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LEADERSHIP STYLES, MATURITY LEVELS, AND JOB SATISFACTION IN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The University of Oklahoma

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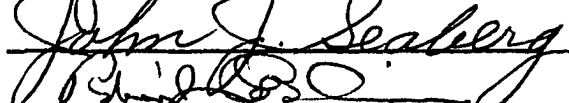
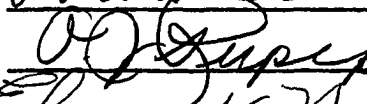
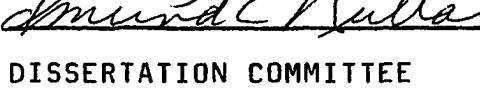
A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY
THAWIN GUAGULWONG
Norman, Oklahoma

1981

LEADERSHIP STYLES, MATURITY LEVELS,
AND JOB SATISFACTION IN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

APPROVED BY


DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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LEADERSHIP STYLES, MATURITY LEVELS,
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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Over the last few decades, there have been various approaches to the study of leadership. Some have concentrated on the differences between democratic and autocratic leadership styles. Others have ranged from a simple analysis of the traits that characterize effective leaders to the studies of task and human relations oriented behavior.

There have also been studies of leadership that emphasized the situational approach in which effective leadership behavior is seen as dependent on a number of situational factors. Situationalism has suggested that a range of leadership styles may be appropriate and that effectiveness is often a function of circumstances.

McGregor developed a theory of human behavior based on assumptions about human nature and human motivation. He called those assumptions Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X assumed that most people preferred to be directed, were not

interested in assuming responsibility, and wanted safety above all. People were motivated by money, fringe benefits, and the threat of punishment. In contrast, Theory Y assumed that people were not, by nature, lazy and unreliable. People could be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. McGregor concluded that Theory X assumptions about human nature were often inaccurate and that management by direction and control might not succeed. He concluded that Theory Y assumptions were more defensible and that management by objectives could achieve organizational goals.¹

In search of the best system of organizational management, Likert developed management styles of organization. He identified the organization as being System 1, System 2, System 3, and System 4. In Likert's theory, System 1 was a task oriented, highly structured authoritarian management style. System 4 was a relationship oriented management style based on teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence. Systems 2 and 3 were intermediate stages between System 1 and System 4. Likert indicated that System 4 seemed to be consistently associated with the most effective performance in every type of organization.²

Research on leadership styles has tended to be bimodal, with one school of thought emphasizing task orientation

¹Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of the Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), pp. 38-48.

²Rensis Likert, The Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), pp. 4-10.

and the other being relationship oriented. Blake and Mouton have applied both of these in their Managerial Grid. In the Managerial Grid, five different types of managerial styles were based on concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationship). Blake and Mouton described the styles as 1, 9; 1, 1; 9, 1; 9, 9; and 5, 5. Team Management or 9, 9 style was considered by these researchers to be the most desirable leader behavior in organizational management.³

Unlike Blake and Mouton, Fiedler argued that either task oriented or relationship oriented behavior could be effective depending on situational variables. This led to a theory called Contingency Leadership Theory. He indicated that:

1. Task-oriented leaders perform best in group situations that are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader.
2. Relationship-oriented leaders perform best in group situations that are intermediate in favorableness, which is defined by the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over the group.⁴

The elementary school principal has the primary responsibility for school operation and proceeding to accomplish the task, functions, or objectives through the teachers' effort. In order to succeed, he or she must have the

³Robert R. Blake and James S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing, 1964), pp. 8-180.

⁴Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 14.

competence to determine and utilize an appropriate leadership style in each situation to achieve educational goals. Getzels and his associates suggested it was important for the principal to understand that the goals of the school must be carried out, and in the meantime, the needs and satisfactions of the teachers must be taken into account. They suggested that the most effective principal was one whose leadership style was what they called "transactional." It involved altering behavior to fit particular circumstances.⁵

Hersey and Blanchard have proposed what they called Situational Leadership Theory which administrators of organizations could use to diagnose the demands of their situation. By responding to the diagnosis, administrators could adapt their behavior to meet demands. Hersey and Blanchard described their concept as follows:

Situational Leadership Theory is based upon an interplay among (1) the amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and (3) the "maturity" level that followers exhibit on a specific task, function, or objective that the leader is attempting to accomplish through the individual or group follower(s).⁶

According to this theory, the leader must first determine the maturity level of the individual or group

⁵Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968), pp. 148-149.

⁶Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977), p. 160.

in relation to a specific task that the leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts. Once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leadership style can be determined and employed effectively in a given situation.⁷

Hersey and Blanchard developed instruments to measure the degree to which a basic leadership style for different levels of maturity was operative in the school organization. Using the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description instrument to measure styles of leader, and based on a curvilinear function in the four leadership quadrants, the four effective leadership styles were labeled as telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The Maturity Scale for measuring maturity level of followers was based on a continuum that ranges from immature to mature. The basic conclusion was that groups with different levels of maturity required different kinds of leadership.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if differences in leadership styles employed by elementary school principals were significantly related to the maturity and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers. In addition, three sub-problems of this study were:

1. To determine whether differences among principals in leadership styles resulted from the influence of selected organizational variables.

⁷Ibid., p. 165.

2. To determine whether the linkage between the leadership styles and the maturity levels of teachers with respect to the Situational Leadership Theory was indeed an important one.

3. To determine whether the job satisfaction of elementary teachers was influenced by the context of leadership styles of the principal and the maturity levels of elementary teachers.

Need for the Study

The interest in and support for situational approaches to leadership are growing. Further study is needed to provide evidence concerning whether or not that support is justified. In particular, the leadership in elementary schools is crucial to the performance of the public school system. Therefore, this study to investigate situational leadership in the context of elementary schools fulfills an important research need.

Definition of Terms

1. Leadership Styles: This term refers to the styles of leaders in the Situational Leadership Theory. The styles are classified as follows:

Style 1. High task/low relationship leader behavior is referred to as "telling."

Style 2. High task/high relationship behavior is referred to as "selling."

Style 3. High relationship, low task behavior is referred to as "participating."

Style 4. Low relationship/low task behavior is referred to as "delegating."⁸

2. Maturity Level: This term refers to the maturity of the teacher in relation to a specific task that the principal is attempting to accomplish through the teacher's effort. Maturity is defined as willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group. The maturity level is classified as low, moderate, and high.⁹

3. Job Satisfaction: This term refers to the job satisfaction of elementary teachers. It includes five particular aspects of the job: work, supervision, people, pay and promotion.¹⁰

Theoretical Framework

The framework for this study is based upon the integration of Situational Leadership Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Motivational-Hygiene Theory.¹¹

⁸Hersey and Blanchard, p. 169.

⁹Ibid., pp. 161-163.

¹⁰P. D. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin, The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement: A Strategy for the Study of Attitudes (Chicago, Ill.: Rand-McNally & Co., 1969).

¹¹Hersey and Blanchard, pp. 307-309.

Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard developed the Situational Leadership Theory as a result of extensive research. This theory is based on the amount of direction (task behavior), and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation, and "the level of maturity" of the follower or group.¹²

Hersey and Blanchard labeled the four basic leadership styles as follows:

Style 1. High task/low relationship leader behavior is referred to as "telling." This style is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when, and where to do various tasks.

Style 2. High task/high relationship behavior is referred to as "selling." With this style, most of the direction is still provided by the leader. He or she also attempts, through two-way communication as socio-emotional support, to get the follower(s) psychologically to buy into decisions that have to be made.

Style 3. High relationship/low task behavior is called "participating." With this style, the leader and follower(s) now share in decision-making through two-way communication and much facilitating behavior from the leader since the follower(s) have the ability and knowledge to do the task.

¹²Ibid., pp. 159-186.

Style 4. Low relationship/low task behavior is labeled "delegating." The style involves letting follower(s) "run their own show" through delegation and general supervision since the follower(s) are high in both task and psychological maturity.¹³

Maturity is defined in Situational Leadership Theory as the capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement-motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group. These variables of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed.¹⁴

Situational Leadership Theory is illustrated in Figure 1.

¹³Ibid., pp. 169-170.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 161-163.

