back marked undeliverable. Subsequent investigation revealed that these two schools had closed their doors.

During mid May, follow-up phone calls were made to the other 26 institutions to request their participation. Six more completed packets were returned, making a total of 47 packets returned for inclusion in this study. Four packets were rejected because critical portions of the instruments had not been completed.

V. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

As discussed earlier seven study questions were formulated for this study. The method of analysis was described for each question.

Question 1. Was there a difference in the perceptions of teachers and principals as to the style or styles of leadership characteristics of the principals? The data were compared in a simple matrix format indicating the agreement and disagreement of principals and teachers.

(For purposes of this study, all the teachers who served with one leader were grouped by finding the mean score to all numerically coded answers.) This grouping was utilized because of the research on Vertical Dyad Linkage Model of Leadership by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), Graen and Cashman (1975) and Liden and Graen (1980). (The theory postulated that leaders differentiated among their subordinates in what was termed an exchange trichotomy of in-group, middle-group and out-group. The in-group received more attention, support and better tasks from the leader, while the middle-group received less and the out-group received the more formal communications and the less interesting or rewarding jobs.) It seemed most probable, according to this research, that the best way to understand subordinate perspectives concerning any one leader was to

have several subordinates respond and draw from that a composite profile of the leader and his styles.

Question 2. Were there any similarities between the use of multiple leadership styles or the use of single leadership styles and the job satisfaction of the teachers? For the purposes of this study, the mean points between the score of indifference and the maximum and minimum scores were utilized to distinguished between satisfaction, indifference and dissatisfaction with the job supervisor. Thus the following ranges have been established for the satisfaction indentifiers: 54-37 points was established as the range of satisfaction; 36-10 as the range of indifference and 9-0 as the range of dissatisfaction.

Question 3. Were the teachers and principals in agreement regarding the behavior of the principals as to whether one was consistently using a single style approach or a multiple style approach? The comparison was made by utilizing the teacher groups composite rating from a straight mean score and the principal's self-report.

Question 4. Were the perceptions of the teachers and the principals in a high degree of agreement with regard to the leadership styles established by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) indicating a dominate style used by the principals? Each teachers' group response was coded as either agreement, partial agreement or disagreement. The first and the last

categories are self-explanatory. The category partial agreement was defined as either the principal or a teacher group seeing a double dominate style (e.g., 1, 2). This was possible because the definition of leadership styles was based on a continuum.

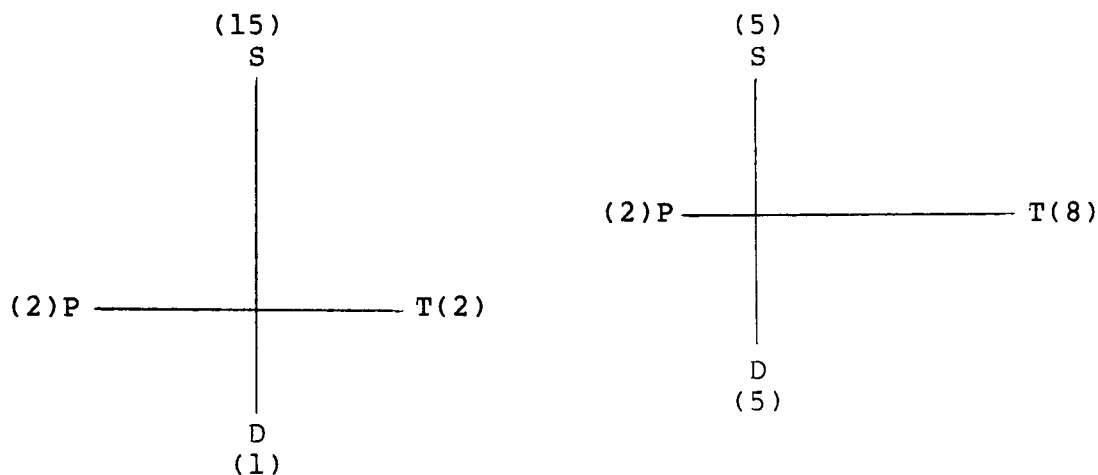
The comparison of actual leadership styles according to the style definitions established by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) was made using the "X, Y" descriptive axis approach, criteria for style were determined in order to describe the dominate leadership style or styles. Each of the four radii represented one of Hersey and Blanchard's leadership styles. Each radius was scaled from 0 to 20 points representing the 20 questions on the Leader Behavior Analysis questionnaire. The criteria for designating a principal as having a certain single style of leadership or combination of leadership styles were based on the idea that the style or styles must account for at least 60% of the total score. Tie scores such as nine S2 responses plus five S1 and five S3 responses would be described as indicating an individual whose dominate style was S1/S2/S3. Teacher groups and principals were said to agree if the same styles from both appear in that 75% criteria. Partial agreement was defined as having at least one common style designated by the teacher group

and the principal. Disagreement was defined as having no common style ascribed to the principal.

Dominance of style was determined by using a two dimensional axis diagram. Each style was placed on an axis: telling on X positive axis, selling on the Y positive, participating on the X negative axis and delegating on the Y negative axis. Each positive and negative axis were given values of from 0 to 20 relating to the number of questions on the LBA instrument. If an instrument indicated that an individual had 12 or more choices of leadership style response on 1 axis and 6 or less on any other axis, the individual was considered to operate in a single style mode. See the definitions section in Chapter I for a more exact statement. All profiles not meeting those criteria were considered to indicate a multiple style mode. Examples of two of these possibilities are found in Figure 3.4.

Question 5. Did principals who used multiple styles of leadership have more formal training in leadership theory than those who used predominately one style of leadership? To answer this question, each of the responding principals was categorized in accordance with their answer regarding level of training and then coded by dominance style. The data were then summarized as a profile.

T=Telling Style
 S=Selling Style
 P=Participating Style
 D=Delegating Style



EXAMPLE: SINGLE STYLE

EXAMPLE: MULTI STYLE

Figure 3.4. Leadership Style Axis Analysis Chart.

Question 6. Did age, sex, level of training, source of training or experience as a principal have any relationship to the use of a single style or multiple style leadership behavior? In answer to this question a comparison of those utilizing a single style and a multiple style was made on each of the comparison categories as described in the question. Age was studied in 5-year intervals beginning with the 20-24 year old teachers, moving up the ladder to the 60 plus old teachers. The areas of sex, level of training, source of training were described utilizing the categories in the questionnaire. Experience

as a principal was compared on the basis of a multiple of 2 years as a principal (e.g., 2 years experience or less, 3-4 years experience).

Question 7. Did age, sex, level of training, source of training or total experience as a teacher or experience with the principal under study have any relationship to the level of job satisfaction of each teacher? The areas of sex, level of training and source of training were described in accordance with the questionnaire. The comparison of age was summarized in 5-year intervals. The total years of experience as a teacher and experience with the principal under study were summarized in 2-year intervals beginning at 2 years or less and going to 21 or more.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

I. INTRODUCTION

Chapter IV is composed of three sections. Section one introduces the reader to the scope of the chapter. Section two contains an analysis of the population by demographic data, leadership data, and job satisfaction data. Section three presents the findings of the study in the framework of the seven research questions designed for this study.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE POPULATION

In this section the data from the surveys are presented in three different subsections: demographic, leadership styles, and job satisfaction. The demographic data were derived from the Principal's Identification Questionnaire (See Appendix F) and the Teacher's Identification Questionnaire (See Appendix I). The leadership styles data were taken from the Leadership Behavior Analysis forms completed and returned by both the principals and their teachers. The job satisfaction information was presented as scores from the Job Description Index, subscale: Supervision (JDIS).

Survey materials were sent to a total of 67 principal/teacher groups. Responses were received from a total of 47 principal/teacher groups with 43 of those useable. No responses were received from 20 principal/teacher groups. Seven replied over the telephone that they would not participate. The remainder indicated that they would.

Non-respondents. In comparing the 24 non-participating principal/teacher groups (20 not responding plus four unusable packets), with the 43 principal/teacher groups whose packets were acceptable, a review indicated that 51% of the schools not participating had pastors for principals while only 21% of the responding schools had pastors for principals. The mean number of teachers for non-responding schools was 6.3 teachers per school with a range of from two teachers to 16 teachers. The mean number for responding schools was 11.6 teachers per school with a range of 2 to 54 teachers. With respect to types of schools, 65% of the non-responding schools were K-12, while 75% of the responding schools were K-12. This compares with the participating schools, in that, of the 43 principal/teacher groups returning usable instruments, only 9 (21%) had less than 4 teachers and only 13 (30%) had other than full-time administrators.

