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The effects of consideration and initiating structure exhibited by principals on teacher morale in selected Louisiana secondary schools

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UMI

THE EFFECTS OF CONSIDERATION AND INITIATING STRUCTURE

EXHIBITED BY PRINCIPALS ON TEACHER MORALE IN

SELECTED LOUISIANA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by

Robert Wayne Webber, B. S. , M. Ed. , Ed. S.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
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We hereby recommend that the thesis prepared under our supervision

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entitled _The Effects of Consideration and Initiating Structure Exhibited by_

Principals on Teacher Morale in Selected Louisiana Secondary Schools

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Department

Recommendation concurred in:

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Advisory Committee

Approved:

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Dean of the College

Approved:

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Director of the Graduate School

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between the leadership styles of principals and teacher morale in the public secondary schools of north Louisiana, as perceived by teachers. The Ohio State studies and Getzels and Guba's Social Systems Model for educational organizations provided the theoretical framework for this study. Selected demographic variables of gender of the teacher, years of teaching experience, and race of the teacher were considered in this study. Information on teacher morale was collected from teachers in 14 randomly selected schools of north Louisiana. Data were obtained concerning teacher morale using the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire. Teachers also completed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, indicating their perception of the principals' leadership style. Two primary areas of concern were consideration and initiating structure levels exhibited by the principals. In addition, teachers completed a questionnaire that provided demographic data for the study that was developed by the researcher. The researcher also conducted structured interviews with each principal. After completing the interviews with each principal and receiving the completed questionnaires from the teachers involved in the study, the researcher scored the data according to the instructions from the original authors. A rejection level of less than .05 was established prior to analysis. Analysis of variance (ANOVA), Duncan's New Multiple Range Test, Levene's Test for Equality of Variance, and t test were used to analyze the data. Content analysis was used to analyze the interview data. Statistical analysis of the data

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was accomplished through use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X) computer program. The major findings of the study were:

1. The teachers' perception of leadership style significantly affects teacher morale. Varying levels of consideration produced significant differences in levels of teacher morale.

2. According to the perceptions of the teachers in the study, high and low levels of initiating structure exhibited by the principals produced significantly different levels of teacher morale. High initiating structure produced high levels of teacher morale, while low initiating structure appeared to produce lower levels of teacher morale.

3. The demographic variables of gender, years of teaching experience, and race played no significant role in the morale levels of the teachers in the study.

4. The overall morale level in the 14 schools examined fell in the high range in mean scores.

Interview data suggested that the principals perceived the morale level of their schools as high. The principals believed that their own leadership style played no major role in the level of morale among their teachers. The principals, in general, considered themselves to be high in consideration and more democratic in leadership style.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In America's changing society, the role of classroom teachers and the influence it has on students is more important today than ever before. According to Adams (as cited by Howsam, 1959, p. 5), "A teacher affects eternity; you can never tell where his influence ends." Burgan (1995) agreed, implying that the teacher was the heart of the educational process. Teachers certainly hold a unique position in American society. They are entrusted with the education of America's most precious commodity: its children. Dodds (1980) made the following observation:

> As a professional in the field, the teacher exerts a tremendous influence in all aspects of the educational domain. The teacher exercises subtle controls over the total educational process, acting as a stimulant, a neutralizer or a depressant. The teacher plays a significant role in the overall growth and development of the students. (p. 1)

Although the media and the general public are often critical of public education in America, and more specifically, the classroom teacher, the role of the teacher is still respected and honored by many. Heater (1989) found in his study that regardless of their status, teachers still perceive themselves as performing a special mission in our society, a major reason for becoming a teacher.

Teachers 10 Years After "A Nation at Risk" (U. S. Department of Education, 1994) examined some of the changes in the role of the classroom teacher in recent years. Among other findings, the research indicated the following changes:

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1. Today's teachers are better educated than a decade ago. About 15% of public school teachers in 1993 reported pursuing a new degree.

2. A greater proportion of teachers are female and ethnically diverse than a decade ago.

3. First-time teachers tend to have a higher rate of attrition than experienced teachers.

4. Almost all of public secondary teachers are certified to teach in their main field assignment.

5. Salaries for public school teachers increased substantially between 1980 and 1994 from $30,528 to $36,495.

6. Teachers seem to be happier about their choice of profession than they were a decade ago. In 1981, 46% of public school teachers certainly or probably would be willing to teach again. By 1991, the percentage had increased to 59%.

The principal, as leader of the school, has a great influence on the everyday occurrences at the school. School principals who provide effective leadership during the school day help to enrich the educational process tremendously. According to Calabrese (1994), effective school leaders of today possess various characteristics and traits that include the capacity to motivate, the capacity to win and hold trust, and the capacity to understand followers and their needs. Wey (1990) described the school principal as the person who holds the formal position of leadership and authority in each school building, while Davidson (1996) noted the leadership role of the principal as one of the key determinants of a school's effectiveness. Clark, Lotto, and McCarthy (1980) agreed when they stated, "the behavior of the principal is crucial in determining school success" (p. 468).

The role of the principal has become more demanding in recent years. Fullan (1998) described the role of the principal as becoming more complex and constrained in recent years and further stated, " 'Out there' is now 'in here' as government policy,

parental and community demands, corporate interests, and ubiquitous technology have all stormed the walls of the school" (p. 6). As Evans (1995) commented:

> Wanted: A miracle worker who can do more with less, pacify rival groups, endure chronic second-guessing, tolerate low levels of support, process large volumes of paper and work double shifts (75 nights a year out). He or she will have carte blanche to innovate, but cannot spend much money, replace any personnel, or upset any constituency. (p. 36)

A number of educators also assert that the morale of the teachers plays a significant role in the effectiveness of their instruction. Washington and Watson (1976) stated that teacher morale has a direct reflection on the successful operation of the school. Dufour (1986) found that a highly motivated staff and an effective school are mutually inclusive. Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) implied that dissatisfied teachers actually weaken the educational process. Wood (1968) found evidence in his study that schools that had superior teacher morale also had superior instruction; which, in turn, contributed to more effective learning processes. In a day of high teacher shortages, increased student dropouts, and more challenging curricula, it appears more important than ever before that the needs of teachers as individuals should not be overlooked. School principals must make teacher morale a high priority if America's public schools are to retain experienced and enthusiastic teachers as the year 2000 approaches. As Magoon and Linkous (1979) reported, "It seems clear that the principal is the key person in developing, nurturing, and maintaining positive teacher morale. The principal influences positive morale by assuming responsibilities for administrative actions and encouraging the teacher's professional growth" (p. 28).

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to ascertain the level of teacher morale as it is related to the leadership style of the school principal as measured by the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO) (Appendix A). Principal's leadership style, as perceived by teachers, will be measured using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

(LBDQ) (Appendix B). Specifically, this study examined the relationships among teacher morale and leadership style within two dimensions -- consideration and initiating structure. This study also examined the differences in teacher morale and the following variables: gender of the teacher, years as a teacher, and race of the teacher. The researcher also conducted structured interviews with each school principal to gain an insight into the principal's perception of his/her own leadership style and morale level of his/her faculty. This study was conducted during the spring of 1998 and involved 14 schools throughout north Louisiana. All teachers in these identified schools were provided the opportunity to participate in the study.

Teacher morale and teacher burnout, although not new problems in the field of education, have been well researched in recent years. Researchers have attempted to identify factors that contribute to high or low teacher morale. Magoon and Linkous (1979) described several common factors that contributed to low morale, including lack of administrative support for teachers. More recently, Byrne (1994) found several other important factors also contribute to low teacher morale in his study of elementary and secondary teachers in America's public schools. He found that the organizational variables of role conflict, work overload, classroom climate, and administrators who do not allow teachers to be a part of the decision making process were contributing factors that lead to low teacher morale. Stern and Cox (1993) implied that the lack of classroom control, lack of a positive attitude by students, and stress caused by overextending oneself were major contributors of low morale among teachers. However, Friedman (1995) found the primary cause for low teacher morale was inappropriate student behavior.

Numerous researchers also found that the leadership style of the school principal had a direct effect on the morale of the faculty. Reform and restructuring efforts over the past several years have directed attention to the leadership of schools. Issues such as low teacher morale, shared authority, and site-based management have raised important

questions about teacher-principal relations. The new accountability models adopted by the Louisiana legislature, recognizing academically distinguished schools and academically unacceptable schools according to standardized test scores, may also add to the importance of teacher morale and teacher principal relations. Davidson (1996) suggested that high teacher morale was directly related to a democratic leadership style exhibited by the school principal. Devault (1981) found there was a significant relationship between leadership styles of the principal and teacher morale among a sample of secondary teachers in Virginia. Boyd (1993) described a definite correlation between administrative style and behavior and their strong impact on teacher morale. Wey (1990), in a study of 15 suburban elementary schools in the southwestern United States, agreed that teacher morale is affected by leadership style and power base usage of the school principal.

Attempts to identify factors that affect the level of teacher morale have been made by researchers in many areas of the country, especially on the elementary level, in recent years. Far less effort has been made in researching teacher morale and its relationship to the leadership style of the principal at the secondary level. The primary problem of this study was to examine the relationships among teachers' perception of the leadership style of the school principal and their perceptions of the morale of the teachers in their school. Often, principals do not take the time to reflect upon the social interactions they have with their faculties. Because of this, principals may be unaware of potential problems that might hinder the achievement of organizational goals. Principals must understand that their actions or inactions have a direct effect upon teacher morale and ultimately on student achievement. This study provided educators with an assessment of the level of teacher morale in 14 selected schools in north Louisiana, provided a rationale for making decisions to improve teacher morale in these schools, and also provided vital information for other schools seeking to improve teacher morale.

Justification for the Study

Productivity in education is generally measured in terms of student academic achievement. Numerous researchers agree that teacher morale affects student achievement. Devault (1981) reported that an uninspired faculty led to difficulties in inspiring students to do their best. Koura (1963), in a study of 12 secondary schools, compared the achievement of students with the morale level of teachers. He found that student achievement increased for those students who were with teachers who had high morale and that achievement decreased for those students in classrooms of teachers who had low morale. Gross and Herriott (1965) also noted that high teacher morale was associated with high student achievement productivity in elementary schools. Sergiovanni (1966) argued that teachers in secondary schools with high pupil achievement gains have significantly higher morale than do teachers in schools with low pupil achievement. Lange (1976) suggested researching morale was essential in that morale may be related to productivity and thus student achievement. Wey (1990) found that teacher morale was a concern for public school administrators and that poor teacher morale affected student performance. Turner (1989) agreed and reported that teacher morale had a strong correlation with a student's academic achievement. Similarly, Glatthorn and Spencer (1986) found that if teachers were in general satisfied with their school and have a positive attitude, their students tended to exhibit higher achievement. Anderson (1953) reported that student achievement was related to teacher morale in the following, "Morale of teachers does make a difference in the scholastic achievement of their pupils. Apparently teachers with high morale levels can be expected to teach more effectively" (p. 696).

The problem of certified teacher shortages in America's public schools, though not a new problem, presents another reason for this study. For many years educators have searched diligently for new ways to attract and retain well qualified teachers in their schools. The problem is more apparent today. Neumann (1994) found that white,

middle-class, suburban schools have little difficulty recruiting certified teachers, while teacher shortages are a continuous problem for urban and rural districts. Neumann also stated, "Shortages of certified teachers are a persistent problem for many school districts throughout the country, which, as predicted in the mid-1980s appears to be becoming more acute" (p. 89). Effective public schools are an essential ingredient for America's success as a nation, and the influential role of the principal and the teacher is possibly more important today than ever before to ensure that America continues as a world leader as the twenty-first century approaches. Successful interpersonal relations between the principal and his/her faculty are critical to the success of a school. As Campbell (1959) stated, "The principal-teacher relationship could be the crucial focal point in determining the degree of success which may be achieved by teachers and pupils of any school system" (p. 1). The relationship of the principal and teacher is a major focal point of this study.

Theoretical Framework

The Ohio State studies of the early 1950s and Getzels and Guba's (1957) Social Systems model for educational organizations provided the theoretical framework for this study. The two models identified important findings related to leadership style and morale that were utilized in previous studies.

The emphasis of the Ohio State studies shifted from studying the traditional psychological traits of leadership to, instead, studying leadership behavior (Hanson, 1996). The Ohio State studies were directed at identifying leader behaviors that were vital in order to achieve group goals (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991). Two areas of primary concern were the types of behaviors leaders displayed and the effects of such behaviors on an organizations' performance group satisfaction. Two factors that characterized the behavior of leaders in various groups, consideration and initiating structure, were also studied (Hanson, 1996).

Consideration refers to the relationship between the leader and the group that exists because of a feeling of mutual trust and warmth in the relationship (Halpin, 1966). Respect, support, and concern for group members by the leader are characteristics of leaders who exhibit strong consideration attributes. Hanson (1996) reported that consideration referred to a behavior based on friendship and respect between the leader and the members of the staff. Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) described leaders that exhibited high consideration as being friendly to members of the group, listen to the ideas of group members, and treat group members as equals.