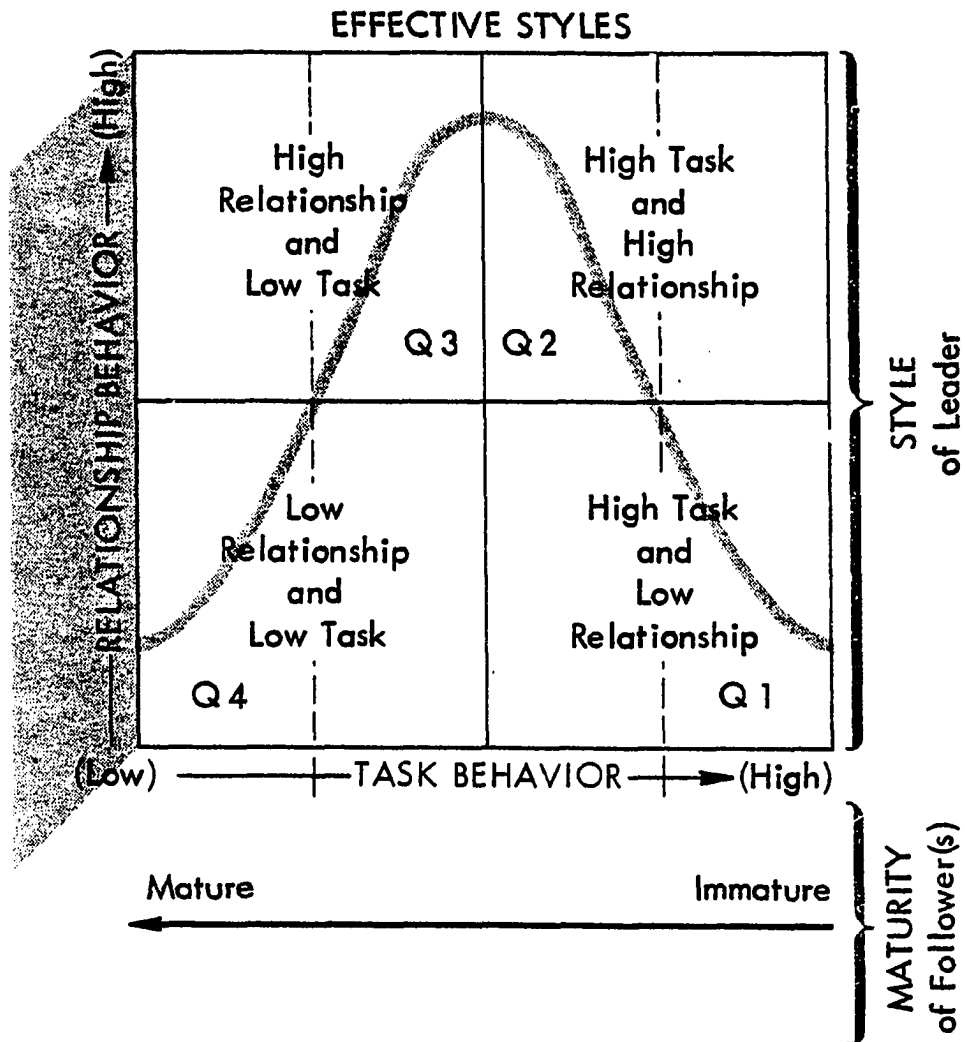


Figure 1. SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY¹⁵

(Selected from P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 164.)

¹⁵Ibid., p. 164.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow devised a theory which many consider an explanation of human motivation. He identified five basic need areas which he divided into two types of needs: the lower level needs and the higher level needs. The Physiological and Safety needs were considered as the lower level needs. The Social, Esteem, and Self-Actualization needs were defined as the higher level needs. The five basic needs are ranked in hierarchical order as illustrated in Figure 2.

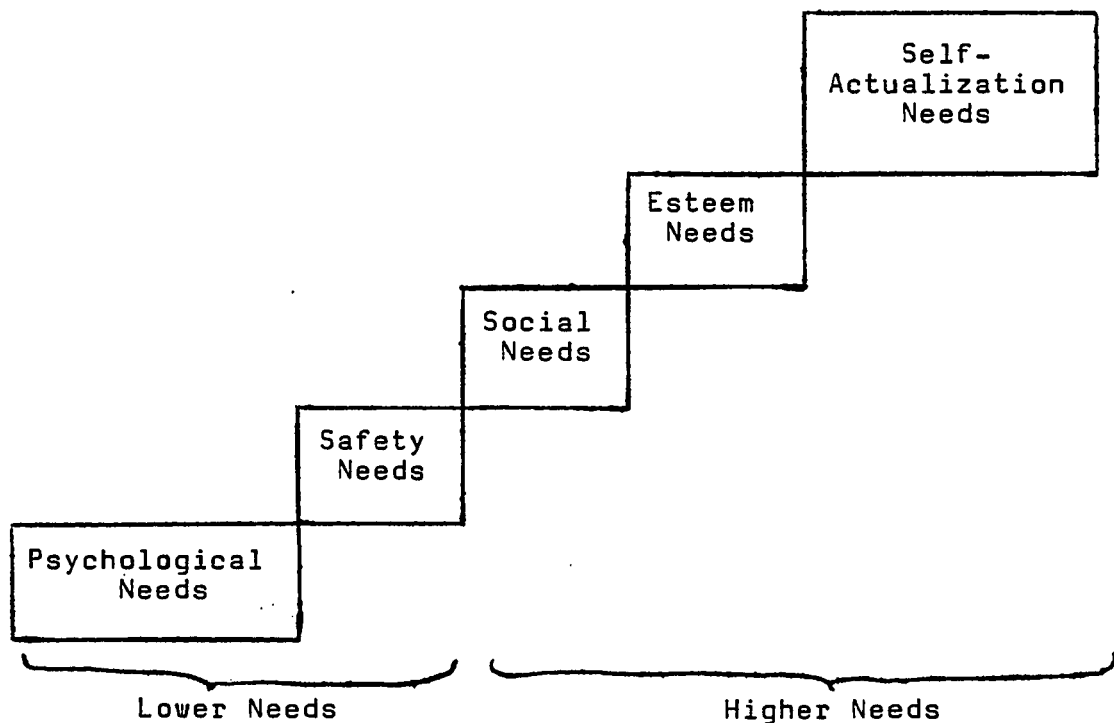


Figure 2. MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

(Adapted from A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality.)

According to Maslow, individuals tend to satisfy their needs according to the need's position in the hierarchy. Therefore, the lower needs are satisfied first and the higher needs are satisfied next. Maslow felt that this hierarchy was a typical pattern which operated most of the time. He acknowledged that there were exceptions to this general tendency.¹⁶

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

In extensive studies, Herzberg found that there existed hygiene and motivational factors associated with the job situation. He discovered that some factors associated with the job, when absent, served to dissatisfy employees. Herzberg termed these factors "hygiene" factors because they were essential in maintaining a reasonable amount of satisfaction in employees. Likewise, he determined that there existed other factors which, if present, built strong motivation and high job satisfaction. Their absence rarely proved to be strong dissatisfiers.

Herzberg determined that the motivational factors were specifically related to the job itself. These job-centered motivators were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. These were the five factors that contributed primarily to job satisfaction.

¹⁶A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1970).

He found that hygiene factors were primarily related to the environment external to the job. These hygiene factors included policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships and working conditions. These were the five factors as contributing primarily to job dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg, any job satisfaction associated with hygiene factors is short lived . . . with passage of time, a deficiency recurs. For example, a salary increase has a temporary effect. Eventually, an employee becomes dissatisfied with the new wage level.¹⁷

Hersey and Blanchard took Herzberg's motivation-hygiene model and Maslow's need hierarchy into account, and indicated their similarities as shown in Figure 3.

¹⁷Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959).

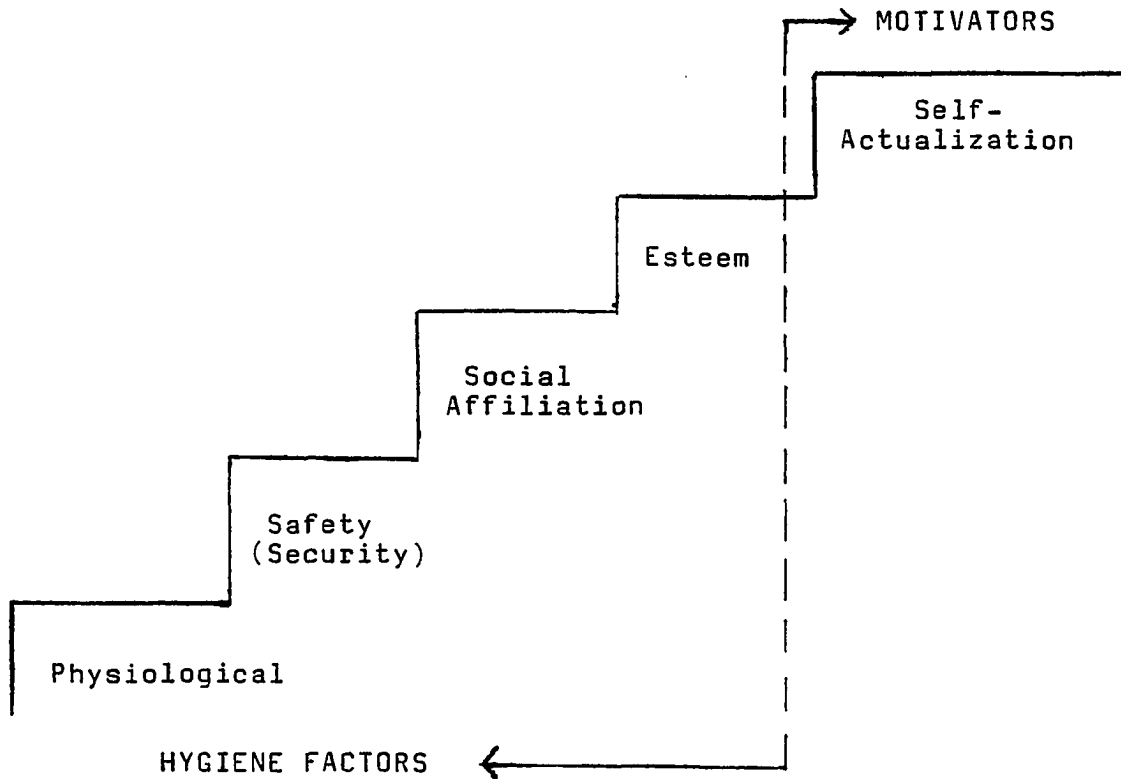


Figure 3. The relationships between the motivation-hygiene theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs.¹⁸

(Adapted from P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 67.)

