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The relationship of teachers' job satisfaction and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles in private vocational high schools in a selected metropolitan area of Taiwan

Ining Yuan-Hsiang Chu
University of Northern Iowa

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Chu, Ining Yuan-Hsiang, D.I.T.

University of Northern Iowa, 1993

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IN PRIVATE VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS
IN A SELECTED METROPOLITAN AREA OF TAIWAN

A Dissertation

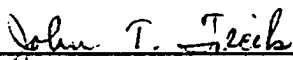
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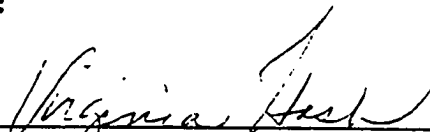
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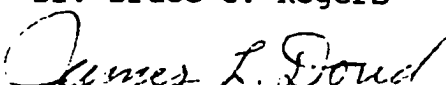

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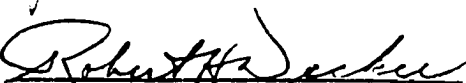

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July 1993

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION AND
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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) in the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area of Taiwan. A secondary purpose was to examine the difference between teachers' gender, educational level, and length of service in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles and job satisfaction.

The sample consisted of 629 full-time private vocational high school teachers. The translated Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles. The translated Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Short Form was used to measure teachers' general job satisfaction. A demographic sheet designed by the researcher was used to request subjects to provide information about gender, educational level, and length of service. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed between each leadership scale and general job satisfaction. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to predict which subset of MLQ leadership scales would most influence job satisfaction. The t test was used to compare the difference on teachers'

gender, educational level, and length of service with both the perceptions concerning the leadership styles of their principals and their job satisfaction.

The major conclusions drawn from the study were: (a) teachers perceived their principals' leadership styles to be predominantly laissez-faire; (b) overall transformational leadership and its subscales were positively correlated with general job satisfaction; (c) female teachers perceived their principals as more transformational leaders and less laissez-faire leaders than male teachers, but there was no significant difference between male and female teachers' perceptions of their principals' transactional leadership style; (d) there was no significant difference between teachers with bachelor degree and less than bachelor degree nor between those who had served more and less than 10 years, in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles; and (e) higher levels of job satisfaction were found among female teachers, those with bachelor degree and higher, and those with less than 10 years of service.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation dealt primarily with private vocational high school teachers' job satisfaction related to their perceptions of principals' leadership styles. This study was conducted in the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung, Taiwan, Republic of China.

In Taiwan, the total period of study from kindergarten to graduate school varies with the individual. Normally this would include two years for pre-school education, six years for elementary education, three years for junior high school education, and three years for senior secondary education. Higher education includes from two to seven years for undergraduate studies, two years or more for earning a master degree, and two years or more for earning the doctoral degree.

In the central government of Taiwan, there is the Ministry of Education. In the provincial government, there is a Department of Education; special municipalities and metropolises have Bureaus of Education, and each county or city has a Division or Bureau of Education. Each level of the government has its own domain of power of legislating and administering the educational system.

There are two groups for senior secondary education: high schools and vocational schools. Admittance to these schools is limited to qualified candidates who have passed

the entrance examination. In most cases, the students with the highest entrance examination scores will prefer to choose to go to academic high schools, those with the lowest scores will go to private vocational high schools. Private vocational schools outnumber (11:5) public ones.

In Taiwan, there are seven categories of vocational schools: agriculture, industry, commerce, marine products, nursing and midwifery, home economics, and opera and arts. In 1992, there was a total of 58,882 high school students (grades 10 to 12) in the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area: 70% of these students were in the vocational education programs and 77% of vocational students (31,694) were in the private vocational high schools (Kaohsiung Metropolitan Bureau of Education, 1992).

Attention in this study has been focused on private vocational high school teachers because of the vital role they play in educating a society. Individuals who teach in private vocational high schools perform a very important function in delivering vocational and technical instruction to Taiwanese youth. The knowledge and experience gained by the students in these programs are enabling factors in helping them to make informed career decisions as they strive for personal fulfillment. Some students enter the work force with job entry level skills after graduating from vocational high schools, or after completing additional in-depth education at post-secondary technical institutions.

Whatever an individual student's career goals may be, vocational high school teachers play an important role in helping students explore opportunities and interests as well as in building work attitudes and skills that will help ensure success in the world of work (Warr, 1991).

In addition to the individual benefits to be considered, vocational education also benefits the society. It is a basic requirement of society that positions important to its continued existence be filled by capable workers (Warr, 1991). In meeting the needs of a society for qualified workers, human talent and skills should be used to their limits (Calhoun & Finch, 1976). Teachers in private vocational high schools are in a unique position to help meet the labor needs of the nation, as well as the needs of the individual students.

Sonpon (1984) suggested that to keep teachers satisfied, it is essential for students, fellow teachers, and school administrators to relate positively to one another in terms of cooperation, communication, recognition, and participation in activities. The concept of job satisfaction is particularly intriguing because it is an end in itself--a positive outcome that is highly valued (Jorde, 1984). Many of the factors which influence the job satisfaction of teachers are school related. Of these factors, one of the most important is the relationship with their principals (Perkins, 1991). There are also other

factors to be considered when one analyzes job satisfaction. These factors include: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction factors. Intrinsic factors of job satisfaction refer to: ability utilization, achievement, activity, authority, creativity, independence, moral values, responsibility, security, social service, social status, and variety. Factors determined as extrinsic factors include advancement, company policies and practices, compensation, recognition, supervision (human relations), and supervision (technical). General satisfaction factors include all the intrinsic and extrinsic factors plus two additional factors: co-workers and working conditions (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).

The study of job satisfaction also takes on special significance when viewed from the standpoint of a principal's leadership style. Bass (1985) argued that leadership has generally been conceptualized as a transactional exchange process. A transactional leader motivates subordinates by exchanging rewards for services rendered. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, motivate subordinates to perform "beyond expectation." An educational organization, like any other human organization, achieves its goals and objectives by and through people. Today, work is viewed not only in terms of the task requirements and skills necessary for productivity, but also

in terms of the conditions that must be met if workers' values and needs are to be satisfied (Dawis & Lofquist, 1981).

The principal-teacher relationship has become more and more important with the increase in decision making at the school site. Boland and Shelby (1980) pointed out that one important factor in teacher turnover was the teacher's dissatisfaction with the principal. It is important that principals be aware of the job satisfiers of teachers over which they have some direct influence.

Teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles were linked with their job satisfaction. What principals do or say can make an impact on the perceptions of them by their teachers (Gordon, Stockard, & Williford, 1992). The principals must set a tone for the schools in which teachers perceive what they are doing is worthwhile and stimulating (Fox, 1986).

Recently, the literature pertaining to leadership has introduced a much broader and more encompassing concept; that is the notion of vision (Guthrie & Reed, 1991; Roueche & Baker III, 1986; Stallings & Mohlman, 1981). Visionary leadership has emerged as a prominent trait of high performing administrators (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Guthrie & Reed, 1991). Effective school leaders create conditions to help teachers realize their vision. Vision provides the impetus and power to motivate teachers,

especially for those who work for the private vocational high schools in Taiwan.

Statement of the Problem

The research problem was to examine the teachers' job satisfaction related to their perceptions of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire). A related problem was to examine the teacher's gender, level of education, and length of service, as each was related to both the perceptions concerning the leadership style of their principal, and the teachers' general job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this research was to increase the knowledge about principals' leadership styles that can increase teachers' job satisfaction. Toward that end, this study tested Bass and Avolio's (1988) model of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership in the educational setting and used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to gather the data to predict teachers' job satisfaction. In addition, teachers' gender, educational level, and length of service and their perceptions of principal's leadership style and job satisfaction were also examined.

Need for the Research

One compelling reason for this research was to enhance the understanding of the relationship between private vocational high school teachers' job satisfaction and their perceptions of their principals' leadership styles. This understanding will help to develop programs to prepare, sustain or improve the performance of educators and to ultimately improve student performance.

A second reason for research pertaining to job satisfaction seems to be related to absenteeism and turnover. According to Davis (1977), low job satisfaction appeared to be one of the surest signs of deteriorating conditions in an organization. An extensive review of the literature revealed that although many studies have been conducted which investigated job satisfaction and labor turnover among clerical workers, sales personnel, armed services personnel, nurses, and hospital employee populations, none were found to have been conducted on a sample of private vocational high school teachers. According to Warr (1991), turnover among vocational and technical teachers can create a lack of continuity and consistency in the educational program.

The relationship between job satisfaction and teachers efficacy provides a third impetus for research. Gibson and Dembo (1984) have identified two factors in a teacher efficacy construct: personal and general efficacy.

Personal efficacy refers to an individual's belief that one can positively influence student learning, while general efficacy refers to a teacher's belief in the teaching profession as a whole to influence educational outcomes. Some researchers contended that persons scoring high on both efficacy factors will act with assurance and tenacity, and people low on these factors will generally give up teaching quickly if they do not achieve expected results (Poole, Kelly, & Sloan, 1989). In general, teacher satisfaction appears to depend on the extent to which a sense of efficacy is developed. Those teachers with a strong sense of efficacy create higher levels of satisfaction not only for themselves, but for other teachers, the administration, and schools in general (McLaughlin & Yee, 1988).

A fourth reason for research into the relationship of leadership style and job satisfaction is educational and administrative accountability. The modern work and social environment which have been associated with growing frustration and stress and declining quality of work life are important factors to consider (Fraser, 1983). Maslach (1982) identified three aspects of the burnout syndrome: (a) emotional exhaustion--as workers' emotional resources are depleted, they feel no longer able to give of themselves at a psychological level; (b) depersonalization--the development of negative, cynical attitudes about the recipients of one's services; and (c) negative feelings of

accomplishment--the workers become dissatisfied with themselves and with their accomplishments on the job; thus efforts to understand job satisfaction become more necessary.

The need to identify characteristics of successful leadership and management styles within the principalship which are directed toward the motivation of teachers to do a good job provides another reason for doing this research. A new theory of management for the principalship suggests the need to subsume such ideas as "what-gets-rewarded-gets-done" into a broader motivational strategy that recognizes the importance of sharing values or visions (Sergiovanni, 1991). Weick (cited in Sergiovanni, 1991) noted:

the effective administrator . . . makes full use of symbol management to tie the system together. People need to be part of sensible projects. Their action becomes richer, more confident, and more satisfying when it is linked with important underlying themes, values, and movements. (p. 60)

Rutherford (1985) found that teachers and students in a school with visionary leadership identified the school as a good place. Vision is important because it serves as a guide for the school's administrators, faculty, students, and support staff. It helps establish the climate for the school, because expectations, goals, and purposes are clear and cogent. When vision attains results, teachers and students become aware of their accomplishments and

experience a sense of pride in their involvement. This is very important for private vocational high schools in Taiwan.

Educational reform mandates that teachers be agents of change, therefore, the importance of teachers' satisfaction can not be overlooked. Leslie (1989) found that dissatisfied teachers weaken educational programs and that basic human relations principles can help administrators meet teachers' needs. She also found that teachers can learn to cope with many of the stresses of their jobs if they develop a positive self-image.

Job satisfaction has been a major thrust for industrial psychologists and personnel managers as a means for increasing job performance and reducing turnover (Jorde-Bloom, 1986). Jorde-Bloom (1986) pointed out a direct causal link between job satisfaction and productivity on the job. However no such link has been established for teachers. Yet many school administrators feel that job dissatisfaction can have a deleterious impact on organizational effectiveness (Peterson & Edmunds, 1990). It is necessary to understand the relationships between teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction in an educational setting. One rarely finds a successful school without an effective principal. By the same token, rarely does the principal accomplish much without empowering and motivating others to

act (Sergiovanni, 1991). There is a lack of such information and research for private vocational high school teachers' job satisfaction related to their perceptions of principals' leadership styles.

Research Questions

It was the purpose of this study to examine the following research questions:

Research Question 1. What is the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style) and their general job satisfaction?

Research Question 2. Is there a difference between the gender, educational level, or length of service of teachers and their perceptions of the leadership styles of the principals?

Research Question 3. Is there a difference between teachers' general job satisfaction and their gender, educational level, or length of service?

Null Hypotheses

The following Null Hypotheses were tested in seeking resolve to the research questions of this study. All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Null Hypothesis 1A: There is no relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their perceptions of their principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles).

Null Hypothesis 1B: There is no subset of MLQ leadership scales (overall transformational leadership, overall transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership scales, and their subscales) which can predict teachers' job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 2A: There is no significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style).

Null Hypothesis 2B: There is no significant difference between the teachers' educational level in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style).

Null Hypothesis 2C: There is no significant difference between the teachers' length of service in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style).

Null Hypothesis 3A: There is no significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of their general job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3B: There is no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their general job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3C: There is no significant difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their general job satisfaction.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were considered as a basis for the study.

1. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1992) could measure the degree to which educational principals were perceived to use transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style.

2. Job satisfaction of private vocational education teachers in the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area was measurable by using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967).

3. Teachers answered the survey questions objectively and truthfully.

4. A written questionnaire was an appropriate method for measuring job satisfaction and leadership style.

5. Reliability and validity of the instruments were maintained through the translations into the Chinese language.

Delimitations

The following delimitations were inherent in this study:

1. The population was delimited to private vocational high schools in the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area of Taiwan.

2. For analytical purposes the demographic data in this study were limited to: gender, educational level, and length of service.

3. Conclusions from this study might be applicable only to private vocational education teachers in the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung, Taiwan.

Methodology and Procedures

Data Collection

The research design of this study was a correlational research. Data were collected using a three-part questionnaire. The first portion contained a demographic data sheet which included the variables most often cited in the literature when investigating teachers' job satisfaction: gender, length of service, and educational level.

The second portion was an adaptation of the leadership style questionnaire from Bass and Avolio (1992), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). This instrument provided for five responses: A = frequently; B = fairly often; C = sometimes; D = once in a while; and E = not at all. Sixty-eight (68) items chosen from MLQ were sorted into eight scales: charisma; inspiration; intellectual stimulation; individualized consideration; contingent reward; management-by-exception (active); management-by-exception (passive); and laissez-faire. Charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration are the critical characteristics of transformational leaders. Contingent rewards, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive) are the important characteristics of transactional leaders. Laissez-faire was the characteristic for a leader who abdicated responsibilities and avoided making decisions (Bass, 1990b).

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Short Form, a job satisfaction questionnaire adopted from Weiss et al. (1967), comprised the third portion of the research instrument. This instrument provided for five responses: A = very satisfied; B = satisfied; C = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; D = dissatisfied; and E = very dissatisfied. These responses were divided into three scales: intrinsic; extrinsic; and general satisfaction.

Procedures

The theoretical foundation for this study was based on the review of the literature and the following procedures were developed to collect and analyze the data:

1. Identification of the problem, scope, methodology, and procedures.
2. Related information, literature, dissertations, and journals were reviewed.
3. A jury of experts reviewed the Chinese translation of the questionnaires to verify accuracy of translation and establish reliability and validity.
4. A pilot test was conducted by randomly choosing two teachers from each of the eight private vocational high schools in the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area.
5. The selected population received questionnaires and responded to the survey.
6. The data were compiled and analyzed by using SPSS/VAX. To assess the teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction, data were analyzed by using correlational statistics. The Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) of each scale of leadership style and general job satisfaction were calculated. The correlations among each scale of the MLQ leadership styles and MSQ general job satisfaction were computed by using Pearson product-moment coefficient. Stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to

determine the significance of the subset of MLQ leadership scales for predicting job satisfaction. The t test was used to compare the difference between teachers' demographic data and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles and job satisfaction.

7. The findings of the data were applied to the research problems.

8. The interpretation of the results of this testing were reported.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrumentation

The primary instruments selected for this study were the MLQ and MSQ Short Form. The MLQ (Form 5X) for rater, was modified for research purposes and translated into Chinese with the permission of the Center for Leadership Studies, State University of New York at Binghamton. The copy of permission letter is shown in Appendix A. Over time, data collected on the MLQ has indicated substantial support for the construct validity of the theoretically and empirically based factors that comprise it. The scales have been found to be internally consistent, and test-retest reliability over a six-month interval has been good. These data are shown in Appendix C.

The MSQ, Short Form, was chosen for research purposes and translated into Chinese with the permission of Vocational Psychology Research, Department of Psychology, University of Minnesota. The copy of permission letter is

shown in Appendix A. This instrument is well-normed and has exhibited acceptable validity and reliability coefficients for those traits it purports to measure. These data are shown in Appendix D.

Definition of Terms

The following definition of terms were used in this dissertation:

1. Vocational Education: According to Chou (1985), vocational education is organized educational programs that are directly related to the preparation of individuals for paid or unpaid employment, or for additional preparation for a career requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree.

2. Full-Time Teacher: In Taiwan, the contract stipulation for a full-time teacher includes teaching 16 hours or more per week and working in the school for 44 hours a week.

3. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy: There are two construct dimensions herein referred to as teachers' sense of general and personal teaching efficacy. Personal efficacy refers to an individual's belief that one can positively influence student learning, while general efficacy refers to a teacher's belief in the teaching profession as a whole to influence educational outcomes (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

4. Leadership: Leadership is the quality which enables an individual within a given setting to establish an organizational vision, to motivate and inspire others to embrace that vision and achieve and maintain organizational and individual goals (Guthrie & Reed, 1991).

5. Transformational Leadership: Guthrie and Reed (1991) defined transformational leadership as the leaders who influence the behavior of followers through the use of power, the ability of the leader to change followers' attitudes, raise their levels of motivation and morality, and build organizational commitment through an interactive process with the follower.

According to Bass and Avolio (1988), transformational leadership can be measured by four factors of the MLQ--charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

6. Charisma: The quality of the leader providing vision and sense of mission, instilling pride, gaining respect and trust through the power of personality (Bass, 1990b).

7. Inspiration: The ability of the leader to communicate high expectations, use symbols to focus efforts and to express important purposes in simple ways which result in improved performance (Bass, 1990b).

8. Intellectual Stimulation: Leader actions which promote intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving (Bass, 1990b).

9. Individualized Consideration: The extent to which the leader gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches and advises individuals in the work place (Bass, 1990b).

10. Transactional Leadership: Transactional leadership is an exchange in which the leader rewards subordinates for compliance with his or her expectation (Bass & Avolio, 1988). According to these authors, transactional leadership can be measured by three factors of the MLQ--contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive).