From the 43 principals who returned a completed survey, the following data were presented in order to provide the reader with a multi-faceted portrait of the leaders in this

study. Thirty-three identified themselves as high school principals, four as junior high school principals and seven as elementary school principals. The average years of experience for this group was 4.8 as a principal. The question regarding the highest level of training indicated the population of principals had 3 earned doctorates, 15 masters degrees, 18 baccalaureate degrees, and 4 associate degrees. Only three individuals had not earned a degree. Each individual also reported the source of his highest level of training. Twenty-four were shown as receiving their degree from a Christian university or college, 12 from other universities or colleges, 6 from seminaries and 1 from a Bible school. The average age of all participating principals was 37.6 years. Forty of the 43 principals were males. Lastly, leadership training was described by the participants as follows: 19 had a 3-hour college level course, 1 had leadership training as a part of 3-hour college level course, 5 had written some sort of report on leadership, 13 had attended a seminar on leadership and only 5 reported that they had no formal training at all. See Table 4.1 for a summarization of these data.

A review of the characteristics of the responding teachers can be summarized as follows. Of the 201 teachers responding to the survey, 124 classified themselves as elementary teachers. Another 14 classified themselves as high school teachers, while the remaining 63 identified

Table 4.1. Summary of the Principal Demographic Variables.

Category	Number
Total number participating:	43
Level of administration: Elementary	7
Junior High	4
Senior High	32
Average years of experience:	4.8
Highest level of training: Doctorate	3
Masters	15
Baccalaureate	18
Associate	4
No Degree	3
Source of highest level of training:	
Christian Univ/Col	24
Other Univ/Col	12
Seminary	6
Bible School	1
Average Age:	37.6
Number of Males:	40
Females:	3
Types of Leadership Training:	
Three hours+, college	19
Part of college class	1
Directed Research	5
Seminar	13
None	5

themselves as senior high school teachers. The teaching experience of all the teachers averaged 6 years. The average amount of teaching experience with the current principal as supervisor came to 2.4 years. The preponderance of the teachers, 140, had a baccalaureate degree. Twenty-four teachers had earned masters degrees, while 3 had associate level degrees and 34 had not completed

a degree. The source of the academic preparation showed that 121 teachers received their training from Christian universities and colleges. Another 60 teachers received their degrees from other than Christian universities and colleges. Four teachers had seminary degrees and six teachers had Bible school degrees. Ten teachers did not indicate which type of institution, if any, was their source of training. The average age of the teachers was 46.3 years. One hundred forty-seven teachers were female and 54 teachers were male. A presentation of these data is found in Table 4.2.

III. PRESENTATION OF SURVEY DATA

The purpose of this study was to describe the leadership styles of fundamentalist school principals in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools and the satisfaction of teachers serving in the school of the principals. In order to fulfill this purpose, seven research questions were formulated regarding the perceived leadership styles of the principals (self and teacher perception) and the teacher's description of satisfaction based on their immediate supervisors.

Question 1. Was there a difference in the perceptions of teachers and principals as to the style or styles of

Table 4.2. Summary of Teacher Demographic Variables.

Category	Number
Total Number of Teachers Participating:	201
Level of Teaching: Elementary	124
Junior High School	14
Senior High School	63
Average Years of Experience:	6.0
Average Years of Experience with Principal:	2.4
Highest Level of Training: Doctorate	0
Masters	24
Baccalaureate	140
Associate	3
No Degree	34
Source of Highest Level of Training:	
Christian Univ/Col	121
Other Univ/Col	60
Seminary	4
Bible School	6
Not Indicated	10
Average Age:	46.3
Number of Males:	54
Females:	147

leadership characteristics of the principals? Each school was treated as a unit using the Vertical Dyad design concept. The teachers of each of the 43 schools were matched with principal with whom they served. The teachers' scores from the LBA-Other instrument were used to calculate an unweighted mean at each school.

The data taken from the principals' instruments indicated that 34 principals considered themselves as having

a multiple leadership style mode, while nine principals' choices indicated a single leadership style mode. The teachers' profiles of the principals indicated some variation. The teachers perceived 38 principals as having multiple leadership styles and 5 principals were reported as having single leadership style modes. In 13 instances there was a disagreement between the teachers and the principal as to whether the multiple or single leadership style was the mode of the principal.

In 30 instances both the principal and the teacher groups agreed the principal used a multiple leadership style. In eight cases the principals described themselves as single style leaders, seven operating mainly in the participating style and one in the selling style, while the teachers from the school perceived the principal to be utilizing multiple styles of leadership. In contrast, four cases where the principals described themselves as a multiple style leader, their teachers indicated in three instances the principal operated in the single style of participating and one instance as selling. In only one case of disagreement, both the principal and the teachers perceived the principal's style as being single. The principal described his style as selling, while the teachers described his style as participating. In no instance was there an agreement by a principal and teachers that the

principal used a particular single style of leadership (e.g., both perceived the principal to operate as an S2 single style leader). (See Table 4.3.)

Table 4.3. Comparison of Principal and Teacher Perceptions of the Principals' Leadership Style(s).

		Teacher	
		Single	Multiple
Principal	Single	Agree 1	Disagree 8
	Multiple	Disagree 4	Agree 30

However, a more detailed analysis revealed that the 68% (30 of the 43 cases) agreement was indeed misleading as to level of style agreement. As described earlier, the Hersey and Blanchard theory portrayed leadership styles to be on a continuum of activity levels divided between task-oriented (TO) behavior and relationship oriented (RO) behavior. The illustration of this continuum concept was redefined to include the idea of meaningful communication. This implication was that not all contact or communication can be categorized as TO or RO. Rather some communication was neutral in this respect.

Based upon this conceptualization, if boundaries were quantified in order to demonstrate the continuum, a set of boundaries were established as indicated in Figure 4.1.

<u>Style</u>	<u>From</u> <u>TO%/RO%</u>	<u>To</u> <u>TO%/RO%</u>
S1	100/00	76/ 24
S2	75/25	25/ 75
S3	24/76	00/100
S4	25/25	00/ 00

Figure 4.1. Illustration of Leadership Style Behavior Continuum.

This illustration did not adequately describe S4 behavioral relationships because of the neutral time concept described above.

This illustration better described the perception of the principal's leadership style by both groups in the study. It allowed the analysis of the disagreeing groups to demonstrate that the disagreements in perceptions were relatively small. When the principals perceived their style as single and the corresponding teacher group described it as multiple or vice versa, both described the principal utilizing either the S2 or S3 styles which on the continuum met at the 75% TO/ 25% RO behavior boundary. When one principal and the teacher group described the principal as having a different single style, again the two styles were

S2 and S3. Thus, it was demonstrated that there was a much higher level of agreement on the leadership style of the principal.

Secondly, it was found that a high degree of homogeneity of agreement existed between the superiors and subordinates as to leadership style of the principals. This qualifying question allowed for the continuation the analysis of the relationship of job satisfaction to leadership styles rather than focusing on other factors that might impinge on the outcome of the study such as communication, or reliability of the data collected.

The findings associated with the next three questions were discussed separately, but the analysis of the findings was made for the three together at the end of question four.

Question 2. Were there any similarities between the use of multiple leadership styles or the use of single leadership styles and the job satisfaction of the teachers? This was analyzed using the 43 teacher groups. Using the mean score (36) on the JDI between the point of indifference and the maximum score as the minimum cutoff score for satisfaction, a review of the data presented 100% of the teacher groups as satisfied. The average size of the teacher groups was 4.52. The mean score of the 43 groups of teachers regarding job satisfaction was 46.34. (See Table 4.4.) This rating was well above even the adjusted neutral

Table 4.4. Number of Teacher Groups Described As Satisfied, Undecided, or Dissatisfied.

Description	Range (JDI)	Number of Teacher Groups
Satisfied	37-54	43
Undecided	10-36	0
Dissatisfied	0- 9	0

point extrapolated from the Descriptive Faces Test (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1975).

Question 3. Were the teachers and principals in agreement regarding the behavior of the principals as to whether one was consistently using a single style approach or a multiple style approach? The comparison was made by utilizing the teacher group's composite rating from a mean score and the principal's self-report. In 30 of the 43 teacher groups (70%), the teachers agreed with the principal's self-report of a multiplicity of styles. Four teacher groups perceived the principal as having a single style described as participating (S3) while the principal perceived himself as having a multiple style approach. Also one teacher group described the principal as having the selling style (S2) instead of the self-reported multiple leadership style. In seven cases, the principals perceived

themselves having a single style. In five cases the principals described themselves as participating (S3) and in one case selling (S2) instead of having a multiple style as described by the teacher groups. Only once did the teacher group perceive the principal as having a different single style. The teacher group described the principal as having a selling (S2) approach while the principal described himself as using the participating (S3) style. (See Table 4.5.)