Initiating structure refers to leader behaviors in determining the relationship between the leader of the group and group members (Halpin, 1966). Initiating structure also endeavors to establish well-defined patterns of organization, communication, and ways to best get the job done. Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) described initiating structure as, "the extent to which a leader focuses directly on organization performance goals, organizes and defines tasks, assigns work, establishes channels of communication, delineates relationships with subordinates, and evaluates work-group performance" (p. 133). Leaders who effectively initiate structure are primarily concerned with ensuring that group members know what is expected of them and that they work up to their capability.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) described a social system as an organization in which group members are brought together through activities and interactions for a common purpose. Hanson (1996) implied that interacting people, similar goals among people, and patterned behavior exhibited over time were necessary components of a social system.

In their study, Getzels and Guba (1957) identified two dimensions of a social system: the nomothetic dimension, which consists of the institution and its roles and expectations; and the idiographic dimension, consisting of the individual and his/her personality and needs. Discussing implications found in his research, Campbell (1959)

examined the social systems model and its relationship to schools and found it was important that two aspects of social behavior be considered when viewing the administration of a school: the administrator must be concerned about the job specifications and functions which are necessary for the achievement of school goals, but at the same time he or she must be aware of the wants and needs of those individuals who are brought into the school to perform the functions necessary to goal achievement. Theoretically, maximum goal achievement results when the principals' expectations for teacher behavior are identical with the wants and needs of the teachers in his/her school (Campbell, 1959). Getzel, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) further expanded the social systems model for school principals and indicated that school principals effect the school environment greatly.

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) examined attitudes and behaviors in the Social Systems setting. They emphasized distinguishing among beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behavior and how they, although distinct variables, are often used interchangeably. They found that a person's behavior was determined by his/her intention to perform that behavior. They further discovered that a person's attitude toward an object should be related to the totality of his behaviors with respect to the object, and it was not necessarily related to any given behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen). In summarizing their beliefs concerning attitudes and behavior, Fishbein and Ajzen stated:

> The relative neglect of the relation between attitude and behavior can in large part be attributed to the widespread acceptance of the assumption that there is a close correspondence between the ways in which a person behaves toward some object and his/her beliefs, feelings, and intentions with respect to that object. (p. 336)

Null Hypotheses

To accomplish the purposes of this study, the following null hypotheses were tested:

Null Hypothesis 1: No significant effect exists in the level of teacher morale, as measured by the PTO, in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in consideration and schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in initiating structure, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

The following null sub hypotheses were also tested so that the purposes of this study might be achieved:

Null Sub Hypothesis 1A: There is no significant interaction in the morale, as measured by the PTO, of teachers in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in consideration and schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in initiating structure, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

Sub Null Hypothesis 1B: No significant differences exist in the morale, as measured by the PTO, of teachers in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in consideration, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

Sub Null Hypothesis 1C: No significant differences exist in the morale, as measured by the PTO, of teachers in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in initiating structure, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools

Null Hypothesis 2: No significant differences exist in teacher morale in public secondary schools in north Louisiana for each of the following variables: gender of the teacher, years as a teacher, and race of the teacher as measured by the PTO and the LBDQ.

Definitions

For the purposes of this study the following definitions are presented:

Consideration. Consideration refers to the leader's behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of the group (Halpin, 1956).

Initiating Structure. Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself/herself and members of the group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done (Halpin, 1956).

Teacher Morale. Teacher morale refers to the professional interest and enthusiasm that a teacher displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation (Bentley & Rempel, 1980).

Secondary Certified Teacher. A secondary certified teacher is a teacher who holds a valid Louisiana secondary teacher's certificate and was teaches in a 9-12 grade high school.

Teacher Rapport with the Principal. Teacher rapport with the principal refers to a teacher's feelings about the principal—his/her professional competency, his/her interest in teachers and their work, his/her ability to communicate, and his/her skill in human relations (Bentley & Rempel, 1980).

Principal Leadership Style. Principal leadership style refers to the leadership behavior of a principal as perceived and reported by teachers and measured by means of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).

Assumptions

For the purposes of this study the following assumptions were presented:

1. The teachers who participated in this study did so on a voluntary basis.

2. The teachers who participated in this study completed the instruments in an appropriate and accurate manner.

3. The teachers who participated in this study had a sufficient knowledge of the principal.

4. The teachers selected as a sample were representative of teachers in the secondary public schools of north Louisiana.

5. The principals selected as a sample answered the interview questions in an appropriate and accurate manner.

Limitations

For the purposes of this study the following limitations were presented:

1. This study was limited to secondary public schools in north Louisiana, consisting of grades 9-12.

2. This study's findings was limited to the degree in which the participants understand the instructions given.

3. This study's findings was limited to the accuracy of reported perceptions of the person responding to the questionnaires.

Summary

This study dealt with the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher morale. Data collected on teacher morale and the leadership style of the principal through the use of the PTO and the LBDQ were utilized to assess the purpose of the study.

Chapter One included the introduction of the problem, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, theoretical framework, null hypotheses, definitions, limitations, and assumptions. Chapter Two provides a current literature review and examines some of the related studies and aspects of teacher morale and leadership style.

Chapter Three focuses on the methods and procedures in this study. The results of the investigation are presented in Chapter Four. Chapter Five includes a summary of study procedures, discussions of conclusions, and recommendations for future use.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study is concerned with teacher morale as it relates to the leadership style of the school principal. To promote clarity and facilitate the understanding of the relationships examined in this study, the literature is presented in nine sections. The first two sections consist primarily of research related to teacher morale, wherein literature concerned with definitions of morale and morale and job satisfaction are discussed. The following sections discuss the definitions of leadership, leadership styles, approaches to the study of leadership, organizational theory, the principal and teacher morale, studies using the PTO and the LBDQ, and demographic variables.

Definitions of Morale

Morale is a subject that has often been discussed and one that has been sometimes difficult to define. Brady (1976) noted in a study of morale in three secondary schools in England that various perspectives existed on what morale is and how it should be measured. More specifically, Brady reported morale and job satisfaction were actually two separate entities and should not be considered closely related. Smith (1976) agreed and pointed out the difficulty in distinguishing between job satisfaction and morale. Furthermore, American educational researchers have often confused the terms morale and satisfaction. Haire (1954) argued that the dilemma in defining morale occurs because morale means different things to different people and further stated:

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defining morale occurs because morale means different things to different people and further stated:

> There is probably no other field in the general area of social psychological problems in industry in which there are so many publications as there are under the heading of morale. The number of independent measurements of the state of morale in different situations and with different instruments is legion, and it has become necessary to fall back on biennial bibliography simply to keep abreast of those reported in professional journals. . . . There is no question but what morale, however that concept should be defined, is a real phenomenon.
> (p. 1, 118)

Although many researchers have argued that defining and measuring morale is often difficult, various definitions have appeared when studying group dynamics. Jones (1958) described morale as the ability of a group to work closely together in a cooperative manner. Bentley and Rempel (1970) described morale as the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied, and his/her satisfaction in his/her job. Glatthorn and Spencer (1986) described morale as an attitude toward a specific situation. Hoy and Forsyth (1986) identified morale as a feeling that members have about the group and their confidence and commitment to the task at hand. In the Getzels and Guba Social Systems Model (1957), morale is defined as an interaction of feelings of identification, belongingness, and rationality. Hoy and Forsyth (1986) noted, "morale is a global concept that taps a general feeling that members have about the group and their confidence and commitment to the task at hand" (p. 120). Perhaps Nash (1942) best described the concept and importance of morale in stating the following:

> Morale wins wars, wins games on the athletic field, conquers the wilderness, carries us over crises, and gives nations the vitality to face and solve problems. It is essential to life existence of any group and to the maximum achievement of any individual. (p. 5)

Morale and Job Satisfaction

The topic of satisfaction has been investigated in educational research for most of the twentieth century. However, it was not until the middle of the century that

in-depth research examining the relationship between job satisfaction and the more

encompassing aspect of morale was reported. Getzels and Guba's (1957) Social

Systems Model described organizations as being two dimensional; consisting of

organizations with roles and expectations aimed at fulfilling the goals of the system,

and individuals within the organization who posses certain personalities and needs.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) found that translated into the school setting, this model

indicated that an organization is designed to meet one of society's needs--to educate

children. Jones (1958) implied that certain identifiable elements or conditions existed if

a state of high morale was present. Chiefly among them was the overall satisfaction the

person experienced in the position. Gorden (1963) examined the relationship between

job satisfaction and teacher morale in a survey related to the employment and service of

teachers and found that morale is a combination of working conditions and human

relations in which work is performed. Washington and Watson (1976) identified seven

characteristics exemplified by a staff with high morale. They listed the following:

1. Teachers look forward to going to work and are not in any great hurry to leave.
2. Teachers show concern for the direction the school and its programs are going.
3. Teachers actively participate in school functions, committees, and organizations.
4. Teachers willingly perform tasks above and beyond their stated duties.
5. Teachers are supportive of the school, its goals, and philosophy.
6. Teachers derive satisfaction from being a member of the school, the system, and the profession.
7. Teachers actively engage in attempts to improve school-community relations. (p.154)

More recently, Halford (1994), in a study of faculty morale in 25 community

colleges in 13 states, found a significant correlation between faculty morale and job

satisfaction, in contradiction to the previous reports of Brady (1976) and Smith (1976).

A Metropolitan Life Survey (1995) reported similar findings in a nationally

representative sample of 1,011 public school teachers. The survey examined how

teachers' views and experiences had changed in the past decade and addressed the topic of job satisfaction and morale among teachers, with strong indications that the two were closely related.

<div align="center">Definitions of Leadership</div>

Leadership has also been studied throughout most of the twentieth century and has been defined in a number of ways. Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that research has produced more than 350 definitions of leadership. Cribbin (1981) described successful leadership as the ability to get subordinates to act as the manager intended, thus the manager's needs are satisfied, but the needs of the subordinates are ignored. Hersey and Blanchard (1979) described leadership as the ability to influence the attitudes of an individual or a group and to direct and manage their activities in order to achieve the goal of the organization. Bass (1985) defined leadership as "the process of influencing group activities toward the achievement of goals" (p. 56). Argyris (1957) agreed and stated that influencing others was the most important facet of leadership. Katz and Kahn (1978) also recognized the importance that influence has on leadership by defining leadership as, "the influential increment over and above the mechanical compliance with routine directives of the organization" (p. 528). Stogdill (1974) observed that leadership could be characterized in the following manner:

1. Leadership as a focus of group processes.
2. Leadership as a personality and its effects.
3. Leadership as the art of inducing compliance.
4. Leaderships an exercise of influence.
5. Leadership as an act or behavior.
6. Leadership as a form of persuasion.
7. Leadership as an instrument of goal achievement.
8. Leadership as an effect on interaction.
9. Leadership as an initiation of structure. (p. 7-16)

Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) found that although definitions of leadership differ, any definitions of leadership must contain two important concepts: a) Leadership

is a relationship between two or more people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed; and, b) Leaders do not exist in isolation and followers must consent to being influenced (p. 120).

Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) suggested that leadership may be formal or informal. They described formal leadership as authoritative influence on the group and informal leadership as a more participative activity exhibited by the leader.

Leadership Styles

The literature on leadership styles is broad and exhaustive. Researchers have documented a wide range of leadership styles utilized by principals in America's public schools, and according to many researchers, the type of leadership style an administrator possesses appears to have a definite effect on the principal-teacher relationship. Of the many types of leaders, the three dominant types to appear most often throughout this century are the authoritarian or autocratic leader, the democratic leader, and the laissez-faire leader. Lewin, Lippitt and White (as cited in Lunenburg & Omstrin, 1991, p. 131) studied the effects of leadership style on group dynamics and described the three types as:

> 1. Authoritarian leaders were very directive and allowed no participation in decisions. They structured the complete work situation for their subordinates. Leaders took full authority and assumed full responsibility from initiation to task completion.
> 2. Democratic leaders encouraged group discussion and decision making. Subordinates were encouraged to express their ideas and make suggestions.
> 3. Laissez-faire leaders provided no leadership. (p. 271-299)

Gorten (1980) described the three types of leaders in the following way:

> 1. Autocratic leaders determine roles, goals, and tasks with group involvement is minimized.
> 2. Democratic leaders assist groups to reach their goals by stimulating self-direction; group objectives are reached by group-decisions.
> 3. Laissez-faire leader's role is limited by little participation and assistance in goals and objectives while members have the freedom to do as they want and determine how they want it to be done. (p. 264-266)

Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) described authoritarian leaders as being very directive, and also found that they allowed little input from the faculty during the decision making process. Democratic leaders were described as leaders who actually encouraged the input and discussion of the faculty concerning educational decisions. Laissez-faire leaders were described by Lunenburg and Ornstein as leaders who give complete freedom to the faculty to make individual decisions on their own. Kimbrough and Nunnery (1988) described similar leadership styles that ranged from very strict, directive leadership (i.e., authoritarian) to no leadership at all (i.e., laissez-faire).

Approaches to the Study of Leadership

Many educational researchers agreed that the development of leadership theories were based on three general approaches that included the trait approach, the behavior or social approach, and the situational approach. All three approaches have been dominant at various times during the twentieth century.