11. Contingent Reward: A factor of transactional leadership in which rewards are exchanged for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments (Bass, 1990b).

12. Management by Exception (Active): A factor of transactional leadership in which leader watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, and takes corrective action at the first sign of such deviation (Bass, 1990b).

13. Management by Exception (Passive): A factor of transactional leadership in which leader intervenes only in situations where standards are not met (Bass, 1990b).

14. Laissez-Faire: A leader who gives group members complete freedom of action, provides them with materials, refrains from participating except to answer questions when asked, and does not make evaluative remarks (Bass, 1990a).

15. Vision: A vision is a blueprint of a desired state. It is an image of a preferred condition that we work to achieve in the future (Sheive & Schoenheit, 1987).

16. Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is the employee's appraisal of the extent to which personal needs correspond to reinforcers available in the work environment (Weiss et al., 1967).

17. Extrinsic Satisfaction Factors: Extrinsic satisfaction is satisfaction derived from factors related to the job context or setting, such as advancement, company policies and practices, compensation, recognition, supervision of human relations and technical (Weiss et al., 1967).

18. Intrinsic Satisfaction Factors: Intrinsic satisfaction is satisfaction derived from factors associated with the content of the work, such as ability utilization, achievement, activity, authority, creativity, independence, moral values, responsibility, security, social service, social status, and variety (Weiss et al., 1967).

19. General Satisfaction Factors: General satisfaction combines all the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction factors and includes two additional factors: co-workers and working conditions (Weiss et al., 1967).

Summary and Overview of the Dissertation

Private vocational high school principals and teachers hold a very important role in the Taiwan educational system because they help the majority of Taiwanese students reach their individual needs, and at the same time meet the needs of society for qualified workers. Although some research was found which showed a relationship between job satisfaction and principal leadership style, no study was found which used private vocational high school teachers as the research population. Findings of this study would be useful in understanding the private vocational high school teachers' perception of their principals' leadership style and its relationship to teachers' job satisfaction, and consequently resulting in the retention of a higher percentage of private vocational education teachers.

Chapter I addressed the study's problem, needs and purposes, raised research questions and null hypotheses, defined the delimitations of the study and provided definitions. Chapter II reviewed the literature relating to leadership concepts and teachers' job satisfaction theories and presented major findings and conclusions of previous

researchers. Chapter III described the samples and the instruments and explained the methods and procedures utilized in collecting and analyzing the data. Chapter IV described the characteristics of the sample and presented the findings of the study and the analysis of the data. Chapter V summarized and interpreted the findings, presented conclusions, and discussed the implications for practice and further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of Chapter 2 was to review the literature pertinent to the subject of leadership style as it is related to job satisfaction. A summary of the literature relating the leadership style is presented first, followed by a review of motivation and job satisfaction theories. The relations between teachers' demographic characteristics such as gender, educational level and length of service and their job satisfaction and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles were also explored.

Leadership

Leadership is an important aspect of organizational structure. It is generally believed that a business or organization's success is dependent upon the decisions, knowledge, skills and effectiveness of its leader(s). Leadership effectiveness can be measured by group performance, goal attainment, group survival, group growth, subordinate satisfaction with the leader, and subordinate commitment to group goals (Walsh, Holland, & McGuire, 1992).

Functions of The Leader

Fayol (1949) posited that essential management elements consisted of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. Some other authors (Gulick, 1937; Sears, 1950; Tead, 1951) augmented this list and held that the administrative process consisted of planning, organizing,

staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Other theorists also have contributed to the understanding of administration. For example, Sheldon (1923) stressed that administration was both a scientific process and a philosophy. Administrators not only perform functions such as listed by Fayol (1949) but also have an ethical and moral responsibility to the community. Simon (1961) has written persuasively about the decision-making functions of administrators. In addition to these functions, the ability of administrators to communicate effectively to others within and outside the organization is also considered a crucial function of leadership and management. In considering the totality of views such as the foregoing, this researcher believes that administrative functions, as related to schools, should include budgeting, organizing, leading, decision making, staffing, planning, evaluating, communicating, and coordinating.

Theories of Leadership

Through understanding these functions of the school leaders, it is clear that the effectiveness of each school and school system is a function of leadership. Leadership is referred to those qualities which enables an individual within a given setting to establish an organizational vision, to motivate and inspire others to embrace that vision and achieve and maintain organizational and individual goals (Guthrie & Reed, 1991).

The effectiveness of leaders is associated with the use of legitimate authority and power to accomplish organizational tasks. They are also dependent on personal characteristics, the interaction with followers, and the situation itself (Guthrie & Reed, 1991). Consequently, five basic leadership theories have been pursued in an attempt to account for leader effectiveness: (a) Trait Theories; (b) Power and Influence Theories; (c) Behavioral Theories; (d) Contingency Theories; and (e) Cultural and Symbolic Theories.

Trait Theories

Trait theory was the basis for most leadership research until the 1940s. Trait theories identify specific characteristics that are believed to contribute to a person's ability to assume and successfully function in a leadership position. Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) address three types of traits identified in the literature. First, are physical factors such as height, weight, appearance, and age. Second, researchers have examined ability characteristics such as intelligence, fluency of speech, scholarship and knowledge. Third, a wide range of personality features have been examined including conservatism, introversion-extroversion, dominance, personal adjustment, self-confidence, interpersonal sensitivity and emotional control (Bass, 1981). Early research (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948) concluded that traits are inherited, but

later theories (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991) suggested that traits could be acquired through learning and experience. The focus and basis of trait theories then shifted to identifying traits that most often contributed to a person's ability to assume a leadership position and to be a successful leader. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) suggested that the following traits distinguish leaders from others: drive (including ambition, energy, tenacity); strong desire to lead; honesty and integrity; self-confidence (including emotional stability); cognitive ability (that is, the ability to marshal and interpret a wide variety of information); and knowledge of the business.

Power and Influence Theories

Power and influence theories consider leadership in terms of the source and amount of power available to leaders and the manner in which leaders exercise that power over followers through either unilateral or reciprocal interactions (Bensimon et al., 1989). There are two major comparisons of leadership theories in this field which have been selected for analysis: social power versus social exchange and transactional leadership versus transformational leadership.

Social power versus social exchange. Bensimon et al. (1989) analyzes two themes which have emerged from the research on how effective leaders use power--social power and social exchange. The social power approach considers

how leaders influence followers. The social exchange approach emphasizes the reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers through which leaders are themselves influenced as they try to influence others.

French and Raven (1959) defined five bases of social power: legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, expert power, and referent power. Legitimate power is the authority vested in or assigned to a person. Reward power is the control and distribution of rewards valued by others. Coercive power is the control and withholding of reward valued by others. Expert power is the expertise of special knowledge, skill or experience. Referent power is personal attractiveness or membership in someone's primary experience group; i.e. the desire to be like someone.

French and Raven's (1959) conceptualization distinguishes between power derived from the organization--reward, coercive, legitimate; and power which resides in the individual--expert and referent. Which form(s) of power used will clearly depend on the situation. There is evidence, however, to suggest that expert, legitimate, and referent power is preferred and more willingly accepted by teachers than either reward or coercive power (Guthrie & Reed, 1991). Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) suggests that few principals depend mainly on their legitimate power or their coercive power. Rather, principals engage in a

transaction with their subordinates by explaining what is required of them and what compensation they will receive if they fulfill these requirements.

While social power emphasizes one-way influence, social exchange emphasizes two-way mutual influence. Social exchange emphasizes the reciprocal relationships between leaders who provide needed services to a group in exchange for the group's compliance with the leader's demands. Leadership is closely tied to the expectations of followers. In order to be successful, leaders need to either fulfill these expectations or change them (Bensimon et al., 1989).

Transactional leadership versus transformational leadership. According to Burns (1978), leadership is exercised when persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize resources so as to arouse and satisfy the motives of followers. He identified two broad kinds of leadership, transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership focuses on basic and largely extrinsic motives and needs while transformational leadership focuses on high-order, more intrinsic, and ultimately moral motives and needs. Transformational leadership is in two stages, one concerned with higher-order psychological needs for esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization and the other with moral questions of goodness, righteousness, duty, and obligation. Etzioni (1988) pointed out that ultimately what counts most to people is what they believe, how they feel, and the

shared norms and cultural messages that emerge from the groups and communities with which they identify. Etzioni (cited in Sergiovanni, 1991) maintained:

Morality, emotion, and social bonds are far more powerful motivators than are the extrinsic concerns of transactional leadership and the intrinsic psychological concerns of the early stages of transformational leadership. (p. 125)

Another view of transformational leadership was developed from interviews held with 90 top leaders including corporate executives, elected government officials, orchestra conductors, and college presidents (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Bennis et al. (1989) found that these leaders employed four strategies:

(a) attention through vision--having a clear agenda and being oriented toward results; (b) achieving meaning through communication--interpreting reality to enable coordinated action, with the use of metaphors, images, and models as particularly effective in conveying meaning and explanations; (c) gaining trust through positioning--acquired by demonstrating accountability, predictability, reliability, constancy; and (d) gaining recognition or attention through positive self-regard--with the leader emphasizing his or her own strengths and minimizing weaknesses. (p. 11)

One way to differentiate transactional from transformational leadership is that while the transactional leader accepts the organizational culture as it exists, the transformational leader invents, introduces, and advances new cultural forms (Bass, 1985). Three factors associated with transformational leadership are charismatic leadership, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bryman, 1992; House & Baetz, 1979). Bass (1990a) indicated

that to be a charismatic leader, one must possess certain traits, including self-confidence, self-esteem, and self-determination. Individualized consideration refers to aspects of consultation and participative decision making. In Bass's (1990a) model, leaders demonstrate this characteristic by being concerned with the development of their subordinates, by delegating challenging work, by maintaining contact with subordinates, by maintaining informal communication channels, by keeping subordinates informed, and by providing mentoring. Intellectual stimulation from the perspective of transformational leadership is seen as the leader's ability to change the way followers perceive, conceptualize, and solve problems. The ability "to use visions and symbols to project ideas is one way in which leaders provide intellectual stimulation" (Bensimon et al., 1989, p. 11).

Bass (1985) expounded that transformational leadership created:

performance beyond expectation and induces additional effort by sharply increasing subordinate confidence and by elevating the value of outcomes for the subordinate. This is done by expanding the subordinate's needs, by focusing on transcendental interests, and/or by altering or widening the subordinate's level of needs on Maslow's hierarchy. (p. 22)

Bensimon et al. (1989) suggested "such leadership is more likely to emerge in times of rapid change and distress and in organizations that have unclear goals and structure, well-educated members, and a high level of trust" (p. 12).

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories study leadership by analyzing patterns of activity and managerial roles (Bensimon et al., 1989). Two key theories in the behaviorism field have been selected for analysis: McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y and the Managerial Grid and Ohio State Leadership Studies.

Before examining each of the theories, it is important to understand the origin of behavioral theories. Skinner was one of the most prominent theorist in the field (Nye, 1992). His primary interest was in studying the effects of behavior on the social and physical environment. Skinner viewed humans as being very active and, as a result, emitting various behaviors. Skinner (cited in Nye, 1992) defined those behaviors that operate or act on the environment to produce consequences as operant behaviors. Whether or not the behavior is repeated is determined by the consequences. Skinner's theory on operant behavior differs from earlier studies done by Pavlov and Watson (cited in Nye, 1992). Skinner focused on emitted responses; while Pavlov and Watson focused on interpreting responses that are elicited by a neutral stimuli. Skinner was very concerned with the circumstances under which the behavior occurred, the specific behavior itself, and the ensuing consequences of the behavior (Nye, 1992).

Other popular behavioral theorists are Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) whose development of a leadership continuum became the basis for Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. Figure 1 illustrates both the authoritarian and democratic style of leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

The authoritarian style is completely task-oriented, relying on leaders telling their followers what to do. The authoritarian style can be very beneficial in certain situations. For example, consider a manager who is teaching a beginning worker how to operate a machine in a factory. The manager teaches the worker how to operate the machine by either demonstrating or using a hands-on approach.

At the opposite end of the continuum is the democratic style of leadership. The democratic style is participant-oriented; there is a high degree of concern for maintaining positive work relations. Leaders share their leadership responsibilities with subordinates. The implementation of this style achieves the greatest results with those employees who want to do a good job and who show an interest in the business. An emphasis is placed on employees being self-directed.

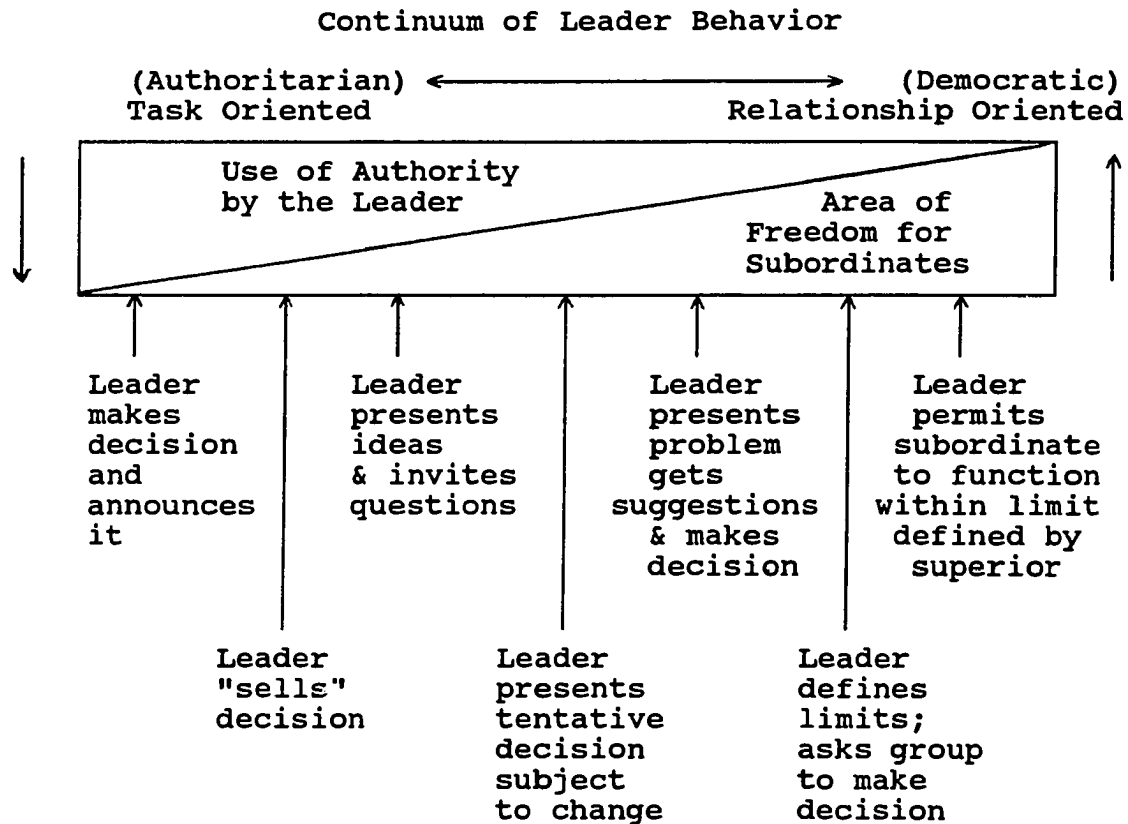


Figure 1. Continuum of leader behavior.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. From Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) model, McGregor developed Theory X and Theory Y. The authoritarian style of leadership (Theory X) is pessimistic by assuming people are lazy and unreliable (Beer, 1984). The power of an authoritarian style of leader comes from his/her position or rank. The democratic leadership style (Theory Y) is more positive and assumes that people can control their own behavior and respond favorably to active participation.

In more detail, managers using Theory X assume that the average person has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible. To counteract the lack of motivation, a leader would emphasize productivity, a fair day's work, and offer performance rewards. Second, it is assumed that people must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth an effort to achieve the established goals or objectives. An individual's dislike of work is often so strong that even rewards will not overcome the lack of productivity. Third, the average person enjoys being directed, tries to avoid responsibility, and has little ambition. In an authoritarian situation, the individual's goals are second to the organization's goals. The leader achieves direction and control through exercising authority. In return for rewards, the subordinate accepts the external control and authority (McGregor, 1960).

Recently, there has been a trend to give employees more equitable treatment, in addition to providing a safe work environment. This type of environment is ideal for Theory Y. Like Theory X, Theory Y is also based on several assumptions. First, exerting one's self physically and mentally is very natural. In exchange for the exertion, an individual receives satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment. Second, threatening punishment is not the only way to motivate people; a shared commitment to work toward the institutions' goal will lead to self-direction

and self-control. Leaders choose to delegate a portion of their responsibility to subordinates. Third, the average person will seek out a challenge. Fourth, creativity is promoted throughout the organization. Ingenuity and imagination are used to solve problems. Theory Y encourages growth and development for both the institution and the individual (McGregor, 1960).

Managerial Grid. Another well known leadership theory is the one developed by the Ohio State Leadership Institute which was initiated in 1945 by the Bureau of Business Research. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) identified two essential aspects of leadership behavior: "initiating structure" (task oriented) and "consideration" (relationship oriented). Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself or herself and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and methods of procedure. Task oriented leaders stress such activities as directing, coordinating, planning, and problem solving. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship.

One influential application of this approach is the Managerial Grid. The Grid identifies major theories about how to exercise leadership in the pursuit of production with and through others. It has been under development and

refinement for many years. It began when the Exxon Company hired Blake and Mouton to perform a series of major experiments concerned with increasing leadership effectiveness. It is now used all over the world in all types of organizations.

The Managerial Grid (see Figure 2) consists of two main parts which represent various ways to use authority in exercising leadership: concern for production and concern for people. Concern for production represents getting results; whereas, concern for people represents colleagues and subordinates. "Concern for" is not a mechanical term that indicates the amount of actual production achieved or actual behavior toward people. Instead it indicates the character and strength of assumptions present behind any given leadership (Blake & Mouton, 1985).

Concern for production, which includes results, bottom-line performance, profits or mission, may be revealed in the scope and soundness of decisions, goals established and/or quality of services. Concern for people is an effort to get results based on such things as trust, respect, support and understanding. Character and intensity are also listed as important factors.