Question 4. Were the perceptions of the teachers and the principals in a high degree of agreement with regard to the leadership styles established by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) indicating a dominate style used by the principals? The respondents indicated that 28 of 43 (65%) teacher groups and principals agreed on the dominate leadership styles of the principal. The other 15 teacher groups and principals (35%) partially agreed. Therefore, no groups disagreed completely. An interesting note to this question was that in 100% of the cases the teacher groups described the participating style (S3) as the dominate style or one of the dominate styles. The principals agreed 93% (40 of 43 responses) of the time. Also, the scoring indicated that 95% (41 of 43 responses) of the faculty groups described their principal as having the selling style (S2). In 37 of

Table 4.5 Comparison by Style of Principals' and Teachers' Perception of the Principals' Leadership Styles.

Number of Groups	Principals' Perceptions	Teachers' Perceptions
30	Multiple Styles	Multiple Styles
5	Multiple Styles	Participating Style (S)
7	Participating Style (S3)	Multiple Styles
1	Selling Style (S2)	Multiple Styles

43 times (86%), the principal perceived himself as having a selling style (S2) also. (See Table 4.6 and Table 4.7.)

The purpose of the first three research questions just presented was to look at the findings from slightly different perspectives. The first looked for a difference between multiple and single style leaders and the job satisfaction outcomes. Questions three and four added the perspective by first qualifying the perception of single or multiple style agreement between the principals and the corresponding teacher groups. The second step was to determine if agreement existed on style dominance. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) theorized that each individual will have a style that dominates his leadership behavior.

Table 4.6. Leadership Style Perception Agreement/Disagreement.

Style	Number	Percent
Agreement	28	65
Partial	15	35
Disagreement	0	0

Table 4.7. Leadership Style Perception Analysis.

Style	Principal's		Teachers'	
	Number	%	Number	%
1	0	0	0	0
2	1	2.3	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
1/2	2	4.7	0	0
1/3	5	11.6	0	0
1/4	0	0	0	0
2/3	26	60.5	33	76.6
2/4	0	0	0	0
3/4	0	0	2	4.7
1/2/3	8	18.6	6	14.0
1/2/4	0	0	0	0
2/3/4	0	0	2	4.7
1/2/3/4	1	2.3	0	0

Thus, an analysis of the findings demonstrated that regardless of the perspective with which the data were viewed, a strong positive relationship existed between job satisfaction and leadership exhibiting the S2 or S3 styles.

The common factor that immediately was displayed from the finding was that of the high consideration or high relationship behavior being the common thread. This analysis agreed with the studies cited earlier. In Barnard's study (1983) a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and, by interpolation, high relationship behavior was found. House, Filley and Kerr (1971) found a significant positive relationship with high consideration (S2 or S3) behavior and job satisfaction. The same relationship was confirmed by Green (1975). Jermier and Berkes (1979) found the relationship to exist in police command bureaucracies.

Question 5. Did principals who used multiple styles of leadership have more formal training in situational leadership theory than those who used predominately one style of leadership, was the fifth question. The purpose of question number five was to describe the level of formal leadership training of each principal and compare these with the principal's perception of his leadership style, single or multiple. Of the 43 principals, 2 principals did not answer the question. Utilizing again the 60% criterion on the "X,Y" axis definition that was used in question number 1, the 41 principals were divided into two groups: 8 in the single style category and 33 in the multiple style category. Of the 8 in the single style category, 5 attended a traditional 3-hour course on leadership, while 2 attended a

seminar lasting from 1 hour to 10 days. One principal indicated he had received no formal leadership training. Of the 33 who considered themselves as multiple style principals, 12 indicated that they had had a traditional 3-hour course in leadership. One indicated that leadership studies had been a part of a traditional leadership course. Five principals said they participated in a formal writing requirement regarding leadership while 13 responded that they had attended a seminar lasting from 1 hour to 10 days. Only two principals reported no formal studies in leadership. (See Table 4.8.) It was concluded, therefore, that neither the level of formal education nor source of education was the true source of choice of leadership behavior.

Question 6. Did age, sex, level of training, source of training or experience as a principal have any relationship to the use of single or multiple style leadership behavior? In question number 6, the goal was to describe the principals who saw themselves as single style leaders and describe the principals who saw themselves as multiple style leaders. Utilizing these descriptions, a comparison was done to determine the differences between the two groups. Again, using the 60% criterion, 8 individuals were

Table 4.8. Leadership Style of the Principals by Self-Report Compared to Type of Formal Training in Leadership.

	A	B	C	D	E
Single	5	0	0	2	1
Multiple	12	1	5	13	2

^aThe preceding column headings came from Question 7 of the Principal's Identification Questionnaire: A = Traditional 3-hour course on leadership, B = Part of a Traditional 3-hour course, C = Report (dissertation, thesis, independent study), D = Seminar (one hour to ten days), and E = None.

determined to be single style leaders and 35 were included in the multiple style leaders. Using age intervals of 5 years, beginning at 25-29 years of age, it is observed that 5 (63%) of the single leaders fell into the category of 30-39 years of age (see Table 4.9). In the multiple style group, 19 of 36 leaders fell into the 30 to 39-year old age bracket. Another seven of the multiple style leaders (16%) were found in the 45 to 49 year old age group.

A comparison of the style of each leader to gender was very simple, in that, 42 of the 43 principals were male with the female describing herself as a multiple style leader.

Table 4.9. Principal's Perception of Style of Leadership Compared to Age.

Age/ Style	20- 24	25- 29	30- 34	35- 39	40- 44	45- 49	50- 54	55- 59	60+
Single	0	1	3	3	0	1	0	0	0
Multiple	1	3	12	7	1	7	1	1	2

When investigating the level of training, the single leadership style group questionnaires showed 6 (75%) to have attained a bachelors degree. However, in the case of the multiple style leaders, 33% (12) had bachelors degrees and 42% (14) had masters degrees. (See Table 4.10.)

The source of the highest level of training for the single style leader showed 63% trained in Christian universities or colleges and 25% in other universities or colleges. One individual did not answer this question. Of the multiple style leaders, 49% took their degree from a Christian university or college and 34% (12) received their highest level of formal education from another university or college. (See Table 4.11.)

Table 4.10. Principal's Perception of Style of Leadership Compared to Level of Training.

Level	1	A	B	C	D	E
Style						
Single		0	1	6	0	1
Multiple		3	14	12	4	2

^aThe column headings were taken from Question 3 of the Principal's Identification Questionnaire: A = Doctors Degree, B = Masters Degree, C = Bachelors Degree, D = Associates Degree, and E = No Degree.

Table 4.11. Principal's Perception of Style of Leadership Compared to Source of Highest Level of Training.

Source	A	B	C	D
Style				
Single	5	2	0	0
Multiple	17	12	4	2

^aFrom Question 4 of the Principal's Identification Questionnaire the preceding column headings were taken: A = Christian University or College, B = Other University or College, C = Seminary, and D = Bible School.

^bOne principal from each style grouping failed to indicate a source of highest level of training.

The number of years of experience question displayed a fairly even spread of experience, mainly in the first 10 years. Of those principals with multiple styles, 89% of the individuals had ten years of experience or less. (See Table 4.12.)

Therefore, the analysis of the findings indicated that the background variables of age, sex, education or experience did not, in and of themselves, offer any predictability.

Question 7. Did age, sex, level of training, source of training, total experience as a teacher or experience with the principal under study have any relationship to the job satisfaction of the teacher? The goal was to compare the characteristics of each teacher on the basis of whether or not each was satisfied, undecided or dissatisfied in his current position.

Utilizing scores on the Job Description Index, Supervisor's Subscale (JDIS), each individual teacher was categorized on the following basis: satisfied = 37-54 points; undecided = 10-36 points; and unsatisfied = 0-9 points. Of the 201 teachers who responded, 171 (85%) were classified as satisfied and 30 (15%) teachers were classified as undecided with no one classified as dissatisfied.

Table 4.12. Principal's Perception of Style of Leadership Compared to Years of Experience.

Yrs of Exp/	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14	15-16	17-18	19-20	21+
Style											
Single	2	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Multpl	7	14	5	4	1	2	1	0	1	0	0

^aYears of experience numbers are to be read as equal to so many years or less (e.g., 2 = two years or less experience).

In comparing the ages of those undecided with those satisfied, the undecided fell into an age range of 20 to 44. In the same age bracket for the satisfied teachers, there were 151 individuals out of the 171 (88%) of the satisfied teachers. (See Table 4.13.)

A review of the data on the gender of the teachers yielded results that indicated 84% (46) of the male teachers were satisfied as were 86% (125) of the female teachers. Only 16% of the males and 14% of the females fell into the undecided category. The index did not indicate that anyone, male or female was dissatisfied. (See Table 4.14.)