The trait approach was the most commonly found approach for many years. Wey (1990) described trait leaders as possessing certain qualities such as physical energy, physical appearance, speech fluency, friendliness, aggressiveness, and intelligence. Traditionalists believed that effective leaders must possess most or all of such qualities. The trait theory suggested that certain men, because they possessed such inborn traits, were "natural" leaders. The trait theory further implied that subordinates were attracted to leaders because of the leadership qualities they possessed and leaders could be identified as such from nonleaders because of those identifiable characteristics (Wey, 1990). The trait approach utilizes the classical theory, suggesting that the leader holds a high position because he or she is an elitist. According to Hanson (1996) such leaders are considered to be superior in mind, knowledge, and experience. Carlyle (as cited in Wey, 1990) described such a leader in formulating the "great man theory" of leadership, implying that such leaders are born, not made. Barnard (1938) further

described such leaders "as possessing the ability to bind the wills of men to accomplishment of purposes beyond their immediate ends, beyond their time" (p. 283). Stogdill (1948) studied the trait approach in leadership for many years and found, "significant aspects of this capacity for organizing and expediting cooperative efforts appear to be intelligence, alertness to the needs and motives of others, and insights into situations, further reinforced by such habits as responsibility, initiative, persistence, and self-confidence" (p. 60). Mann (1959) found positive relationships in studies of leadership in small group situations considering such factors as intelligence, adjustment, dominance, masculinity, and sensitivity. Bass (1981) further described the trait approach after examining leaders in various studies for many years in the following manner:

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

Although early in the twentieth century the trait approach to leadership was the most dominant approach, by the 1940s the trait approach to leadership effectiveness began to decline. Finch, Jones, and Litterer (1976) summarized the trait approach in the following way. "This line of research died out during the 1940s when review of the literature failed to uncover any consistent traits or patterns of traits which characterized leaders" (p. 92). Researchers began to look beyond personal traits and, instead, began to study leadership behavior.

Halpin (1966) indicated that the Ohio State Leadership Studies were among the most significant early studies aimed at discrediting the trait theory. The Ohio State studies identified various dimensions of leadership behavior and characterized behaviors exhibited by leaders as consideration and initiating structure. Halpin

suggested that consideration and initiating structure do not represent opposite ends of a single behavior continuum, but are separate and independent dimensions. It is possible to score high on both dimensions, or low on both dimensions, or any combination. During the Ohio State studies, researchers developed and used the LBDQ to study leadership in various settings. Halpin also indicated that since its development, the LBDQ has been used extensively in studies of leadership in various types of groups and situations, such as the military, the corporate world, and education.

Halpin (1956), in a study of public school superintendents, found that effective superintendents in systems scoring high on standardized tests, were described as high on both consideration and initiating structure by teachers and school board members. Brown (1967) also found that principals who scored high on initiating structure and consideration were generally more effective than those scoring low in the two areas. The educational research of Halpin and Brown confirmed the findings in previous studies of the military and the industrial settings (Fleishman, 1957; Halpin, 1957; Hemphill, 1955).

The behavior approach suggests that the leaders are best characterized by behavior patterns. What the leader does is more relevant than who the leader is when using this leadership model. Getzels and Guba (1957) identified three basic dimensions of leader behavior and specified three leadership-followership styles that included: the normative style, with special emphasis on institutional or role behavior; the idiographic style, with an emphasis on personal or individual behavior; and the transactional style, with alternate emphasis on each of the previous styles.

In summary, the Ohio State Leadership Studies represented a widely accepted research-based approach to the study of leadership, and findings indicated correlations between leaders high in consideration and initiating structure resulted in higher satisfaction and performance among leaders (Lunenburg & Ornstein 1991). Hanson (1996) implied that the Ohio State studies provided a framework for solving problems

in school organizations. McGregor (1956) illustrated the presence of both dimensions in the following manner:

> I believed that a leader could operate successfully as a kind of advisor to his organization. I thought I could avoid being a "boss." Unconsciously, I suspect, I hoped to duck the unpleasant necessity of making difficult decisions, of taking the responsibility for one course of action among many uncertain alternatives, of making mistakes and taking the consequences. I thought that maybe I could operate so that everyone would like me-- that "good human relations" would eliminate all discord and disagreement. I couldn't have been more wrong. It took a couple of years, but I finally began to realize that a leader cannot avoid the exercise of authority any more than he can avoid the responsibility for what happens to his organization. (p. 2,3)

Occurring almost simultaneously with the Ohio State Leadership Studies were the studies of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. The Michigan studies compared managers in high producing divisions and managers in low producing divisions to develop consistent patterns of behavior that differentiated effective and noneffective leaders. Resulting analysis indicated there were two basic dimensions of leader behavior, very similar to initiating structure and consideration, and they were referred to as production-centered and employee-centered (Devault, 1981). Production-centered leader behavior was found to be very similar to high initiating structure, and employee-centered leader behavior was found to be very similar to high consideration (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991). In the Michigan studies, managers in high producing divisions were found to be employee-centered, while those managers in low producing divisions were found to be more production-centered. As with the Ohio State Studies, the Michigan studies were used in a variety of settings and situations, such as businesses, hospitals, and government agencies. Although initial research indicated most productive groups had leaders who were employee-centered, later research contradicted such findings (Lunenburg & Ornstein). Therefore, the findings of the Ohio State Studies have become more widely accepted, especially in the field of education (Wey, 1990).

The most dominant trend of leadership research in recent years has been directed toward the situational theory of leadership. The situational, or contingency theory, is concerned with how leader behavior is enhanced or restricted by various aspects of the situation (Yukl, 1989). The key to the situational leader's success is his or her focus on the interaction between the leader and the situation. The situational approach is unique in that its focus is on the interaction between the leader and the situation as they both affect leader performance. Simply stated, the contingency theory of leadership effectiveness maintains that a group's success in accomplishing its task depends on how well that leader and the situation match. Fiedler (1967) implied in his contingency theory of leadership effectiveness that a group's success in accomplishing its goal depended on the appropriate match of leader and situation. Fiedler's research centered on three major situational variables that appeared to determine whether a given situation was favorable or unfavorable to the leader. The situations that Fiedler listed as most important included leader-member relations, task structure, and position power.

Fiedler (1967) found that leader-member relations referred to the leader's personal relations with subordinates. He described task structure as the degree of structure in the task that the group was assigned to do and position power as the power of the position held by the leader. Fiedler further explained that the three factors combined to determine situational favorableness and defined situational favorableness as, "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his/her influence over the group" (p. 13).

Fiedler's Contingency Model, despite some criticism, has made major contributions to the study of leadership. As Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) stated, "The Contingency Model was one of the first approaches to the study of leadership to examine the situation, the people, the task, and the organization," (p. 142).

A second situational model was developed by Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1979) at the center for Leadership Studies at Ohio University. Their Situational Leadership Model was based on the amount of direction, or task behavior, and the amount of socioemotional support, or relationship behavior, a leader must provide given the situation and level of preparedness of the followers. According to Situational Leadership, as the level of preparedness of the followers increases, the leader should begin to reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior. By matching the three levels, accomplishing tasks and achieving goals is maximized. As Yukl (1982) stated, "Situational Leadership focuses on the appropriateness or effectiveness of leadership styles according to the task relevant readiness of the followers" (p. 35).

Hersey and Blanchard (1979) identified the four styles of leadership behavior in their model in the following way:

> High task/low relationship behavior (S1) is referred to as "telling" because this style is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when and where to do various tasks. High task/high relationship behavior (S2) is referred to as "selling" because with this style most of the direction is still provided by the leader. The leader attempts to get followers to "buy into" decisions that have to be made. High relationship/low task behavior (S3) is called "participating" because with this style the leaders and followers share in decision making through two-way communication and facilitating behavior from the leader, since the followers have the ability and knowledge to do the task. Low relationship/low task behavior (S4) is labeled "delegating" because the style involves letting followers "run their own show." The leader delegates since followers are high in readiness, have the ability, and are both willing and able to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1979, p. 3)

Several other situational models have been developed more recently, but the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model became the model of choice (Yukl, 1982). It is beyond the scope of this study to describe each model but some of the most important models include the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (House, 1971), the

Normative Model of Participation (Vroom & Yetton, 1973), and the Substitute for Leadership Theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978).

Organizational Theory

Three phases have been identified by various researchers in the development of organizational theory. They are commonly referred to as the scientific or classical phase, the human relations phase, and the behavioral phase.

During the classical phase, organization was viewed from the management point of view. Classical thinkers, such as Taylor, Weber, and Fayol lived through the Industrial Revolution and helped shape management thinking in the late 1800s and early 1900s (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991).

Taylor (as cited in Devault, 1981) examined the idea of organizational productivity and introduced the concept of scientific management. Taylor worked as a chief engineer and was constantly concerned with the failures of his men to produce at capable levels. The primary principles of scientific management included task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction, rationality, and efficiency (Devault). Taylor found that no single element, but rather a whole combination of factors, made up scientific management, which he defined as follows: "Science, not rule of thumb. Harmony, not discord. Cooperation, not individualism. Maximum output, not restrictions. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity" (as cited in Devault, 1981, p. 22).

Taylor also argued that cooperative organizational structures in which all shared in the profits would fall because personal ambition was a more powerful incentive to exertion than a desire for the general welfare (Devault, 1981). The ultimate goal, according to Taylor, was the utilization of man by the factory system in a scientific manner to increase output (Devault).

Weber (as cited in Silver, 1983) recognized that there were many bases of power, including coercion and persuasion, although he was most concerned with authority. In his Theory of Bureaucracy, Weber identified three types of authority: traditional, legal, and charismatic. Weber defined the three types in the following manner:

> Traditional authority is a form of dominance inherent in a position that is passed to individuals from one generation to the next. Traditional leaders such as monarchs and tribal chieftains are obeyed because the persons in those positions have always been obeyed, regardless of the quality of their decisions. Legal authority is a form of dominance created by legislation and upheld by the full machinery of the society. Legal authorities such as corporation officers and school administrators are obeyed because they have the legally mandated right and obligation to issue their directives. Charismatic authority is social dominance in which a leader's personal magnetism and exceptional attractiveness draws masses of followers. Often their influence is seen as divinely inspired. Mahatma Ghandi and Joan of Arc are viewed as embodying a compelling value that many hold dear. (Silver, p. 74)

Weber (as cited in Devault, 1981) believed in an authority structure based on rational behavior. Weber's concept of bureaucratic form of administration for achievement of maximum productivity and effectiveness included characteristics such as a division of labor into highly specialized jobs, rules to ensure uniformed task performance, hierarchy of authority that included a chain of command, impersonality towards subordinates, and competence (Silver, 1983).

Gulick and Urwick (as cited in Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991) believed that all managers performed the following seven basic functions:

1. Planning--things that must be done and the methods for doing them.
2. Organizing--the formal structure of authority to implement the plan.
3. Staffing--Selecting and training the staff and maintaining favorable working conditions.
4. Directing--making decisions, communication, and evaluation.
5. Coordinating--activities and efforts used by the group to achieve group goals and verification of progress by utilizing records, research, and inspections.
6. Reporting--verification of progress by utilizing records, research, and inspection.
7. Budgeting--fiscal planning, accounting, and control. (p. 6-8)

While Taylor was concerned more with improving efficiency by concentrating on the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, Fayol concentrated his efforts on increasing efficiency at the upper levels (Wey, 1990). Fayol (as cited in Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991) developed 14 principles, in addition to his basic management functions that included:

1. Division of work—improved efficiency through a reduction of waste, increased output, and a simplification of job training.
2. Authority—the right to give orders and the power to extract obedience.
3. Discipline—respect for the rules that govern the organization.
4. Unity of Command—all employees should receive orders from only one superior.
5. Unity of Direction—Similar activities that are directed toward a singular goal should be grouped together under one manager.
6. Subordination of individual interest—The interests of individuals should not take precedence over the interests of the organization as a whole.
7. Remuneration—Compensation should be fair and satisfactory.
8. Centralization—Managers must retain final responsibility, but they should give subordinates enough authority to do the task successfully.
9. Scalar chain—The scalar chain, or chain of command, is the chain of superiors ranging from the ultimate authority to the lowest ranks.
10. Order—Human and material resources should be coordinated to be in the right place at the right time.
11. Equity—Equity and equality of treatment should be taken into account in dealing with employees.
12. Stability of personnel—Successful organizations need a stable workforce.
13. Initiative – Employees should be encouraged to develop and carry out plans for improvement.
14. Espirit de corps—Mangers should foster and maintain teamwork, team spirit, and a sense of unity and togetherness among employees. (p. 7)

Although once the most commonly practiced, the scientific phase has been criticized for many years for a number of reasons. The most common criticism was the view of organizational members as creatures motivated only by economics, with little interest paid to human relations (Devault, 1981).

Researchers commonly referred to the second phase of organizational theory as the human relations phase. The human relations phase was considered by most educational researchers to have begun with a series of studies conducted at the

Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric near Chicago (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991).

Mayo and his associates introduced a new approach to the study of worker's morale in

their famed Western Electric Hawthorne experiments (Devault, 1981). In the

Hawthorne studies, management's attention was diverted to focus on the humanistic

needs of employees rather than just their materialistic needs. Among other experiments,

Mayo set out to study the effects of lighting on worker productivity and efficiency

(Hanson, 1996). Through observations and interviews, Mayo found that the

human-social element played a major role in productivity. As Hanson stated:

> The most important finding of these experiments, however, was the discovery of
> the impact that social-psychological variables within the worker group had on
> the process of production. The discovery that workers could control the
> production process to a considerable degree, independent of the demands of
> management shattered many of the precepts central to classical theory. (p. 5)

Roethlisberger and Dickson (as cited in Devault, 1981) supported Mayo's

findings and also believed people would work hard and be content with difficult

working conditions if they believed that the objectives were worth accomplishing.