The integration of Situational Leadership Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory is illustrated in Figure 4.¹⁹

¹⁸Hersey and Blanchard, p. 67.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 308.

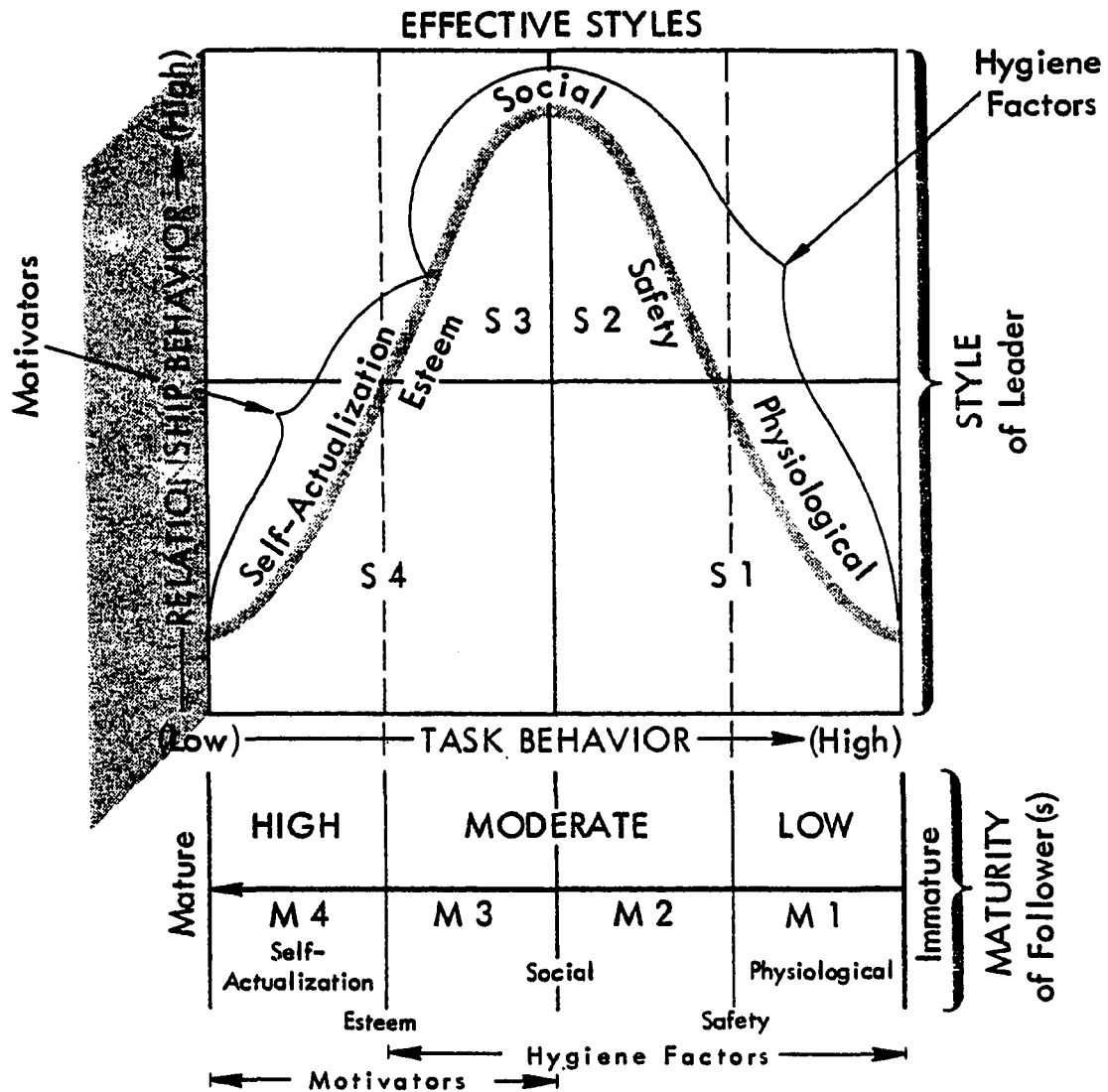


Figure 4. Relationship between Situational Leadership Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory.

(Selected from P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 308.)

Situational Leadership Theory refers to the context of leadership styles and the maturity levels. The context of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory refers to the job satisfaction. The integration of these theories leads to formalizing the general hypothesis of the study as follows:

There exists a significant relationship between leadership styles employed by elementary school principals and the maturity levels and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers.

Organization of the Report of the Study

This study is organized and presented in five chapters. Chapter I is a description of the study and includes background of the problem, statement of the problem, need for the study, definition of terms, and theoretical framework. Chapter II is a review of related literature. Chapter III is a methodology and includes hypotheses to be tested, a description of the instruments, and a detailed report of the data collection procedure. Chapter IV presents an analysis of data. Chapter V presents a summary of the study, the conclusions and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Leadership was first viewed as involving psychological factors inherent to leaders themselves. A later phase of leadership study emphasized sociological factors related to the group being led. Finally, the focus moved to behavioral studies involving the relationship between leader behavior and effectiveness.

Psychological Studies of Leadership

Lipham described the psychological studies as being based on the recognition that an individual's behavior is determined by his unique personality structure.¹ Historically, the search for desirable personal qualities turned from a listing of traits to the use of "scientific" measures of personality. Many investigators developed a variety of devices to measure leadership qualities.

Thurstone administered a figures test of perception and a card-sorting test to federally employed executives.

¹James M. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," Chapter VI, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, ed. Daniel E. Griffiths, The Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 119-141.

He found that successful executives scored higher than unsuccessful ones, both in accuracy of perception and in ability to differentiate among categories in sorting cards.²

Chapple and Donald constructed a machine, called an interaction chronograph, which measured certain verbal and nonverbal behaviors of an individual during a structured interview. They concluded that supervisors excelled in the following characteristics: initiative, dominance, speed of interaction, and adjustment to the interview situation.³

Stogdill examined 124 leadership studies on the relationship of personality factors to leadership. He concluded:

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. Thus, leadership must be conceived in terms of the interactions⁴ of variables which are in constant flux and change.

Similarly, Gibb stated that numerous studies of leaders have failed to find any consistent pattern of traits which characterize leaders. He also noted that the failure resulted from inadequate measurement, lack of comparability

²L. L. Thurstone, A Factorial Study of Perception (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1944), pp. 140-141.

³Eliot D. Chapple and Gordon Donald, Jr., "A Method for Evaluating Supervisory Personnel," Harvard Business Review, XXIV (Winter, 1946), pp. 201-203.

⁴Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, XXV (1948), p. 64.

of data from different kinds of research, and the inability to describe leadership adequately.⁵ Pierce and Merrill concluded that perhaps one of the results of the research was the conclusion drawn that the study of personal characteristics, per se, was only one aspect of the study of leadership.⁶

Lipham investigated the relationship of personality variables to performance in the role of public school principals. He found that principals rated more effective by the superintendent of schools and members of the central office staff scored significantly higher in activity drive, achievement drive, social ability, and feelings of security than did the principals who were rated less effective.⁷

Studies by Guba noted that an adequate terminology for relating psychological or personal characteristics to sociological or organizational characteristics did not exist at the present time.⁸

⁵Cecil A. Gibb, Leadership: Handbook of Social Psychology (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1954), p. 89.

⁶Truman M. Pierce and E. C. Merrill, Jr., The Individual and Administrator Behavior: Administrative Behavior in Education (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 332.

⁷James M. Lipham, "Personal Variables of Effective Administrators," Administrator's Notebook, IX (September, 1960), pp. 1-4.

⁸Egon G. Guba, Research in Internal Administration - What Do We Know?: Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action (Chicago, Ill.: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1960), p. 129.

The psychological studies of leadership did not lead to the identification of traits common to leaders. Researchers then turned to the sociological dimension in an effort to identify groups of characteristics that might relate to leadership.

Sociological Studies of Leadership

Many of the earlier sociological studies were concerned with group phenomena. Hemphill identified fifteen group dimensions. He found two dimensions, viscidty (the feeling of cohesion in the group) and hedonic tone (the degree of satisfaction of group members) to correlate more highly with leadership adequacy than did the other dimensions.⁹

In a study of high and low production groups, Katz, Maccoby and Morse emphasized the fact that working with people in groups was a complicated undertaking and that there were many differences among groups which were of crucial importance to the leader.¹⁰

Moser investigated the extent of conflict in generalized expectations held for the school principal's role. He found that the principal emphasized "nomothetic" behaviors (stressing goal achievement, institutional regulations, and

⁹John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1949), pp. 12-48.