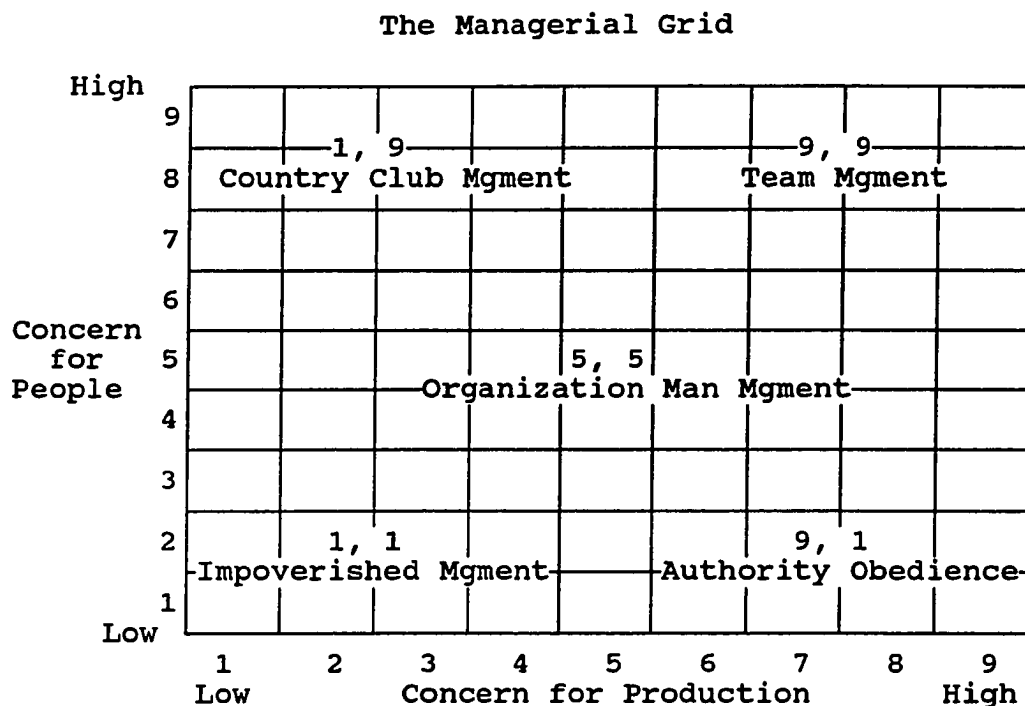


Figure 2. The managerial grid.

As is shown in Figure 2, these two concerns are measured on a nine point scales ranging from one (1) which represents the low concern to nine (9) which represents the high concern. From the basic structure, the grid has been dissected even further into different quadrants. Each of these quadrants has a name for the leadership style that is adapted, based on the level of concern. There are five different quadrants and they are listed as follows (Blake & Mouton, 1985):

1. Country Club Management (1, 9)--Thoughtful attention to the needs of people. Satisfying relationships

leads to a comfortable, friendly organizational atmosphere and work tempo.

2. Authority-Obedience Management (9, 1)--Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

3. Impoverished Management (1, 1)--Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organizational membership.

4. Organization Management (5, 5)--Adequate organizational performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out the work and maintain morale of people at a satisfactory level.

5. Team Management (9, 9)--Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" leads to relationships of trust and respect.

Distinct facets of leader behavior involves the concern for the task of the organization or the interpersonal needs of individuals. Some leaders manifest more of one than the other, some neither. In general, leaders who frequently display high levels of individual consideration and concern for organizational goals tend to be more effective (Halpin, 1966). Effectiveness of leadership style, however, is contingent on the situation. It is logical to assume,

therefore, that a single and inflexible leadership style is impractical, undesirable, and unwarranted (Guthrie & Reed, 1991).

Contingency Theories

Leadership studies that have searched for the best traits or behaviors have failed to find a leadership mix and style that is effective for all situations (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, Jr., 1985). A more realistic set of leadership studies proposes that effective leadership is the result of the interaction between the leader, the led, and the organizational environment (Plunkett & Attner, 1989). These contingency models call attention to the sources and perceptions of power and influence used by the leader, potential moderators of the leader's effectiveness (e.g., the leader's style and experience, the situation and task mix, and the follower's need, experience, and goals), and the goals or outcomes of the leader's behavior (Gibson et al., 1985).

Six important contingency theories of leadership have been selected for presentation in this research: Fiedler's contingency leadership model; Vroom and Yetton's decision participation model; House and Mitchell's path-goal theory of leadership; Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory; Yukl's multiple linkage model; and Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership.

Fiedler's contingency model. Fiedler and Mahar (1979) postulated that group performance is dependent on the interaction of the leader's style and the favorableness of the situation. The effectiveness of the leader is determined by the interaction of the leader's primary motivation (task-orientation or employee-orientation) with three situational variables: leader-member relations, task structure, and leader position power.

A task-oriented leader usually practices a more controlling, structuring style. A leader who is relationship-oriented is described as more passive and considerate. Fiedler developed the Least-Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Scale to determine how positive or negative a person is toward the least-preferred co-worker. The high-LPC person is more relationship-oriented, and the low-LPC person is more task-oriented (Gibson et al., 1985).

The situational factors proposed by Fiedler determine whether a high-LPC or a low-LPC leader is more likely to be effective. The leader-member relationship is perhaps the most important factor in terms of the power and influence of the leader since power and influence depend in part on acceptance by the followers. Task structure, the second situational factor, concerns the nature of the follower's job or task and the degree to which its components are

structured. The components include goal clarity, goal-path multiplicity, decision verifiability, and decision-specificity.

Fiedler's theory predicts that task-motivated leaders perform best with a high or low degree of control and influence. Relationship-oriented leaders perform best with a moderate degree of control and influence (Fiedler & Mahar, 1979). The contingency model suggests the most effective way to improve leadership is to modify the situation to be consistent with the leader's primary orientation or to match the leader to a complementary situation (Bensimon et al., 1989).

Vroom and Yetton's decision participation model. Vroom and Yetton (1973), unlike Fiedler, assume that leaders must be able and flexible enough to change their leadership styles to fit the situation. The model for decision participation measures leader effectiveness by the degree to which followers are permitted to participate in the decision-making process (Bensimon et al., 1989). The amount of follower participation depends on the leaders' skill and knowledge, whether or not a quality decision is needed, the extent to which the problem is structured, and whether or not acceptance by the followers is needed to implement the decision (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

House and Mitchell's path-goal theory. House and Mitchell (1974) in their path-goal theory of leadership proposed that leader effectiveness depends on how well the leader can provide guidance, motivation, and support for accomplishing the goals of the followers. The leader's effectiveness or ineffectiveness is based on how the leader influences the perceptions of work goals or rewards of the followers and the paths or behaviors leading to successful goal achievement.

The path-goal model provides four types of leadership behaviors based on the work needed: (a) instrumental behavior--making expectations clear and closely directing the work; (b) supportive behavior--treating followers as equals; (c) participative behavior--consulting with followers and using their suggestions and ideas; and (d) achievement-oriented behavior--setting challenging goals, expecting the highest level of performance, and continually seeking improvement in performance. The leader's role is first to increase the number and kinds of personal payoffs to followers and second to provide guidance and counsel for clarifying paths and reducing problems when seeking various outcomes (Gibson et al., 1985).

Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) illustrated the variation in leadership requirements based on the performance ability of the individual followers. The life cycle theory explains the

necessary changes in leadership to respond to the organizational maturity, education, and willingness of the employees. The leader moves from a telling, high direction style with a newer employee, through a consulting style to a participating style as the employee matures and gains more experience, and finally to a delegating, low direction style as the employee's ability level and willingness to act independently increase.

Leaders must be aware of both their own preferred or inherent leadership style and the leadership expectations of the followers and then adapt their own styles to work within these expectations as well as the particulars of the work situation itself.

Yukl's multiple linkage model. Yukl (1971) suggested that any short-term effect of the leader's behavior on the group's performance is mediated by a large number of intervening variables such as the subordinate's effort, group cohesiveness and teamwork, tasks, and skills. The responsibility of the leader is to fill in the gaps between the variables with a broad range of specific leader behaviors (e.g., goal setting, positive reinforcement, job enrichment, etc.) in order to maximize the performance of each individual. The leader facilitates the output in a fashion that makes it valuable and useful both to the follower and to the organization.

According to Seashore (cited in McDonald, Mitchell, Sanders, & Sherbet, 1992) "In unit production situations, the demands on a leader on a day-to-day operational basis requires the tailoring of instruction to each worker's needs and adjusting work atmospheres to meet the need of the organization as well as the individual" (p. 46). The leader, on behalf of the subordinate, makes many decisions. Thus, a knowledge of each worker and a sensitivity to the environment are crucial. Through strategic planning and program development, leaders using this model are able to make decisions regarding deficiencies within the organization and are able to increase work output while creating a better work atmosphere for the group.

Most leadership models suggest the necessity of a formal leader to provide task direction, structure, and rewards plus the consideration and social support that employees require. This view of leadership tends to create an unhealthy and limiting dependency on individual leaders which stifles the growth and autonomy of followers. The studies of Kerr and Jermier (1978) indicated that a leader will have little or no effect if certain situations, skills, or tasks exist. Substitute variables sometimes negate the leader's ability to affect follower satisfaction and/or performance. These substitutes neutralize leadership roles and serve to decrease the need for a leader's individual orientation (Gibson et al., 1985). For example,

experienced, well-trained, knowledgeable employees do not need the leader to structure the task. Likewise, a job that provides its own feedback doesn't need a task-oriented leader to inform the employee how he or she is doing.

Kerr and Jermier's substitutes theory. While organizational leadership is important, it may be a mistake to believe that all leadership must come from "leaders." In many organizations--and it would seem particularly true in professional organizations--much of the guidance and support may be provided by the participants, the nature of task, or the characteristics of the organization itself. Kerr and Jermier (1978) indicated:

To the extent that other potential sources are deficient, the hierarchical superior is clearly in a position to play a dominant role . . . and formal leadership ought to be important. To the extent that other sources provide structure and stroking in abundance, the hierarchical leader will have little chance to exert downward influence. (p. 400)

Cultural and Symbolic Theories

As described by Bensimon et al. (1989), the trait, power and influence, behavioral, and contingency theories all presume that leaders exist in a world that is essentially certain, rational, and linear.

They assume that organizations consist of people, processes, and structures that can be described, analyzed, and made more efficient and effective. Leaders are a central focus of organizational life. Empirical, quantitative research and rational analyses are considered potent tools through which the essential nature of organizational functions can be discovered and organizations thereby improved. (p. 20)

In contrast, cultural perspectives and symbolic approaches represent a paradigmatic shift in thinking about organizations and leadership (Kuhn, 1970). Cultural and symbolic views of leadership suggest that organizational participants come over time through their interaction to develop and to re-create shared meanings which influence their perceptions and their activities. These shared meanings can be thought of as defining an organization's culture, that is, the dominant values, symbols, beliefs, and shared meaning (Sergiovanni, 1991).

The providing of purposing to the school is a major aspect of symbolic and cultural leadership. Vaill (cited in Sergiovanni, 1991) defined purposing as "that continuous stream of actions by an organization's formal leadership which has the effect of inducing clarity, consensus, and commitment regarding the organization's basic purposes" (p. 103).

Building school culture and practicing the art of purposing in schools are the essentials of symbolic and cultural leadership forces. The expression of these forces require vision and an understanding of the semantics of daily activities (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Bennis (1984) found that compelling vision is the key ingredient of leadership among heads of the highly successful organizations. Vision refers to the capacity to create and communicate a view of a desired state of affairs

that induces commitment among those working in the organization. Vision becomes the substance of what is communicated as symbolic aspects of leadership are emphasized.

The symbolic force of leadership derives much of its power from the needs of persons at work to have a sense of what is important and to have some semblance of what is of value. Students and teachers alike want to know what is of value to the school and its leadership; they desire a sense of order and direction, and they enjoy sharing this sense with others. They respond to these conditions with increased work motivation and commitment (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Recent Evolvement of Principal Leadership

Historically, what happens in American schools today will be revealed in Taiwan several years later. This researcher would like to point out the evolving role of the American principal as an indication for the attention of principal's leadership in Taiwan.

Hallinger (1992) indicated that the predominant role enacted by American principals, from the 1960's to 1990's, underwent a transformation from program managers to instructional leaders to transformational leaders. Bureaucratic decentralization was a primary focus of many restructuring efforts, with site-based management, teacher empowerment, and shared governance the most important

collaborative initiatives among administrators, teachers, staff members, parents and students. The term restructuring was defined by Hallinger (1992) as:

an explicit attempt to reshape the school so it can better identify and meet locally determined needs. The school is now viewed as the unit responsible for the initiation of change, not just the implementation of changes conceived by others. Teachers are viewed as important sources of expertise, rather than as the targets of others' efforts to improve schooling. (p. 40)

These facets highlight a new role for principals in problem finding and solving--a role increasingly referred to as transformational leadership (Hallinger, 1992). The transformational principal must provide the school with vision of a desired future state though this task may be shared with other educational administrators, teachers, parents, and students.

Two Models of Development of Vision in School Environment

Manasse's Model

Much of the recent literature on leadership, effective schools, and excellent organizations speaks of vision--defined in some way as the development, transmission, and implementation of an image of a desirable future. Manasse (1986) provided a developmental model of such visionary leadership. He identified four types of vision: organizational vision, future vision, personal vision, and strategic vision. Each vision type is described as follows:

1. **Organizational Vision:** Organizational vision involves a comprehensive picture of the existing system within its environment and enables leaders to put systems in place that create a capacity for high performance. At the same time, it frees them personally to concentrate on activities with the highest payoff in relationship to their vision.

2. **Future Vision:** Future vision creates a picture of the organizational system in its environment at some future point in time. It incorporates the system's perspective of organizational vision, available information about expected developments, and the personal values and beliefs of the leader. Leaders rely heavily on symbols, metaphors, models and interpersonal competence in conveying their vision to their organization.

3. **Personal Vision:** Personal vision involves the strategic development and positioning of personal and human resources. Through personal vision, leaders select situations that allow them to position themselves toward their strengths. Leaders see themselves as learners, and create organizations that value innovative learning. Such learning encourages change, renewal, restructuring, and problem reformulation; all of which, in turn, enable people to see change as opportunity rather than threat.

4. **Strategic Vision:** Strategic vision is based on an understanding of the change process. It translates vision into action. Strategic vision requires skill in managing the change process, and facility in the use of symbols and metaphors to link the present to the future vision. It is a vision molded from the intersection of organizational, future, and personal vision, that gives life, energy, meaning, and a sense of purpose to an organization.

In addition to his discussion of different types of vision which leader may demonstrate, Manasse (1986) also identified the following five kinds of skills or knowledge that contribute to vision: information processing skills, diagnostic tools, conceptual knowledge, creative thinking, and self-awareness.

Information Processing Skills: Information processing skills are used continually during all stages of vision development and implementation. According to Manasse (1986), these skills embody the following competencies:

1. **Interpersonal search**--the ability to discover, understand, verbalize concept thoughts and ideas of others. Ensures understanding of feelings and verbalizations of others.

2. **Informational search**--the ability to search for, gather many different kinds of information before arriving at an understanding of an event or a problem. Uses formal and informal observation, search, interaction to gather information in breadth and depth about the environment.

3. Concept formation--the ability to form concepts, hypotheses, and ideas on basis of information. Can reorder information into ideas, see relationships between patterns of information from different sources, can link information separated specially or over time.

4. Conceptual flexibility--the ability to use alternative or multiple concepts or perspectives when solving problems or making decisions.

5. Conceptual analysis--the ability to apply a variety of conceptual models or theoretical constructs to a given situation in order to understand what is going on in that situation. (p. 167)

Diagnostic Tools: Some specific tools can be useful in diagnostic organizational situations, such as, brainstorming, organizational assessment, trend analysis, and environmental scanning. These are useful for monitoring trends in the environment.

Creative Thinking: Some specific tools, such as guided imagery, brainstorming, or activities that involve changing the rules or assumptions in a situation are useful. One part of creativity training involves learning to use those skills; the other part involves learning to trust the process and the insights that come out of the process.

Conceptual Knowledge: Information about high performing systems, excellent organizations, effective schools, and leadership provides a starting point for thinking about the possibilities within one's own organization. Leaders also need ongoing information about economic, technological, pedagogical, cultural, demographic, social, and political trends and developments in the

environment. Such visionary leadership involves positioning an organization toward its future; leaders must stay in touch with the possibilities of that future.

Self-Awareness: Personal vision involves a clear and accurate understanding of one's personal strengths and weakness, as well as the ability to position oneself in organizations to use one's strength most effectively. Training in these areas should include both conceptual material on psychological types, human development, leadership styles, communications patterns, and the use of experiential activities and feedback instruments (Manasse, 1986).

Hitt's Model

The second model as developed by Hitt (1988, p. 7) portrayed the two dimensions of vision and implementation as shown in Figure 3. Four types of leaders emerge as "pure types": Victim--low on both vision and implementation, constantly complaining that the organizations has "done him in"; Dreamer--high on vision but low on implementation; Doer--high on implementation but low on vision; and the Visionary Leader (originally was portrayed as leader-manager by Hitt, 1988)--high on both vision and implementation (Hitt, 1988).

Two Dimensions of Leadership

V I S I O N	Dreamer	Visionary Leader (Leader-Manager)
	Victim	Doer
	IMPLEMENTATION	

Figure 3. Two dimensions of leadership.

This, then, is the view of the effective leader: a visionary leader who is able to dream and also able to transform the dream into significant actions. In order to transform dreams into significant actions, it is essential that the leader have power. Effective leaders understand the nature of power and how to use it. For one thing, they know that power is found in relationships and in connections and associations between and among people (Hitt, 1988).

As Hitt (1988) found out there are common functions of leadership across cultures and across organizations. There appear to be four core characteristics:

- (a) having a clear vision of what the organization (or department or group) might become;
- (b) the ability to communicate the vision to others;
- (c) the ability to motivate others to work toward the vision; and
- (d) the ability to work the system to get things done. (p. 11)

According to these four characteristics, he developed the model of effective leadership shown in Figure 4 (Hitt, 1988, p. 12).