Roethlisberger and Dickson (as cited in Devault) also found that increased productivity

resulted when workers were treated as important and that their ideas were taken into

consideration. Lewin , Lippitt, and White (as cited in Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991)

agreed when they implied that cooperation between workers and management, mutual

understanding, sharing of ideas, and integration of viewpoints were all important

ingredients needed for increased productivity.

Efficacy is a relatively new term that has emerged in educational research that

also supports the findings of Mayo (DeMoulin, 1993). According to DeMoulin, in

organizational climates where achievement is encouraged, individuals high in efficacy

would assume personal responsibility for success. Individuals high in efficacy also

believe what they do is important. Driscoll (1986) described efficacy as being based on

the belief that one can have success in execution of a behavior to reach a certain

outcome. People with a strong sense of efficacy possess positive attitudes toward themselves and toward their responsibilities (DeMoulin, 1993).

The study of efficacy has contributed to the field of education in recent years, especially in examining teacher behavior and its relationship to student academic achievement. In his study, DeMoulin (1993) examined over 4,000 individuals in business and education for over four years. Findings indicated that the degree of efficacy differentiated more effective educators from less effective ones, especially in providing opportunities for student learning. Findings also indicated that high efficacy educators were more willing to change procedures in striving for improvements.

Campbell (1996) examined teacher efficacy and its relationship to student academic success. He also compared teacher efficacy between American and Scottish teachers. Among other findings, he found no significant differences in teacher efficacy between American and Scottish teachers. He also discovered a significant relationship between teacher efficacy and the demographic variables of age, degree status, and years of teaching experience. Findings included that experienced teachers had a higher level of teacher efficacy than beginning teachers. The variables of age and degree status also were significant in that older teachers and teachers with graduate degrees experienced higher levels of efficacy.

Behavioral scientists have argued for years that the classical model and the human relations phase were incomplete. Researchers began to study the individual and how they often possessed separate and opposing needs from those of the organization (Devault, 1981).

According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991), Barnard was one of the first authors to consider the behavioral science approach. Barnard (as cited in Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991) argued that managers must meet two important conditions to attain cooperation and financial success: effectiveness and efficiency.

Argyris (1957) expressed a view of the behavior approach to organizational theory in which he emphasized the role of conflict between organizational demands and personal needs. Argyris believed that the mature adult personality came into direct conflict with the limits imposed by formal organizations. He further found that as the individual developed from childhood to maturity, he/she experienced many different personality needs ranging from passive dependence on others to independence and self-control.

Maslow (as cited in Devault, 1981) proposed a theory of human motivation based on a needs hierarchy. In Maslow's theory of self-actualization, it was assumed that the human personality is constantly striving for fulfillment, to become all that it is capable of being. Maslow's basic assumption was that individuals behave in a relationship to a hierarchy of needs that included: physiological, security, social, self-esteem, and self-actualization (Hanson, 1996). According to Maslow, as the lower level needs are met, the higher level needs are activated. Therefore, before higher level needs can be met, lower level needs must first be satisfied (Hanson).

Herzberg (1959) conducted research concerned with the motivational basis of an individuals behavior. Extending the work of Maslow, Herzberg proposed a satisfaction-dissatisfaction theory in which it was suggested that factors that contribute to job satisfaction and factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction were not arranged on a continuum but were mutually exclusive. Herzberg found a difference between factors that caused job dissatisfaction, or hygiene factors, and factors that caused job satisfaction, or motivational factors. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991), Herzberg's hygiene factors were closely related to Maslow's higher-level needs (self-actualization).

McGregor (1960) also extended the work of Maslow when he investigated the nature of man within the organizational framework and presented the results in his Theory X and Theory Y. He suggested in Theory X the need for control over workers

and the use of power and authority by managers, much like the classical approach.

According to McGregor, assumptions of Theory X are as follows:

> 1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
> 2. Most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate work.
> 3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all. (p. 33-36)

McGregor (1960) recognized the social and emotional needs of the workers in his Theory Y. He described Theory Y in terms of integrating the individual and organizational goals. The basic assumption of McGregor's Theory Y included:

> 1. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means available to bring about increased effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-control and self-direction in the services of those objectives to which he/she is committed.
> 2. The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept, but also to seek responsibility.
> 3. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially used. (p. 44-48)

More recently, educational researchers have explored the role of organizational theory and its significance in the field of education. Researchers such as Fullan (1998), Gardner (1990), Goodlad (1984), and Kohn (1998) have made major contributions to the study of organizational theory as it relates to education.

Fullan (1998) noted the association of business leaders and educational leaders and implied that both groups have wasted time and resources searching for external solutions to their problems. He went on to say, "The educational leader of the 21st century, paradoxically, will find greater peace of mind by looking for answers close at hand and by reaching out, knowing that there is no clear solution" (p. 9). Fullan also implied that principals and other leaders were vulnerable to the latest fad for success and that the solutions provided by management theorists and their strategies were not always successful.

Kohn (1998) described the influence that the business world holds on public education and further pointed out that the main concern of today's business leaders is to develop adequately skilled workers who will obediently work to increase the profits of the corporation. He went on to describe business leaders in the following manner:

> Some business leaders are remarkably candid about their preference for graduates who will show up on time and do what they are told. Others, though, protest that their goals are more sophisticated: they want students who are socially skilled and innovative. But look carefully. Teamwork is not the same thing as compassion, particularly when it is in the service of competitiveness. And a skillful problem solver isn't necessarily a truly critical thinker who might ask inconvenient questions about, say, corporate hierarchies. (p. 36)

Gardner (1989) examined the role of the federal government and school organization and the public school curriculum. He described an increased participation of the federal government in school organization in recent years, especially the development of national goals and standards in education and greater nationalization of the curriculum. Gardner also believed that the national educational reform movement will include greater cooperation between the state and federal governments.

Goodlad (1984) implied that the culture of the organization, such as motivation, communication, decision-making, leadership, and change, affects many administrative processes. He further believed that in the corporate world, staffs were kept to a minimum, and that in the educational setting such an approach resembled site-based management. Goodlad also believed that a major aspect of site-based management was including teachers in the decision-making process. He believed that group decision-making is superior to individual decision-making in terms of creativity, acceptance, accuracy, and understanding. Fullan (1998), Gardner (1990), Goodlad (1984), and Kohn (1998) made major contributions to organizational theory. The emphasis on the organization and its objectives as well as individuals and their needs is clearly apparent. Within the context of the school as an organization, such emphasis

may likely characterize leader behavior and teacher morale and their relationship to organizational theory.

The Principal and Teacher Morale

Studies examining the role of the principal and his/her effect on teacher morale began to appear by the late 1940s. Hand (1948) and Coffman (1951) were two of the early researchers to study morale in the educational setting. Hand (1948) studied 400 teachers to determine factors which helped create high morale. Among other findings, Hand concluded that factors which are associated with high teacher morale were also associated with supervisors who actively sought teachers' opinions and consulted with them. Coffman discovered that those items that related to the principals' personality and human relations skills were the most important in influencing teacher morale. Since that time considerable research has examined teacher morale in America's public schools. Robinson (1952) researched teacher morale and leadership style, among other issues affecting teacher morale, and concluded that the supervisor-worker relationship was most frequently the crucial factor affecting teacher morale. That conclusion supported previously researched findings in the industrial field. Gragg (1955) reported similar results in a study of 210 teachers. He found that the leadership of the principal and other administrators was the major contributor to high teacher morale. Silverman (1957) described 69 items that affected the morale of teachers. Of the items noted, those associated with the principal's personality and human relation skills were the most important in influencing teacher morale. Moreford (1956) found in a study of 800 school teachers that having teachers who understood the directions of their principals was one of the most important factors contributing to high teacher morale. Blocker and Richardson (1963) found in their research that morale was affected by a variety of interrelated variables but stated, "the principal seems to have consistently been a key factor affecting morale" (p. 209). Blocker and Richardson suggested that the school

principal plays the major role in establishing and maintaining high morale among the faculty.

McClelland (1964) found that principals who became increasingly aware of inter-personal and human relations in the overall operations of the school had schools with higher teacher morale. In a study of 210 teachers that focused on the relationship that might exist between the teachers' perception of his/her principal's behavior and morale, Blumberg and Weber (1968) found that differences in perceived principal behavior style were significantly related to differential morale scores. Blumberg and Weber indicated the most frequently reported factor contributing to the low morale of teachers was the leadership, or lack of leadership, of the principal. Wood (1973) summarized his conclusions concerning the important role the principal plays in the overall level of teacher morale in the following manner:

> A school where teachers perceive the principal as facilitating rather than hindering their work is likely to have a principal who is outgoing, warm, easy going, participating, good nature, soft-hearted, kindly, and ready to cooperate. Conversely, schools whose staffs feel that the principal does not aid their work are likely to have a principal who is typically reserved, detached, critical, precise, cool, and aloof. (p. 113)

Magoon and Linkous (1979) agreed when they reported the following after studying leadership style and its effects on teacher morale: "It seems clear that the principal is the key person in developing, nurturing, and maintaining positive teacher morale. The principal influences positive morale by assuming responsibility for administrative actions and encouraging the teacher's professional growth," (p. 28).

Devault (1981) conducted a study of 270 school teachers and 35 principals in the state of Virginia to examine the relationship of leadership style of the principal and teacher morale. Stogdill's (1963) LBDQ and Bentley and Rempel's (1963) PTO were used as instruments to gather data for this study. Correlation analysis, analysis of variance, regression analysis, and t tests were utilized to analyze the data formulated and the null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 level of confidence. The study found a

statistically significant relationship (r=.60) between leadership styles of the principals and teacher morale in Virginia's secondary schools. Hoy and Miskel (1978) found the nature of the relationship between teachers and principals and the quality of leadership correlated highly with teacher morale. They concluded, "The better the relationship and the better the quality of leadership, the higher teacher morale tends to be" (p. 405). Morris (1981) conducted a study to generate hypotheses about a number of variables including teacher job satisfaction and morale. Among her findings, Morris concluded that teacher morale was greatly influenced by strong leadership characteristics such as support, consistency, and professionalism. Brodensky (1984) detected similar results in his study of 300 teachers in Connecticut. He revealed 62 sources of dissatisfaction among teachers, chief among them was dissatisfaction with administrative leadership. Beattie (1987) found that the form of leadership demonstrated by the principal had a definite affect on teacher morale.

Middleton (1990) utilized the PTO to examine the teacher morale of teachers in seven junior high schools in Louisiana. Testing hypotheses using multiple linear regression, Middleton found a significant relationship between teacher morale and the leadership style of the school principal.

Wey (1990) examined the effects of leadership style and power base usage of the principal on teacher morale and discovered similar results. In a study of 238 teachers in a single suburban school district, Wey utilized the PTO, the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description, and the Richardson Power Profile to provide data regarding teacher morale, leadership style, and power base usage. General linear model techniques were used to assess the predictability of the combined set of variables upon teacher morale. A significance level of .05 was established prior to the analysis and post hoc comparisons were conducted using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Test (HSD). Results indicated a higher teacher morale was significantly associated with high relationship leadership styles among principals.

Research indicated that principals make a considerable difference in the morale of their faculties. Researchers in the field of teacher morale were consistent in pointing out the administrator as a factor in morale. As Evans (1963) stated;

> The principal at all times should be cognizant of the multifaceted and interrelated relationships which exist so that he might seek to provide an atmosphere within his school that is conducive to high teacher morale and to the facilitation of each teacher's maximum achievement of production.
> (p. 185)

Researchers have also studied morale and its relationship to leadership from the standpoint of role theory. Morale was shown to be directly related to the teachers' expectations of their principal and their perceptions of how that role was fulfilled by the principal. Washington and Watson (1976) found in their studies that principals must "wear many hats" and that the behavior of the principal affected teacher morale by initiating and maintaining the following leader roles and behaviors:

1. Provide positive praise and feedback.
2. Give special attention to physical comfort.
3. Encourage professional development.
4. Be responsible for decisions made.
5. Demonstrate competency.
6. Avoid criticizing teachers publicly.
7. Keep staff meeting brief.
8. Avoid playing favoritism among the staff.
9. Do not blame teachers for student failure.
10. Provide good two-way communication. (p. 4-6)

Miller (1981) added that principals may promote good teacher morale by giving appropriate praise and rewards to teachers, supporting teachers in problems with students and their parents, giving special attention to teacher physical comfort, assuming responsibility for administrative decisions, gaining knowledge from current research and methodology, and promoting teacher inservice training. Perry (1980) noted that principals must actively seek the input of the faculty on ways to make their jobs more satisfying. As Magoon and Linkous (1979) stated, "The principal holds the key to staff and student morale. His or her actions, the quality of the decisions, and the

perceptions of subordinates regarding overall leader behavior will determine staff morale" (p. 25). Researchers agree that principals must give serious thought to proposals which emphasize an improvement in teacher morale. Principals must effectively use social processes to promote high morale and develop job satisfaction among their teachers. Andrew, Parks, and Nelson (1985) listed 10 factors used by principals who worked in schools with high morale that included:

1. Principals were usually described as being helpful, outgoing, friendly and good organizers.
2. Principals modeled democratic behavior, used teamwork, trusted teachers' judgments, were good listeners, were positive, often gave praise, and were assertive but not dictatorial.
3. Principals maintained a healthy and positive attitude toward all faculty members. The principal assumed that every faculty member was professionally competent.
4. Formal policies for ensuring good communication at all levels, within and without school were in place.
5. There was a clear articulation of a sense of mission about curriculum and the involvement of teachers and others in developing curriculum.
6. There was greater involvement of teachers in decision—making.
7. There was generally a clearly written policy on discipline.
8. Principals supported teachers with instructional material, clerical help, and enforcement of discipline.
9. Teachers were very much involved in planning staff development programs. Principals actively encouraged teachers to further their training.
10. Principals generally played a more active part in the recruitment and selection of teachers. (p. 25-29)

Studies Using the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire

The PTO has been a popular instrument for measuring teacher morale for many years. Bentley and Rempel (1963) developed the PTO to determine if teacher morale could be positively affected by specific types of principal feedback. Originally, the authors tested teachers in 76 high schools in Oregon and Indiana searching for differences in teacher morale caused by principal feeback, or lack of feedback, to teachers. The PTO has also been utilized to examine other variables, such as salary and community pressures, that made differences in teacher morale.