The highest level of training category for the satisfied teachers showed 13% (22) had masters degrees, 69%

Table 4.13. Teacher Satisfaction Level Compared to Age.

Age	15- 19	20- 24	25- 29	30- 34	35- 39	40- 44	45- 49	50- 54	55- 59	60- 64	65+
Sat	1	18	56	34	26	17	10	5	1	1	2
Und	0	5	14	7	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Dis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

^aExplanation of row headings: Sat = Satisfied with job, Und = Undecided as to whether satisfied or not, and Dis = Dissatisfied with job.

Table 4.14. Teacher Satisfaction Level Compared With Gender.

	Male	Female
Satisfied	46	125
Undecided	9	21
Dissatisfied	0	0

(118) had bachelors degrees, 2% (3) had associates degrees and 16% (28) had not completed one of the above described degrees. Of those described as undecided, 7% (2) had masters degrees, 77% (23) had bachelors degrees, none had associate degrees, and 16% (5) had not received one of the described degrees. (See Table 4.15.)

Table 4.15. Teacher Satisfaction Level Compared with Highest Level of Training.

Degree	A	B	C	D	E
Satisfied	0	22	118	3	28
Undecided	0	2	23	0	5
Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	0

^aFrom the Question 4 of the Teacher's Identification Questionnaire came the preceding column headings: A = Doctors Degree, B = Masters Degree, C = Bachelors Degree, D = Associates Degree, and E = No Degree.

An investigation of the source of these degrees for satisfied teachers, indicated that 63% (101) had received their degrees from Christian universities or colleges, 32% (52) came from other colleges and universities, 2% (4) had seminary degrees only and 2% had Bible school degrees. Only 7% (20) had not attended one of the schools listed in the questionnaire. For those whose score indicated an undecided attitude regarding job satisfaction, 68% went to Christian universities or colleges. Another 25% attended other universities or colleges. Only 7% went to Bible schools while no one attended a seminary. (See Table 4.16.)

Table 4.16. Source of Highest Level of Training for Teachers.

Source	A	B	C	D
Satisfied	101	52	4	4
Undecided	19	7	0	2
Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0

^aFrom Question 5 of the Teacher's Identification Questionnaire came the column headings: A Christian University or College, B = Other University or College, C = Seminary, and D = Bible School.

^bTwelve individuals did not respond: Satisfied n=161 and Undecided n=28.

The next two questions were utilized to investigate the experience factors of the responding teachers. First, in reviewing the total experience of the satisfied teachers, the following data were gathered: 23% (39) had 2 years of experience or less, 26% (45) had 4 or less years of experience, 18% (31) had 6 years or less and 9% (15) showed 8-years experience or less, and with 10-years experience or less, there are 6% (11). The undecided teachers fell into the first 10-years as follows: 27% (8) with 2-years total experience, 24% (7) with 4-years total experience, and 31% (9) with 6-years experience or less. (See Table 4.17.)

Table 4.17. Total Years of Experience.

Years	1- 2	3- 4	5- 6	7- 8	9- 10	11- 12	13- 14	15- 16	17- 18	19- 20	21+
Sat	39	45	31	15	11	9	2	9	4	3	3
Und	8	7	9	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

^aExplanation of row headings: Sat = Satisfied with job, Und = Undecided as to whether satisfied or not, and Dis = Dissatisfied with job.

^bOne Undecided individual did not respond: n=29.

The last part of the question dealt with the number of years a teacher had served with the principal being rated. For the group that indicated satisfaction with their leadership who had 2 years of service or less, the count is 115 for a total of 70%, 25 teachers (15%) with 4 years or less of experience serving with the same principal, 15 teachers (9%) with 6-years experience or less with the same principal, and 6 teachers (4%) with 8-years experience or less. Of the 30 teachers who indicated undecidedness regarding job satisfaction, 17 of them (57%) had 2 years or less experience with the rated principal, 10 (33%) had 4-years experience or less. (See Table 4.18.)

Table 4.18. Total Years of Experience with Principal.

Years	1- 2	3- 4	5- 6	7- 8	9- 10	11- 12	13- 14	15- 16	17- 18	19- 20	21+
Sat	115	25	15	6	1	3	0	0	0	0	0
Und	17	10	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

^aExplanation of row headings: Sat = Satisfied with job, Und = Undecided as to whether satisfied or not, and Dis = Dissatisfied with job.

^bSix satisfied individuals did not respond: n=165.

Therefore, analysis of the findings indicated that the factors of age, sex, experience, or education had no significant effect on the satisfaction of teachers as it relates to a principal's style of leadership.

In summary, a review of the findings indicated that the predominate leadership behavior of the principals was characterized by a multiple style as defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). Moreover, the principals' behavior was characterized by high relationship activities. All teacher groups described themselves as being satisfied with the principals' supervision. The findings presented above were the same for all background variables for both principals and teacher groups.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. INTRODUCTION

Chapter V is composed of six sections. The first section introduces the reader to the scope of the chapter and describes the remaining sections in order of their presentation.

Section two is a summary of the study. Section three presents the a summary of the significant findings of the study. Section four describes the conclusions that can be drawn from this study. Section five presents the recommendations for further study in the area of leadership styles and its effects on job satisfaction in academic schools having a fundamentalist philosophy.

II. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken to discover and describe principal leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction in academic schools whose basic philosophical approach to life comes from a heavily value laden subgroup in our society termed Christian fundamentalists. It was established earlier that sociologists saw this group as utilizing a predominately authoritarian style of leadership.

The Tennessee Association of Christian Schools was chosen as the population for this study. The data were obtained by means of a survey of both the principals and the teachers from the participating 43 academic schools of the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools. Each principal was asked to fill out a background questionnaire and Leader Behavior Analysis-Self designed by Blanchard and Zigarmi (1981) in order to determine the principals' perceived leadership styles. The teachers were administered a background questionnaire, the Leader Behavior Analysis-Other and the Job Description Index, Subscale: Supervision to determine the teachers' perception of the principal's leadership style and the teachers' satisfaction in serving with that leader.

Forty-three principal/teacher groups of the 67 schools surveyed (64%) responded with 201 teachers making up the 43 teacher groups. Teacher groups are defined as from two to six teachers serving with a particular principal.

III. FINDINGS

From the data obtained through the questionnaires, seven questions were addressed. The first five questions dealt primarily with the description of leadership styles and job satisfaction of the subjects. The last two questions sought to determine if any relationships existed

between the answers gained from the first five questions and the background of the principals and teachers.

Seventy percent of the teacher groups were in agreement that their corresponding principal characteristically used multiple styles of leadership on a regular basis. Regarding the disagreements over the perceptions of use of multiple or single styles, 19% of the teacher groups thought that the principal utilized multiple styles while the principal thought he was basically a single style user. On the other hand, 9% of the teacher groups thought that the principal was single styled in his leadership while, the principal saw himself as multiple styled.

All teacher groups reported satisfaction; therefore, no significant difference was noted between the principals who utilized the single and the multiple leadership styles.

There was no significant difference between the groups of teachers in agreement on leadership styles and level of job satisfaction.

All principals were coded by the teacher groups as having as a dominate style either selling style (S-2) or participating style (S-3). All the principals saw the selling style (S-2) or participating style (S-3) as one of their dominate styles.

No definite pattern of educational background differentiated the principals who were categorized as using multiple style of leadership and those using the single styles.

The comparison of background data for those principals coded single style by self-report and those coded multiple style showed no significant differences with respect to age, sex, education or experience.

The comparison of background data on each teacher group and the levels of satisfaction with their principals was not accomplished since the level of satisfaction of each teacher group was the same. Therefore with respect to age, sex, education or experience, no evidence of trends could be assessed.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

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

1. Teachers in the schools whose philosophies arose from this heavily value laden subgroup of Christian fundamentalists were satisfied with their principal's leadership behavior. The leadership styles that appeared most often with satisfied teacher satisfaction results were

the selling style (S-2) and the participating style (S-3) styles in this population. This led to the conclusion that this subculture did not respond differently from the global population as presented in the literature review.

2. There was an extremely high degree of satisfaction among the teacher groups along with a virtual absence of dissatisfaction. This result coupled with the finding that an extremely high number of the principals had a dominant style of leadership that was relationship oriented, led to the conclusion that these behaviors were highly important to job satisfaction. While this does not contradict the Hersey and Blanchard model, it must be remembered that Hersey and Blanchard did not attempt to predict or suggest the frequency of situations that required the different leadership styles. Thus, the human relations approach to leadership effectiveness was supported by the findings.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Two areas of concern arose from this study that suggested further research. First, given the design of the study, the utility of the data set would be strengthened if a larger sample of teachers were required in the teacher groups. Further, some consideration should be given to the size of the institution. Although there appeared to be no

great differences, it was noted that larger organizations tended to be more decentralized in management approaches which may relate to the leadership styles.