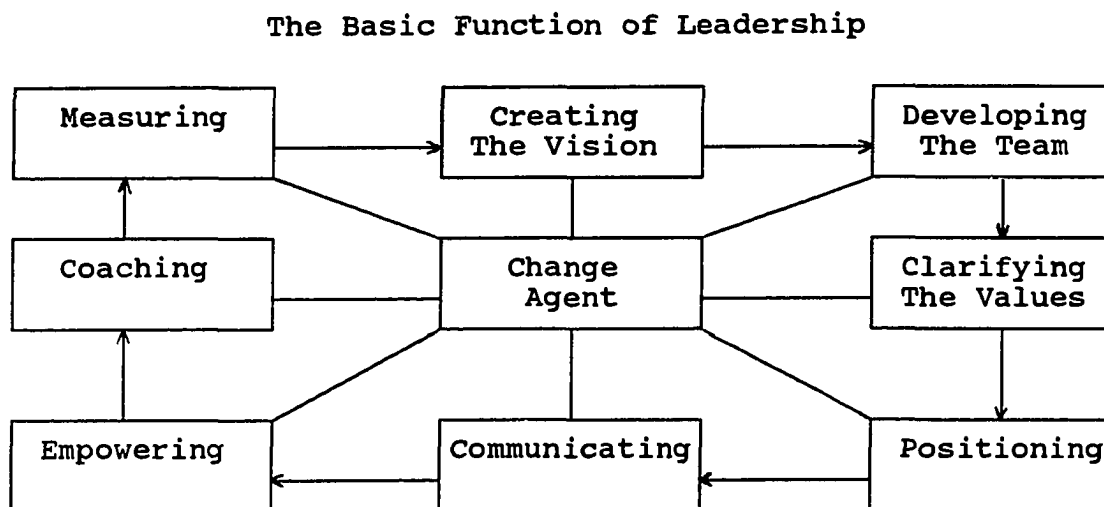


Figure 4. The basic function of leadership.

With the leader as "Change Agent" representing the hub, there are eight basic functions of leadership which circle the hub. There are defined by Hitt (1988) as follows:

1. **Creating the Vision:** constructing a crystal-clear mental picture of what the group should become and then transmitting this vision to others' mind.
2. **Developing the Team:** developing a team of highly qualified people who are jointly responsible for achieving the group's goals.
3. **Clarifying the Values:** identifying the organizational values and communicating these values through words and actions.
4. **Positioning:** developing an effective strategy for moving the group from its present position toward the vision.
5. **Communicating:** achieving a common understanding with others by using all modes of communication effectively.

6. Empowering: motivating others by raising them to their better selves.

7. Coaching: helping others develop the skills needed for achieving excellence.

8. Measuring: identifying the critical success factors associated with the group's operation and gauging progress on the basis of these factors. (pp. 11-12)

It is Hitt's (1988) thesis that these are the eight essential functions of leadership. While these eight functions may not account for one hundred percent of leader's job, they do indeed account for a large percentage of it. In essence, this means that a person who is effective in carrying out these eight functions is very likely to be an effective leader.

To summarize the literature related to the new leadership, leaders with vision are guided and motivated by personal values. And these leaders have an intense commitment to the achievement of goals which they have identified as important for the organization (Grady & LeSourd, 1988). The right vision, a clear vision of what is required, attracts commitment and energizes people. People are willing, even eager, to commit voluntarily and completely to something truly worthwhile, something that will make life better for others or that represents a significant improvement for their own organization (Nanus, 1992). Additionally, visionary leaders strive to develop a

common sense of purpose and direction among all members of their organization. The right vision creates meaning in workers' lives. With a shared vision, individuals can see themselves not just as a worker but as part of a first-rate team growing in its ability to provide a valuable human product or service.

In addition the researchers also found that visionary leaders are organizational innovators. The right vision establishes a standard of excellence. People want to do a good job, to have a feeling that they are effectively advancing the organization's purposes and are being recognized for their contributions.

Finally, these leaders consistently project and attest to a future that represents something better. The right vision bridges the present and future. It provides the all-important link between what is now taking place and what the organization aspires to build in the future. In doing so, it highlights those present activities that need strengthening if the vision is to be realized. Even in a time of retrenchment, the right long-range vision provides an indispensable guide to what must be preserved and what can be cut back with least risk to future viability (Nanus, 1992).

Job Satisfaction

"A school administrator, to be a true leader, must deal with the attitudes, values, and motivations of various groups of people . . . to survive" (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991, p. 120). Motivation of workers plays an important role in job satisfaction. A firm knowledge of motivation is important for interpreting causes of behavior in schools, forecasting the effects of the principal's behavior, and influencing the actions of teachers and students to achieve school goals (Hackman & Suttle, 1977).

The "Hawthorne Studies" conducted in 1920s opened the door for motivation studies. Owens (1991) points out that the "Hawthorne Studies" (or the "Western Electric Research") laid the foundation for the human relations movement which sought to (a) better understand the nature and needs of human beings at work and (b) apply this knowledge to the development of more effective organizations, administration and supervisory procedures, and other aspects of management.

Theories of Motivation

The literature on motivation to work is so extensive that exploring it in its entirety is beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, four models were chosen for in-depth study and discussion: Maslow's need-hierarchy theory (1970); Herzberg's two-factor theory (1966);

Csikszentmihalyi's flow theory (1975); and Vroom's expectancy theory (1964). These models, selected because of their popularity and widespread acceptance in the motivation literature, are of particular relevance to guiding professional practice that seeks to build teacher motivation and commitment.

Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Theory

Maslow's (1970) need-hierarchy theory has become a key concept in the study of human motivation. He proposed that human needs could be classified into five broad categories: physiological, security-safety, social-belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. The physiological needs, consist of the fundamental biological functions of human organism. The second level security-safety needs are derived from the desire for a peaceful, smoothly running, stable environment. Social-belonging and love needs are extremely important in modern society. At the next level, the esteem needs reflect the desire to be highly regarded by others. Finally, self-actualization is the need of the individual to realize his or her potential and to achieve fulfillment of life goals or visions (Maslow, 1970). Key to Maslow's theory is that the need categories are arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency, with individual behavior motivated to satisfy the need which is most important at any given time. Further, according to

theory, the strength of this need depends on its position in the hierarchy and the extent to which lower-order needs are met or satiated.

To this understanding, school administrators should identify ways in which to provide for higher-order needs of school staff, assuming the lower-order needs are generally satisfied. Recognition and reward of staff members for achievement, inclusion in participatory decision making, providing opportunities for professional and personal growth, development of a school climate in which feelings of belonging are enhanced, and manifestation of respect for others are illustrative of means by which higher needs may be met (Guthrie & Reed, 1991).

Herzberg's Two-Factor(Hygiene-Motivation) Theory

Based on the view that individuals seek to avoid pain from the environment and derive growth from tasks and on research findings regarding job satisfaction, Herzberg posited a two-factor theory of motivation. One set of factors is associated with job satisfaction and is labeled "motivator." The second set of factors consists of job dissatisfiers referred to as "hygiene" or "maintenance" (Herzberg, 1966). To Herzberg's surprise, satisfiers and dissatisfiers were quite distinct from each other. That is, one factor is not the obverse of the other. His studies

revealed that the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction and that the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction.

Herzberg (1966) found that the elimination of dissatisfiers did not improve an individual's performance. In other words, if a teacher's major dissatisfaction with his or her job is poor salary and benefits, it will remain a source of aggravation and might make the teacher work less diligently. If the appropriate raise is received, the teacher will no longer be dissatisfied, but productivity will not be increased. Instead, the teacher will accept the correction as the way it should have been in the first place (Burk, 1991).

The positive factors that Herzberg calls satisfiers could motivate teachers to work harder and better. The premise is that if teachers find the work exciting, have a sense of achievement, see future growth in their career, and are given responsibility or advancement, then they will improve their teaching performance. Herzberg therefore affirms satisfiers as the prime motivator to improving teacher performance (Silver, 1983).

Two-factor theory suggests that job satisfaction and motivation to work are related to two decision possibilities for teachers: participation and performance. Sergiovanni (1991) found that the decision to participate in one's job is associated with the fair day's work concept. When

participating, one takes a job and does all that is necessary to meet minimum commitments; in return, one receives "fair pay" in the form of salary, benefits, social acceptance, courteous and thoughtful treatment, and reasonable supervision. Since these dimensions are expected as part of fair pay, they tend not to motivate a person to go beyond. The decision to perform, however, results in exceeding the fair day's work for a fair day's pay contract. This decision is voluntary. Rewards associated with the fair day's pay work are for the most part extrinsic, focusing on the conditions of work. Rewards associated with the performance investment tend to be more intrinsic (e.g., recognition, achievement, feelings of competence, exciting and challenging work).

Principals need to be concerned with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Schools cannot function adequately unless the participation investment is made and continued by teachers. But schools cannot excel unless the majority of teachers make the performance investment as well. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1966) can provide principals with a cognitive map for ensuring that administrative, organizational, and teaching practices provide for both levels of work investment by teachers.

Flow Theory

Csikszentmihalyi (1975) proposed flow theory as a way to understand the potential of work itself as a source

of motivation. Flow is characterized by opportunity for action; the merging of action and awareness; focused attention characterized by concentration, narrowing of consciousness, and being absorbed in what one is doing; loss of self-consciousness as one works; clarity of goals and norms; direct and immediate feedback; and feelings of competence and of being in control of what one does. He concludes that the satisfaction derived from absorption in one's work provides a powerful source of motivation. One must first be faced by a challenge that is not too great for the skills needed to meet it but great enough for a person to meet the challenge with enjoyment on the one hand and to grow in competence, confidence, and/or skill on the other. Should one's skills be greater than the challenge, then boredom is likely to result. When teachers are bored with their work, their available skills may not be used fully enough. Some experts maintain that this is the likely consequence of teachers who are subjected to curriculum and supervisory mandates that specify unduly what it is they must do and how. Such specification can lead to work simplification and the subsequent "de-skilling" of teachers (McNeil, 1987).

Sometimes teachers are faced with levels of challenge that far exceed their skills, with the resultant feelings of anxiety. When neither level of challenge nor level of skill

is very high, the response is likely to be one of apathy; another version of the de-skilling.

The message of flow theory for principals is that maintaining the right balance between level of skill and level of challenge makes good motivational sense. When challenge is high, principals need to provide the necessary support on the skill dimension to avoid frustration and fear of failure. In areas where teachers skill levels are high, challenging opportunities will need to be provided. Successful matching of challenge and skill, according to the theory, is likely to result in flow--total absorption in one's work (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation

Vroom's model of expectancy theory focused on the motivation of employees in organizations (Vroom, 1964). The expectancy theory is based upon the concept that the worker may rationally expect that desirable rewards are likely to be the predictable outcome of certain behavior. There are two basic assumptions in this theory. First, individuals make decisions about their own behavior in organizations using their abilities to think, reason, and anticipate future events. Motivation is a conscious process governed by laws. The individual subjectively assesses the expected outcomes, personal gains or consequence of his or her behavior, and then decides how to behave.

The second assumption is that the interaction of the individual and the environment determines behavior. Personal values and attitudes combine with environmental factors, such as role expectations and organizational climate to mold behavior.

Expectancy theory depends on three propositions as a foundation: valence, instrumentality and expectancy (Burk, 1991). Valence refers to the perceived value that a teacher attributes to potential rewards for doing a certain job. It indicates the strength of a teacher's desire for a specific reward. Feelings of achievement, self-fulfillment and teamwork, for example, are typical of valued work outcomes for teachers.

Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that a valued reward will follow after a certain level of achievement. Instrumentality is high when there is a strong association between teacher performance and being rewarded. If teachers think that high student achievement in their classrooms is apt to result in public acknowledgment of their teaching expertise, then instrumentality is high.

Expectancy is the extent to which a teacher believes that a given amount of effort will result in a specified level of accomplishment toward a goal. Mathematically, the probability can range from zero to one. When expectancy falls to zero, the individual believes that effort is unrelated to performance. However, when expectancy reaches

one, the teacher is totally convinced that performance or goal achievement is directly proportional to effort. For instance, if teachers feel that there is a good possibility of improving student achievement by increasing their own efforts, then teachers have a high expectancy level.

Miskel, DeFrain, and Wilcox (1980) concluded that the anticipation of successful performance by teachers was a necessary requirement for job satisfaction. In order to be motivated, teachers need to believe that they will be successful in doing what is necessary to obtain desired rewards. The administrators should provide the conditions that enhance anticipation by teachers of rewards they consider to be important.

Related Literature of Teachers' Gender, Educational Level,
Length of Service and Job Satisfaction

Gender

Research on variables associated with gender differences of workers has produced mixed results. According to Mobley (1982), the effect of gender was difficult to isolate and that other variables probably interact. Mobley's findings supported the earlier work of Hulin and Smith (1976) who concluded that gender was not as crucial a factor as were the differences that covaried with sex (pay, job level, and promotional opportunities).

Shih (1984), in his research, used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire to investigate if the job

satisfaction of public special school teachers differed from that of regular school teachers. He found out that public special education teachers had lower job satisfaction than regular teachers. The demographic variables (sex, salary, degree-held, age, and years of experience) did not make this difference; the social status and how people valued them was the biggest concern.

McGowan (1982), in a study of Iowa public school teachers, found that job satisfaction was linked to gender-traditional roles, and reported that highest job satisfaction was experienced by females who were not heads of households. He found that males were significantly less satisfied than females in this study. Furey and Lauroesch (1986) found in a study of career teachers that patterns of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among female teachers appeared to conform generally to male patterns. Smith and Plant (1982) conducted a study of gender differences and job satisfaction in university professors and found that there were no significant differences for the variable of work, pay, and promotion, but male professors were significantly more satisfied in the areas of supervision and coworkers.

Educational Level

Cortis (1976) reported that school counselors' amount of education had an increased relationship with job satisfaction. Lentz (1983) found that teachers with less than a bachelor's degree had lower scores in professional

problems, time pressures, and classroom structure than those with higher educational level attainment. Knoop's (1980) study of 838 elementary teachers and 975 secondary teachers found that participation in decision-making, educational level, and satisfaction with supervision were significantly related only to involvement for secondary teachers. Based on Pelsma's (1987) study of 251 teachers, he found a slight but significant relationship may exist between satisfaction and educational level and between age and stress. Reyes (1989) indicated that the commitment, morale, and job satisfaction were predicted by educational level, gender, and age. Reyes also concluded that the first-year career-ladder teacher did not exhibit higher levels of morale, job satisfaction, and commitment than second-year career-ladder teachers.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) reported that in 13 studies relating education to job attitudes, three studies showed an increase in morale with an increase in education; another five showed the higher the workers' educational level, the lower their morale; and the remaining studies showed no differences in job attitudes among the workers' level of education. Baldi-de-Mandilovitch and Quinn (1975) found that individuals with college degrees were more satisfied with their jobs than employees who did not graduate from college. Their research also reported that the most dissatisfied employees were those who were

over educated for their position. A study completed by Frances and Lebras (1982) showed a positive relationship between secretaries who had a higher educational level and their job satisfaction. Another of Frances' (1986) studies found that the more-educated staff had significantly more years of working experience than the less-educated staff. He indicated that the less-educated staff were not as satisfied as their more-educated colleagues in the same job.

Vaughn and Dunn (1972), however, stated the findings of their study were inconclusive with regard to the relationship existing between education and job satisfaction. Pond and Geyer (1987) explored whether employee age influences the relation between perceived work alternatives and job satisfaction and found out that neither organizational tenure nor employee educational level accounted for job satisfaction variance beyond that accounted for by perceived work alternatives alone. Liou, Sylvia, and Brunk (1990) did not find a significant correlation between job satisfaction and educational level in their study of English-speaking adults.

Length of Service

Length of service was found to be one of the best single predictors of turnover in a study by Manigone (1973), with lower tenure yielding higher turnover. Horner (1982) reported a correlation of .35 between tenure and overall job satisfaction, -.35 with intention to quit, and -.25 with

actual turnover. Arnold and Feldman (1982) as well as Waters, Roach, and Waters (1976) found an identical correlation of $-.030$ between tenure and turnover. Barber (1980), Garskof (1985), Henderson (1983), Sweeney (1982), and Weaver (1980) found that older teachers (more teaching experience) were more satisfied with their jobs than were younger (less teaching experience) teachers. Parkhouse and Johnson (1980), for example, found that the job satisfaction of secondary school physical educators decreased as the number of years of teaching experience increased. Graham (1982) found that the law enforcement personnel turnover was least likely to occur in individuals that had been working in the occupation for longer lengths of time. Dilworth (1991) also concluded that a significant indicator of teacher job satisfaction was length of service.

Hanlon (1983) in his study of "Age and the commitment to work", concluded that there was no clear indication whether it was age or the correlates of job tenure which account for work commitment. Kreis (1983) also indicated that the length of service contributed independently to and served as mild predictor of job satisfaction. Friedman and Lotan (1985) indicated that teachers burnout rises with the years of experience, reaching a peak at the 20-24 years of experience and then declining. Shirley, Dewayne, and Wilburn (1991) found that the number of years of teaching experience was not a significant factor in teacher job

satisfaction. In their study, the highest age group's job satisfaction mean score (47.65) was that of the group with 21 or more years of teaching experience. The lowest job satisfaction mean score (44.21) was for the 11-15 year group. The difference of mean scores (3.44) was not significant.

Related Literature of Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

Facets of this link have been studied previously by researchers who have investigated the relationship of principals' leadership style and teacher satisfaction. Chung (1970) distributed a self-report instrument to 21 public schools in Michigan and found that principals' teacher-oriented management styles were significantly related to high job satisfaction of teachers. Coleman (1978) studied the relationship between values held by principals, as measured by the Managerial Philosophies Scale (MPS), and teacher satisfaction, as measured by the Diagnostic Survey for Leadership Improvement. Coleman (1978) reported greater satisfaction in teachers working for Theory Y principals, that is, those who trust teachers to work in a responsible manner. Knoop (1981) used the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire with 1,812 elementary and secondary teachers. He found that leadership style, especially the consideration dimension (enhancing workers' self-esteem), was closely related to teacher job

satisfaction. Maddux (1982) administered a questionnaire to 424 randomly selected teachers in Texas. Participants were drawn from all regions of the state. Problems with administration were identified as important to teacher attrition. Evans and Johnson (1990) used the principal Leadership Behavior Scale that was adapted from the Organizational Climate Scale, and a self-developed job satisfaction questionnaire with 300 randomly selected middle and high school teachers in Florida. They found the principals' leadership style was significantly related to job satisfaction and job-related stress of middle and high school teacher.

Some other findings from published research in the business and management field are depicted in Table 1. These data covered the relationship among measures of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style and satisfaction with leaders.

An analysis of Table 1, shows the following:

1. Charisma leadership scale tends to be the component that is most likely to be associated with desirable satisfaction outcomes.

2. Individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation are usually the next most important correlates with satisfaction, with the former usually being slightly more important than the latter.

Table 1

Correlations Between Satisfaction and Measures of each
Subscale of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-
Faire Leadership Style

Study	C	IC	IS	INSP	CR	MBE	LF
Military officer (Bass, 1985)	0.91	0.76	0.55	-	0.45	0.29	-
World-class leader (Bass, 1985)	0.64	0.50	0.52	-	0.28	-0.10	-
NZ professional & managers (Bass, 1985)	0.57	0.55	0.52	-	0.31	-0.11	-
NZ educational administrators (Bass, 1985)	0.78	0.61	0.57	-	0.53	-0.21	-
MBA students (Bass & Avolio, 1988)	0.88	0.82	0.70	-	0.64	0.13	-
Taiwanese managers in three commercial organization (Singer & Singer, 1989)	0.62	0.58	0.43	-	0.54	0.25	-

Note. C = Charisma; IC = Individualized Consideration;
 IS = Intellectual Stimulation; INSP = Inspirational;
 CR = Contingent Reward; MBE = Management-by-Exception;
 LF = Laissez-Faire; NZ = New Zealand.

3. Contingent reward usually makes a fairly important contribution to satisfaction.

4. Management-by-exception seems to have less influence on satisfaction.

5. Laissez-faire leadership is clearly highly undesirable.

Teachers' Demographic Characteristics
Related to Their Perceptions of
Their Principals' Leadership Style

Wu (1984) investigated the collective and individual contributions of teachers' sex, teachers' age, total teaching experience, school size, teachers' perception of their social status, and principals' leadership style to the job satisfaction of elementary teachers in the southern Taiwan area. The translated Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Short Form were used as instruments. He concluded the principals' leadership styles and teachers' perceptions of their social status were positively correlated with job satisfaction. All other factors were negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Windel (1991) investigated the relationship between elementary principal leadership styles and elementary teacher job satisfaction by using the LBDQ Form XII and Overall Job Satisfaction Questionnaire as instruments. The major conclusions drawn from his study were:

1. Leadership style of the principal does influence the way teachers feel about their degree of job satisfaction.

2. There is no significant difference in job satisfaction between male and female teachers as it relates to principal's leadership style.

3. The level of education and teaching experience in relationship to leader style is not a significant factor in job satisfaction.

Billingsley and Cross (1992) conducted research to identify variables that influence teachers' commitment and job satisfaction among both general and special educators. They found that work related variables, such as leadership support, role conflict, role ambiguity, and stress, are better predictors of commitment and job satisfaction than are demographic variables. Johnson (1992) also concluded in his research that no significant differences were observed between teachers' perceptions of leader behavior and school climate among teacher degree, gender and ethnic sub-group. Franzoia (1990) indicated in his research that principal differential use of power (expert, legitimate, referent, connection, and coercive power) based on teacher gender, age, and teaching experience was negatively associated with satisfaction. There was no significant difference in teachers' perceptions of leadership style by gender, age, marital status, experience, or level of education.

Kushell and Newton (1986) suggested in their study that leadership style and gender of subordinates were more influential sources of job satisfaction. Aspiring managers

must recognize that the combination of their leadership style and how subordinates will accept this style will influence the satisfaction levels of their employees. Managers should also realize that female subordinates may be much more satisfied with them if participative styles of leadership are adopted (Kushell & Newton, 1986). As long as females did not perceive directive leadership styles as legitimately as participative styles, managers should carefully consider how their behavior will impact their female employees' satisfaction and development. Other research also indicated that women tended to adopt a more democratic or participative style and a less autocratic or directive style than did men (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Trewatha & Vaught, 1987).

Lucarelli (1991) concluded that autonomy, the freedom to make choices and decisions in teaching, was considered less important by younger teachers than by older teachers. The other factors such as, competence, working conditions, and material rewards were considered more important by younger teachers. Relatedness, collegiality and acknowledgement of feelings by others, was considered more important by older experienced teachers than by less experienced teachers. Seymour's (1991) study revealed that teachers' years of teaching experience showed trends for the initiating structure dimension (task oriented) but not for the consideration dimension (relationship oriented).

Thompson (1990) studied the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment in selected Wisconsin elementary school and concluded that teacher years of experience had a small but significant correlation with organizational commitment related to principal leadership style. The teachers' educational level was found to have a negative correlation with organizational commitment related to principal leadership style. One of the conclusions drawn from Chen's (1991) research indicated that the senior industrial high school climate in Taiwan was correlated with the principals' leadership styles and teachers' demographic data (gender, age, total years of teaching experience, and educational level).

Summary

If the private vocational high schools are to survive, they must be run effectively and efficiently. It was the conclusion of Brodinsky (1984) that strengthening job satisfaction in the school environment resulted in improved productivity in the schools. Because the motivation of teachers plays an important role in job satisfaction, the secret of that motivation is in the work itself (Sergiovanni, 1990). For example, Herzberg (1966) pointed out that such job factors as opportunity for and feelings of achievement and responsibility, interesting and challenging work, and opportunity for advancement have the capacity to motivate. These factors are not something that leaders can

give in turn for desired behavior but are an integral part of the work that one does. Hackman and Oldman's (1976) research concluded that enhanced commitment and extraordinary performance were more likely to be present in the following situations:

1. When workers found their work to be meaningful, purposeful, sensible, and significant; and when they viewed the work itself as being worthwhile and important.

2. When workers had reasonable control over their work activities and were able to exert reasonable influence over work events and circumstances.

3. When workers experienced personal responsibility for the work they did and were personally accountable for outcomes.

Key points of the principals' motivation are based on the shared values, empowerment, and cooperation with teachers. Effective principals create conditions to help teachers realize their values, to provide professional autonomy, daily recognition, and involvement in decision making.

Vision is another important dimension of motivation and without it the very point of leadership is missed. But the vision of the school must also reflect the hopes and dreams, the needs and interests, the values and beliefs of everyone who has a stake in the school (Sergiovanni, 1991). The

principals as leaders "must create something new out something old: out of an old vision, they must develop and communicate a new vision and get others not only to see this vision but also to commit themselves to it" (Tichy & Ulrich, 1984, p. 59).

Today, principals in schools aimed at system-wide diversity are moving towards a dynamic definition of their role. In broad terms, it seems that principals are being required to move from being routine-managers to visionary leaders (Sergiovanni, 1989), or from transactional to transformational leaders (Bass, 1990b).

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CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

The primary purpose of this study was (a) to examine the teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership style as it related to their job satisfaction, and (b) to examine teachers' gender, level of education, and length of service as each was related to the perceptions of leadership style of the principal and the teachers' general job satisfaction. This chapter contains a description of methods and procedures used. It is divided into the following sections: population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, research questions, research hypotheses, data analysis, and summary.

Population and Sample

Ideally, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) should be administered to all of a leader's followers (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Therefore, the population included in this study was the full time faculty ($N = 824$) in eight participating private vocational high schools. The eight private vocational high schools are: Fu-Hwa, Shu-Te, San-Shing, Kou-Chi, Ta-Loung, Li-Chih, Min-Cheng and Kao-Feng. The geographic area of the study was limited to the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area of Taiwan, Republic of China. Since the questionnaire is self-explanatory, the primary issue in its administration was the maintenance of anonymity and privacy.

Instrumentation

The findings of this study were based upon teachers' responses to three questionnaires: (a) teacher demographic information, (b) the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, and (c) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Appendix B).

Demographic Profile, Part A

This section of the instrument sought information concerning gender, age, length of service, educational level, and marital status of teachers. But in this study only teachers' gender, length of service, and educational level were considered.

Perception Profile of Principals'

Leadership Styles, Part B

The second portion of the survey instrument provided a profile which measured teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles. It utilized Bass and Avolios' (1992) MLQ, Form 5X--Rater (Revised), to measure the components of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. MLQ arranged the 81 items into 13 scales which included: (a) Charisma, (b) Idealized Influence, (c) Inspirational, (d) Intellectual Stimulation, (e) Individual Consideration, (f) Contingent Reward, (g) Management by Exception (active), (h) Management by Exception (passive), (i) Laissez-Faire Leadership, (j) Extra Effort, (k) Effectiveness, (l) Satisfaction, and (m) Biographical.

Bass and Avolio (1992) recommended that if the instrument has to be reduced, entire scales should be eliminated rather than some items from some scales. This researcher selected eight scales of MLQ which aligned with the purpose of this study. The eight scales of the new instrument were: (a) Charisma, (b) Inspirational, (c) Intellectual Stimulation, (d) Individual Consideration, (e) Contingent Reward, (f) Management by Exception (active), (g) Management by Exception (passive), and (h) Laissez-Faire Leadership. This shortened the instrument to 68 items, thus enhancing the return rate of the survey.

A five-point rating scale, ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently) was used to assess the MLQ leadership scales. Of the 68 items, eight measured charisma, 10 measured inspiration influence, 10 measured intellectual stimulation, nine measured individualized consideration, nine measured contingent reward, seven measured management by exception (active), seven measured management by exception (passive), and eight measured laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The specific items for each category, their reliability and validity are identified in Appendix C.

Profile of Teachers' Job Satisfaction, Part C

The third portion of the survey instrument provided a profile which measured the degree of teachers' general job satisfaction in terms of their principals' MLQ leadership styles. It utilized the Minnesota Satisfaction

Questionnaire developed by Weiss et al. (1967) to measure teachers' general job satisfaction. The MSQ has two forms, a long--100 item survey and a short--20 item survey. The Short Form was selected for this research because it has a 5-8 minute administration time while retaining the reliability and validity of the long form (Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ Short Form consists of 20 items utilizing a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) and provides information as to general, intrinsic, and extrinsic satisfaction with the work situation. General satisfaction level is measured by summing the responses to all items. The 20 items of MSQ, their distribution, reliability and validity are found in Appendix D.

Jury of Experts and Pilot Test

All the questionnaires of this study had to be translated into Chinese for conducting this survey. A jury of five experts were asked to review and verify the accuracy of the translation, and to establish reliability and validity. These experts are all bilinguals, school administrators, and hold doctoral degrees earned in the United States of America. Their names and titles were listed as follows:

Dr. Jonathan J. Lu: Ph. D. University of Washington. Retired professor of Geography, University of Northern Iowa. President of Sheng-Kung Theological Seminary, Kaohsiung, Taiwan.

Dr. Chien-Kao, Wu: Ph. D. University of California at Berkeley. Former President of Kaohsiung Industrial Institution. Delegate to National Assembly, Republic of China.

Dr. Yi-Wen, Chiang: Ed. D. Drake University, Des Moines. Professor of Wen-Tzao Ursuline College of Modern Language. Delegate to National Assembly, Republic of China.

Dr. Chiu-Hsiung, Chang: Ph. D. in Educational Psychology. Associate Professor of National Kaohsiung Normal University. Principal of the Affiliated Senior High School, National Kaohsiung Normal University.

Dr. Fuh-Hwa, Liu: Ph. D. Georgia Institution of Technology. Associate Professor of National Chiao Tung University. Department of Industrial Engineering & Management.

A pilot test was conducted by choosing 20 teachers from the eight private vocational high schools to determine if they understood the questions and how long it would take to finish the questionnaire. Based on the suggestions of the jury of experts and feedback from the pilot test, the researcher revised the translation of the questions. The finalized Chinese language questionnaire was then administered to five additional teachers for the purpose of re-checking its ability to be understood. With no more changes needed, the questionnaire was printed in Chinese and distributed to each school.

Data Collection

Protocol was ensured in the following manner. The first Section Chief of the Educational Bureau of Kaohsiung City Government, who is in charge of high school education, made a personal telephone call to each private vocational high school principal and explained the research project and asked the principals to support the study. Once the schools had agreed to participate in the study (the letters of agreement are shown in Appendix E), a visit to each school principal was made by this researcher to clarify any questions and to determine the number of questionnaires needed. An appropriate number of questionnaires and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study (Appendix B) was sent to the principal, accompanied by return envelopes and ballpoint pens for ease of conducting and returning the completed questionnaires. Each school had one person who was assigned by the principal to distribute and collect all the questionnaires without matching the series number of the questionnaire with the teacher who was going to answer it. Administration and return timeliness were established with that person. Once the return timeline elapsed, additional follow-up telephone calls were made until all questionnaires had been returned.

Respondents marked their ratings directly on a questionnaire. The researcher then hired 120 high school students to transfer each response onto an Optical Mark Reader (OMR) sheet. All the OMR sheets were checked four times by different students and this researcher to ensure the accuracy of the transfer. The researcher then brought all the computer answer sheets back to the University of Northern Iowa for computer scoring. The OMR sheets were optically scanned and a data file was established. The information from the data file was entered into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/VAX) and the report was generated.

Research Questions

This study examined the following research questions:

Research Question 1. What is the relationship between teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and their general job satisfaction?

Research Question 2. Is there a difference between the gender, educational level, or length of service of teachers and their perceptions of leadership styles of the principals?

Research Question 3. Is there a difference between teachers' general job satisfaction and their gender, educational level, or length of service?

Null Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in seeking resolve to the research questions of this study. All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Null Hypothesis 1A: There is no relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their perceptions of their principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire).

Null Hypothesis 1B: There is no subset of MLQ leadership scales (overall transformational, overall transactional, laissez-faire leadership scales, and their subscales) which can predict teachers' job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 2A: There is no significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire).

Null Hypothesis 2B: There is no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire).

Null Hypothesis 2C: There is no significant difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their perceptions of the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire).

Null Hypothesis 3A: There is no significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of their general job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3B: There is no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their general job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3C: There is no significant difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their general job satisfaction.

Data Analysis

Statistical tests used in this study included descriptive, correlation, multiple regression (stepwise) and t test analysis. Table 2 indicates which test was used with each research question and null hypothesis.

To assess job satisfaction and teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles, data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Means and standard deviations were listed for the demographic questions, the MLQ, and the MSQ.

Table 2

Summary of Hypotheses Testing ($p < .05$)

Research Question	Hypotheses	Statistical test
1	Ho1A	correlation
	Ho1B	multiple regression (stepwise)
2	Ho2A	<u>t</u> test
	Ho2B	<u>t</u> test
	Ho2C	<u>t</u> test
3	Ho3A	<u>t</u> test
	Ho3B	<u>t</u> test
	Ho3C	<u>t</u> test

Null Hypothesis 1A was tested by the Pearson product-moment correlations coefficient with the mean ratings for each of the eight MLQ scales of three different leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1988) vs. teachers' general job satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation was reported as an indicator of the strength of the relationship between each individual scale and teachers' job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 1B was tested by stepwise multiple regression analyses to determine the significance of the subset of MLQ leadership scales for predicting job satisfaction among the teachers. All the scales of MLQ

leadership were entered into a hierarchical regression where the teachers' job satisfaction was the dependent measure. Each scale was removed from the equation until the scale with significant scores remained to predict the teachers' job satisfaction.

Null Hypotheses 2A through 3C were tested by t test to compare the mean ratings of principals' overall transformational, overall transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles vs. teachers' gender, educational level, and their length of service.

Tests of statistical significance to determine rejection or non-rejection of the null hypothesis were calculated at the .05 significance level. The .05 level was selected by this researcher because it represented the limit of a Type I error which was acceptable and because of its common use in studies of this type.

CHAPTER IV

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This study was concerned with the relationship of private vocational high school teachers' job satisfaction and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles. The primary purpose of this study was to increase the knowledge about principal leadership styles that can increase teachers' job satisfaction. Bass and Avolio's (1988) model of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership were tested in the educational setting. A secondary purpose was to find the relationship between teachers' gender, educational level, and length of service and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles and job satisfaction. This chapter will include the data relating to leadership styles, job satisfaction, and demographic data as well as the statistically significant findings related to the hypotheses.

Descriptive Data

Data collected during the study were grouped into three parts: Demographic Information, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The eight-page questionnaire had 93 content related items. Five items were related to respondents' demographic information. Sixty-eight items

assessed leadership styles. Twenty items were included to assess job satisfaction. All MLQ and MSQ items were in the form of a 5-point rating scale. The questionnaires were sent on April 12 and 13, 1993, to 824 participants at eight private vocational high schools in the Kaohsiung Metropolitan Area of Taiwan. There were 579 responses received. Follow-up telephone calls made to each of the eight schools on April 26 and 27, 1993, resulted in the return of 50 additional questionnaires for a total of 629. The 629 useable questionnaires represented a response rate of 76.3% of the total surveys sent. Computer analysis was based on 629 responses.

The demographic data as presented in Table 3 show that female respondents outnumbered male respondents by a rate of 56.4% to 43.1%. With regard to educational level, teachers who had earned a bachelor degree or higher ($n = 504$) comprised 80.1% of the sample while those with less than bachelors degree ($n = 118$) comprised 18.8%. More than half (340) of the 629 teacher respondents had nine or fewer years of service; 286 teachers reported more than 10 years of service.

Table 3

Demographic Data of Respondents

Respondents	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Gender			
Male	271	43.1	43.3
Female	355	56.4	100.0
	3	.5 (missing)	
Educational level			
Bachelor Degree and Higher	504	80.1	81.1
Less than Bachelor Degree	118	19	100.0
	7	1.1 (missing)	
Length of service			
0-9 years	340	54.0	54.3
10 years or more	286	45.5	100.0
	3	.5 (missing)	

Response to Leadership Styles
and Job Satisfaction

Table 4 shows the mean (M), standard deviation (SD) and the valid response number (N) of teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles including their subscales and the mean scores of teachers' general job satisfaction. The possible score range for each leadership scale and its subscales was from 0 to 4 (0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, and 4 = Frequently). The possible score range for job satisfaction was from 1 to 5 (1 = Very dissatisfied, 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neither

satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Very satisfied). The higher the mean score of the principal's leadership style the more often that leadership style was perceived by teachers. General job satisfaction was positive when the mean score was equal to or greater than 3.

Table 4

Mean, Standard Deviation and Valid Number of MLO Leadership Scales and General Job Satisfaction

Scale	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Valid <u>N</u>
Transformational	2.56	.62	627
Charisma	2.51	.74	624
Inspiration	2.34	.65	626
Intellectual			
Stimulation	2.69	.62	618
Individual			
Consideration	2.73	.73	622
Transactional	3.05	.46	622
Contingent Reward	2.95	.70	605
Management by			
Exception (active)	3.07	.61	612
Management by			
Exception (passive)	3.34	.62	607
Laissez-Faire	3.33	.58	611
General Job			
Satisfaction	2.62	.55	620

As Table 4 shows, teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles in the sample schools of the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung were identified predominantly as laissez-faire ($\bar{M} = 3.33$ of the rating scale range from 0-

4). This perception, however, might not coincide with the principals' own perceptions. And the mean of general job satisfaction ($\bar{M} = 2.62$) of teachers in the sample schools of the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung was below the mid-point on the job satisfaction scale, which indicated some dissatisfaction. Such teacher perceptions of their principals' leadership styles might influence teachers' level of job satisfaction.