Gubser (1969) examined the relationship between levels of authoritarianism of teachers and principals. The researcher asked the following question: "Is teacher morale affected by the degree of authoritarian leadership of the school administrators?" (p. 36). Two hundred seventy-three elementary teachers and 20 principals responded to the California F Scale, a measure of authoritarianism, and the PTO, the measure of teacher morale. No significant relationship was found between total California F Scale and total score on the PTO. Teachers who were highest and lowest in authoritarianism had better scores on the PTO factor of rapport with the principal than teachers in the middle ranges of authoritarianism. There was no indication that principals with autocratic leanings create an atmosphere of authoritarianism in their schools. The researcher felt that principals may indirectly discourage anti-authoritarianism teachers from staying on their staffs. In short, principals were more likely to increase the level of authoritarianism in a school by eliminating anti-authoritarianism than by trying to instill such feelings in their staff. Another finding of this study was that teachers high on authoritarianism were more satisfied with salaries whereas teachers in the moderate ranges of authoritarianism believed their community supported education more than teachers low or high on authoritarianism.

Loue (1972) investigated teacher perceptions of the role of principals in the communication process and its effect on teacher job satisfaction using the PTO. This study discussed the importance of the effectiveness of the communication process within an organization. Findings indicated that teachers and principals did not differ with regard to expectations of the ideal principal role, but they did differ significantly in perceptions of actual role behavior exhibited by the principal in communications. As a measure of job satisfaction, the PTO was found to be significantly related with the teachers' perception of the communicative behavior of the principal.

Smith (1975) used the PTO to examine teacher morale and participatory management style in three California school districts. Among other findings, she found

a strong relationship between teacher morale and the degree of participatory management given to teachers.

Raydor and Body (1975) used the PTO to explore the relationship of teacher morale to a number of factors including the behaviors of school administrators. The PTO was administered to over 500 teachers and teacher assistants in 12 different states. The findings from this study suggested that the principals, along with curriculum advisors and other teachers or teacher assistants, were considered to be most influential on teacher morale and classroom effectiveness while central office administrators and staff regulations were considered among the least influential.

Burgett (1976) used the PTO to examine the relationship between teacher perceptions of the degree of agreement between school board and superintendent, and administrative procedure and teacher morale. Results indicated that these teachers perceived a high level of agreement between the school board and the superintendent on certain administrative procedures and that teacher morale could be predicted knowing the level of agreement that existed. In general, where teachers saw a high degree of agreement between the school board and the district superintendent, teacher morale would tend to be lower.

Bhella (1982), in a study of 137 Oregon teachers in which the PTO was administered, examined how teachers perceived administrative behavior within their own frame of reference. Teacher rapport with the principal was found to be the major contributor to high morale among teachers. Findings from this study also indicated that the negative feelings that occur as a result of collective bargaining and salary negotiations do not affect the teacher relationship with the principal.

Studying teacher morale in 12 Nebraska schools using the PTO, Kilgore (1985) found that elementary teachers had higher morale than secondary teachers, particularly with regard to the PTO factor of rapport with the principal. The areas of lowest morale in this study were salary, status, and workload, then followed by rapport with the

principal. More recent studies utilizing the PTO included Middleton (1990), in which the researcher examined teacher morale in seven north Louisiana junior high schools. He reported a significant relationship between the leadership style of the principal and teacher morale. Wey (1990) examined the affects of the leadership style of principals on teacher morale in 238 teachers in a single suburban school district and found that the morale level of teachers was a reflection of the power base usage of principals. Since its use in these and other studies, it is apparent that the PTO has been a very useful instrument to measure teacher morale.

Studies Using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

Hemphill (1955) used the LBDQ in a study of college department heads and found that department heads recognized as good administrators gained high scores on both consideration and initiating structure. Halpin (1956) confirmed the findings of Hemphill when he studied the relationship between teachers, superintendents, and school board members in Ohio. In summarizing his findings he stated, "The evidence from these inquiries indicates that effective leadership is characterized by high initiating of structure and high consideration. These two dimensions of leader behavior represent fundamental and pertinent aspects of leadership skills" (p. 126-127).

Evenson (1959) examined the leadership behavior of high school principals in a study which replicated Halpin's (1956) investigation of superintendents. He reported that the principals who scored above the mean on the initiation of structure and consideration subscales were perceived to be the most effective leaders.

Stogdill (1963) used the LBDQ and developed 12 dimensions of leader behavior. Those 12 dimensions, or subscales were identified as: representation, demand reconciliation, the tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, the tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation. In a study of the

influence of professional experience on the principals' leader behavior, Bridges (1965) reported that principals appeared to display leadership behavior that was increasingly similar as they gained more experience. Dodd (1965) found in a study of the role conflicts of the school principal that the leader behavior of the principal seemed to be affected less by conflicts in a small school than those present in larger schools

Walker (1975) found a positive relationship between staff morale and leadership style as both were perceived by teachers. As the teachers' perception of leader behavior became higher, their general levels of morale also tended to become higher. Gibbon (1976) reported in a study on principal leadership styles that there was an effect on the leader behavior of the principal as a function of their age, sex, professional experience, and size of the school. He determined that through age and experience, principals became less comfortable with change and increased demands placed on them by central office employees.

Hartson (1978), in a study of Catholic schools in Virginia, found support for the notion that principals who are perceived by their employees as exhibiting high degrees of initiating structure and consideration behavior are most effective in terms of employee morale. These findings are in agreement with the previous findings of Hemphill (1955) and Evenson (1959). Boyd (1993) used the LBDQ in his study and found a correlation between administrative style and teacher morale. Davidson (1996) found similar conclusions while using the LBDQ. He also discovered that teacher morale was directly related to the leadership style of the principal.

Studies Using the PTO and LBDQ

Lewis (1973) studied the relationship between administrative practices and teacher morale in vocational technical schools of Mississippi. A sample of teachers completed the LBDQ and the PTO. A relationship was found between the teachers and the leader that contributed to the attainment organizational goals and higher teacher

morale. The more teachers believed the leader contributed to organizational goals, the higher the teachers' morale.

Also using the LBDQ and PTO, Walker (1975) explored the relationship between teacher morale and leader behavior and looked for significant differences among 188 teachers within this relationship for high and low producing teachers. Findings indicated that as teacher perception of leader behavior went higher, so did teacher morale. Teacher morale and perceived leader behavior of the principal were found to be highly related to productivity. He also reported that consideration, as measured by the LBDQ, was more related to morale than initiating structure, and high producing teachers had more confidence in the sincerity and competency of the principal, greater enjoyment of students, and greater dedication to education. Further findings included the relationship between the LBDQ and the PTO was higher for the low producing teachers than high producing teachers, especially for the consideration dimension. Other findings included that low producing teachers were more sensitive to principal behavior and there was no significant difference between low and high producing teachers on the initiating structure dimension. High producing teachers saw their principal as being higher on the consideration dimension. Higher producing teachers had a tendency to have higher morale and low producing teachers tended to have lower morale.

Teacher morale in vocational education was also studied with the PTO and the LBDQ. Laird and Luetkemeyer (1976), using the LBDQ as a measure of principal leadership behavior and the PTO as a measure of teacher morale, sought to look for relationships between the perceived leader behavior of principals and teacher morale. They found a significant relationship of teacher morale to both the principals' person orientation and task orientation. The stronger relationship of the two was the person orientation which was more specifically defined as the degree to which the principal

responded to staff needs. This study stressed in its conclusions that the principals'
behavior had a strong but not exclusive relationship with teacher morale.

Gender

Limited information was found on the relationships existing between leadership
and teacher morale and the variable of gender. Some of the earliest research concerned
with the demographic variable of gender was focused on gender and its relationship
with job satisfaction. Chase (1951), in a survey of 1,784 teachers from 200 school
systems in 43 states, reported that women teachers were generally more satisfied and
happy in their positions than their male counterparts. Robinson (1958) agreed with the
findings of Chase while reporting in the 1957 National Education Association study that
female teachers were typically better satisfied with their jobs than male teachers.
Bentley and Rempel (1967) also attempted at assess the effects of demographic
variables upon teacher morale. They discovered that gender, age, education level, and
teacher experience all explained differences in the morale of teachers sampled in high
schools in Oregon and Indiana. Bentley and Rempel concluded that female teachers
scored significantly higher than their male counterparts on the PTO total satisfaction
score. Bergeth (1970) confirmed the findings of Bentley and Rempel in his study of
teacher morale in selected school systems in North Dakota. Bergeth added that the
educational preparation of males and females was also a significant variable in
assessing teacher morale. The findings of Horiuchi (1982),also supported previous
findings when he reported that elementary male teachers were less satisfied with their
positions than their female counterparts. Tharpe (1976), in her study of south Louisiana
elementary schools, discovered that female teachers exhibited significantly higher
levels of morale than male teachers. Devault (1981) found that females had a
significantly higher morale score than males in her study of secondary teachers in
Virginia. Devault also concluded that the gender of the principal played no role in the

morale level of faculty members. Not all of the research on gender and morale reported similar findings. Petty and Lee (1975) examined the relationship between supervisor behavior and morale among subordinates in four subgroups that included: (a) female supervisor, male subordinates, (b) male supervisor, female subordinates, (c) male supervisor and subordinates, and (d) female supervisor and subordinates. For all of the groups, Petty and Lee found that the subordinates with leaders who exhibited high consideration behavior were more satisfied with their positions, regardless of the gender of the supervisors or subordinates. Cobb (1985) reported similar findings when she found no significant relationship between the independent variables of gender and teacher salary, and gender and teacher load. Other studies, such as Kaufman (1984), Murphy (1985), and Baker (1985) also reported no significant differences in the level of morale among male and female teachers in their research. More recently, Middleton (1990) also discovered no significant relationship between teacher morale and gender in his study of middle school teachers in Louisiana.

<u>Years of Experience</u>

Research investigating morale and its relationship to years of experience has been inconclusive in its findings. Chase (1951) addressed the subject of job satisfaction in teaching in a study of 1,784 teachers from 200 school systems. Among other findings, Chase reported that the extent of job satisfaction tended to increase with years of experience in the school system. Bradfield (1963) found that beginning teachers often experienced lower levels of morale than experienced teachers because of lack of competent supervision from the school principal. He suggested that many first year teachers leave the profession because they were not given an idea of their teaching competency and they were not made to feel they were contributing to the school by the principal. Harris (1988) agreed with these results when he discovered that teachers with

less than five years of experience reported a lower level of morale than teachers with more than five years of teaching experience.

Other studies such as that of Kalis (1980) produced very different results. Kalis reported that teachers with less than three years of experience reported higher morale than teachers with more than ten years of experience, in contradiction to the study conducted by Chase (1951). Perry (1980) agreed by reporting that teachers with less than two years experience had higher levels of morale than those with over three years of experience.

Several studies reported no significant relationship between morale and years experience. Gore (1983) found that there was no significant relationship between the age of the teacher/principal and their relationship with each other. Reyes, Madsen, and Taylor (1990) agreed that faculty morale levels did not change because of years experience. Middleton (1990) also reported similar results in his study when he found no significant differences in the levels of teacher morale and its relationship to years of experience among the principal and teachers.

Race

Limited information was available concerning morale and the demographic variable of race. Only three studies were found that used race as a demographic variable. Nicholson and Robinson (1971) examined personnel practices used to achieve faculty integration under court orders and their affects on teacher morale in the Indianapolis Public School District. Teachers were characterized into three main areas: those assigned to another faculty, those already under contract who volunteered to be transferred, and teachers hired from outside the school district who were assigned to faculties for the purpose of achieving racial balance. Teacher morale in each group was analyzed. Findings indicated that morale was higher among black faculty members, whereas newly hired teachers scored the lowest in teacher morale. The Pontiac City

School District (1974) conducted surveys to assess the impact of desegregation on parents, students, and faculties. Among other findings, it was discovered that African-American teachers scored higher in teacher morale than their Caucasian counterparts, although not at a significant level. Vance (1989) studied occupational stress among 30 American Indian, Hispanic, and Caucasian teachers in the American southwest. Conclusions asserted that regardless of race, the morale level of each group was similar. Inadequate salary, lack of professional recognition, and time management problems were major contributors to low morale in all groups of teachers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the methodology that was used to investigate the null hypotheses in this study. The sections described in this chapter include the selection of samples, instrumentation used in the study, research procedures used in the study, and data analysis procedures used in the study.