¹⁰Daniel Katz, Nathan Maccoby, and Nancy Morse, Productivity, Supervision, and Morale in an Office Situation (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, 1950), pp. 9-24.

centralized authority) in his relations with the superintendent, and "idiographic" behaviors (stressing individual needs and wants, minimum rules, decentralized authority) in his interactions with teachers. Moser concluded that the principal is in a delicate position as a member of two organizational families.¹¹

Benne and Sheats prepared a description of the different roles played in well-functioning groups. Group roles were classified into two categories: group task roles, and group building and maintenance roles. Group task roles assumed that the task of the group was to select, define, and solve common problems. The group building and maintenance roles were concerned with the emotional life of the group. The membership roles proposed by Benne and Sheats pointed to many complex functions performed in groups and dealt with by leader and members. The members of a highly effective group handled these roles with sensitivity and skill, and they saw that the emotional life of the group contributed to the performance of the group's tasks rather than interfering with them.¹²

Seashore studied group cohesiveness based on the assumption that the larger the work group, the greater the

¹¹Robert P. Moser, "The Leadership Patterns of School Superintendents and School Principals," Administrator's Notebook, VI (September, 1957), pp. 1-4.

¹²K. D. Benne and P. Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," Journal of Social Issues (Spring, 1948), Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 42-45.

difficulty in building it into a highly effective group. He found that group cohesiveness, i. e., attraction of the members to the group, decreased steadily as work groups increased in size.¹³

Moyer studied the type of leadership teachers want. He had teachers react to 80 statements dealing with "leader-centered" and "group-centered" behavior on the part of the principal. At the same time, teachers were asked to rate the personal and professional satisfaction they derived from their working situation. He found that the greater the unity within a group in attitudes toward leadership, the higher the satisfaction in the group. When faculties were compared on the basis of their homogeneity of attitudes toward leadership, those school faculties high in homogeneity were also high in overall satisfaction derived from the work situation.¹⁴

Behavioral Studies of Leadership

The work of the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University showed two dimensions of leadership -- initiating structure and consideration -- emerged as significant dimensions for describing leader behavior. These

¹³S. E. Seashore, "Group Cohesiveness in the Industrial Work Group," U. S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Educational Research Information Center, 1954, pp. 3-17.

¹⁴Donald C. Moyer, "Leadership That Teachers Want," Administrator's Notebook, III (March, 1955), pp. 1-4.

two dimensions were delineated by Halpin and Winer¹⁵ from a factor analysis of responses to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire of Hemphill and Coons.¹⁶

Regarding the nature of the two dimensions, Lipham noted that the consideration dimension was found in the Midwest Center study to possess both positive and negative components, whereas the initiating structure dimension possessed only one. The Midwest Center study also revealed that the leadership dimensions of initiating structure and consideration were interactive. The results of the study revealed that the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration were useful for classifying leader behavior.¹⁷

Lipham concluded that the behavioral approach to the study of leadership had provided additional insights into the nature of leadership. The greatest contribution was that it had highlighted the need for developing a better understanding of leadership.¹⁸

Research into leadership style in educational and noneducational settings has identified two key dimensions of leadership. Sergiovanni, in his Handbook for Effective Department Leadership, advocated that leadership style was

¹⁵Andrew W. Halpin and B. James Winer, A Factional Study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957), pp. 15-22.

¹⁶John K. Hemphill and Alvin E. Coons, Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957), p. 25.

¹⁷Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," pp. 137-138.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 139.

defined by both task behavior and relationship behavior: (1) the degree to which the leader seems to focus on getting work done; and (2) the degree to which the leader seems to focus on the needs or feelings of people and his relationships with them.¹⁹

Task and Employee Orientation were differing styles of behavior hypothetically related to Group Morale and Satisfaction. Lewin has described behavior as a function (f) of the person (P) and of his environment (E), thus $B = f(P, E)$ ²⁰ while Getzels and Guba expanded on this to describe behavior as a function of role (R) and personality (P), thus $B = f(R \times P)$.²¹

Croft looked at behavior in terms of perceptions of behavior. He worked with the major assumption that the principal, to be effective, had to be able to make accurate estimations of the perceptions that others had of his behavior.²²

Croft felt that how the administrator actually behaved was less important than how his teachers and superintendent perceived that he behaved. He found, however,

¹⁹Thomas J. Sergiovanni, Handbook for Effective Department Leadership (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1977), p. 140.

²⁰Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," Field Theory in Social Science (New York: Harper, 1951), pp. 188-237.

²¹J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review 65 (1957), p. 429.

²²John C. Croft, "Open and Closed Mindedness and Perceptions of Leader Behavior," HEW, Office of Education, Educational Research Information Center (1954), p. 60.

more significant differences in dogmatism, self-perceptions of the way their teachers and superintendents viewed their behavior or in the actual perception of them by their superintendents.²³

Fiedler pointed out that what the leader did, and how he managed the group could be expressed in either of two ways. He could (1) tell people what to do, and how to do it; or (2) share responsibilities with group members and involve them in planning and executing the task. His own behavior in telling people what to do was structuring, or task oriented; in sharing responsibilities, he was employee oriented.²⁴

In the educational organization, Brown reported that teachers appeared both to accept the fact that strength on both dimensions, task oriented and employee oriented, was difficult to achieve and also to express satisfaction, in a principal who exhibited strength on either factor. However, weakness in both dimensions, or a weakness in one without a corresponding strength in the other, generated reactions of low satisfaction in teachers and low effectiveness in principals.²⁵

²³Ibid., p. 152.

²⁴Fred E. Fiedler, "Engineer the Job to Fit the Manager," Harvard Business Review, 43 (September, 1956), p. 116.

²⁵A. Brown, "Reactions to Leadership," Educational Administration Quarterly, 1967, 3, pp. 62-73.

Behavioral Studies Emphasizing the
Requirements of the Individual

In Likert's writing, the ideal and most productive leader behavior for industry was employee-centered or democratic. In his New Patterns of Management, Likert combined a method for measuring the characteristics of an organization with a prescription for the ideal state of the organization, and a formula for moving the organization from its actual state to the ideal state. He labeled the ideal state of the organization as System 4, Participative Group. His research suggested:

Differences in the amount of participation between the subparts of an organization tend to be related to differences in productivity and job satisfaction. Within the range of participation that ordinarily exists in the organization, the greater the amount of participation which occurs within a unit, the greater tends to be the productivity of that unit, and the greater satisfaction of its members.²⁶

Thomson studied interrelationships of favorable self-perception, perceived supervisory style of the boss, and job satisfaction of 128 administrators and professional employees of a state department of public instruction. By using a two-factor analysis of variance design, he found that more supportive styles of supervision were associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.²⁷

²⁶Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961), pp. 223-244.

²⁷Duane E. Thomson, "Favorable Self-Perception, Perceived Supervisory Style, and Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1971, Vol. 55, No. 4., pp. 349-352.

A study by Schuler confirmed that authoritarianism of subordinates would moderate the relationship between participation and satisfaction of subordinates, only when the tasks had a high degree of repetitiveness.²⁸ Milutinovich et al used the stepwise discriminant analysis to investigate the effect of job satisfaction, group cohesiveness, and leadership styles on the differences between negro and white blue-collar and white-collar workers. They found that the more participative leadership, the higher job satisfaction with work, supervision, co-workers, pay, promotion, and total job.²⁹

According to Ambrose and Heller, a principal's decision-making behavior was perceived as being essential to the principal's occupational role behavior leadership style. In terms of effective leadership and teacher satisfaction, the principal's leadership style was significantly related to teacher perceptions of decision-making involvement.³⁰

²⁸Randall S. Schuler, "Participation with Supervisor and Subordinate Authoritarianism: A Path-Goal Theory Reconciliation," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 21, (June, 1976), pp. 320-325.

²⁹Jugoslav S. Milutinovich, and others, "A Stepwise Discriminant Analysis of Job Satisfaction and Group Cohesiveness of Biracial Blue and White Collar Workers," U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Educational Research Information Center, (1971), p. 7.

³⁰Frank Ambrose and Robert W. Heller, "The Secondary School Administrator and Perceived Teacher Participation in the Decision-Making Process," Journal of Experimental Education, 40 (Summer, 1972), p. 12.

In the study of computer personnel, Sadler found that both males and females preferred a leader who consulted employees about decisions, although the preference was considerably greater for males than females.³¹ Stogdill's recent review of the leadership field suggested that the relationship between leadership style and performance depended upon the interactions of leader behavior with task or subordinate characteristics. However, the relationship between leadership styles and satisfaction indicated that person-oriented patterns of leadership tended to enhance employee satisfaction.³²

Yeakey and Johnston raised the questions about the school principal: how does the principal motivate his staff members?; what techniques and methods of motivation should reduce turnover and increase satisfaction among staff members?; and what theoretical bases should be principal operate? The finding from their studies suggested that organizational development based upon job-enrichment would show higher motivation and satisfaction for both principals and teachers. The results would be given a stable economy, and greater job fulfillment and satisfaction.³³

³¹John Sadler, "Leader Style, Confidence in Management and Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 6 (1970), pp. 3-19.

³²R. M. Stogdill, The Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research (New York: Free Press, 1974), p. 404.

³³Carol Camp Yeakey and Gladys Styles Johnston, "The Psychological Motivation of the School Principal," Planning and Changing, Vol. 8, (Summer, 1977), pp. 151-165.