Second, (these findings apparently contradicted the conclusions drawn from the sociological studies presented earlier.) In Chapter I, the conclusion of Peshkin (1986) after his 18 months of observation was that the dominant style of leadership was the authoritarian or telling style, as defined in the theoretical terms of Hersey and Blanchard (1982). (Numerous other authors supported the same conclusion, that fundamentalist leaders led by an authoritarian approach. Further research should be conducted to clarify this apparent contradiction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SURVEY PACKAGE

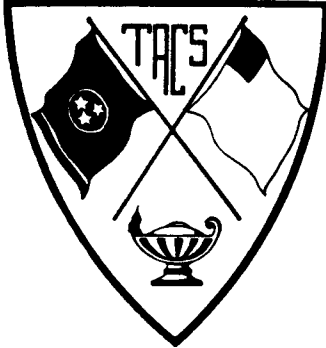
SURVEY PACKETS

The following list is the contents of the packets sent to the schools:

1. Letter of Introduction: Dr. Charles E. Walker, Executive Director, Tennessee Association of Christian Schools
2. Letter of Endorsement: Dr. Bob Kelly, President, Tennessee Association of Christian Schools
3. Letter of General Instructions
4. Principal's Packet
 - a. Letter of Instructions
 - b. Identification Questionnaire
 - c. Leader Behavior Analysis-Self
 - d. Self-addressed, stamped envelope
5. Teachers' Packet (six of each)
 - a. Letter of instructions
 - b. Identification Questionnaire
 - c. Leader Behavior Analysis-Other
 - d. Job Description Index: Subscale: Supervision
 - e. Self-addressed, stamped envelope

APPENDIX B

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION



Tennessee Association of Christian Schools

7706-A Colemere Dr. Chattanooga, Tennessee 37416

April 28, 1984

Phone (615) 894-3307

Principals and Teachers
Tennessee Association of Christian Schools

Dear Brothers and Sisters:

Our treasurer, Brother Bill Henry, is in the last stage of his doctoral studies in educational administration. He has requested our help in the gathering of data for his dissertation. I took the liberty of telling him that we would be more than happy to cooperate.

Brother Bill is doing a mail-out survey. I ask you to choose six teachers according to the letter of instructions as soon as possible and meet with them to complete the questionnaires as soon as possible. In order to have an effective survey, each person must keep his or her response confidential. Further each school's results will be confidential.

As you know our association has gained a great deal of respect across the state over the past two years because we have demonstrated our desire for quality in education and because we work together. Many mail-outs in other organizations have a low percentage of return because they have just the opposite characteristics. Let's demonstrate these God honoring characteristics again in giving Brother Bill a 100% response.

In Christ,

Charles E. Walker
Charles E. Walker
Executive Director

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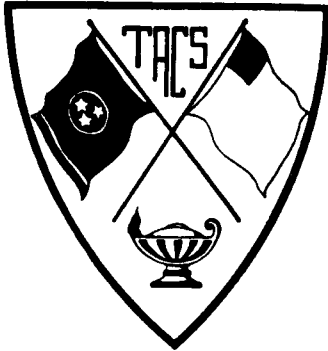
James Spikes
Memphis

ATHLETIC CO-ORDINATOR

Del Wubbens
Tri-Cities

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF ENDORSEMENT



Tennessee Association of Christian Schools

7706-A Colemere Dr. Chattanooga, Tennessee 37416

Phone (615) 894-3307

April 28, 1984

Principals and Teachers
Tennessee Association of Christian Schools

Dear Brothers and Sisters:

As your president, I want to take this time to add my endorsement to Brother Charles' request that we come to the aid of Brother Bill Henry. This needs to be accomplished for two very important reasons.

First, Brother Bill has been our treasurer since 1978. He has the most time-consuming job of all the officers. Without any remuneration, he faithfully discharges his duties to us as a good servant. I believe that the filling out of the questionnaires and returning them as soon as possible is one of the best ways we can say thank you for Brother Bill's dedication to us all.

Secondly, I believe that we never arrive at the point where there is no more room for improvement in us as leaders. I believe this project has good potential for helping us upgrade our abilities as leaders and thus be more effective servants of our Lord Jesus Christ.

So let's do our best! Let's strive for a 100% response to Brother Bill's plea! As always I will be praying for us all, as we continue to be the kind of servants that our Lord Jesus so ably demonstrated for us and is calling us to be.

In Christ,

Bob Kelley
President

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

President
Dr. Bob Kelley
Murfreesboro

Vice-President
Dave Aumiller
Memphis

Secretary
J. Frank Bruce
Nashville

Treasurer
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Nashville
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Benny Bagwell

Tri-Cities
Lonnie Hammond
David Young

HONOR SOCIETY CO-ORDINATOR

James Spikes
Memphis

ATHLETIC CO-ORDINATOR

Del Wubbena
Tri-Cities

APPENDIX D

LETTER OF GENERAL INSTRUCTION

Brainerd Baptist School

P. O. BOX 8099

300 BROOKFIELD AVENUE CHATTANOOGA, TENN. 37411

TELEPHONE 815-622-3873
April 28, 1984

Dear

As a doctoral student at the University of Tennessee, I am doing my dissertation research, studying the relationship of leadership to teacher job satisfaction among the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools' principals and teachers. I am asking for your help and that of six (6) of your faculty to complete this study.

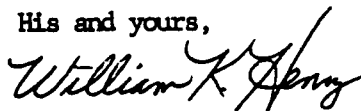
Enclosed you will find a principal's packet and a teacher's packet for the six teachers in your school. The questionnaires should be filled out completely and returned to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelopes.

Complete confidentiality will be observed with regard to the data I receive. For the purpose of the study's validation, I must ask that each teacher be allowed to fill out the questionnaires without consulting anyone else. Then one of the six teachers should collect them and place them in the larger envelope, then mail it directly to me.

I will be glad to send you an abstract of these research results after the dissertation is completed, if you so request.

Thank you, my friend, and please thank your participating faculty members for your time. May our Lord Jesus bless you richly for your kindness towards me.

His and yours,



William K. Henry
Matthew 25:40

APPENDIX E

LETTER OF INSTRUCTION TO PRINCIPALS

LETTER OF INSTRUCTIONS FOR QUESTIONNAIRES

TO: Principal

DATE: April 28, 1984

1. GENERAL. Enclosed you will find seven (7) sets of questionnaires. One is tagged "Principal." The other six (6) are tagged "Teacher." Please choose six teachers to fill out the six teacher questionnaires as follows:

- A. Two (2) teachers who have been with you as a principal at this school for the longest times.
- B. Two (2) teachers who have been with you as a principal at this school for the shortest times.
- C. Two (2) teachers who have been with you as a principal at this school for the average times of all the teachers at this school.

NOTE: If three teachers who fit into the same category of A, B or C above, were hired at the same time and you have two females and one male, choose the one male and draw lots between the two females. If three teachers are of the same gender fit into one of these categories, then draw lots among the three of them.

2. TEACHERS' SURVEY. Notify the teachers of a time when they can all meet together, during or after school. Designate one teacher to read the instructions found on the teachers' survey packet. After the surveys are filled out, ask that same teacher to collect all the surveys, place them in the large Manila envelope which is provided, and mail it directly back to me.

3. PRINCIPAL'S SURVEY. Take the surveys tagged "Principal" and read the instructions on the Principal's Identification Questionnaire. Fill out that questionnaire and then read the instructions on the Leader Behavior Analysis-Self questionnaire. Fill out this questionnaire. Place the completed surveys into the white, business size envelope and mail it.

4. THANK YOU!

Bill

APPENDIX F

PRINCIPAL'S IDENTIFICATION QUESTIONNAIRE

NO. _____

PRINCIPAL'S IDENTIFICATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions:

1. Principal of: (Circle correct answer/s) Elementary Jr. Hi. Sr. Hi.
2. Years of experience as a principal: _____
3. Highest level of training: (Circle one)
 - A. Doctors Degree
 - B. Masters Degree
 - C. Bachelors Degree
 - D. Associates Degree
 - E. No Degree
4. Source of highest level of training: (Circle one)
 - A. Christian University or College
 - B. Other University or College
 - C. Seminary
 - D. Bible School
5. Age: _____
6. Sex: _____
7. Extent of formal training in leadership: (Circle one)
 - A. Traditional three hour course on leadership
 - B. Part of A above
 - C. Report (dissertation, thesis, independent study)
 - D. Seminar (one hour to ten [10] days)
 - E. None

Thank you for filling out this questionnaire. Please turn to the Leader Behavior Analysis-Self, read the instructions and complete it.