Sample

The population of teachers from which the sample was selected was all of the public secondary schools in north Louisiana. This included grades 9-12 schools, including and north of Alexandria, Louisiana. Fifty four eligible schools were obtained by utilizing the Louisiana School Directory (Louisiana Department of Education, 1997). An alphabetical list of qualifying schools was then numbered. A random sample of 14 secondary schools was selected from among those qualifying schools. A total of 10 school districts were included in the study. The 10 superintendents and 14 principals of the schools selected to participate in the study. Three hundred and fifty three teachers chose to participate in the study.

Instrumentation

For this study, instruments were identified that measured: a) teacher morale and b) leadership style. Teacher morale was measured using the PTO (Bentley & Rempel, 1963) and leadership style was measured using the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957). Teachers in

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the study completed both of the instruments. During the spring of 1998 a pilot test of the PTO was conducted at a public junior high school to reduce the number of items on the PTO. The full scaled 100 question PTO was given to teachers initially. Three weeks later, a smaller scale, consisting of 40 questions covering the two primary areas of concern in this study, teacher rapport with the principal and satisfaction with teaching, was given to the same group of teachers. The tests were given to assess whether or not the two instruments functioned similarly. Reliability of the shortened form was acceptable. Test-retest reliability was .9543. The internal consistency of the shortened form was .9058.

In addition to completing both instruments, teachers were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire that supplied some descriptive data including gender of the teacher, years as a teacher, and race of the teacher. Interviews with each school principal were conducted at each school site. A previously determined set of structured questions were asked of each principal (Appendix C). The interview questions were concerned with the perceptions of the school principal's own leadership style and his/her perceptions of the level of teacher morale in his/her school.

The PTO was developed by Bentley and Rempel (1963) to provide a measure of teacher morale. This 100 item instrument is designed in a Likert-type scale format. Each item has four response choices: agree, probably agree, probably disagree, and disagree. Items identified by the authors as "positive" are weighted in the following manner: agree=4, probably agree=3, probably disagree=2, and disagree=1. Items identified as "negative" are weighted in reverse order. The PTO yields a total score indicating the general level of teacher morale. The range of score could theoretically be between 400, indicating high morale, and 100, indicating low morale.

Bentley and Rempel (1980) established test-retest reliability for the scale. Data were obtained from 60 Indiana schools and 16 Oregon schools. Four weeks later the

instrument was readministered in all of the schools. Test-retest data were obtained for 3,023 teachers. Test-retest reliability was estimated to be .87.

Bentley and Rempel (1963) maintain that there is "no relevant criterion on which to judge the validity of an instrument of this nature, except, to some extent, the relative performance of teachers" (p. 7). However, they cite studies in which the Opinionaire was used and found to discriminate sharply among different schools, and also among individual teachers in a particular school (Bentley & Rempel 1963; Brinkman, as cited in Bentley & Rempel, 1980). The authors compared two approaches to establish the instrument's validity in their 1963 study: peer selection and expert judgment. They further stated:

> In comparing the two approaches in the validation of the instrument, the findings do not provide an unequivocal answer. The larger discrimination indices obtained for the expert judgment-internal consistency procedure is as expected and agrees with most research results dealing with the construction of tests and attitude scales. However, means for the total sample between peer-selected "high", "middle", and "low" morale groups using the expert scoring key is encouraging. It indicates that there is considerable relationship between the two criteria. The results of the study seem to indicate that a valuable diagnostic instrument has been developed. (p. 240)

The LBDQ originally was a 100 item questionnaire used to report teachers' perceptions of the leader behavior or style of their building principal. The LBDQ was developed as a result of work initiated by Hemphill and those associated with the Ohio State Leadership Studies beginning in 1945. The original form was widely used to identify and measure two strongly defined subscales, Initiation of Structure and Consideration. The instrument was designed for purposes of empirical research and the original and later versions were used for many leadership studies. This instrument has been used to measure leadership behavior in industrial, religious, military, community, governmental, and educational organizations (Halpin, 1957).

The LBDQ Short From, used in this study, consists of 40 questions. For each of the 40 questions which comprised the LBDQ, the respondent had a choice of five

responses. A numerical weight was assigned to each response on the five point Likart scale. Only 30 of the 40 items are scored; 15 for each of the two dimensions—initiation of structure and consideration. The 10 unscored items have been retained to keep the conditions of administration comparable to those used in standardizing the questionnaire (Halpin, 1957).

In the instructions, a teacher is asked to identify the frequency with which his/her principal has engaged in the activity described by each item and to mark his/her perception of the appropriate response on the answer sheet provided. Answers range from never to always on a five point scale.

Stogdill (1963) used a modified Kuder-Richardson formula to establish conservative estimates of the reliability of each of the 12 subscales at .75. Punch (1967) examined the reliability of the subscales in a study on the bureaucratic structure of schools. He also identified only two items that correlated more highly with other subscales than with their own subscales. Split-half reliability coefficients for the subscales ranged from .55 to .89.

The construct validity of the LBDQ was examined through the use of factor analysis in a Canadian study reported by Brown (1967). Two factors labeled system orientation and person orientation were identified. Subscales that included on system orientation were: (a) production emphasis, (b) initiation of structure, (c) representation, (d) role assumption, (e) persuasion, and (f) superior orientation. Subscales that included person orientation were: (a) tolerance of freedom, (b) tolerance of uncertainty, (c) consideration, (d) demand reconciliation, (e) integration, and (f) predictive accuracy. These factors correspond with the Consideration and Initiating Structure factors identified by Halpin (1956) in an application of early form of the LBDQ. In Punch's (1967) study, the same system and person factors were identified through factor analysis with primarily the same inclusion of subscales on the two factors. Punch produced further support for the construct validity of the LBDQ.

Data Collection Procedure

Consent letters (Appendix D) were obtained granting permission to use the PTO and the LBDQ. Permission was also obtained from the Human Subjects Committee (Appendix E) prior to initiating data collection. All participants completed Human Subjects consent forms (Appendix F) assuring that data would be held in confidence. Superintendents of the selected school systems were contacted to request permission to conduct this study in their school system and to use teacher demographic data (Appendix G). Permission to conduct the study was then sought from the individual school principals of the selected schools. Permission letters from the superintendents were provided to the school principals at that time. Clarification of the purpose of the study was also provided to the school principals. A brief orientation with each school principal clearly stated that the purpose of this study was not to compare morale levels in one secondary school with another. Finally, a short interview with each principal was conducted to delineate the principals' perception of their own leadership style and their perception of the level of teacher morale in their school.

During the spring of 1998, the researcher traveled to each school site and provided each teacher with a copy of the PTO, the LBDQ, the demographic questionnaire, and brief instructions needed to complete the instruments during faculty meetings at each individual school. The participating teachers were asked to return the completed questionnaires in the envelope provided within one week. The principal interviews were also conducted during this period.

Data Analysis Procedure

The instruments were hand scored by the researcher in accordance to directions from the authors of the original instruments. A rejection level of $p<.05$ was used for each null hypothesis. A 3 by 3 factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was utilized to determine if significant differences existed in teacher morale because of the leadership

style of the principal, while Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was used to determine where the differences occurred. Since different groups had dramatically different numbers of participants, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was used to analyze the demographic data. A t test was also used to test for differences with regards to the teacher demographics (gender, years of teaching experience, and race) included in the study. This part of the analysis addressed null hypothesis one, the three sub null hypotheses, and null hypothesis two. Statistical analysis of the data was accomplished through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X) computer program.

Content Analysis was used to analyze the principal interviews. Qualitative data from the interviews was used to search for major themes and ideas in the perceptions of the principals.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data of this study and an analysis of these data. Statistical inferences were made on the basis of these analyses as to the presence and extent of significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables utilized in the study. Tables compiled to present all pertinent data upon which statistical inferences can be made are included in support of tests performed. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first section presents the data collected by administering the PTO (Bentley & Rempel, 1963) and the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957). Teachers were asked to respond to their perceptions of the leadership style of their school principal and their perceptions of the level of teacher morale at their school. Frequencies, means, and standard deviations of descriptive data concerned with the demographic variables of gender, years of teaching experience, and race were also obtained. A 3 by 3 factorial ANOVA was utilized to examine the significance of demographic variables and their relationship with consideration and initiating structure. Duncan's New Multiple Range test of homogeneous subsets was utilized to detect whether or not significant relationships existed between groups. Post Hoc tests were used to detect where differences existed. A t test was utilized to examine group statistics of relationships of the demographic variables of gender, years of teaching experience, and race. This part of the analysis addresses hypothesis one, the three sub hypotheses, and hypothesis two.

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The second section presents an analysis of data collected through interviews with school principals. Principals were asked to respond to 10 questions associated with their perceptions of their own leadership style and their perceptions of the level of teacher morale in their school. Analysis of principal interviews was achieved through content analysis to detect major themes presented by the principals.

Analysis of Survey Data and Hypotheses Tests

This section reviews data collected from the two survey instruments, the PTO (Bentley & Rempel, 1963) and the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957) . Participants in the study were asked to respond to each of the 80 questions by filling in one of the four responses that ranged from a, agree, to d, disagree on the PTO, to report teacher perceptions of the morale level in the school; and a, always, to d, never on the LBDQ, to identify the frequency with which his/her principal has engaged in the activity described by each item.

Fourteen north Louisiana public secondary schools participated in the study. After randomly selecting the 14 schools, the researcher made a site visit to each school and delivered a research packet containing an explanation of the study, the questionnaires, the demographic data questionnaires, and procedures to be followed. The preferred procedure was to administer the PTO, the LBDQ, and the demographic questionnaire to all teachers at each school site during a faculty or inservice meeting. The instruments were then completed and collected by the researcher at the end of the site visit. Additional surveys and envelopes were provided for teachers not present at the faculty meeting. This preferred procedure was followed in seven of the participating schools. In those situations where it was not possible to meet with each faculty member because of scheduling conflicts or when the school site principal specifically requested that the instruments be administered at another time, the following alternative procedure was utilized. The packets were delivered to the principal, along with a large

self-addressed stamped envelope. The principal administered the instruments to the faculty and collected the completed questionnaires at his/her convenience. At that time the school principal mailed the completed surveys to the researcher in the envelopes provided. This alternative procedure was followed in seven of the secondary schools. The researcher did not meet with one principal included in the study, but talked to him several times by telephone. The surveys were left with a secretary at the school on that occasion, who gave the surveys and directions for completion to the principal.

A summary of the data collection procedure and return rate is presented in Table1. Schools were listed from A to N in the order in which the researcher visited them. The Preferred or Alternative Collection Procedure, described previously, is represented in the second column. Teachers in two schools who returned surveys in an envelope not provided by the researcher are represented in column four. The Total Return column represents the total number of surveys returned to the researcher and the Total Possible column represents the total number of teachers employed at the school site. The last column represents the total percentages of teachers employed at each school who returned completed surveys to the researcher.

The total number of participants in the study was three hundred and fifty-three teachers ($n= 353$). The number of teachers in each school ranged from 14 in the smallest school to 102 in the largest school. Twenty of the teachers chose not to complete any of the demographic data survey or did not complete all of the PTO and the LBDQ; therefore, their surveys were not included in the study. The combined return rate was 43% and range of return per school was 26% to 79%. Two participants mailed surveys to the researcher in their own envelope rather than the one provided.

Table 1

<u>Summary of Data Collection Procedure and Return Rates for North Louisiana</u>

<u>Secondary Public Schools</u>

School	Collection Procedure	First Return	Second Return	Total Return	Total Possible	Percent Return
A	Preferred	28	-	28	56	50
B	Alternative	26	-	26	65	40
C	Preferred	39	-	39	77	51
D	Alternative	38	-	38	81	47
E	Alternative	41	1	42	102	41
F	Preferred	11	-	11	14	79
G	Preferred	9	-	9	14	64
H	Alternative	13	1	14	38	37
I	Preferred	15	-	15	39	38
J	Alternative	19	-	19	66	29
K	Alternative	18	-	18	70	26
L	Preferred	30	-	30	56	54
M	Alternative	18	-	18	47 .	38
N	Preferred	46	-	46	88	52
Total	14	351		353	813	43

Of those schools with a return rate below 40%, the Alternative Procedure was used in four instances. School D had a return rate of 47%, although using the Alternative Procedure. All of the schools in which the Preferred Procedure was used had a return rate of over 40%, except one. School I had a return rate of 38% even though the Preferred Procedure was utilized in that school. It was interesting that the highest return included the two smallest schools (n=14) of the study. The return rate for school F was 79%, followed with school G with a return rate of 64%.