Sergiovanni replicated the Herzberg study in an educational organization in which 71 teachers were interviewed. The interview transcripts were then coded, using a content analysis technique. He concluded that the findings supported the assertion that satisfiers and dissatisfiers tended to be mutually exclusive. In addition, factors which accounted for positive attitudes among teachers were related to the work itself, and factors which accounted for negative attitudes among teachers were related to the work conditions.³⁴

In an analysis of factors that affect job satisfaction of public high school business teachers in Ohio, Lacy developed a three-part questionnaire for collecting data and he found that school administrators affected teacher job satisfaction.³⁵

A study of the relationship between teachers' perceptions of school structure, leadership quality and teacher satisfaction by Grassie and Carss was an interesting one. The study was done in Australia. They used a canonical correlation analysis and questionnaires developed in the U.S.A. and in Canada, and adapted for Australian use. The

³⁴Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," The Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. 5, No. 1 (1976), pp. 66-82.

³⁵Annel Lacy, "An Analysis of Factors that Affect Job Satisfaction of Public High School Business Teachers in Ohio," Dissertation, The Ohio State University Issue, University Microfilms, Inc., P. O. Box 1764, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1968, pp. 56-58.

results were displayed by two groups of teachers, one of which attached a high, and the other a low. The findings suggested that action taken to increase the satisfaction of one group might decrease the satisfaction of the other.³⁶

Behavioral Studies Emphasizing the Requirements of the Organization

House and Mitchell reviewed several studies in which the relationship between participation of subordinates and their job satisfaction was moderated by low authoritarianism. Theorizing on the basis of the path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness, House and Mitchell suggested that the task might be the important contingent variable, because of its influence on the level of ego involvement of subordinates in the task, and because of the demands it could place upon subordinates for effective task performance. They indicated that highly repetitive tasks lack stimuli, such as variety, which were conducive to ego involvement. With simple and unambiguous tasks, participation was not required by subordinates for effective task performance. For complex tasks, however, participation would be instrumental for the subordinate's effective task performance.³⁷

³⁶McCrae C. Grassie and Brian W. Carss, "School Structure, Leadership Quality and Teacher Satisfaction," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 9 (Winter, 1973), pp. 15-26.

³⁷Robert J. House and Terence R. Mitchell, "Path-Goal Theory of Leadership," Journal of Contemporary Business, Vol. 3 (1974), pp. 81-98.

Tosi's results, in his "A Re-Examination of Personality as a Determinant of the Effect of Participation," indicated that personality characteristics of subordinates were an important moderator, between participation with their supervisors and job satisfaction. He found that subordinates who had dependent, authoritarian personalities preferred production-centered supervision to participation. Tosi, however, failed to find a moderating effect for authoritarianism of subordinates, between their participation and their satisfaction and motivation.³⁸

House, Filley and Kerr conducted a study about the relationship between consideration and initiating structure of supervisors, and the satisfaction of subordinates in research and development installations. The study supported the position that leadership behavior had differential effects of different classes of role satisfactions, and under different organizational climates. They also found that among high level employees, task oriented leadership was positively related to satisfaction and performance. After all, being nice and pleasant to one's subordinates was not of itself enough to ensure job satisfaction. There clearly were situations in which pleasantness of the supervisor was secondary to success in the task.³⁹

³⁸Henry L. Tosi, "A Re-Examination of Personality as a Determinant of the Effect of Participation," Personal Psychology, Vol. 23 (1970), pp. 91-99.

³⁹Robert L. House, A. C. Filley, and S. Kerr, "Relation of Leader Consideration and Initiating Structure to R and D Subordinate's Satisfaction," Administrative Science Quarterly, 16 (1971), pp. 19-30.

Weed, Terence and Mitchell studied interactions between leadership style, subordinate personality, and task type, and the effect of different combinations of these variables on group performance. They also investigated three types of leadership styles and satisfaction with supervision. They found that the leader high in both human relations and task orientation was liked best. The leader high in human relations but low in task orientation was liked next best, and the leader high in task orientation but low in human relations orientation was liked least.⁴⁰ A study by Misshawk confirmed, by example, that employees looked for more than human relations skills in their supervisors, whatever their occupational levels. For high, medium and low level skill groups, Misshawk found that all regarded technical and administrative skills of importance to their job satisfaction in addition to human relations skills.⁴¹

Within the context of the human nature and human motivation, MacGregor in his "The Human Side of Enterprise," developed a new theory of Management called Theory X - Theory Y.⁴² Assumptions behind Theory X, MacGregor stated

⁴⁰S. E. Weed, T. R. Mitchell, and W. Moffitt, "Leadership Style, Subordinate Personality and Task Type as Predictors of Performance and Satisfaction with Supervision," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 61, (1976), pp. 58-65.

⁴¹M. L. Misshawk, "Supervisory Skills and Employee Satisfaction," Personnel Administration, Vol. 34 (1971), pp. 29-33.

⁴²Douglas MacGregor, The Human Side of the Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), pp. 33-48.

that work was inherently distasteful to most people. Most people were not ambitious, had little desire for responsibility, and preferred to be directed. Most people had little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems. Motivation occurred only at the physiological and safety levels. Finally, most people had to be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.

Assumptions behind Theory Y, MacGregor pointed out that work was as natural as play, if the conditions were favorable. Self-control was often indispensable in achieving organizational goals. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems was widely distributed in the population. Motivation occurred at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as physiological and security levels. Finally, people could be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated.

MacGregor argued that the philosophy of management by direction and control under Theory X assumptions -- regardless of whether it was hard or soft -- was inadequate to motivate. The reason was that the human needs on which this approach relied were today unimportant motivators of behavior. Direction and control were essentially useless in motivating people whose important needs were social and egoistic. Both the hard and the soft approach failed today because they were simply irrelevant to the situation. MacGregor felt that Theory Y assumptions, which relied heavily on self-control and self-direction, were more adequate

about human nature and human motivation. MacGregor concluded that management by objectives which was consistent with Theory Y was today being applied with more success.⁴³

Research Emphasizing the Maturity

Behavior of the Individual

Within the nature of individual behavior and personal growth in complex organizations, Argyris developed a theory of human personality called Immaturity-Maturity Theory. According to Argyris, seven changes should take place in the personality of individuals if they are to develop into mature people over the years.⁴⁴

Argyris assumed that human beings: first, tend to develop from a state of passivity as infants to a state of increasing activity as adults. Second, tend to develop from a state of dependence upon others as infants to a state of relative independence as adults. Third, tend to develop from being capable of behaving only in a few ways as an infant to being capable of behaving in many different ways as an adult. Fourth, tend to develop from having erratic, casual, shallow, quickly-dropped interests as an infant to having deeper interests as an adult. Fifth, tend to develop from having a short time perspective as an infant, to a much longer time perspective as an adult. Sixth, tend to develop

⁴³Ibid., pp. 50-55.

⁴⁴Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1957), pp. 40-115.

from being in a subordinate position in the family and society as an infant to aspiring to occupy an equal and/or superordinate position to their peers. Seven, tend to develop from a lack of awareness of self as an infant to an awareness of and control over self as an adult.

According to Argyris, keeping people immature was built into the very nature of the formal organization. Basic to the concepts was that power and authority should rest in the hands of a few at the top of the organization, and thus those at the lower end of the chain of command were strictly controlled by their superiors or the system itself. Argyris felt that these concepts of formal organization led to assumptions about human nature that were incompatible with the proper development of maturity in human personality. The classical theory of management based on Theory X assumptions usually prevailed, and management created childlike roles for workers that frustrated natural development.⁴⁵

A study of the mental health of highly skilled as compared to low-skilled employees in a multi-story manufacturing plant was conducted by Argyris. His hypothesis was that since highly skilled employees tended to have a greater opportunity to express more mature behavior (be creative, use many abilities, be challenged in their work,

⁴⁵ Ibid., pp. 117-118.

and so on), they would tend to have a healthier work world.⁴⁶

Thirty-four employees from Department A (high skill) and ninety employees from Department B (low skill) constituted the sample. Evidence was obtained by analyzing the data related to "perceived personal satisfaction" about their jobs. Argyris found that employees from Department B (low skill) obtained "no satisfaction from their work excepting good wages." Employees from Department A (high skill) gained "much personal satisfaction because they had challenging and creative work."⁴⁷

A methodology which includes hypotheses to be tested, population and sample, a description of the instruments, and a detailed report of the data collection procedure is presented in Chapter III.

⁴⁶Chris Argyris, "Individual Actualization in Complex Organizations," Mental Hygiene, Vol. 44 (1960), pp. 226-230.

⁴⁷Ibid., pp. 231-237.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study was designed to determine if existing leadership styles employed by elementary school principals and the maturity levels of elementary teachers were related to the job satisfaction of elementary teachers. In addition, the study was designed to test the Situational Leadership Theory to determine if existing relationships between leadership styles employed by elementary school principals and the maturity levels of elementary teachers are really significant.

Hypotheses to be Tested

The general hypothesis of the study was that there exists a significant relationship between leadership styles employed by elementary school principals and the maturity levels and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers.