APPENDIX G

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS-SELF



Leader Behavior Analysis

Developed by Kenneth H. Blanchard, Ronald K. Hambleton, Drea Zigarmi and Douglas Forsyth

Self Perceptions of Leadership Style

Directions:

The purpose of the LBA-Self is to provide you with information about your perceptions of your own leadership style. The instrument consists of twenty typical job situations that involve a leader and one or more staff members. Following each situation are four possible actions that a leader may take. Assume that you are the leader involved in each of the twenty situations. In each of the situations you must choose one of the four leader decisions. CIRCLE the letter of the decision which you think would most closely describe **YOUR** behavior in the situation presented. Circle only one choice.

btd Blanchard Training
and Development, Inc.

A Human Resource Development Company

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(619) 489-5005

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6th Printing

E F G

(Form A)

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS-SELF

<p>1. You have asked one of your subordinates to write a report concerning the acquisition of some new equipment for your division. He usually can be given an assignment and it is completed on time with encouragement from you. The report is now overdue. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Tell him you want the report, explain what you want in the report, and check on his performance daily.</p> <p>b. Give him more time to complete the assignment.</p>	<p>c. Tell him what you expect, when you want the report completed, but discuss with him why the report is late.</p> <p>d. Talk to him and encourage him to complete the report.</p>
<p>2. The interdepartment task force which you manage has been working hard to complete its division-wide report. One of your task force members has been late for the last five meetings. He has offered no excuses or apologies. Furthermore, he is way behind in completing the cost figures on his department. It is imperative that he present these figures to the task force within the next three days. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Tell him exactly what you expect and closely supervise his work on this report.</p> <p>b. Discuss with him why he has been late, and support his efforts to complete the task.</p>	<p>c. Emphasize when the cost figures are due and support his efforts.</p> <p>d. Assume he will be prepared to present the cost figures to the task force.</p>
<p>3. In the past, you have had a great deal of trouble with one of the people you supervise. She has been lackadaisical, and only your constant prodding has brought about task completion. However, you recently have noticed a change. Her performance has improved and you have had to remind her of meeting deadlines less and less. She has even initiated several suggestions for improving her performance. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Continue to direct and closely supervise her efforts.</p> <p>b. Continue to supervise her work, but listen to her suggestions and incorporate those that seem reasonable.</p>	<p>c. Incorporate her suggestions and support her ideas.</p> <p>d. Let her take responsibility for her own work.</p>
<p>4. Your group usually functions effectively with encouragement and direction from you. In the last few weeks, their performance has dropped drastically. They are not meeting deadlines and the quality of their work is unacceptable. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Let the group work out their problems by themselves.</p> <p>b. Make sure that deadlines are met and the quality of the work is good, but talk with the group to get its recommendations.</p>	<p>c. Inform the group of exactly what you expect, when it is needed, and supervise their work closely.</p> <p>d. Help the group determine what they need to do and encourage them to take the necessary steps.</p>
<p>5. Because of budget restrictions imposed on your department, it is necessary to consolidate. You have asked a highly experienced member of your department to take charge of the consolidation. This person has worked in all areas of your department. In the past, she has usually been eager to help. While you feel she has the ability to perform this assignment, she seems indifferent to the importance of the task. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Take charge of the consolidation but make sure you hear her suggestions.</p> <p>b. Assign the project to her and let her determine how to accomplish it.</p>	<p>c. Discuss the situation with her. Encourage her to accept the assignment in light of her skills and experience.</p> <p>d. Take charge of the consolidation and indicate to her precisely what to do. Supervise her work closely.</p>
<p>6. A highly productive and efficient woman on your staff has asked for your help on a task. She is accustomed to working effectively on her own. Recently, some work problems have developed that she feels she can't solve by herself. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Analyze the problems and outline methods to solve them.</p> <p>b. Continue to allow her to figure out an appropriate solution independently.</p>	<p>c. Determine and implement an appropriate solution, but work with her in problem-solving.</p> <p>d. Discuss the problems with her and support her efforts to find appropriate solutions.</p>

7. You have asked one of your senior employees to take on a new job. In his other responsibilities, he has performed adequately with moderate supervision and support from you. The job you have asked him to do is important to the future of your work group. He is insecure and doubts he can handle the new job. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Discuss the job with him, supporting his ability to do it.
 - b. Define the activities necessary to successfully complete the job and supervise his work closely.
 - c. Let him determine how to do the job.
 - d. Specify what he is to do, but solicit any ideas he may have.
8. One of your staff is feeling insecure about a job you have assigned to him. He is highly competent and you know that he has the skills to complete the assignment successfully and efficiently. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Listen to his concerns and let him know you have confidence in his ability to complete the assignment.
 - b. Structure the assignment so that it is clear, but consider any helpful suggestions he may have.
 - c. Tell him exactly what to do to get the job done and check his work daily.
 - d. Let him figure out how to do the assignment on his own.
9. Your staff has asked you to consider a change in their work schedule. In the past, you have encouraged and supported their suggestions. In this case, your staff is well aware of the need for change and is ready to suggest and try an alternate schedule. Members are very competent and work well together as a group. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Allow staff involvement in developing the new schedule and support the suggestions of group members.
 - b. Design and implement the new schedule yourself, but incorporate staff recommendations.
 - c. Allow the staff to formulate and implement the new schedule on its own.
 - d. Design the new schedule yourself and closely direct its implementation.
10. You have arrived ten minutes late for a meeting with your staff. Based on their past performance, you expected a great deal of socializing to be going on. You were surprised, however, to find the group enthusiastically discussing the assigned task. This task is very different from other tasks the group has worked on. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Let the group work on the task without any direction from you.
 - b. Take control immediately and direct the group.
 - c. Direct their interactions toward task completion, but encourage group discussion.
 - d. Let the group continue to discuss the assigned task and provide as much support as possible.
11. A member of your department has had a fine record of accomplishment with your support and encouragement but little direction. He has been given similar tasks to accomplish for the coming year and you must decide how to supervise him. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Let him function by himself providing his own support and direction.
 - b. Emphasize to him the importance of meeting deadlines and direct his efforts at accomplishing assigned tasks.
 - c. Talk with him and set goals and objectives for his task accomplishment, but consider his suggestions.
 - d. Involve him in setting goals and support his efforts.
12. In the past, you worked closely with your staff directing and supporting their efforts. Productivity is high and people get along well together. Recognizing their abilities, you feel they can now work more on their own. You have redirected your energies to new areas and they have continued to produce good results. You must now ask them to accept additional work. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Assign the work to them, make sure they know exactly what to do, and supervise them closely.
 - b. Give them the job. Tell them that you are pleased with their past performance and that you are sure they will do well with this assignment.
 - c. Make sure they know what you want them to do, but incorporate any helpful suggestions they may have.
 - d. Let them determine how to complete the assignment.
13. You have recently been assigned a new employee who will perform an important job in your office. Even though he is inexperienced and lacks confidence in this area, you feel he has the potential to do the job. YOU WOULD . . .
- a. Let him determine what to do.
 - b. Tell him exactly what the job entails, what you expect of him and supervise him closely.
 - c. Let him know what you want him to do, but see if he has any recommendations.
 - d. Encourage him to do the job and support his efforts.