Findings Related to the Hypotheses

A reference to each hypothesis is presented in this section. It is followed by a summary of the statistics used to reject or not to reject the Null Hypothesis and an explanation of the findings.

Null Hypothesis 1A (Ho1A)

There is no relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles.

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was performed to compare teachers' perceptions of three different leadership styles of their principals as measured by the MLQ with the teachers' general job satisfaction as measured by the MSQ. The Null Hypothesis 1A was rejected and a significant difference was found at the p value less than .05. Table 5 shows the overall transformational leadership and its subscales: charisma, inspiration,

intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration were positively correlated with general job satisfaction. It also shows laissez-faire leadership style, and management by exception (passive) were negatively correlated with general job satisfaction. The intercorrelations between MLQ leadership scales and MSQ general job satisfaction are shown in Appendix F.

Table 5

Correlations Between MLQ Leadership Scales and MSQ
General Job Satisfaction

Scale	TF	C	INSP	IS	IC	TA	CR	MEA	MEP	LF
GJS	.60	.58	.55	.54	.56	.17	.47	-.01	-.30	-.30
<u>N</u>	627	624	626	618	622	622	605	605	607	611

Note. Correlations above are statistically significant at $p < .05$. TF = Overall Transformational Leadership; C = Charisma; INSP = Inspiration; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; TA = Overall Transactional Leadership; CR = Contingent Reward; MEA = Management by Exception (Active); MEP = Management by Exception (Passive); GJS = General Job Satisfaction.
N = Valid Response Number.

Null Hypothesis 1B (Ho1B)

There is no subset of MLQ leadership scales (overall transformational, overall transactional, and laissez-faire leadership scales, and their subscales) which can predict teachers' job satisfaction.

To test Null Hypothesis 1B, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was computed to determine which subset of MLQ leadership scales was a significant predictor of general job satisfaction. Altogether 10 scales were entered into the regression equation; namely, overall transformational leadership (i.e., the sum of the four subscale scores of transformational leadership), charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, overall transactional leadership (i.e., the sum of the three subscale scores of transactional leadership), contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive), and laissez-faire leadership. All the scales specified above were tested for entry into the model one by one, based on the significance level of t . The scale with the largest t score was first entered into the model. After a scale had entered the equation but tested to be insignificant, that scale was then removed from the equation. The equation would only retain the scales that were tested as significant at the end.

The results show that only the subset of overall transformational leadership was significant ($p < .05$) in predicting general job satisfaction. The R square for overall transformational leadership was .354 for general job satisfaction. That meant the subset of overall transformational leadership explained 35.4% of the variance. All other subsets made no significant increase in this percentage of variance. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 1A was rejected. The results of this analysis are shown in Appendix G. First, it shows that no other scales will add to the degree of prediction from overall transformational leadership scales. Second, it shows that the prediction from any scale other than overall transformational leadership scales is not statistically significant.

Null Hypothesis 2A (Ho2A)

There is no significant difference between the male and female teachers in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles.

A t test analysis was used to explore the difference between the male and female teachers for their perceptions of principals' leadership styles. The results of the t test analysis for three different kinds of leadership styles as measured by MLQ, classified according to the gender of respondents, appears in Table 6.

Table 6

A t-test for Comparison of Gender on MLO Leadership Scales

Leadership Style	Male		Female		t	p	d
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>			
TF	2.46 (<u>n</u> = 271)	.63	2.63 (<u>n</u> = 353)	.60	-3.33	.01	.27
TA	3.05 (<u>n</u> = 268)	.45	3.05 (<u>n</u> = 351)	.46	.05	.96	
LF	3.42 (<u>n</u> = 267)	.46	3.25 (<u>n</u> = 341)	.65	3.53	.01	.37

Mean scores were given in each cell with the number of respondents given in parentheses. As Table 6 shows there was a significant ($p < .05$) difference in the gender perceptions of teachers relative to their principals' transformational and laissez-faire leadership style. The female teachers perceived their principals as transformational leaders more than male teachers. The male teachers perceived their principals as laissez-faire leaders more than female teachers. However, there was no significant of gender difference between teachers' perceptions of their principals' transactional leadership style. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 2A was rejected by both male and female teachers relative to their perceptions of principals' transformational and laissez-faire leadership style. But this hypothesis was not rejected by both male

and female teachers' perceptions relative to their principals' transactional leadership style.

According to Cohen's (1977, p. 25) Effect Size Index (d = the difference of population means divided by the standard deviation of either population), both the effect size of overall transformational leadership ($d = 2.63 - 2.46/.63 = .27$) and laissez-faire leadership ($d = 3.42 - 3.25/.46 = .37$) of male and female teachers were in the small effect size range. Therefore, a small difference is shown to exist between male and female teachers' perceptions of their principals' transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles.

Null Hypothesis 2B (Ho2B)

There is no significant difference between the teachers' educational level in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles.

A t test was performed to compare two educational level categories (group one: bachelor degree and above; group two: less than bachelor degree) with three MLQ leadership styles. Table 7 presents the mean scores of teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles by teachers' educational level. Mean scores were given in each cell with the number of respondents given in parentheses.

Table 7

A t test for Comparison of Educational Level on MLQLeadership Styles

Leadership Styles	Bachelor Degree and Above		Less than Bachelor Degree		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
TF	2.57 (n = 503)	.62	2.47 (n = 118)	.62	1.67	.10
TA	3.06 (n = 498)	.45	2.99 (n = 118)	.50	1.58	.12
LF	3.33 (n = 492)	.58	3.35 (n = 113)	.58	-.39	.70

The results of the t test for three kinds of leadership styles, classified according to two educational level groups were found to be insignificant at the p value less than .05. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 2B was not rejected.

Null Hypothesis 2C (Ho2C)

There is no significant difference between the teachers' length of service in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles.

A t test was used to compare two length of service categories (group one: 0-9 years service; group two: more than 10 years service) with three MLQ leadership styles. Table 8 presents the mean scores of teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles by teachers' length of service.

Table 8

A t test for Comparison of the Length of Service on MLO Leadership Styles

Leadership Styles	0-9 years of Service		10 years or more of Service		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
TF	2.56 (n = 339)	.60	2.55 (n = 285)	.65	.28	.78
TA	3.05 (n = 334)	.47	3.06 (n = 285)	.45	-.38	.71
LF	3.34 (n = 324)	.57	3.32 (n = 284)	.60	.48	.63

Mean scores were given in each cell with the number of respondents given in parentheses. The results of the t test show that there was no relationship between teachers' length of service and their perceptions of the three different leadership styles at the p value less than .05. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 2C was not rejected.

Null Hypothesis 3A (Ho3A)

There is no significant difference between the male and female teachers in terms of their job satisfaction.

A t test analysis was used to explore the differences between male and female teachers' feelings of their own job satisfaction. Mean scores were given in each cell with the number of respondents given in parentheses. The results of

the t test analysis is shown in Table 9. This test yielded a t statistic of -2.60, which is significant at the p value less than .05 level. The male teachers ($M = 2.55$) were less satisfied with their jobs than female teachers ($M = 2.67$). Therefore, Null Hypothesis 3A was rejected. Again, according to the Effect Size Index the variable ($d = 2.67 - 2.55/.55 = .22$) was in the small effect size range, so a small difference is shown to exist.

Table 9

Job Satisfaction Mean Scores by Gender

	Male		Female		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Job Sat.	2.55	.55	2.67	.55	-2.60	.01	.22
	(n = 267)		(n = 350)				

Null Hypothesis 3B (Ho3B)

There is no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their job satisfaction.

A t test was used to test Null Hypothesis 3B. The same educational levels described in the analysis of Null Hypothesis 2B were considered (group one: bachelor degree and above; group two: less than bachelor degree). Table 10 presents job satisfaction mean scores for educational level. Mean scores were given in each cell with the number of

respondents given in parentheses. The effective size of the variable ($2.64 - 2.53/.56 = .20$) was in the small range, so the result of the t test shows there was a small difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their job satisfaction. The teachers with less than bachelor degrees were less satisfied with their jobs than those with bachelor degrees and higher. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 3B was rejected.

Table 10

Job Satisfaction Mean Scores by Level of Education

	Bachelor Degree and Above		Less than Bachelor Degree		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Job Sat.	2.64 ($n = 496$)	.56	2.53 ($n = 118$)	.51	2.00	.05	.20

Null Hypothesis 3C (Ho3C)

There is no significant difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their job satisfaction.

A t test was constructed to test Null Hypothesis 3C.

Table 11 presents job satisfaction mean scores by two categories of years of service as teachers. The same length of service described in the analysis of Null Hypothesis 2C were considered (group one: 0-9 years service; group two: more than 10 years service). Mean scores were given in each

cell with the number of respondents given in parentheses. The effective size of the variable was also in the small range ($d = .18$). So, the result of the t test shows there was a small difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their job satisfaction. The teachers with 10 or more years of service were less satisfied with their job than those with nine or fewer years of service. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 3C was rejected.

Table 11

Job Satisfaction Mean Scores by Years of Service

	0-9 years of Service		10 years and more of Service		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Job Sat.	2.66	.57	2.56	.52	2.31	.02	.18
	(n = 332)		(n = 286)				

Summary of Status of Null Hypotheses

Table 12

Summary of Status of Null Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Null Hypotheses Statement	Test Result
Ho1A	There is no relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their perceptions of their principals' leadership styles (transformational (TF), transactional (TA), and laissez-faire (LF) leadership styles).	Rejected
Ho1B	There is no subset of MLQ leadership scales (overall TF, overall TA, and LF leadership scales) which can predict teachers' job satisfaction.	Rejected
Ho2A	There is no significant difference between the male and female teachers in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles.	Rejected with TF & LF; Not Rejected with TA
Ho2B	There is no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles.	Not Rejected
Ho2C	There is no significant difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles.	Not Rejected
Ho3A	There is no significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of their job satisfaction.	Rejected
Ho3B	There is no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their job satisfaction.	Rejected
Ho3C	There is no significant difference between teachers' length of service in terms of their job satisfaction.	Rejected

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study explored the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership as a means of explaining the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles and their feelings of job satisfaction. It also explored the relationships between teachers' gender, educational level, and length of service regarding their perceptions of these three leadership styles and job satisfaction. The analysis of data collected from 629 vocational high school teachers in the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung, Taiwan, provided the basis for the following discussions and conclusions, and recommendations.

Discussions And Conclusions

The statistical analysis of data found in Chapter 4 are the basis for the following discussion and conclusions:

From the response to leadership styles and job satisfaction (see Table 4), it was concluded that teachers perceived their principals' leadership styles to be predominantly laissez-faire. Laissez-faire principals tend to give teachers complete freedom of action, provide them with materials, refrain from participating except to answer questions when asked, and do not make evaluative remarks. These behaviors are in contrast to those of transformational principals, who display a much greater frequency of

providing vision and pride, communicate high expectations, promote rationality, and give personal attention to each teacher individually. They also contrast with the behaviors of transactional principals, who promise rewards for good performance and recognize accomplishments, watch and search for deviations from rules and standards, and take corrective actions.

Based on the findings of this study, a relatively clear picture of teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles emerged which showed an impact on teachers' level of job satisfaction. The data suggested that under laissez-faire leadership conditions, the teachers were dissatisfied with their job ($M = 2.62 < 3.0$).

From Null Hypothesis 1A, it was concluded that there was a relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their perceptions of principals' leadership styles. Positive correlations with general job satisfaction for overall transformational leadership style and its subscales (charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) were noted (see Table 5). This finding is consistent with those of Bass (1985), Bass and Avolio (1990), and Singer and Singer (1989).

Table 5 also shows the significant positive correlations between contingent reward and general job satisfaction. This showed that contingent reward was

associated with higher job satisfaction, which was also predicted by Bass's (1985) model.

On the other hand, management by exception (passive) had negative correlations with general job satisfaction. This is supported by Bass and Avolio's (1990) findings. Laissez-faire leadership also had negative correlations with general job satisfaction. This finding is supported by the research of Bass and Avolio (1990), and Kirby, Paradise, and King (1992).

From Null Hypothesis 1B, it was concluded that only the subset of overall transformational leadership scales (Charisma, Inspiration, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration) can predict teachers' job satisfaction. It also appeared that the overall transformational leadership scales of principals were positively correlated with predicting teachers' general job satisfaction more so than overall transactional and laissez-faire leadership scales. This supports the argument that school principals need to rely more on transformational leadership style which consists of the four scales.

From Null Hypothesis 2A, it was concluded that the female teachers perceived their principals as transformational leaders more than male teachers while the male teachers perceived their principals as laissez-faire leaders more than female teachers. There was no difference between the male and female teachers' perceptions related to

their principals' transactional leadership style (see Table 6). The reasons for this difference between male and female teachers' perceptions related to their principals' leadership styles remain unknown in this study. Further research in this area should explore the reasons for such gender difference.

From Null Hypothesis 2B, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between teachers' educational level in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (see Table 7). While some people might assume that educational level influences teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles, the data of this study did not support this expectation. This finding is consistent with the findings of Franzoia (1990), Johnson (1992), and Windel (1991).

From Null Hypothesis 2C, it was concluded that there was no relationship between teachers' length of service in terms of their perceptions of the three different leadership styles (see Table 8). This finding supports those of Billingsley and Cross (1992), Franzoia (1990), Johnson (1992), and Windel (1991). In applying Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) life cycle theory, a leader should move from a telling, high direction style (transactional leadership) with a newer employee to a delegating, low direction style (laissez-faire leadership) as the employee's ability level to act independently increases. Assuming that

the principals in the sample schools of the Metropolitan Area of Kaoshiung were following this model, teachers with different years of service might have different perceptions of their principals' leadership styles. But the data of this study did not support this expectation. One possible explanation was that the principals in the sample schools of the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung were perceived to predominantly use the same type of leadership style with all the teachers.

From Null Hypothesis 3A, it was concluded that male and female teachers felt differently in terms of job satisfaction. The male teachers' job satisfaction mean score (2.55) was lower than the mean score (2.67) of female teachers (see Table 9). The reasons for the difference between male and female teachers' feelings about their job satisfaction could not be concluded in this study. It is possible that teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership in the sample schools of the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung as laissez-faire leaders might cause the difference between male and female teachers' feelings about their job satisfaction level. Further research in this area should incorporate more specific questions which might provide insight into such gender differences.

From Null Hypothesis 3B, it was concluded that teachers with less than a bachelors degree were less satisfied with their job than those with bachelors degree and higher (see

Table 10). These results support the findings of Cortis (1976), Knoop (1980), Lentz (1983), Pelsma (1987), and Reyes (1989). One possible explanation was that the principals in the sample schools of the Metropolitan Area of Kaohsiung were predominantly perceived as laissez-faire leaders. This perception might cause the teachers with lower educational level to be less satisfied with their job. Consistent with the Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) life cycle theory those teachers with less education might need more direction, encouragement, and personal attention from the principals (transformational leadership). If the principals were perceived as laissez-faire principals, they would demonstrate fewer of these elements to motivate teachers.

From Null Hypothesis 3C, it was concluded that the teachers with nine or fewer years of service had a slightly higher level of job satisfaction than those with more than 10 years of service. The results of this study are consistent with the findings of Barber (1980), Dilworth (1991), Garskof (1985), Henderson (1983), Parkhouse and Johnson (1980), Sweeney (1982), and Weaver (1980). This finding is inconsistent with Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) life cycle theory. The data (see Table 11) suggested teachers with nine or fewer years of service rated a slightly higher level of job satisfaction when they perceived their principals as predominantly laissez-faire leaders--principals who lacked clear directions, and also

failed to provide encouragement and attention to teachers. One possible explanation was that the teachers with less years of service might not know enough about some of the critical taboos in the particular school. Laissez-faire principals tend to pay less attention to them and that increases the feeling of freedom. On the other hand, teachers with more years of service have learned their lessons and prefer to have clear directions from the principals.

Recommendations for School Improvement

Results of this study have contributed to the literature on leadership styles of private vocational high school principals in Kaohsiung, Taiwan, particularly as those leadership styles relate to teacher job satisfaction. In making the following recommendations, the presumption that school principals prefer teachers who are satisfied with their jobs has been made.

1. Because the transformational leadership style of principals was more positively correlated with predicting teachers' job satisfaction than transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, there is some support that principals in education need to become familiar with and more often use the behaviors associated with transformational leadership.

2. The results from this study demonstrate the usefulness of a model of leadership that includes a

transformational or similar construct, such as democratic leadership style, consideration leadership style, team management, employee-orientation style and cultural and symbolic leadership style.

3. It is recommended that the Taiwan Ministry of Education should provide regular courses for the purpose of providing training in leadership to school principals and government educational senior officers in Taiwan. Good educational leadership can be developed through systematic training and continuous development of leadership skills is part of any principals' and government educational senior officers' job. These skills will be maintained only if principals and educational senior officers update and widen their knowledge through continuous learning. The world appears to be in an international learning race where the stakes are restricted to the rise and fall not just of individual schools but also of nations and whole regions of the world. Many Western leadership concepts could be very beneficial for Taiwanese school principals and educational officers to learn and modify to suit the Chinese cultural background.

4. When compared with the United States, transformational leadership and teacher empowerment is not very popular yet in Taiwan secondary school level. Under transformational leadership, the principal's role and function is similar to a visionary leader, adviser,

communicator, and staff developer. The concepts of transformational leadership easily fit into school-based management and teacher empowerment. School-based management and teacher empowerment are already underway at some major universities in Taiwan. This researcher believes that is the trend for school administration in Taiwan.

5. Develop the curriculum in the university to transmit the common core of the new leadership knowledge and skills to those students who are majoring in school administration, and train them to be both good followers and leaders. This researcher believes a good follower may not be a good leader but a good leader should be a good follower. An effective school administrator realizes what role he/she is playing in different situations.