To test this hypothesis, the following null hypotheses were used:

- Ho₁ There is no statistically significant difference at the .05 level between the leadership styles employed by the principal in each elementary school as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.

- Ho₂ There is no statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the leadership styles employed by the principal in each elementary school and the teachers' job satisfaction as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.
- Ho₃ There is no statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the leadership styles employed by the principal in each elementary school and the maturity levels of teachers as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.
- Ho₄ There is no statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the maturity levels of teachers and the teachers' job satisfaction as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.

The procedure for conducting the study was divided into three stages as follows:

1. Pre-Collecting Data
2. Collecting Data
3. Analyzing Data

The Stage of Pre-Collecting Data

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of elementary teachers in the school district of Norman, Oklahoma. The total number of elementary schools within the Norman District was eleven. The schools ranged in size from a teaching staff of 16 to a teaching staff of 27. The total population consisted of 230 teachers.

The Norman elementary schools and teaching staff are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

NAMES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF
TEACHERS FOR THE POPULATION STUDY
IN NORMAN DISTRICT

NAME OF SCHOOL	NUMBER OF TEACHERS
Adams	22
Cleveland	24
Eisenhower	27
Jackson	20
Jefferson	19
Kennedy	27
Lincoln	16
Madison	16
McKinley	16
Monroe	26
Wilson	17

The sample to be drawn from the population was determined through purposive sampling. The purposive sampling was based on size and geographical location within the city of Norman.

The sampling is depicted geographically in Figure 5.

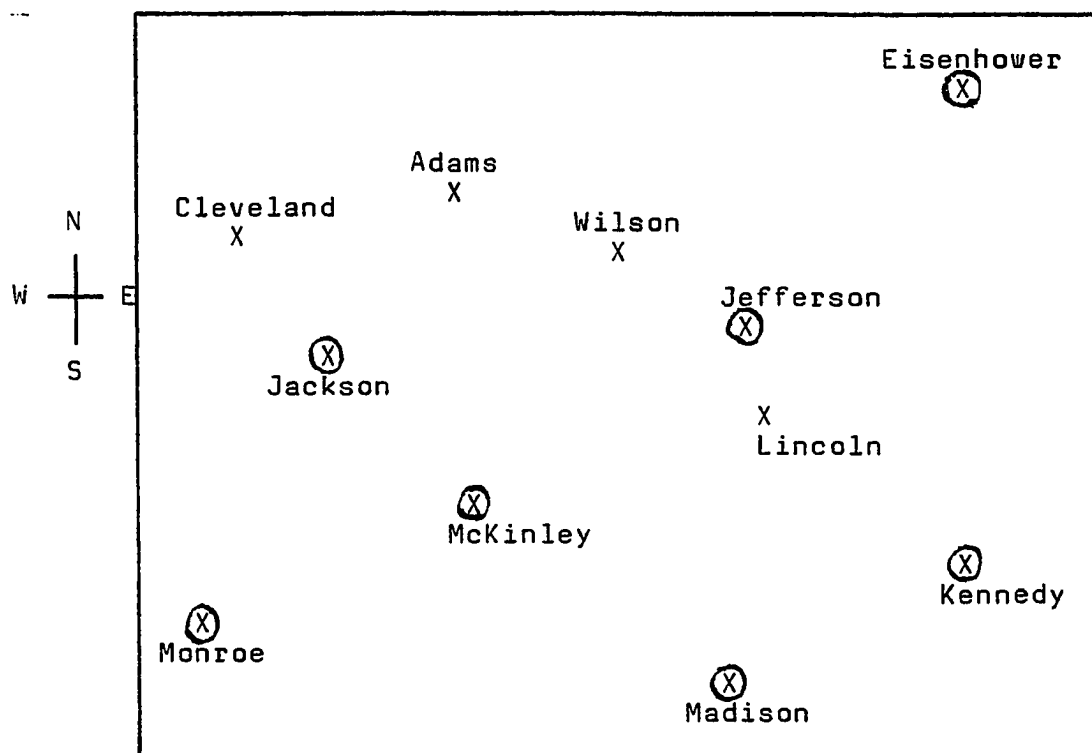


Figure 5. Illustration of the Purposive Sampling.

The names of sample elementary schools, the number of teachers, size of the school, and enrollment size are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

NAMES OF SCHOOLS, NUMBER OF TEACHERS,
SIZE OF SCHOOLS, AND ENROLLMENT TO
REPRESENT THE SAMPLE SIZE¹

SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	SIZE OF SCHOOL	ENROLLMENT
Kennedy	27	Large	546
Eisenhower	27	Large	493
Monroe	26	Large	493

¹"Know Your Schools," Norman Public Schools Annual Bulletin, 1979-80, pp. 6-7.

TABLE 2, Continued
 NAMES OF SCHOOLS, NUMBER OF TEACHERS,
 SIZE OF SCHOOLS, AND ENROLLMENT TO
 REPRESENT THE SAMPLE SIZE

SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	SIZE OF SCHOOL	ENROLLMENT
Jackson	20	Medium	355
Jefferson	19	Medium	334
Madison	16	Small	278
McKinley	16	Small	298
TOTAL	151		2797

A table from Determining Sample Size for Research Activities was used to determine the sample size from a given population.²

Instruments

Three instruments were used to collect data for this study: the LEAD Other questionnaire, the MATURITY SCALE self-rating form, and the JDI questionnaire. The LEAD Other questionnaire was used to define leadership styles of elementary school principals, while the MATURITY SCALE was used to measure the maturity level of elementary teachers. Both instruments were developed by Hersey and Blanchard, Center for Leadership Studies. Questionnaires were obtained from Learning Resources Corporation, 8517 Production Avenues, San Diego, California 92121.

Green has done extensive research on reliability and validity of the LEAD instrument. He reported that the

²R. V. Krejcie and D. W. Morgan, "Determining Sample Size for Research Activities," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1970.30.607-610.

contingency coefficient was .71. A significant correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability (effectiveness) scores of the managers and the independent ratings of the corresponding supervisors. The coefficient and correlation were significant beyond the .01 level. He concluded that several evidences supported the use of LEAD instrument as an empirically sound instrument.³

According to the JDI, Hulin reported that corrected split-half internal consistency coefficients exceeded .80 for each of the scales. A correlation of -.27 was found between satisfaction and turnover (over a 12-month period) for female clerical employees. Hulin concluded the JDI is a face valid and valuable instrument which can be easily administered and scored in a short time.⁴

The Stage of Collecting Data

After the Advisory Committee gave formal approval for conducting this study, the investigator contacted the Norman School Board of Education for permission to collect data from teachers in the elementary schools. A school board official delivered the request to the principals. The Board of Education gave approval for collecting the data.

³John F. Green, "Lead-Self Manual," Draft Report, University of Bridgeport, Milford, Connecticut, December 1979 (Revised January 1980).

⁴P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin, The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement: A Strategy for the Study of Attitudes (Chicago, Ill.: Rand-McNally & Co., 1969).

Individual meetings were held between the principals and the investigator for distributing and collecting the questionnaire-scales. At each meeting, it was determined that the most practical system was for the principals to distribute the questionnaire-scales to teachers during a regularly scheduled faculty meeting and request their return within a week. Questionnaires were delivered to the principals at the time of each meeting. The instructions and content of the questionnaires were carefully reviewed with the principals; thus, the principals could emphasize to the teachers that they follow the instructions carefully on each questionnaire. The questionnaires were not to be identified by person in order that the respondents could remain anonymous.

The investigator made the first pick-up visit to the seven elementary schools the following week. On the first pick-up visit, Kennedy School had 100 percent returns while there was a 95 percent return from Jackson School. The other principals were asked to remind teachers to return the questionnaires if they had not yet done so.

Two weeks after distributing questionnaires, the principals were contacted. The second pick-up visit was made to the schools and after the return count and percentages were tabulated, principals were asked to make a final appeal for the return of questionnaires. The investigator made a final visit to the schools to collect completed questionnaires at the end of the fourth week.

The names of schools, the number of teachers in the study population, and the number and percent of responses are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
NAMES OF SCHOOLS, NUMBER OF TEACHERS,
NUMBER OF RESPONSES, AND PERCENT
OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRES

SCHOOL	NUMBER IN STUDY POPU- LATION	NUMBER OF RESPONSES	PERCENT OF RESPONSES
Kennedy	27	27	100%
Eisenhower	27	12	44%
Monroe	26	22	85%
Jackson	20	19	95%
Jefferson	19	14	74%
Madison	16	12	75%
McKinley	16	9	56%
TOTAL	151	115	76%

The Stage of Analyzing Data

Siegel stated that the choice of the appropriate statistical procedure was an extremely important part of the research design. Parametric methods required the relatively strong assumptions of known proportions of the normal distribution regarding the nature of population data. He also noted that nonparametric methods required only limited assumptions regarding the nature of population distributions. These assumptions were continuous data, randomness, and usually independence in sampling.⁵

⁵S. Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956), pp. 32-33.

The investigator determined that the type of data collected for this study did not meet the assumptions underlying the proper use of parametric statistics. Therefore, two nonparametric statistical tests were used to test the hypotheses.

The Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to determine if different samples of elementary teacher groups differed in frequency in which they selected certain leadership styles, and, therefore, came from different populations. Among seven elementary schools, 21 comparisons required the Mann-Whitney U test.

The Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient was utilized to determine the degree of relationship between the leadership styles employed by the principals in elementary schools and the maturity levels and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers. Among seven elementary schools, 21 correlations required the Spearman Rho test.

An analysis of data is presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter contains an analysis of data collected from teachers in the seven elementary schools within the City of Norman, Oklahoma. The seven elementary schools were Kennedy, Eisenhower, Monroe, Jackson, Jefferson, Madison, and McKinley.

The major questions to be answered were as follows:

1. Do differences exist among principals in leadership styles resulting from the influence of selected organizational variables?
2. Does a relationship exist between the leadership styles employed by elementary school principals and the maturity levels of elementary teachers?
3. Is the job satisfaction of elementary teachers influenced by the context of leadership styles of the principals and the maturity levels of elementary teachers?

One hundred fifty-one LEAD questionnaires, MATURITY scales, and JDI questionnaires were distributed to teachers through the principals in the seven elementary schools. Seventy-six percent of the questionnaires were responded to and returned to the investigator as shown in TABLE 3.

(Chapter III, p. 44). Copies of the three types of questionnaires are shown in Appendices A, B, and C. The data on LEAD Other Questionnaire, MATURITY Scale, and JDI questionnaire were coded and presented in Appendix D.

In considering effectiveness of leadership styles, Hersey and Blanchard noted that the MEAN scores of leadership styles which ranged from -24 to 0 was considered ineffective, and from 0 to 24 was considered effective.

Hypotheses were tested by the Mann-Whitney U test or the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to test H_{o1} , and the Spearman's Rho was used to test H_{o2} through H_{o4} . All hypotheses were tested for significance at the .05 level.

Testing H_{o1}

Hypothesis 1 was stated as follows:

H_{o1} There is no statistically significant difference at the .05 level between the leadership styles employed by the principal in each elementary school as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to test H_{o1} . The significance of the Z value was equal or exceeded 1.96 at the .05 level. The results of the computations using U test and Z score are shown in TABLE 4.

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF THE LEADERSHIP STYLES EMPLOYED BY
THE PRINCIPAL IN EACH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
BY USING THE MANN-WHITNEY U TEST

SCHOOL	MEAN SCORES OF LEADER- SHIP STYLES	COMPARISON	U VALUES	Z SCORES
Kennedy	6.33	Kennedy vs Eisenhower	260	2.98*
		Kennedy vs Monroe	306	.18
Eisenhower	12.75	Kennedy vs Jackson	293	.81
		Kennedy vs Jefferson	192.5	.10
Monroe	7.45	Kennedy vs Madison	108.5	-1.63
		Kennedy vs McKinley	84.5	-1.35
Jackson	8.63	Eisenhower vs Monroe	210	2.81*
		Eisenhower vs Jackson	175	2.47*
Jefferson	6.29	Eisenhower vs Jefferson	137.5	2.75*
		Eisenhower vs Madison	125	3.06*
Madison	3.0	Eisenhower vs McKinley	94.5	2.88*
		Monroe vs Jackson	233.5	.64
McKinley	2.89	Monroe vs Jefferson	158	.13
		Monroe vs Madison	76	-2.02*
		Monroe vs McKinley	55.5	-1.89
		Jackson vs Jefferson	122.5	- .38
		Jackson vs Madison	174.5	2.45*
		Jackson vs McKinley	42.5	-2.11*
		Jefferson vs Madison	110.5	1.16
		Jefferson vs McKinley	43	-1.26
		Madison vs McKinley	51	- .21

*significant at .05 level

The results presented in TABLE 4 show that there were statistically significant differences between the leadership styles in the following schools: Kennedy vs Eisenhower; Eisenhower vs Monroe; Eisenhower vs Jackson; Eisenhower vs Jefferson; Eisenhower vs Madison; Eisenhower vs McKinley; Monroe vs Madison; Jackson vs Madison; and Jackson vs McKinley. No statistically significant differences were found between the leadership styles in the following schools: Kennedy vs Monroe; Kennedy vs Jackson; Kennedy vs Jefferson; Kennedy vs Madison; Kennedy vs McKinley; Monroe vs Jackson; Monroe vs Jefferson; Monroe vs McKinley; Jackson vs Jefferson; Jefferson vs Madison; Jefferson vs McKinley; and Madison vs McKinley.

Following from the above, H_{01} was rejected for the following schools:

Kennedy vs Eisenhower
 Eisenhower vs Monroe
 Eisenhower vs Jackson
 Eisenhower vs Jefferson
 Eisenhower vs Madison
 Eisenhower vs McKinley
 Monroe vs Madison
 Jackson vs Madison
 Jackson vs McKinley

Similary, H_{01} was accepted for the following schools:

Kennedy vs Monroe
 Kennedy vs Jackson
 Kennedy vs Jefferson
 Kennedy vs Madison
 Kennedy vs McKinley
 Monroe vs Jackson
 Monroe vs Jefferson
 Monroe vs McKinley
 Jackson vs Jefferson
 Jefferson vs Madison
 Jefferson vs McKinley
 Madison vs McKinley

As the results from testing H_{o_1} , it was interpreted that different elementary teacher groups selected different certain leadership styles. The behavioral characteristics of principals as perceived by teachers were employed differently between and among elementary schools. Therefore, H_{o_1} was rejected.

Testing H_{o_2}

Hypothesis 2 was read as follows:

H_{o_2} There is no statistically significant relationship, at the .05 level, between the leadership styles employed by the principal in each elementary school and the teachers' job satisfaction as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.

TABLE 5

THE SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP STYLES AND THE JOB
SATISFACTION OF EACH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	MEAN SCORES OF LEADER- SHIP STYLES	MEAN SCORES OF JOB SAT- ISFACTION	SPEARMAN RANK ORDER RHO		
			Rho	Student's "t"	df
Kennedy	6.33	106.93	.06	.18	25
Eisenhower	12.75	110.75	-.12	-.37	10
Monroe	7.45	107.22	.18	.83	20
Jackson	8.63	111.79	-.13	-.52	17
Jefferson	6.29	112.36	.05	.16	12
Madison	3.0	101.67	.02	.07	10
McKinley	2.89	103.11	.58	1.88	7

The results shown in TABLE 5 indicated that no statistically significant relationship was found between the leadership styles and the teacher job satisfaction for schools

Kennedy, Eisenhower, Monroe, Jackson, Jefferson, Madison, and McKinley. Therefore, H_{o2} was accepted.

Testing H_{o3}

Hypothesis 3 was stated as follows:

H_{o3} There is no statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the leadership styles employed by the principal in each elementary school and the maturity levels of teachers as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.

TABLE 6

THE SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP STYLES AND THE
MATURITY LEVELS OF EACH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	MEAN SCORES OF LEADER- SHIP STYLES	MEAN SCORES OF MATURITY LEVELS	SPEARMAN RANK ORDER RHO		
			Rho	Student's "t"	df
Kennedy	6.33	34.47	.04	.22	25
Eisenhower	12.75	35.44	-.49	-1.76	10
Monroe	7.45	26.30	.27	1.28	20
Jackson	8.63	36.92	.11	.47	17
Jefferson	6.29	36.73	-.37	-1.36	12
Madison	3.0	17.68	-.10	-.33	10
McKinley	2.89	26.32	.29	.81	7

The results presented in TABLE 6 show that no statistically significant relationship was found between the leadership styles and the maturity levels of teachers for schools Kennedy, Eisenhower, Monroe, Jackson, Jefferson, Madison, and McKinley. Therefore, H_{o3} was accepted.

Testing Ho₄

Hypothesis 4 was as follows:

Ho₄ There is no statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the maturity levels of teachers and the teachers' job satisfaction as reported by the aggregate number of elementary teachers of each school.

TABLE 7

THE SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
BETWEEN THE MATURITY LEVELS AND THE JOB
SATISFACTION OF EACH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	MEAN SCORES OF MATURITY LEVELS	MEAN SCORES OF JOB SAT- ISFACTION	SPEARMAN RANK ORDER RHO		
			Rho	Student's "t"	df
Kennedy	34.47	106.93	.36	1.95	25
Eisenhower	35.44	110.75	.34	1.15	10
Monroe	26.30	107.22	.03	0.11	20
Jackson	36.92	111.79	.35	1.56	17
Jefferson	36.73	112.36	.08	0.28	12
Madison	17.68	101.67	.60	2.39*	10
McKinley	26.32	103.11	.57	1.82	7

*significant at .05 level

The results presented in TABLE 7 indicate that no statistically significant relationship was found between the maturity levels and the job satisfaction for schools Kennedy, Eisenhower, Monroe, Jackson, Jefferson, and McKinley. The results in TABLE 7 show that a statistically significant relationship was found between the maturity levels and the job satisfaction for Madison school.

Following from the above, Hypothesis 4 was accepted for schools Kennedy, Eisenhower, Monroe, Jackson, Jefferson, and McKinley. Similarly, Hypothesis 4 was rejected for Madison school.

As the results from testing H_{o_4} , it was interpreted that the maturity levels and the job satisfaction were not shown to be significantly related when tested school by school except for one school. Therefore, H_{o_4} was accepted.