In Table 2, frequencies with regard to gender, years experience, and race of the teachers included in the study are listed. Nominal data for gender and race were coded as follows: Black = 1, White = 2, Male = 2, and Female = 1. The number of valid responses, the number of missing responses for each demographic variable, and modes for each demographic variable are presented.

Table 2

Modal Value of Selected Variables

	Valid (n)	Missing (n)	Mode
Gender	322	31	1.00
Years Experience	322	31	8.00
Race	315	38	2.00

Of the 353 participants involved in the study, most were female (n = 229) and White (n = 244). The most frequent number of years of experience was eight. Thirty-one participants did not complete the gender question; 31 participants did not complete the years of teaching experience question; and 38 participants did not complete the race question.

Table 3 represents data concerned with the demographic variable of gender. Frequencies and percentages of the teachers in the study are listed according to gender.

A total of 322 of the 353 participants in the study responded to the gender section of the survey.

Table 3

Frequency of Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	229	64.9	71.1	71.1
Male	93	26.3	28.9	100.0
Total	322	91.2	100.0	
Missing	31	8.8		
Total	353	100.0		

As noted in Table 3, 65% of the teachers in the study were female (n=229) and 26% were male (n=93). Nine percent of the participants did not complete the gender section of the demographic survey. Of those responding to the gender question, 71% were female and 29% were male.

In Table 4 demographic data concened with years of teaching experience are reported. Frequencies and average years of teaching experience of the teachers in the study are listed.

Table 4

Frequency of Years of Teaching Experience

Number of Participants	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation
322	322	14.63	9.34

As reported in Table 4, of the 322 participants in the study that completed the years of experience section of the survey, the mean for all teachers was 14.63 years of experience. The standard deviation was 9.34. Three hundred twenty-two out of the 355 participants responded to the years of teaching experience item.

Table 5 represents data concerned with the demographic variable of race.

Frequencies and percentages of the teachers in the study are listed according to race.

Table 5

Frequency of Race

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Black	71	20.1	22.5	22.5
White	244	69.1	77.5	100.0
Total	315	89.2	100.0	
Missing	38	10.8		
Total	353	100.0		

The total number of participants included 71 Black teachers and 244 White

teachers. Thirty-eight of the participants did not complete the race section of the survey.

Twenty percent were Black teachers (n = 71), 69% (n = 244) were White teachers, and

11% (n =38) did not complete this part of the survey. Of those responding to the race

question, 22.5% were Black teachers and 77.5% were White teachers.

Mean scores on the PTO are presented in Table 6. The range of scores,

minimum and maximum scores, and the standard deviation on the PTO are presented.

Table 6

PTO Mean Scores

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
PTO	353	92.0	68.00	160.00	134.10	17.40

As reported in Table 6, the mean score for the teachers in the study was 134.10

and the standard deviation was 17.40. The range of observed scores on the PTO was

92.0. The minimum observed score reported was 68.00 and the maximum observed

score reported was 160.00.

The following null hypotheses were tested:

Null Hypothesis 1: No significant effect exists in the level of teacher morale, as measured by the PTO, in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in consideration and in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in initiating structure, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

Null Sub Hypothesis 1A: There is no significant interaction in the morale of teachers, as measured by the PTO, in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low consideration and in schools with principals who high, medium, or low in initiating structure, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

Null Sub Hypothesis 1B: No significant differences exist in the morale of teachers, as measured by the PTO, in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in consideration, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

Null Sub Hypothesis 1C: No significant differences exist in teacher morale, as measured by the PTO, in schools with principals who are high, medium, or low in initiating structure, as measured by the LBDQ, in north Louisiana public secondary schools.

Null Hypothesis 2: No significant differences exist in teacher morale in secondary schools in north Louisiana for each of the following variables: gender of the teacher, years as a teacher, and race of the teacher as measured by the PTO and the LBDQ.

Consideration scores were categorized into three groups representing high (consideration ≥ 48), medium (consideration < 48 and consideration > 40), and low (consideration ≤ 40) groups. Similarly, using cut points on the 33rd and 67th percentile, (Initiating Structure = 43 and Initiating Structure =50 respectively), the initiating structure scores were divided into three groups representing high, medium, and low initiating structure. Initiating structure scores were also categorized into three groups

representing high (initiating structure ≥ 50), medium (initiating structure < 50 and initiating structure > 43), and low (initiating structure ≤ 43).

In order to test Null Hypothesis 1 data were analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with three levels of consideration and initiating structure serving as independent variables. The PTO, measuring morale, served as the dependent variable. Results of this 3 by 3 factorial design are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

<u>Results of 2 Way ANOVA by Consideration and Initiating Structure on the PTO</u>

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Considertion	11750.61	2	5875.31	31.10***
Initiating Structure	2769.20	2	1384.60	7.34**
I. S./ Con. (2 way)	849.75	4	212.44	1.13
Error	5203809	27	188.54	

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

As can be seen in Table 7, the two way interaction was not significant F $(4,212.44) = 1.13$, $p > .05$. Therefore, the Null Sub Hypothesis 1A was not rejected. Interpretation of the main effect of each individual variable indicates that the effect of consideration was significant, F $(2, 117) = 31.10$, $p < .05$. The effect of initiating structure was also significant, F $(2, 277) = 7.34$, $p < .05$.

To further examine the main effect of consideration, Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was carried out post hoc. The results of Duncan's New Multiple Range Test are presented in Table 8 and indicate significant differences exist between all pairs of groups.

Table 8

Results of Duncan's New Multiple Range Test for Consideration

Consideration	N	Morale 1	Morale 2	Morale 3
1. Low	104	120.03		
2. Medium	110		138.60	
3. High	89			144.56

As expected, each group was significantly different from every other group, (high, middle, and low). Morale ($\underline{M}$ = 120.03) was lowest in those schools with low consideration, whereas high consideration ($\underline{M}$=144.56) resulted in a higher morale level among the teachers. Mid-range consideration scores generated a corresponding mid-range of $\underline{M}$= 138.60 on the PTO. Therefore, Null Sub Hypothesis 1B was rejected.

To further examine the main effect of initiating structure, Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was also carried out post hoc. In Table 9, data are presented noting differences on the PTO related to initiating structure.

Table 9

Results of Duncan's New Multiple Range Test for Initiating Structure

Initiating Structure	N	Morale 1	Morale 2
1. Low	103	122.75	
2. Medium	105		137.76
3. High	104		141.31

As indicated in Table 9, the medium ($\underline{M}$ = 137.76) and high ($\underline{M}$ = 141.31) initiating structure groups were significantly different from the low initiating structure group ($\underline{M}$ = 122.75) on the PTO. Therefore Null Sub Hypothesis 1C was rejected. The medium and high initiating structure groups, however, were not significantly different

from each other on the PTO. Since Null Sub Hypothesises 1B and 1C were rejected, Null Hypothesis 1 was also rejected.

To test Null Hypothesis 2, a t test for independent groups was calculated. A t test for differences in morale by individual groups was performed. As reported in Table 10, variances in the two groups according to gender (1 = male, 2 = female) were roughly equal.

Table 10

Results of t Test on PTO for Gender Differences

Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	t	df
Female	228	135.57	16.93	1.12	1.94	319
Male	93	131.42	18. 52	1.92		

Although the two groups had different numbers of participants, Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance was not significant, F= 1.282, p. > .05, indicating the variance in the two groups was similar. The calculated t test was not significant t = (319) = 1.94, p. > .05. Means for males (m = 131.42) and females (m = 135.57) were not significantly different.

In Table 11, t test for differences in morale in years according to years of teaching experience are reported. Again, because the two groups had different numbers of participants(< 3 years, N = 43; $\geq$ = 278), Levene's Test for Equality of Variance was calculated to further verify homogeneity of variance.

Table 11

Results of t Test on PTO for Years of Teaching Experience

Experience	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	t	df
3 years or less	43	136.47	18.25	2.78	.880	319
More than 3 years	278	133.94	17.37	1.04		

As reported in Table 11, the t test, $t(319)=.880$, $p.>.05$, was not significant. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated, $F = .08$, $p. > .05$.

In Table 12, a t test for differences in morale by individual groups according to race was performed. Although the two groups were unequal in frequency, mean scores were similar.

Table 12

Results of t Test on PTO for Race of Teacher

Race	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	t	df
Black	71	132.96	1.96	1.14	-.70	312
White	243	134.62	17.72			

Results indicated that differences in race were not significant. The calculated t test was not significant, $t(312)= -.70$, $p. >.05$, and means for Blacks ($M = 132.96$) and Whites ($M=134.62$) were not significantly different. Homogeneity was verified by Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, $F=.05$, $p.> .05$. Because differences in gender, years of teaching experience, and race were not significant, Null Hypothesis 2 was accepted.

Analysis of Interview Data

Interviews with each school principal were conducted by the researcher. All 14 school principals participated in the structured interviews, and all interviews were scripted by the researcher. Each principal was asked the 10 structured questions as well as follow-up questions.

Interview Question One. The first question asked of each school principal was: How do you make an effort to maintain communication with all members of your faculty? In reviewing the data collected, several common themes emerged. All 14 principals agreed that communication with their faculties was very important. Every principal interviewed implied that two-way communication between the principal and teachers was a common practice at their school. All but one of the principals agreed that faculty meetings were very necessary and the best way to communicate formally with their faculties. One principal expressed his dislike for faculty meetings and said that he did not prefer faculty meetings at all, while two others implied that they only had faculty meetings when other forms of communication were not feasible because of time constraints. Several principals reported that they had weekly faculty meetings, while one principal conducted bi-weekly meetings. A majority of the principals questioned stated that they usually held faculty meetings once each month. Eleven of the 14 principals interviewed replied that they presented necessary information to their teachers during faculty meetings but also allowed teachers to ask questions or make presentations during the meetings. Two of the principals mentioned that they only provided pertinent information during faculty meetings and that they ended the meeting very quickly by informing the teachers that if they had questions they were to come by his/her office for more information. One principal remarked that his faculty meetings were very informal and the faculty usually did more talking than he did.

All of the principals interviewed implied that faculty meetings were no longer than they needed to be, although the time-frame span varied considerably. Ten of the

principals described their faculty meetings as usually being one hour in length, while two principals implied that they were much less than one hour, and two other principals reported that their meetings were more than one and a half hours long. Twelve of the 14 principals stated that their faculty meetings usually began after the school day had ended. Five principals noted that they had monthly department meetings with their department heads. Two other principals implied that they had two department meetings per year, once each semester. All of the principals who conducted departmental meetings said that department heads made suggestions and asked questions that were not usually discussed during regular faculty meetings.

Ten principals believed that the intercom system should be used regularly for formal communication because of time constraints and convenience. Four other principals replied that they only used the intercom for morning announcements and in the case of emergencies. All of the principals suggested that they only used "all calls" when it was necessary and usually called teachers on the intercom individually.

All of the principals felt that the use of notes in boxes and memorandums were additional means of formal, as well as informal communication with their teachers. Information given in the memorandums ranged from individual congratulations to reprimands to teachers for not being present on duty. Several principals noted that they put special cards or letters in boxes acknowledging holidays and teacher birthdays and that they were very well received by the teachers in their schools. Most of the principals stated that they preferred placing notes in teachers' boxes to making announcements over the intercom.

Every principal interviewed agreed that the best form of communication with teachers was face-to-face oral communication. A majority of the principals perceived that formal communication, such as reprimanding a teacher or disputes with a teacher, should be done in the principal's office. Most of the principals conveyed that informal

communication with their teachers was accomplished by visiting with teachers before and after school, during class changes, and at lunch.

All 14 principals interviewed agreed that communication with members of the faculty was important, not only as a means to promote high morale among their faculties, but also as a way to become more knowledgeable of the happenings at their school. As one principal noted, "Face to face communication allows the faculty an opportunity to speak directly to me. It also gives me the opportunity to let the faculty know that I am concerned about them and to be more aware of the daily occurrences at my school."

Interview Question Two. The second question asked of the principals was: Do you feel the morale of the faculty at your school is high, middle, or low? Ten of the 14 principals questioned stated that the morale in their school was high. Two principals felt that the morale among their faculties was middle to high, while one principal implied that the morale in his school was middle to low and one principal stated that the morale of his faculty was low. The reasons for low or high morale varied, but all 14 principals agreed that the reason for low or high morale was not a specific reflection on their own leadership abilities.

One common factor that half of the principals listed as lowering morale among their faculties was the new accountability guidelines implemented by the state of Louisiana. Several of the principals mentioned that teachers, as well as themselves, were concerned about their students taking the Iowa test during the spring and the new accountability of the teachers. Several principals also mentioned that members of their faculty were concerned about having to change the way that they had taught for many years in order to better prepare for the Iowa test. As one principal stated, "Teachers are always afraid of change, especially when their jobs depend on such change." Another principal noted, "I'm having a difficult problem convincing some members of my staff that they must change their methods of instruction to be better prepared for the new

state guidelines and the Iowa test. It is one of the most difficult problems I have ever faced as an administrator and it is certainly affecting morale."

Another common problem that principals felt played a role in lowering morale among faculty members was the lack of respect for the teaching profession, not only among their students, but by parents and members of the community as well. Several of the principals implied that their teachers were dissatisfied with their present positions because of disrespectful students causing almost daily disruptions in their classrooms. Four of the principals interviewed described laws protecting students, especially special education students, from disciplinary actions as a major contributor to lowering morale in their school. As one principal stated, "The biggest problem we face in our public schools today is lack of respect for the teaching profession and disrespectful students who the law will not allow us to punish."