6. Set vigorous recruitment strategies to attract capable faculty in administrator preparation programs.

7. This researcher would also recommend that the newer dimensions of leadership be provided to the principals in Taiwan. Teacher empowerment is a popular issue in educational settings, the following dimensions might provide some clues for new leadership: developing a shared vision as well as defining a personal vision, asking questions as well as having answers, coping with weakness as well as displaying strength, listening and acknowledging as well as talking and persuading, depending on others as well as

exercising power, and letting go as well as taking charge are well documented in this studies.

Recommendations for Further Research

Historical and current literature clearly indicated that effective school leaders make a difference on all counts of school culture. Further, such school leaders have a common goal to increase the academic achievement in their respective schools. Therefore, the following recommendations for further research are made:

1. Because the MLQ leadership scales proved to be useful in predicting job satisfaction in military, business, and education, exploration of transformational kinds of theories appears promising in learning about leadership. The model outlined by Bass and Avolio (1988) should be put to further tests, particularly since some of the questions may be confusing for Chinese to answer, such as items 6, 11, 34, 53, 57, and 63 of the questionnaire (Appendix B).

2. The sample size of teachers' length of service in this study was not evenly distributed with the original design (group one: 0-9 years; group two: 10-19 years; group three: 20-29 years; and group four: 30 years or more). Consideration should be given to research designs which include a smaller range of experience, such as every five years instead of 10. Since the majority of teachers have earned bachelors degree, it may not important to

compare the differences between the different educational levels concerning their perceptions of principals' leadership styles and job satisfaction. Reasons for gender differences of perceptions of leadership styles should also be considered for further research.

3. This study relied on teachers' perceptions about their principals' leadership styles. The results of this study might not be the same as the principals' own perceptions. A study should incorporate assessment of principals' perceptions of their own leadership styles and make a comparison to determine the differences between the two parties.

4. The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teachers job satisfaction in Taiwan should be measured systematically to determine the stability of the rate and trends for the future. This study has provided a single view of a specific area in Taiwan. Using similar measures within all of Taiwan would provide a much broader picture than currently exists.

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Appendix A
Letters of Permission for Instruments



CENTER FOR
LEADERSHIP STUDIES

February 19, 1993

Ining Y. H. Chu
Doctoral Candidate
of Industrial Technology
University of Northern Iowa
Industrial Technology Center 25
Cedar Falls, IA 50614-0178

Dear Ining:

This is in reply to your request to use the MLQ in your study.

Enclosed please find a copy of an experimental form 5X for self and raters and the scoring key. They should be reproduced only for your own research use.

You should use the instruments in their entirety. If absolutely necessary to reduce, please eliminate entire scales rather than some items from some scales.

We will appreciate also receiving a copy of the results of your research effort. In addition, please provide us with the raw data on the MLQ on a 3 1/2" disk, so that we would be able to add it to our normative data base.

Cordially,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads 'Bernard Bass / sp'.

Bernard M. Bass

BMB/sp
(chu.for)

Enclosure: Form 5X and key

P.S. We would appreciate receiving copies of the Chinese translation of the forms and expect that you will also provide a back-translation.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
TWIN CITIES

Department of Psychology
Elliott Hall
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

Mar 4, 1993

Ining Y.H. Chu
Dept. of Industrial Tech.
Industrial Technology Center 25
Cedar Falls, Iowa 50614-0178

Dear Ining Y.H.Chu:

We are pleased to grant you permission to translate the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form into Chinese.

Our policy has been to grant permission for translation of the instrument only if Vocational Psychology Research, the current holder of the copyright, retains commercial rights. That is, you would be able to use the instrument, but the translation would be turned over to us upon completion of the research. We also ask that two copies be sent to us as soon as the translation has been completed. Finally, we must have assurance that the American Psychological Association Guidelines indicated on the enclosed information sheet are being followed.

Please do not hesitate to contact us if you have any questions or if we can be of any further assistance. We look forward to hearing from you. 612-625-1367.

Sincerely,



Dr. David J. Weiss, Director
Vocational Psychology Research

Appendix B

Survey Instrument: Teachers' Perceptions of Principals
Leadership Styles and Job
Satisfaction

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1992). Multifactor
Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5X--Rater, Revised).
Binghamton, NY: Center for Leadership Studies,
State University of New York at Binghamton.

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist,
L. H. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction
Questionnaire. St. Paul: University of Minnesota.

PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TEACHERS'
JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Teachers:

The purpose of this Questionnaire is to try to examine the relationship between your perception of your principal's leadership style and your job satisfaction. Many researches have been done with this kind of problem, but none of them are concerned with the private vocational high school teachers' perceptions. So, your opinions are very important to this study. All the answers will be kept confidential.

Would you please take about 15 minutes of your time and answer each question? A copy of summary of this study will make available in your school. Your enthusiasm and support are highly appreciated.

Best Regards

Ining Y. H. Chu

Department of Industrial Technology
University of Northern Iowa
Cedar Falls, Iowa

The Instructions for Answer the Questions

This Questionnaire is divided into three parts: the first part is demographic data; the second part is dealing with your perception of principal's leadership style; the last part is concerning your present job satisfaction.

Please read the following instructions carefully, before start to answer the questions:

1. Please use the ballpoint pen, that is provided in your envelope, to answer the questions and make a check mark for each question.
2. Choose only ONE best answer for each question.
3. When the item is irrelevant or does not apply, or when you are uncertain or do not know, leave the answer blank.
4. This questionnaire is self-explanatory, the primacy issue in its administration is the maintenance of anonymity and privacy. So, do not mark the space available for your name.

I. Demographic Data

1. Sex: A--Male
 B--Female

2. Age: A--20 to 29 years old
 B--30 to 39 years old
 C--40 to 49 years old
 D--50 to 59 years old
 E--60 years old and above

3. Length of Service (including this year):
 A--20 - 29 years
 B--30 - 39 years
 C--40 - 49 years
 D--50 - 59 years
 E--60 years and above
4. Educational Level:
 A--Graduated School
 B--College or University
 C--Post Secondary or High School
5. Marital Status:
 A--Married
 B--Single

II. Principal's Leadership Style Questionnaire

Please evaluate the leadership style of your principal on the following questions. Please use the following key for the five possible responses:

- A = Frequently
 B = Fairly Often
 C = Sometimes
 D = Once In A While
 E = Not At All

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. Makes personal sacrifices for the benefit of others. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. It requires a failure to meet an objective for him/her to take action. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. Sets high standards. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards. | A | B | C | D | E |

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Emphasizes the value of questioning assumptions. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 12. Gives me what I want in exchange for my support. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 13. Treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 14. Takes no action even when problems become chronic. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 15. Remains calm during crisis situation. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 16. Work has to fall below minimum standards for him/her to try to make improvements. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 17. Closely monitors my performance for errors. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 18. Envisions exciting new possibilities. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 19. Makes clear what I can expect to receive, if my performance meets designated standards. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 20. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 21. Is absent when needed. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 22. Listens attentively to my concerns. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 23. Fails to intervene until problems become serious. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 24. Instills pride in being associated with him/her. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 25. Spends his/her time looking to "put out fires". | A | B | C | D | E |
| 26. Works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I do what needs to be done. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 27. Talks optimistically about the future. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 28. Fails to follow-up requests for assistance. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 29. Encourages us to rethink ideas which had never been questioned before. | A | B | C | D | E |

30. Tells me what I've done wrong rather than what I've done right. A B C D E
31. Provides useful advice for my development. A B C D E
32. Keeps track of my mistakes. A B C D E
33. Goes beyond his/her own self-interest for the good of our group. A B C D E
34. Negotiates with me about what I can expect to receive for what I accomplish. A B C D E
35. Resists expressing his/her views on important issues. A B C D E
36. Expresses his/her confidence that we will achieve our goals. A B C D E
37. Things have to go wrong for him/her to take action. A B C D E
38. Questions the traditional ways of doing things. A B C D E
39. Enforces rules to avoid mistakes. A B C D E
40. Focuses me on developing my strengths. A B C D E
41. Provides his/her assistance in exchange for my effort. A B C D E
42. Provides reassurance that we will overcome obstacles. A B C D E
43. Avoids making decisions. A B C D E
44. Shows he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it". A B C D E
45. Provides continuous encouragement. A B C D E
46. Directs his/her attention toward failure to meet standards. A B C D E
47. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems. A B C D E
48. Tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts. A B C D E

49. Spends time teaching and coaching me. A B C D E
50. Delays responding to urgent questions. A B C D E
51. Displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever he/she undertakes A B C D E
52. Problems must become chronic before he/she will take action. A B C D E
53. Searches for mistakes before commenting on my performance. A B C D E
54. Focuses my attention on "what it takes" to be successful. A B C D E
55. Makes sure that we receive appropriate rewards for achieving performance target. A B C D E
56. Suggests new ways of looking at how we do our jobs. A B C D E
57. Diverts his/her attention away from addressing work-related problems. A B C D E
58. Treats each of us as individuals with different needs, abilities, and aspirations. A B C D E
59. His/her actions build my respect for him/her. A B C D E
60. I earn credit with him/her by doing my job well. A B C D E
61. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. A B C D E
62. Encourages me to express my ideas and opinions. A B C D E
63. Teaches me how to identify the needs and capabilities of others. A B C D E
64. Displays a sense of power and confidence. A B C D E
65. Arouses awareness on what is essential to consider. A B C D E
66. Articulates a compelling vision of the future. A B C D E

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 67. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 68. Promotes self-development. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 69. Shows determination to accomplish what he/she sets out to do. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 70. Encourages non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 71. Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 72. Expresses his/her satisfaction when I do a good job. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 73. Encourages addressing problems by using reasoning and evidence, rather than unsupported opinion. | A | B | C | D | E |

III. Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Please according to your present working situation and express your degree of satisfaction. Please use the following key for the five possible responses:

A = Very Satisfied

B = Satisfied

C = Neither (satisfied or dissatisfied)

D = Dissatisfied

E = Very Dissatisfied

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 74. Being able to keep busy all the time. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 75. The chance to work alone on the job. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 76. The chance to do different things from time to time. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 77. The chance to be "somebody" in the community. | A | B | C | D | E |

78. The way my boss handles his men. A B C D E
79. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions. A B C D E
80. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience. A B C D E
81. The way my job provides for steady employment. A B C D E
82. The chance to do things for other people. A B C D E
83. The chance to tell people what to do. A B C D E
84. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities. A B C D E
85. The way company policies are put into practice. A B C D E
86. My pay and the amount of work I do. A B C D E
87. The chances for advancement on this job. A B C D E
88. The freedom to use my own judgment. A B C D E
89. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job. A B C D E
90. The working conditions. A B C D E
91. The way my co-worker get along with each other. A B C D E
92. The praise I get for doing a good job. A B C D E
93. The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job. A B C D E

私立職校老師對校長領導風格及工作滿意度調查問卷

各位老師：您好

這份問卷的主要目的，在求瞭解私立職校老師對所服務學校校長之領導風格以及工作滿意度之關係。在所有以往的問題調查中，很少有人完全針對我們私校老師心態作完整的調查，所以您的意見至為寶貴，所填問卷資料對外絕對保密，懇請您花約15分鐘的時間依自己的感受逐題選答，謝謝您的熱忱協助與支持。敬祝

教安

美國北愛荷華大學 敬啟

作答方式

問卷分為三部份，第一部份是個人基本資料，第二部份為您所服務學校校長的領導風格，第三部份為您目前工作的滿意程度。

1. 請以所提供的原子筆作答，在所選之答案格內打“√”。
2. 每題只能選擇一個您最滿意的答案。
3. 若題目中所敘述的事項您無法確定或不知道請不要作答。
4. 這是一份不具名的問卷，請不要填入您的姓名。

壹. 基本資料

1. 性別： A - 男性
 B - 女性
2. 年齡： A - 20~29 歲
 B - 30~39 歲
 C - 40~49 歲
 D - 50~59 歲
 E - 60歲以上
3. 服務年資(包含今年)
 A - 0~9年
 B - 10~19年
 C - 20~29年
 D - 30年以上

4. 教育程度

- A - 研究所
 B - 大學
 C - 專科及高中(職)

5. 婚姻狀況

- A - 已婚
 B - 未婚

貳. 校長領導風格問卷

下列 6~73 諸問題，在描述校長的領導風格，請以您所服務學校校長的領導風格依下列問題做最好的選擇。

- A = 總是如此
 B = 常常如此
 C = 偶而如此
 D = 很少如此
 E = 完全沒有

	A	B	C	D	E
	總是 如此	常常 如此	偶而 如此	很少 如此	完全 沒有
6. 爲了別人的利益，而犧牲個人的利益。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. 當有重大的爭論問題時，儘量避免參與。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. 當失誤發生而不能達到預期目標時，他才開始採取行動。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. 對工作要求設立高的標準。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. 注意力集中在那些非常規、錯誤、例外及偏離標準的事件上。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. 非常重視對假設之事抱懷疑的態度。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. 籠絡我來換取我的支持。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	A	B	C	D	E
	總是 如此	常常 如此	偶而 如此	很少 如此	完全 沒有
13. 尊重我，而不只是把我當作是團體中的一個成員而已。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. 即使問題「因循成疾」，仍不尋求解決途徑。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. 當面對危機時，仍能保持鎮定。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. 要等到工作表現低於最低標準時，才開始設法改進。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. 緊盯著我所執行的工作，以便發現我的錯誤。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. 具有前瞻性的構想。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. 當我的表現達到指定之標準時，會清楚地告訴我可以期望得著什麼。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. 對於事務中具有關鍵性的假設，再三審查其是否適切。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. 當我需要他時，他卻不在。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. 專心聆聽我在述說我所關切的事。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. 直到問題變得很嚴重，他才介入。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. 潛移默化地使人獲得以與他共事為榮。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. 將時間用在“燃眉之急”的事件上。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. 與我溝通協調使我知道如果盡力去完成我所必需做的，我將能得到什麼回報。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. 對未來保持樂觀態度。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	A	B	C	D	E
	總是 如此	常常 如此	偶而 如此	很少 如此	完全 沒有
28. 對所要求協助的事並未跟進處理。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. 鼓勵我們重新思量，一向被認為是理所當然的事。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. 僅知挑錯，不知揚善。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. 對我個人的生涯發展提供有益的建議。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. 對我所曾犯的錯誤，銘記在心。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. 他為了團體的利益，而犧牲自己的利益。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. 與我磋商，並使我知道當我完成某項任務後，我可能期待什麼報償。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. 對重大爭議的事，拒絕表達他個人的看法。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. 對我們預期要達到的目標，表達他深具信心。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. 要等到事情已經產生錯誤時，才採取行動。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. 常懷疑傳統的處事方式。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. 嚴厲執行規定，以避免產生錯誤。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. 對發展我個人的特長尤其關切。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. 提供他的協助，以換取我的努力。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. 一再提供我們有克服障礙的信心。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	A	B	C	D	E
	總是 如此	常常 如此	偶而 如此	很少 如此	完全 沒有
43. 避免由他做決策。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. 表現他確信，”一動不如一靜”的理念。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45. 經常鼓勵我們。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. 為達到標準而重視失敗。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47. 在解決問題時，尋求不同的看法。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48. 告訴我應做何事，才能獲得我所付出之代價。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49. 花時間在教導及輔導我。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. 拖延對緊急事件的反應。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. 對他所承擔的事情，展現不尋常的才幹及能力。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52. 要等到問題成為痼疾他才採取行動。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53. 在評估我的表現之前，先搜索我是否曾犯過錯誤。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
54. 使我注意到我將付出什麼，方能成功。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55. 保證當我們完成既定目標後，能得到應有的報償。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56. 建議以新的方法來看我們如何執行工作。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
57. 對工作相關的問題失去注意力。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	A	B	C	D	E
	總是 如此	常常 如此	偶而 如此	很少 如此	完全 沒有
58. 對待我們能針對每一個人不同的需要、能力及抱負。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
59. 他的行為使我對他產生尊敬。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
60. 當我工作表現良好時，我能贏得殊榮。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
61. 很熱心地告訴我(們)什麼事我(們)必須要完成。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
62. 鼓勵我表達我個人的想法及意見。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
63. 教導我如何辨認別人的需要及能力。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
64. 展現一種予人有力量及信心的感覺。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
65. 激發我(們)對於重要事務的考慮。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
66. 能很清晰地灌輸未來的遠景。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
67. 使我能從各種不同角度來看問題。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
68. 推動“自我成長”。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
69. 展現他對完成新事物的決心。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
70. 鼓勵以非傳統方式來處理傳統事務。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
71. 對於似乎被忽略的人給予他應有的關懷。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
72. 當我工表現良好時，表示他的滿意。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
73. 鼓勵提出問題時以理性及證據為憑，而不以沒根據的想法為憑。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

參. 工作的滿意度問卷

下列 74~93 諸問題，針對您對自己工作的滿意程度，請依下列答案做最好的選擇。

A = 很滿意
 B = 滿意
 C = 尚可
 D = 不滿意
 E = 很不滿意

	A	B	C	D	E
	很滿意	滿意	尚可	不滿意	很不滿意
74. 能使自己經常忙於工作。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
75. 在工作上常有獨當一面的機會。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
76. 常有機會做不同樣的工作。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
77. 在社區中能成為“重要人物”的機會。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
78. 校長領導部屬的方式。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
79. 對我的上司作決策的能力。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
80. 在工作中我所做的事不至於與我的良知衝突。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
81. 工作穩定情形。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
82. 能有為別人服務的機會。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
83. 有機會告訴別人該如何做。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
84. 能充分發揮所學專長的機會。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
85. 對本校行政決策實際執行的程度。	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | A | B | C | D | E |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 很滿意 | 滿意 | 尚可 | 不滿意 | 很不滿意 |
| 86. 就工作量及每月所得的報酬而言，您認為： | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 87. 對於工作上升陞機會，您認為： | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 88. 能有自己做判斷的自由度。 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 89. 能有以自我創新方式從事機會。 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 90. 對本校的工作環境（硬體、軟體設備而言）。 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 91. 教師們彼此相處的情形。 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 92. 當我工作表現優良時，所受到的讚賞，您認為： | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 93. 對從事教學工作所獲得的成就感，你覺得： | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Appendix C
The Reliability and Validity
of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5X--Rater
Revised, (Bass & Avolio, 1990)

The MLQ, Form 5X--Rater (Revised), developed by Bass and Avolio (1988), in order to provide measures of the components of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Bass (1988) operationalized Burn's (1978) model of transformational and transactional leadership with the development of the MLQ. After several revisions, Bass produced the MLQ-Form 5, in which the respondent (rater) describes the behavior of a leader, who is usually the rater's superior. Respondents were given a 68-item questionnaire consisting of eight scales of leadership factors. Four of these factors subscales (charismatic, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspiration) are measures of transformational leadership. Three of the factors subscales (contingent reward, management-by-exception [active], and management-by-exception [passive]) are measures of transactional leadership. An eighth factor, laissez-faire, is considered to measure non-leadership.