A summary of the study, the conclusions, and suggestions for further research is presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences in leadership styles employed by elementary school principals were significantly related to the maturity levels and the job satisfaction of elementary teachers. In addition, the Situational Leadership Theory was tested to determine if a relationship did exist between the leadership styles and the maturity levels.

Teachers in elementary schools within the City of Norman, Oklahoma, were selected as the population for this study. One hundred and fifty-one teachers from the seven selected elementary schools were asked to complete three types of questionnaires, the LEAD Other, the MATURITY Scale (Self-rating form), and the JDI. Copies of these questionnaires are shown in Appendices A, B, and C.

The questionnaires were distributed and collected through principals in the seven selected elementary schools. There was a 76 percent return.

Four hypotheses were tested using the two nonparametric statistical techniques. The Mann-Whitney U test and Z scores were utilized to determine if different samples of elementary teacher groups differed in frequency in which they selected certain leadership styles, and, therefore, came from different populations. The Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient and Student's "t" were utilized to determine the degree of relationship between the leadership styles, the maturity levels, and the job satisfaction. Significance was set at the .05 level for either accepting or rejecting the stated null hypotheses.

The results of hypothesis testing were: H_{01} was rejected; H_{02} , H_{03} , and H_{04} were accepted.

The results include the following:

1. Significant differences were found to exist between and among the leadership styles employed in elementary schools. Different leadership styles, ranging from Style 1 to Style 4, were employed by the principal in each particular school.

2. The leadership styles and the job satisfaction, and the leadership styles and the maturity levels, were not shown to be significantly related when tested school by school.

3. The maturity levels and the job satisfaction were not shown to be significantly related when tested school by school.

Conclusions

The results of the investigation do not support the general hypothesis and the Situational Leadership Theory. The general lack of support was a surprise in view of what was thought to be a rather convincing theoretical framework for the study.

The Situational Leadership Theory assumes that the linkage between the leadership styles of principals and the maturity levels of teachers is important. The findings, bearing upon the theoretical framework of the study, indicate the presence of a compelling maturity levels stability. The maturity levels of teachers did not change when the leadership styles of principals changed. The data show variation in the leadership styles ranging from Style 1 to Style 4. The principal's leadership behavior did not contribute to and was not influenced by the maturity levels of school teachers.

The data from this study raise some doubts about the theory on which the study was based. However, there may be some element of the research design that contributed to the results.

It is possible to conclude that the leadership styles of principals tend to be consistent, and in a predictable manner. The skills, motivation, and experience of the teachers seem to have no impact upon the behavioral characteristics of the principals.

The results indicate that the teachers' job satisfaction does not contribute to and is not influenced by either the maturity levels of the teachers or the leadership styles of the principals. The conclusion could be drawn that neither the skills, motivation, and experience of the teachers nor the leadership behavior of the principals seem to have an impact upon the teachers' job satisfaction.

Suggestions for Further Research

Additional studies are suggested as follows:

1. Additional research be conducted with different types of instruments to confirm the results of this study.
2. Other studies be conducted in secondary schools, middle schools, junior high, or senior high schools, to determine if a relationship does exist between leadership styles, maturity levels, and job satisfaction. Since the results of the research do not support the basic hypothesis and the Situational Leadership Theory, these studies tend to be justified and appropriate.
3. Additional studies be done in which the number of intervening variables are included, such as years of teaching experience, degree level, sex, age, and subject taught. These studies would determine if intervening variables have an impact upon leadership styles and job satisfaction.
4. Further research be done which attempts to determine how to increase the job satisfaction of the teachers.

Such research would assume that greater job-satisfaction means increased job efficiency.

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APPENDIX A

LEAD-OTHER QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE NOTE:

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APPENDIX B

MATURITY SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE

(Self-Rating Form)

APPENDIX C

JDI QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: Please put "Y" beside an item if the item describes the particular aspect of your job, and put "N" if the item does not describe that aspect, or "?" if you can not decide.

WORK

☐ Fascinating
☐ Routine
☐ Satisfying
☐ Boring
☐ Good
☐ Creative
☐ Respected
☐ Hot
☐ Pleasant
☐ Useful
☐ Tiresome
☐ Healthful
☐ Challenging
☐ On your feet
☐ Frustrating
☐ Simple
☐ Endless
☐ Fine sense of
 accomplishment

PEOPLE

☐ Stimulating
☐ Boring
☐ Slow
☐ Ambitious
☐ Stupid
☐ Responsible
☐ Fast
☐ Intelligent
☐ Easy to make enemies
☐ Talk too much
☐ Smart

PEOPLE, Continued

☐ Lazy
☐ Unpleasant
☐ No privacy
☐ Active
☐ Narrow interests
☐ Loyal
☐ Hard to meet

SUPERVISION

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

PAY

☐ Income adequate for normal
 expenses

JDI Questionnaire, ContinuedPAY, Continued

- ☐ Satisfactory profit sharing
- ☐ Barely live on income
- ☐ Bad
- ☐ Income provides luxuries
- ☐ Insecure
- ☐ Less than I deserve
- ☐ Highly paid
- ☐ Under paid

PROMOTION

- ☐ Good opportunity for advancement
- ☐ Opportunity somewhat limited
- ☐ Promotion on ability
- ☐ Dead-end job
- ☐ Good chance for promotion
- ☐ Unfair promotion policy
- ☐ Infrequent promotions
- ☐ Regular promotions
- ☐ Fairly good chance for promotion

APPENDIX D

DATA AND MEAN SCORES ON LEAD-OTHER,
MATURITY SCALE (SELF-RATING FORM),
AND JDI QUESTIONNAIRE FOR
KENNEDY SCHOOL
EISENHOWER SCHOOL
MONROE SCHOOL
JACKSON SCHOOL
JEFFERSON SCHOOL
MADISON SCHOOL
MC KINLEY SCHOOL

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
KENNEDY SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
13	35.5	124
10	35.6	110
6	34.1	79
10	34	119
7	34.6	105
8	33	112
0	38.2	100
5	39.7	120
5	31.2	105
11	39.7	97
11	39.7	115
17	38	81
11	40	116
- 9	40	117
- 9	40	118
10	37.4	123
11	38.5	93
5	37.3	107
5	32.5	113
0	40	117
- 2	38	105
- 3	0	98
2	0	72
8	39.1	112
13	37	91
14	38.1	122
12	39.5	116

TOTALS:

$$\bar{x} = 6.33$$

$$\bar{x} = 34.47$$

$$\bar{x} = 106.93$$

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
EISENHOWER SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
14	34.5	94
13	35.5	104
16	33	111
20	35.3	112
16	39	102
17	34.5	125
17	32.5	111
10	38.5	122
14	31.4	101
- 2	39	118
15	32.6	113
- 3	39.5	116

TOTALS:

$$\bar{x} = 12.75$$

$$\bar{x} = 35.44$$

$$\bar{x} = 110.75$$

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
MONROE SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
6	0	114
8	31.5	112
4	36.3	116
16	39.2	122
6	34.9	101
10	33.4	137
8	31.5	104
10	39.5	118
1	39.3	110
10	35.6	105
- 2	0	123
8	33.6	106
13	33	125
4	40	98
7	34.5	120
4	0	126
10	40	117
11	40	116
11	36.4	99
- 3	0	88
8	0	99
14	0	103

TOTALS:

$$\bar{x} = 7.45$$

$$\bar{x} = 26.30$$

$$\bar{x} = 107.23$$

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
JACKSON SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
9	30	84
11	38	108
16	38	110
9	39.5	122
0	36	114
10	37	92
8	38.5	112
7	31.5	132
9	36	108
3	39.5	97
8	38	109
14	40	112
5	40	126
14	39	121
5	36	118
3	39	115
10	33	111
9	33	108
14	39.5	125

TOTALS:

$$\bar{x} = 8.63$$

$$\bar{x} = 36.92$$

$$\bar{x} = 111.79$$

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
JEFFERSON SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
- 8	37.5	123
8	36.5	122
10	36	115
11	39.5	115
4	38.5	102
- 7	39	107
11	33.5	101
11	35.5	142
6	36	105
9	37.5	120
14	37.5	109
9	40	115
- 1	38.5	98
11	28.7	100

TOTALS:

$$\bar{x} = 6.29$$

$$\bar{x} = 36.73$$

$$\bar{x} = 112.07$$

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
MADISON SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
5	34.2	94
0	0	92
- 2	0	99
- 4	36.6	109
11	0	108
7	0	82
2	39.5	118
15	35.4	104
- 1	35.5	118
- 3	0	101
9	0	108
- 3	31	87
TOTALS:		
$\bar{x} = 3.0$	$\bar{x} = 17.68$	$\bar{x} = 101.67$

DATA AND MEAN SCORES FOR
MC KINLEY SCHOOL

LEAD	MATURITY	JDI
14	29.7	133
10	28.7	102
3	34.5	115
- 6	0	68
6	34.5	98
2	32	101
- 4	38.5	120
6	39	113
- 5	0	78

TOTALS:

$$\bar{x} = 2.89$$

$$\bar{x} = 26.32$$

$$\bar{x} = 103.11$$