<p>14. Your boss has asked that your division increase its productivity 10%. You know this can be done, but it will require your active involvement. To free yourself to do this, you must reassign the task of developing a new cost control system to one of your divisional employees. The person to whom you are thinking of assigning the task has had considerable experience with cost control systems, but she is a little unsure about doing this task on her own. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Ask her to take on the project. Encourage and support her efforts.</p> <p>b. Discuss the project with her. Explain how you want the job done, but see if she has any ideas.</p>	<p>c. Assign her the project and let her determine how to do it.</p> <p>d. Assign her the project and prepare a detailed memo explaining all the steps necessary to get the project done.</p>
<p>15. One of your subordinates has made a suggestion for change in the operations of the unit that makes sense to you. In the past, she has been able to offer and implement other helpful suggestions in a productive manner with your support and encouragement. You have confidence in her abilities. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Take charge of the suggestion and direct her in its implementation.</p> <p>b. Discuss the suggestion with her, and support her efforts to direct its implementation.</p>	<p>c. Organize the implementation, but include her ideas.</p> <p>d. Give her the responsibility for implementing the suggestion without involvement from you</p>
<p>16. Due to illness in your family, you have been forced to miss the first two meetings of a committee under your direction. You have found, upon attending the third meeting, that the committee is functioning well and making good progress toward completion of its goals. You are unsure about how you fit into the group and what your role should be. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Attend, but let the group continue to work as it has during the first two meetings.</p> <p>b. Assume the leadership of the committee and begin to direct its activities.</p>	<p>c. Do what you can to make the committee feel important and involved, and support their past efforts.</p> <p>d. Direct the activities of the group, but incorporate group members' suggestions</p>
<p>17. Your staff is very competent and able to work well on their own. You have generally left them alone and delegated key responsibilities to individual members. Their performance has been outstanding. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Provide continual support and encouragement to group members.</p> <p>b. Direct and closely supervise the activities of your staff.</p>	<p>c. Continue to let the group work on its own</p> <p>d. Direct their efforts, but work closely with your staff to solicit their suggestions.</p>
<p>18. You and your superiors have decided that a new procedure has to be installed in your department if long-term gains in performance are to be obtained. In the past, when new procedures were installed, your group has been eager to use them but has initially lacked the skills to do so. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Closely direct the group in the use of the new procedure.</p> <p>b. Make sure that you direct the implementation of the new procedure, but involve the group in discussion.</p>	<p>c. Get the group involved in a discussion of the procedure and encourage their cooperation and involvement.</p> <p>d. Allow the group to implement the new procedure on its own.</p>
<p>19. You have been recently appointed the head of a division. Under the division's former boss, the staff has functioned adequately with considerable supervision and support. Since you have taken over, however, the staff appears to be more concerned with social activities than with carrying out their responsibilities. The staff's performance to date has been poor. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Discuss the low performance with the staff and support their efforts to specify corrective measures.</p> <p>b. Define roles and responsibilities and supervise their work closely.</p>	<p>c. Allow staff members to define their own responsibilities and tasks.</p> <p>d. Direct and organize the necessary corrective action, but make sure staff members' suggestions are heard.</p>
<p>20. One of your employees is eager to take on a new assignment. She has had little experience in the area in which she wants to work. She has done a good job with other tasks you have given her. YOU WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Explain to her what she must do, but support her enthusiasm for the new assignment.</p> <p>b. Give her the assignment and let her determine the best way to do it.</p>	<p>c. Encourage her to try the job and support her efforts.</p> <p>d. Tell her exactly what must be done to successfully complete the assignment and closely supervise her.</p>

APPENDIX H

LETTER OF INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS

LETTER OF INSTRUCTION FOR QUESTIONNAIRES

TO: The Six (6) Teachers

DATE: April 28, 1984

1. THANK YOU! Thank you ahead of time for your time. This survey with its three questionnaires is designed to help us administrators to improve our professional abilities. Your candor is important. This information will be used without identifying you personally, your principal or your school specifically. In order to facilitate this confidentiality, I am asking you to place your questionnaires in the Manila envelope as you leave this meeting and I am asking the teacher designated by the principal to mail it directly. My professors will be impressed by this effort to protect the validity of this study.

2. QUESTIONNAIRES. Enclosed you will find three (3) questionnaires. Please fill them out, following the instructions on each questionnaire, in the following sequence:

- A. Teacher Identification Questionnaire
- B. Leader Behavior Analysis-Other
- C. Job Description Index, Supervision Scale.

3. MAILING. Please your completed questionnaires in Manila envelope which is provided self-addressed and stamped. If you could take the envelope to the post office nearest you, it would expedite its return.

4. THANK YOU again! May our Lord Jesus richly bless you for your kindness towards me and your help in making Christian education better.

His and yours,



William K. Henry
Matthew 25:40

APPENDIX I

TEACHER'S IDENTIFICATION QUESTIONNAIRE

NO. _____

TEACHER'S IDENTIFICATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions:

1. Teaching currently in: (Circle correct answer/s)
A. Elementary B. Jr. Hi. C. Sr. Hi.
2. Years of teaching experience overall: _____
3. Years of teaching experience serving with the current principal of this school: _____
4. Highest level of training: (Circle one)
A. Doctors Degree
B. Masters Degree
C. Bachelors Degree
D. Associates Degree
E. No Degree
5. Source of highest level of training: (Circle one)
A. Christian University or College
B. Other University or College
C. Seminary
D. Bible School
6. Age: _____
7. Sex: _____

Thank you again for filling out this portion of the survey. Please turn to the Leader Behavior Analysis-Other, read the instructions and complete it.

APPENDIX J

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS-OTHER

- Leader's Superior
 Associate
 Subordinate



Leader Behavior Analysis

Developed by Kenneth H. Blanchard, Ronald K. Hambleton, Drea Zigarmi and Douglas Forsyth

Other Perceptions of Leadership Style

Directions:

The purpose of the LBA-Other is to provide a leader with information about your perceptions of his/her leadership style. The instrument consists of twenty typical job situations that involve a leader and one or more staff members. Following each situation are four possible actions that a leader may take.

Assume _____ (name of leader)

is involved in each of the twenty situations. In each of the situations you must choose one of the four leader decisions. **CIRCLE** the letter of the decision which you think would best describe the behavior of this leader in the situation presented. Circle only one choice.



A Human Resource Development Company

2048 Aldergrove Ave., Suite B, Escondido, CA 92025
(619) 489-5005

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D E F G

(Form A)

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS-OTHER

<p>1. A subordinate has been asked to write a report concerning the acquisition of some new equipment for the division. He usually can be given an assignment and complete it on time with a moderate amount of encouragement from this leader. The report is now overdue. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Tell the subordinate when the report was due, remind him of what is wanted in the report, and check on the subordinate's progress daily.</p>	<p>c. Tell the subordinate what is expected, and tell him to complete it as soon as possible, but discuss with him why the report was late.</p>
<p>b. Give the subordinate more time to complete the assignment.</p>	<p>d. Talk to the subordinate and encourage him to complete the report.</p>
<p>2. This leader is in charge of an interdepartmental task force that has been working hard to complete its division-wide report. One of the task force members has been late for the last five meetings. He has offered no excuses or apologies. Furthermore, he is way behind in completing the cost figures on his department. It is imperative that he present these figures to the task force within the next three days. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Tell him exactly what is expected and closely supervise his work on this report.</p>	<p>c. Emphasize when the cost figures are due and support his efforts.</p>
<p>b. Discuss with him why he has been late and support his efforts to complete the task.</p>	<p>d. Assume he will be prepared to present the cost figures to the task force.</p>
<p>3. In the past, this leader has had a great deal of trouble with one of the people in the work group. The employee had a lackadaisical approach, and only constant prodding brought about task completion. However, recently there has been a noticeable change. The individual's performance has improved, and the leader has had to remind her of meeting deadlines less and less. She has even initiated several suggestions for increasing her performance. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Continue to direct and closely supervise her efforts.</p>	<p>c. Incorporate her suggestions and support her ideas.</p>
<p>b. Continue to supervise her work, but listen to her suggestions and incorporate those that seem reasonable.</p>	<p>d. Let her take responsibility for her own work.</p>
<p>4. The group has usually functioned effectively with considerable encouragement and direction from this leader. In the last few weeks their performance has dropped drastically. The group is not meeting deadlines and the quality of their work is unacceptable. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Let the group work out their problems by themselves.</p>	<p>c. Inform the group of exactly what is expected, when it is needed, and supervise the group's work closely.</p>
<p>b. Make sure that deadlines are met and the quality of the work is good, but talk with the group and get its recommendations.</p>	<p>d. Help group members determine what they need to do and encourage them to take the necessary steps.</p>
<p>5. Because of budget restrictions imposed on the department, it is necessary to consolidate. The leader has asked a highly experienced member of the department, who is usually eager to help, to take charge of the consolidation. This person has worked in all areas of the department. While the leader feels the subordinate has the ability to perform this assignment, the subordinate seems indifferent to the importance of the task. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Take charge of the consolidation, but make sure the subordinate's suggestions are heard.</p>	<p>c. Discuss the situation with her. Encourage her to accept the assignment in light of her skills and experience.</p>
<p>b. Assign the project to her and let her determine how to accomplish it.</p>	<p>d. Take charge of the consolidation and indicate to the subordinate precisely what to do. Supervise her work closely.</p>
<p>6. A highly productive and efficient woman on the staff has asked for help on a project. She is accustomed to working effectively on her own. Recently, work problems have developed that she feels she can't solve by herself. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Analyze the problems and outline methods to solve them.</p>	<p>c. Work with her in problem-solving, but determine and implement an appropriate solution.</p>
<p>b. Continue to allow her to figure out an appropriate solution independently.</p>	<p>d. Discuss the problems with her and encourage her to implement any solutions.</p>