Charisma is the leader's ability to arouse devotion and involvement through personal dynamics such as self-confidence, ideological stance, and dramatic and emotional appeal. Inspiration is closely related to charisma. Leaders inspire by increasing follower awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals through symbols and simplified emotional persuasion. Intellectual stimulation is the encouragement to challenge the status quo and take

risks. Transformational leaders also strengthen followers by raising their needs perspectives and by providing opportunities for them to develop their capabilities. To elevate goals and develop skills, they treat followers on a one-to-one basis--a factor referred to as individualized consideration. The other two factors--contingent reward and management-by-exception--measure transactional leadership. Contingent reward is the exchange of appropriate rewards for meeting agreed upon objectives. Management-by-exception occurs when the leader leaves organizational members alone to do their jobs unless problems are perceived. Then the manager will correct, sanction, or criticize behavior. Finally, laissez-faire is a nonleadership factor that refers to the leader who does not tell the organizational members where they stand on issues (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

A five-point rating scale for the frequency of observed leader styles is used and bears a magnitude estimation-based ratio of 4:3:2:1:0 according to a tested list of anchors provided by Bass, Cascio, and O'Connor (1974). The anchors used to evaluate the MLQ factors are presented as follows:

Rating Scale for Leadership Items

- 0= Not at all
- 1= Once in a while
- 2= Sometimes
- 3= Fairly often
- 4= Frequently

The eight scales of the MLQ consist of the following items:

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Items</u>
Transformational Leadership Style	
Charisma	6, 15, 24, 33, 42, 51, 59, 64
Inspiration Influence	9, 18, 27, 36, 45, 54, 61, 65, 66, 69
Intellectual Stimulation	11, 20, 29, 38, 47, 56, 62, 67, 70, 73
Individual Consideration	13, 22, 31, 40, 49, 58, 63, 68, 71
Transactional Leadership Style	
Contingent Reward	12, 19, 26, 34, 41, 48, 55, 60, 72
Management By Exception (Active)	10, 17, 25, 32, 39, 46, 53
Management By Exception (Passive)	8, 16, 23, 30, 37, 44, 52
Laissez-Faire	7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 43, 50, 57

Reliability

Table 15 summarizes data collected using the MLQ Rater and Self-Rating Forms in which followers in numerous industrial, manufacturing, and high-technology organizations rated their immediate supervisors. Leaders represent middle to upper level management in the firm sampled.

As shown in Table 13, the reliability coefficients yielded a range of .77 through .90. The alpha reliability

coefficients for the MLQ Self-Rating Form were lower for each scale, yielding a range of .60 to .83. One possible explanation for the differences in reliability between the Self-Rating and Rater Forms is that leaders interpret each item about themselves with respect to multiple followers, while followers rate a single leader. Such multiple comparisons by the leader may result in lower internal consistency with the leadership factor scales (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Table 13

Mean, Standard Deviations (SD), Internal Consistency Reliabilities (Alpha), and Standard Errors of Management (SEM) for Ratings Completed by Rater and Self-Ratings (Form 5)

Scale	<u>M</u>		<u>SD</u>		<u>Reliability</u>		<u>SEM</u>	
	Rater	Self	Rater	Self	Rater	Self	Rater	Self
C	2.46	2.90	.89	.52	.90	.83	.28	.21
INSP	2.17	2.36	.79	.50	.84	.60	.32	.32
IS	2.43	2.93	.72	.44	.88	.72	.25	.23
IC	2.35	3.10	.77	.45	.85	.71	.30	.24
CR	1.75	2.16	.72	.60	.87	.82	.26	.25
MBE	2.11	1.91	.51	.41	.79	.62	.23	.25
LF	1.26	.90	.56	.44	.77	.60	.27	.28

Note. Samples involve 1,006 followers rating 251 business and industrial leaders.

Alpha reliability coefficients are presented in Table 14 for raters who used the Rater and Self-Rating Forms to rate co-workers or colleagues. As shown, the alpha coefficients based on colleague ratings ranged from .84 to .89, while the range for Self-Ratings was similar to data reported above (.68 to .92), with Management-By-Exception and Laissez-Faire producing alpha coefficients of .75 and .68, respectively.

Table 14

Mean, Standard Deviations (SD), Internal Consistency Reliabilities (Alpha), and Standard Errors of Management (SEM) for Ratings Completed by Co-workers and Self-Ratings (Form 5)

Scale	<u>M</u>		<u>SD</u>		Reliability		<u>SEM</u>	
	CW	Self	CW	Self	CW	Self	CW	Self
C	2.65	2.74	.81	.51	.89	.92	.27	.14
INSP	1.91	2.00	.81	.61	.87	.92	.29	.25
IS	2.49	2.69	.69	.53	.88	.89	.24	.18
IC	2.71	2.99	.72	.44	.85	.75	.28	.22
CR	2.14	2.30	.70	.52	.93	.89	.19	.17
MBE	2.11	2.00	.51	.46	.85	.75	.20	.23
LF	1.29	1.05	.51	.41	.84	.68	.20	.23

Note. Samples involve 474 co-workers (CW) rating 169 leader

As seen in Tables 13 and 14, all scale reliabilities were above .77 for follower ratings of the leader and .84 when leaders were rated by colleagues. Test-retest reliability over a six-month period has been computed for the factor scales comprising the Rater and Self-Rating Forms using data collected on 33 middle to upper level managers employed by a Fortune 500 firm. These results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Six Month Test-Retest Reliabilities for Rater and Self-Rating Forms (Form 5)

Scale	Reliability	
	Rater Form	Self-Rating Form
C	.79	.60
INSP	.66	.45
IS	.66	.61
IC	.77	.70
CR	.52	.44
MBE	.61	.74
LF	.82	.73

Note. Test-retest samples were based on ratings by 193 followers and 33 leaders.

The test-retest reliabilities ranged from .44 to .74 for the Self-Rating Form and .52 to .82 for the Rater Form.

The reliabilities reported here may underestimate the true test-retest reliabilities of the scales, since the group of managers used in this analysis did receive team development and individual training during the six-month interval. The training likely had a greater impact on self-ratings, since there was some focus on identifying and changing specific behaviors assessed by the MLQ between the first and second administrations (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Validity

MLQ scores can help to account for the varying impact that different types of leaders have on their supervisees, colleagues, and organizations. Such leaders include business and industrial managers, military officers, school principals, religious ministers, government administrators, sports coaches, and others whose degree and style of leadership affect colleague and follower satisfaction, group effectiveness, and organizational success (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

The MLQ has been used to examine both the overall and individual leadership profiles of people in an organization. Specifically, the MLQ Profile has been used to show how leadership cascades from one level of an organization to the next. Different units within an organization can also be compared with respect to specific performance criteria by means of contrasting individual leaders with aggregated leadership scores. The focus of the aggregation may be

across project teams, departments, divisions, office and plant locations, regions, and countries. Thus, the MLQ can be used at either an individual level of analysis or, when appropriate, can be aggregated for relevant group comparisons (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Appendix D
Reliability and Validity
of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
(Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed by a group of counseling psychologists at the University of Minnesota as a measure of job satisfaction. The Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation were begun in 1957 with two objectives: the development of diagnostic tools for assessing the work adjustment potential of applicants for vocational rehabilitation and the evaluation of work adjustment outcomes (Weiss et al., 1967). The conceptual framework for the studies is entitled the Theory of Work Adjustment. This theory purports that job satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between the individual's vocational needs and the reinforcements available in the work environment.

The MSQ has two forms, a long--100 item survey and a short--20 item survey. The Short Form was selected for this research because it has a 5-8 minute administration time while retaining the reliability and validity of the long form (Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ Short Form consists of 20 items utilizing a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) and provides information as to general, intrinsic, and extrinsic satisfaction with the work situation. General satisfaction level is measured by summing the responses to all items. Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction scales are subsets of the general satisfaction scale (Weiss et al., 1967). that refer to a reinforcer in the work environment.

The short form was developed by choosing 20 representative items from the long form, which correlated the highest within each respective scale. The following is a list of the items.

1. Activity. Being able to keep busy all the time.
2. Independence. The chance to work alone on the job.
3. Variety. The chance to do different things from time to time.
4. Social Status. The chance to be somebody in the community.
5. Supervision (human relations). The way my boss handles his/her workers.
6. Supervision (technical). The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
7. Moral Value. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.
8. Security. The way my job provides for steady employment.
9. Social Service. The chance to do things for other people.
10. Authority. The chance to tell other people what to do.
11. Ability Utilization. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
12. Company Policies and Practices. The way company policies are put into practice.

13. Compensation. My pay and the amount of work I do.

14. Advancement. The chances for advancement on this job.

15. Responsibility. The freedom to use my own judgement.

16. Creativity. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.

17. Working Conditions. The working conditions.

18. Co-workers. The way mu co-workers get along with each other.

19. Recognition. The praise I get for doing a good job.

20. Achievement. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.

For each item the respondent indicates how satisfied he/she is with the reinforcer in his/her job. The response choices are weighted in the following manner:

<u>Response Choice</u>	<u>Scoring Weight</u>
Very Dissatisfied	1
Dissatisfied	2
Neither	3
Satisfied	4
Very Satisfied	5

The range of possible raw scores is from 20 to 100.

The three scales of the short form MSQ consist of the following items:

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Items</u>
Intrinsic	74, 75, 76, 77, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 88, 89, 93
Extrinsic	78, 79, 85, 86, 87, 92
General Satisfaction	All items from 74-93

The general satisfaction score combines all the intrinsic score and extrinsic score items and includes two additional items: Co-workers and Working Conditions.

The percentile scores obtained from the appropriate norm group are used in interpreting the MSQ. A percentile score of 75 or higher represents a high degree of satisfaction, a percentile score of 25 or lower represents a low level of satisfaction and a percentile of 26-74 would represent average satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967).

Reliability and Validity

Reliability

The reliability of the MSQ has been evaluated in two ways: by the internal consistency of the scales and by the stability of the MSQ scores over time.

For the intrinsic satisfaction scale, the Hoyt reliability coefficients range from .84 (for the assembler group) to .91 for engineers. For the extrinsic satisfaction scale, the coefficients varied from .77 (for electronic assemblers) to .82 (for engineers and machinists). On the general satisfaction scale the coefficients varied from .87

(for assemblers) to .92 (for engineers). Median reliability coefficients were .86 for intrinsic satisfaction, .80 for extrinsic satisfaction, and .90 for general satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967).

No data are currently available concerning the stability scores for the short form MSQ. However, stability of the general satisfaction scale can be inferred from data on the long form MSQ based on the fact that the selected 20 items were obtained from the long form. Test and retest correlation of general satisfaction scale scores produced coefficients of .89 over one week and .70 over one year interval.

In 1988 the Vocational Psychology Research Department examined 65 secondary school teachers and norm data for additional occupations. The middle level teachers MSQ scores were compared to the normed secondary school teachers' scores. Table 16, provides the scale score statistics for the short form for secondary teachers (Bowers, 1991).

Table 16

The Mean and Standard Deviation of Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and General Satisfaction for Secondary Teachers (Short Form)

Scale	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Intrinsic	49.454	5.148
Extrinsic	20.609	5.195
General Satis.	78.387	9.779
Item	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1	4.169	0.840
2	4.200	0.887
3	4.462	0.614
4	3.245	1.210
5	3.902	1.033
6	3.985	1.008
7	4.400	0.607
8	4.400	0.825
9	4.277	0.718
10	3.348	0.881
11	4.246	0.867
12	3.354	1.067
13	2.969	1.274
14	3.015	1.205
15	4.323	0.709
16	4.493	0.616
17	4.169	0.741
18	4.154	1.064
19	3.385	1.168
20	3.892	1.091

Validity

Since the short form MSQ is based on a subset of the long form items, validity for the short form may in part be inferred from the validity of the long form (Weiss et al., 1967). Construct validity is the degree to which an

instrument performs according to theoretical expectations (Birmingham, 1984). Evidence supporting construct validity for the MSQ is derived from its ability to support predictions made by the theory of work adjustment. The theory states that satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between the individual's needs and the reinforcer system of the job. Four "need reinforcement groups" were drawn from 1,417 individuals by Weiss and his colleagues (1967). The investigators predicted that the high need--high reinforcement group would express the highest level of satisfaction, while the high need--low reinforcement group would express the least satisfaction. Evidence for construct validity was demonstrated for 10 of the 16 scales studied.

Content validity is related to how adequately the content of the instrument samples the domain about which inferences are made (Birmingham, 1984). Results of factor analysis indicated that approximately one-half of the MSQ scales score variances can be represented by the extrinsic satisfaction factors. The remaining scales define intrinsic satisfaction factors. According to Guion (1978), the MSQ "gives reasonably reliable, valid, and well-normed indicators of satisfaction at work" (cited in Birmingham, 1984, p. 58).

Appendix E
Letters of Agreement

The Translation of Informed Consent Statement

Dear Principal:

I am working for Shu-Te Girls' Vocational High School as the Director of Instruction. Right now, I am studying at University of Northern Iowa and working on my doctoral degree in Industrial Technology Department. Due to the principal leadership style of private vocational high school has significant relationship with teachers job satisfaction. So, I am choosing "The Relationship of Teachers' Perception of Principals' Leadership styles and Teachers' Job Satisfaction of Private Vocational High Schools in A Selected Metropolitan Area of Republic of China" as my research title to explore this problem. Many researches have been done with this kind of problem, but very few of them are concerned with the private vocational high school teachers' perceptions. Your opinions are very important to the understanding of this relationship. Your enthusiasm and support are highly appreciated. An agreement is enclosed and your permission to take your full-time teachers as this research samples is desired.

Best Regards

Ining Y. H. Chu

AGREEMENT

I hereby agree Mr. Yuan-Hsiang Chu to use this questionnaire to conduct his research with my full-time teachers. For the confidential and accurate reasons, this questionnaire is to answered anonymously and teacher has his/her own choice to answer all the questions.

Signed by school Principal

李校長鈞鑒

學生係服務於本市私立樹德家商教務處，現就讀於美國北愛渥華州立大學工業技術博士班，有鑑於私立職校校長之領導風格與及老師工作滿意度有極大之關係，是以「私立職校老師對校長領導風格及工作滿意度」為主題，作為研究論文報告。更感於以往諸多有關工作滿意度的問卷，很少有人以私立職校老師為調查對象，為求了解私立職校老師之想法，故貴校專任老師之意見頗為重要，懇請貴校能給予支持及協助。謹附上同意書函乙份，敬請惠允。

學生


朱元祥 敬上

同 意 書

中華民國八十一年四月十二日

茲同意朱元祥先生，以問卷方式對本校專任教師實施有關之研究調查，為求問卷之可靠性及保密性，該問卷係採不具名方式，由老師自由選答。

私立樹德家商職校

校長 李福苑 

徐校長鈞鑒

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學生

朱元祥 敬上


同 意 書

中華民國八十一年四月十二日

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私立高鳳工家職校

校長

徐永欽 

柯校長鈞鑒

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私立復華高級中學

校長 柯俊明

蔡校長鈞鑒

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私立三信家商職校

校長

蔡華



顏校長鈞鑒

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私立明誠高級中學

校長 _____

陳校長鈞鑒

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私立國際商工職校

校長

陳


校長鈞鑒

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私立大榮工商職校

校長

校長林健一

江校長鈞鑒

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私立立志工商職校

校長 江 濤



1992. 4. 13

Appendix F
Intercorrelations Between MLQ Leadership Scales
and MSQ General Job Satisfaction

Table 17

Intercorrelations Between MLQ Leadership Scales and MSQ General Job Satisfaction

Scale	TF	C	INSP	IS	IC	TA	CR	MEA	MEP	LF	GJS
TF		.93	.93	.89	.91	.39	.77	.10	-.36	-.41	.60
C	.93		.82	.77	.82	.28	.67	.01#	-.37	-.42	.58
INSP	.93	.82		.79	.78	.35	.72	.13	-.37	-.42	.55
IS	.89	.77	.79		.75	.44	.71	.19	-.29	-.34	.54
IC	.91	.82	.78	.75		.37	.72	.02#	-.29	-.34	.56
TA	.39	.28	.35	.44	.37		.67	.69	.41	.29	.17
CR	.77	.67	.72	.71	.72	.67		.25	-.24	-.28	.47
MEA	.10	.01#	.13	.19	.02#	.69	.25		.21	.18	-.01
MEP	-.36	-.37	-.37	-.29	-.29	.41	-.24	.21		.69	-.30
LF	-.41	-.42	-.42	-.34	-.34	.29	-.28	.18	.69		-.30
GJS	.60	.58	.55	.54	.56	.17	.47	-.01#	-.30	-.30	

Note. # Not significant at $p < .05$ level. TF = Overall Transformational Leadership; C = Charisma; INSP = Inspiration; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; TA = Overall Transactional Leadership; CR = Contingent Reward; MEA = Management by Exception (Active); MEP = Management by Exception (Passive); LF = Laissez-Faire Leadership; GJS = General Job Satisfaction.

Appendix G
MLQ Leadership Scales as Predictors of
MSQ General Job Satisfaction

Table 18

MLO Leadership Scales as Predictors of General Job
Satisfaction (Scales in the Equation)

Step	Scale Entered	B	SE B	t	R Square	p
1	Overall TF	.53	.03	17.70	.35	.01
2	Overall TF	.54	.03	17.89		.01
	MEA	-.07	.03	-2.33	.36	.02

MLO Leadership Scales as Predictors of General Job
Satisfaction (Scales not In the Equation)

Scale	Beta In	Partial	t	p
Charisma	.1271	.0555	1.327	.1849
Inspiration	-.1273	-.0555	-1.327	.1849
Intellectual Stimulation	-.0239	-.0125	-.299	.7653
Individualized Consideration	.0781	.0393	.939	.3480
Overall Transactional	-.0044	-.0037	-.088	.9302
Contingent Reward	.0442	.0349	.835	.4042
Management by Exception (passive)	-.0402	-.0455	-1.089	.2766
Laissez-Faire	-.0384	-.0431	-1.031	.3029