<p>7. This leader has asked a senior employee to take on a new job. In his other responsibilities he has performed adequately with moderate supervision and support from the leader. The job the leader has asked him to do is important to the future of the work group. He is insecure and doubts whether he can handle the job. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Discuss the job with him, supporting his ability to do it.</p> <p>b. Define the activities necessary to successfully complete the job and supervise his work closely.</p>	<p>c. Let him determine how to do the job.</p> <p>d. Specify what he is to do, but solicit any ideas he may have.</p>
<p>8. A subordinate is feeling somewhat insecure about a job assigned to him. He is highly competent and this leader knows that he has the skills to successfully and efficiently complete the assignment. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Listen to his concerns and express confidence in his ability to complete the assignment.</p> <p>b. Structure the assignment so that it is clear but consider any helpful suggestions he may have.</p>	<p>c. Tell him exactly what to do to get the job done and check his work daily.</p> <p>d. Let him figure out how to do the assignment on his own.</p>
<p>9. Group members have asked this leader to consider a change in their work schedule. In the past this leader has encouraged and supported their suggestions. In this case, group members are well aware of the need for change and are ready to suggest and try an alternate schedule. They are very competent and work well together as a group. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Allow staff involvement in developing the new schedule and support the suggestions of group members.</p> <p>b. Design and implement the new schedule, but incorporate staff recommendations.</p>	<p>c. Allow the staff to formulate and implement the new schedule on its own.</p> <p>d. Design the new schedule and closely direct its implementation.</p>
<p>10. This leader has arrived ten minutes late for a meeting with the staff. Based on their past performance this leader has expected a great deal of socialization to be going on, but the leader was surprised to find the group enthusiastically discussing the assigned task. This task is very different from other tasks the group has worked on. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Let the group work on the task without any direction and <u>not</u> intervene.</p> <p>b. Take control immediately and direct the group.</p>	<p>c. Direct their interactions toward task completion, but encourage their discussion.</p> <p>d. Let the group continue to discuss the assigned task and provide as much support as possible.</p>
<p>11. A member of the department has had a fine record of accomplishment with support and encouragement but little direction from this leader. The department member has been given similar tasks to accomplish for the coming year and this leader must decide how to supervise him. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Let the subordinate function by himself providing his own support and direction.</p> <p>b. Emphasize to him the importance of meeting deadlines and direct his efforts at accomplishing assigned tasks.</p>	<p>c. Talk with him and set goals and objectives for his task accomplishment, but consider his suggestions.</p> <p>d. Involve the subordinate in setting goals and support his efforts.</p>
<p>12. In the past this leader has worked closely with the staff directing and supporting their efforts. Productivity was high and people got along well together. Recognizing their abilities, this leader felt they could work well with only encouragement. The leader has redirected energies to new areas and the staff has continued to produce good results. The leader must now ask them to accept additional work. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Assign the work to them, make sure they know exactly what to do, and supervise them closely.</p> <p>b. Give them the job. Tell them that past performance has been good and that they will do well with this assignment.</p>	<p>c. Make sure they know what is expected of them, but incorporate any helpful suggestions they may have.</p> <p>d. Let them determine how to complete the assignment.</p>
<p>13. A new employee has been hired to perform an important job in the office. Even though the employee is inexperienced and lacks confidence in this area this leader feels he has the potential to do the job. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Let him determine what to do.</p> <p>b. Tell him exactly what the job entails, what is expected of him, and supervise him closely.</p>	<p>c. Let him know what is expected of him and get his recommendations.</p> <p>d. Encourage him to do the job and support his efforts.</p>

<p>14. Top management has asked that the division increase its production by 10%. The division leader knows that this can be done, but it will require his/her active involvement. In order to become more actively involved, the leader must reassign the development of a new cost control system to an assistant manager. The assistant manager has had considerable experience with cost control systems but is a little unsure about doing the task on her own. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Ask her to take on the project. Encourage and support her efforts.</p>	<p>c. Assign her the project and let her determine how to do it.</p>
<p>b. Discuss the project with her. Explain how the job should be done, but see if she has any ideas.</p>	<p>d. Assign her the project and prepare a detailed memo explaining all the steps necessary to get the project done.</p>
<p>15. A subordinate has made a suggestion for change in the operations of the unit that makes sense to this leader. In the past, she has been able to offer and implement other helpful suggestions in a productive manner with the leader's support. The leader has confidence in her abilities. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Take charge of the suggestion and direct her in its implementation.</p>	<p>c. Organize the implementation but include her ideas.</p>
<p>b. Discuss the suggestion with her and support her efforts to direct its implementation.</p>	<p>d. Give her the responsibility for implementing the suggestion without any leader involvement.</p>
<p>16. Due to illness in the family, this leader has been forced to miss the first two meetings of a committee under his/her direction. Upon attending the third meeting, the leader found the committee functioning well and making good progress toward completion of its goals. This leader is unsure about how to fit into the group and what role should be assumed. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Attend, but let the group continue to work as it has during the first two meetings.</p>	<p>c. Do what can be done to make the committee feel important and involved and support their past efforts.</p>
<p>b. Assume the leadership of the committee and begin to direct its activities.</p>	<p>d. Direct the activities of the group, but incorporate group member's suggestions.</p>
<p>17. The staff is very competent and able to work well on their own. This leader has generally left them alone and delegated key responsibilities to individual members. Their performance has been outstanding. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Provide continual support and encouragement to group members.</p>	<p>c. Continue to let the group work on its own.</p>
<p>b. Direct and closely supervise the activities of the staff.</p>	<p>d. Direct their efforts, but work closely with the staff to solicit their suggestions.</p>
<p>18. Top level management has decided that a new procedure has to be installed in the department if long-term gains in performance are to be obtained. In the past, when new procedures were installed, the department has been eager to use them, but has lacked the skills to do so. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Closely direct the group in the use of the new procedure.</p>	<p>c. Get the group involved in a discussion of the procedure and encourage their cooperation and involvement.</p>
<p>b. Make sure to direct the implementation of the new procedure, but involve the group in discussion.</p>	<p>d. Allow the group to implement the new procedure on its own.</p>
<p>19. This leader has been recently appointed the head of a division. Under the division's former boss, the staff functioned adequately with considerable supervision and support. Since this leader has taken over, however, the staff appears to be more concerned with social activities than with carrying out their responsibilities. The staff's performance to date has been poor. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Discuss the low performance with the staff, and support their efforts to specify corrective measures.</p>	<p>c. Allow staff members to define their own responsibilities and tasks.</p>
<p>b. Define roles and responsibilities and supervise their work closely.</p>	<p>d. Direct and organize the necessary corrective action, but make sure staff members' suggestions are heard.</p>
<p>20. One of the employees is eager to take on a new assignment. She has had little experience in the area in which she wants to work. She has done a good job with other tasks that have been given to her. THIS LEADER WOULD . . .</p>	
<p>a. Explain to her what she must do, but support her enthusiasm for the new assignment.</p>	<p>c. Encourage her to try the job and support her efforts.</p>
<p>b. Give her the assignment and let her determine the best way to do it.</p>	<p>d. Tell her exactly what must be done to successfully complete the assignment and closely supervise her.</p>

APPENDIX K

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX, SUPERVISION SUBSCALE

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX

Supervision Scale

The following list of items describe possible characterizations of your principal. If an item describes your principal, please circle the "Y" for yes. On the other hand if an item does not describe your principal, please circle "N" for no. If you are undecided, please circle the "?" for undecided.

(Instructions adapted but not original to the copy-right work.)

Asks my advice	Y	N	?
Hard to please	Y	N	?
Impolite	Y	N	?
Praises good work	Y	N	?
Tactful	Y	N	?
Influential	Y	N	?
Up-to-date	Y	N	?
Doesn't supervise enough	Y	N	?
Quick-tempered	Y	N	?
Tells me where I stand	Y	N	?
Annoying	Y	N	?
Stubborn	Y	N	?
Knows job well	Y	N	?
Bad	Y	N	?
Intelligent	Y	N	?
Leaves me on my own	Y	N	?
Around when needed	Y	N	?
Lazy	Y	N	?

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VITA

William K. Henry was born February 18, 1948, in Atlanta, Georgia. He is the first born of Dr. James W. and Mrs. Nancy H. Henry. He was educated in the public schools of Chattanooga, Tennessee, graduating from Brainerd High School in 1966.

He received his Bachelor of Science degree in secondary education with an emphasis in social studies from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. After leaving active duty in the Armed Forces, Mr. Henry received his Master of Education degree in educational supervision and administration from The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga.

He has held membership in three professional honor societies: Kappa Delta Pi, Pi Lambda Theta and Psi Chi. Mr. Henry has served in the Tennessee Association of Christian Schools for over ten years. He has been a seminar leader for eight years, president of the Southeastern District for five years, and state treasurer for seven years.

Mr. Henry began his educational career in the United States Army as an officer. He remains in the Army Reserve, having attained the rank of Major. After leaving the active service, Mr. Henry became the Headmaster of Brainerd Baptist School, where he remained for ten years. Currently, Mr. Henry is a pastor of Faith Bible Church and operates Christian Educational Counseling and Consulting Services.