Several other factors were also mentioned by more than one principal that contributed to low morale among their faculties. Low salary was listed by two principals as the major cause of lowering morale among teachers. One principal remarked,

> We live in a rural community with a very low tax base; therefore, our teachers make very little over the state base for teachers. This has made it very difficult to hire and maintain certified teachers in our school. It has also the major reason for low morale among our teachers.

Lack of adequate facilities and supplies was also mentioned by several principals as being a factor in lowering teacher morale in their schools. Several principals argued that because of the lack of money in their schools, teachers were frustrated because they did not have enough textbooks for all of their students and that the facility that they worked in was such in need of improvement and repair that the poor conditions were hindering the education of the students in their school. As one principal declared,

> Our teachers are constantly depressed and frustrated because they are having to spend their own money to buy supplies. Our building is so old and in need of

repair that when it's cold our children are shivering in their desks and when it rains half of our classrooms leak. This makes instruction very difficult and certainly causes lower morale among my faculty as well as myself.

One new principal implied that the morale of his faculty had improved considerably as the school year progressed and faculty members "got to know me better." Another new principal believed that the morale of his faculty had been very low the previous year and also stated that he had worked very hard to improve morale during the current school year. Several principals reported that the major force behind improving and maintaining high morale was to make the faculty feel important and to include them in making decisions, especially with all of the new changes in education in Louisiana. One principal noted that block scheduling had been implemented in his school during the current school year and that his faculty had not only accepted their new schedules, but they had become very excited about the opportunities that block scheduling allowed.

Although none of the principals stated that they believed themselves to be a major reason for the high morale in their schools, several of the principals implied that their own attitude and personality had an effect on high morale in their school. Friendliness, being open to the ideas of the faculty, support of the faculty members, being fair and consistent with faculty members, and availability to the faculty were listed by the principals as being primary traits that contributed to high morale in their schools. As one principal noted, "The teachers in my school know that I will always support them (as long as they are right and professional) and they know that they can talk to me at any time if they have a problem or need some assistance. This is a main reason that the morale is as high as it is in our school."

Interview Question Three. The third question asked of the principals was: How do you include the faculty's input in the decisions made at your school? Although all of the principals questioned mentioned that they were always open to the ideas of their faculty, several of the principals admitted that they did not really consider their ideas

seriously and usually did not change their mind about certain decisions because they felt that usually the teachers had some alternative motive behind their input. Still, several common themes did emerge in questioning the principals about the input of the faculty and the ways and means to do so.

Most of the principals interviewed reported that they actively seek the input of their faculty when making decisions concerning the school. A majority of the principals also found that when they asked for teacher input, it assisted them considerably, not only with coming up with new and better ideas, but also in the acceptance by the rest of the faculty to changes being made. As one principal stated, "I always seek the input of my faculty in making decisions. I have found through experience that if you ask for their input, teachers will accept the decisions being made much easier."

The ways and means of including the faculty in decision making varied from principal to principal, although several of the principals were consistent in their ways to include the input of the faculty. Ten of the 14 principals noted that they always ask their teachers if they had anything they needed to say at faculty meetings. One principal stated that she asked the teachers if they wished to be put on the agenda prior to the faculty meeting, while the others implied that they usually asked at the end of the meetings. Several of the principals noted that they asked department heads for input during departmental meetings, and two of the principals appeared to agree with the following statement made by one of the principals: "I go to teachers that I know very well and feel comfortable asking for their advice in certain situations."

All but one of the principals interviewed implied that there were certain decisions that had to be made without the consideration of the faculty. Most of the principals felt that sometimes they made difficult decisions without teacher input because they felt it was best for their school. As one principal stated,

> As principal, certain decisions have to be made quickly, some decisions have already been made by the central office or the superintendent, and some

decisions are made for the good of the students and the school, even if the teachers don't agree with them. Anytime I have the opportunity to include teachers in decisions, I do. But sometimes it is just not possible.

Interview Question Four. The fourth question asked of the principals was: Would you describe yourself as an autocratic, democratic, or laissez faire leader? All but two principals appeared to be familiar with the three terms. The meaning of an autocratic leader was explained to one principal and the meaning of a laissez faire leader was explained to another principal. All 14 principals seemed to be certain of their own classification. None of the principals felt that they were laissez faire leaders, most felt that they were democratic (11 total), while two of the principals felt that they were a combination of autocratic and democratic in their leadership. One of the principals interviewed stated that he considered himself to be an autocratic leader.

A majority of the principals replied that because they listened to their faculty and did not operate their schools in a authoritarian manner that they considered themselves to be a democratic leader. As one principal noted, "I'm not a dictator. I listen to my faculty at all times. Even if I don't agree with them, I still think they have a right to their opinions." Another principal stated, "I consider myself to be very democratic. I am always willing to listen to members of my faculty. I know that I do not have all the answers and often times the ideas of the teachers are better than my own."

Other principals found that they were a mixture of more than one type of leader. Although usually democratic, some of the principals interviewed stated that sometimes they had to be autocratic rather than democratic in their leadership style. Three of the principals appeared to be in agreement with the statement of one such principal when he replied, "Even though I am usually democratic, sometimes I do certain things because of state guidelines or school board policy. I also have to be autocratic in making some decisions that I know will not be popular with the teachers."

One principal noted that when he first became a principal that he was a democratic leader but because of certain "bad" experiences and mistakes made in the decision making process, that he had become an autocratic leader, as he replied,

> The buck stops here. When decisions are made that prove to be the wrong, it's not the teacher (who came up with the idea) that will be blamed, but me. Early in my career I tried to always take the input of my faculty into consideration. But as time has gone by I have found that it is best to operate under the letter of the law and use good common sense. It is like when I was a head football coach, if we lost a ball game it was not the players fault or the assistant coaches fault, but mine.

One common factor among those principals that considered themselves to be a democratic leader was their willingness to listen to their faculty in making decisions. Several principals noted that they were sure that their faculty felt comfortable coming to them with problems or suggestions and as several principals remarked, "listening to them with an open mind was an important aspect of improving morale among faculty members." Most of the principals were also very consistent in their feelings that sometimes they were forced to make autocratic decisions, but that they did not do so except during emergency situations.

Interview Question Five. The fifth question asked of the principals was: How do you show your teachers that you are genuinely concerned about them? Most of the principals implied that communication with their faculties was the most important facet of showing teachers that they were interested and concerned about them. Several principals noted that with regards to communication with their teachers, it was just as important to listen to their teachers as to speak to them. Most of the principals implied that two-way communication, eye contact, and really listening to the wants and needs of their teachers were very important. As one principal stated,

> My teachers know that I am concerned about them because I take the time to talk to them. I always remind them that if they are having a problem that I can help with, to let me know. I am constantly asking them if everything is going all right, and I always try to show my support for them.

Other principals found that recognition for outstanding achievement among their teachers, special recognition for degrees or honors bestowed upon teachers, birthday cards, little notes of encouragement or sympathy, and verbal praise of the faculty were important procedures to show teachers that they were appreciated. Several principals mentioned that many teachers often feel very unappreciated by the public, therefore, they felt it was their responsibility to praise teachers as often as possible, or as one principal remarked,

> I am always bragging on my faculty. I like to pat them on the back as often as I can, but I think it is most important that they understand that I respect their profession and the job that they are doing at all times. That is why I constantly remind them that even if society does not appreciate and recognize the important job we have, that I do.

Interview Question Six. The sixth question asked of the principals was: How would you offer assistance to teachers whose performance in the classroom was less than desirable? All of the principals questioned agreed that teacher observations, written documentation, and assistance programs were the preferred way to deal with low teacher performance. Honesty, consistency, and fairness were also characteristics mentioned several times by many of the principals.

Half of the principals questioned reported that programs were already in existence to provide assistance to teachers in need. Programs designed to help with classroom management, mentor teacher programs, and assistance by the principal were commonly mentioned. Several of the principals appeared to agree with the following comment by one of the principals:

> We have a general program to offer assistance to teachers who are not performing in an acceptable manner. Our main purpose is not to punish or embarrass the teacher, but to offer them positive help so that they will improve their instructional skills.

Another principal also considered the mentoring program important when she replied, "Our mentoring system, with our experienced teachers assisting new teachers, has

proven to be very successful. We offer assistance to all of our new teachers as a standard program, along with the state program already in existence."

Being fair and honest in their observation was considered by several of the principals to be very important. The positive input of the principal appeared to be a common practice of the principals in this study. Observations completed by the principals and suggestions for improving instructions were also vital ingredients to help teachers in need of assistance. As one principal replied,

> I am very frank with my teachers. If I observe that they are doing something unacceptable, or if there are numerous complaints from parents and students about a particular teacher, it is my responsibility to offer assistance so that teacher may improve.

Other principals noted that classroom management skills were another area that teachers commonly needed help with, especially beginning teachers. Most of the principals felt that it was their responsibility to assist the teachers in every way possible, such as providing in-services on classroom management and support for teachers concerning discipline procedures.

All of the principals questioned believed that they were very patient with teachers who were not performing in an acceptable manner, but that there did come a time when more drastic measures were taken when nothing seemed to improve the situation. One principal stated,

> I try very hard to help teachers perform up to their potential. I make suggestions, offer advise, make available experts in the field of education, and provide encouragement to teachers who are not performing as they should. If all else fails, more serious measures, such as writing teachers up and eventually dismissal are possibilities.

If such steps must be taken, several principals noted that documentation was very important. As one principal replied, " I document everything. You never know when serious procedures might have to be taken, such as termination. If you do not have

adequate documentation, you will not be very successful in removing teachers who are not doing their job."

Interview Question Seven. The seventh question asked of the principals was: Do you operate under the "open door" policy? If yes, explain how. All 14 principals were consistent in their reply that they did operate under the open door policy. Procedures and reasons for doing so varied considerably.

Several principals mentioned that they actively seek the input of their teachers in making decisions concerning the school and that they actively request the suggestions and recommendations of their teachers. Most of the principals stated that they kept their office door open most of the time so that teachers would feel free to come into his/her office to express themselves. One principal replied,

> I keep my office door open except when I am in private meeting with someone so that the teachers will know that they are free to come in and discuss any problems they might be having. I also let the teachers know during faculty meetings that if they need to come and talk to me, they can always do so.

Several of the principals reported that they felt the key to an effective open door policy was not only the availability of the principal to the faculty, but to also make the teachers feel comfortable coming into their office for discussions, suggestions, or problems. The majority of the principals agreed that an open door policy was a key ingredient in promoting positive morale and effective communication among their faculties.

It was noted to the researcher that the term "open door policy" was mentioned by every principal before this particular question was asked of them. It certainly was a word that was very well known by all of the principals in the study. Several of the principals agreed that an effective open door policy allowed faculty members to express themselves when they would not do so in front of a crowd in a faculty meeting; as well as, being a source of information for the principal about the happenings of the school

that they otherwise might not know about. Several of the principals agreed with the

following summation made by one of the principals:

> By operating under the open door policy, I find out a lot of information that I
> might not know. Teachers make suggestions, ask questions, and inform me of
> problems or gripes that the teachers have that I might not be aware of.

Interview Question Eight. The eighth question asked of the principals was: How

do you actively seek the ideas of the faculty members concerning school issues?

Communication with the faculty was once again a common factor mentioned by most

of the principals when discussing how they seek the ideas of their faculty members. A

variety of methods were utilized by the principals to gain pertinent information that

included: faculty meetings, department meetings, committee meetings, formal

conferences with groups or individuals, and memos to the teachers.

Most of the principals interviewed reported that during the beginning of the year

faculty meeting, he/she informed the teachers that their ideas were an important part of

the success of the school. About half of the principals said they tried very hard to

actively seek the ideas of their teachers. They also noted the they gave credit, praise,

and recognition to faculty members who helped to develop and implement successful

programs. Several of the principals expressed views similar to one principal who

replied, "Teachers have to know that you welcome their input and give them credit for

ideas they come up with that prove successful. I continuously asked for feedback from

my teachers and never berate or embarrass them for making suggestions."

Several other principals found that departmental meetings and committee

meetings had proven to be the most successful method of attaining the input of their

faculties. The principals also agreed that scheduling meetings at the convenience of the

teachers generally assured that the meeting would run "smoother" and more

"successfully."

Only two of the principals interviewed stated that they did not believe in committees. One principal also responded that he did not usually seek the input or ideas of his teachers because he found that when doing so he had found that the meetings usually turned into "gripe" sessions and nothing positive was accomplished. Another of the principals found that taking the advice of the faculty was something she had to "grow into," as she replied,

> At first, I took the suggestions of faculty members as criticism. After a while I realized that the positive suggestions of the teachers would bring about positive results and I began to actively seek the input and ideas of my teachers, maintenance department, cafeteria workers, and bus drivers. It was then that I became a successful principal.

Another principal's response was similar when he noted,

> My first year as a principal I felt like I did not have a good rapport with three or four members of my faculty. After that year I worked harder to improve communication with my faculty, listen to their ideas, and implement some of their ideas, and things began to run more smoothly.

One principal seemed to summarize the feelings of most of the principals concerning seeking the ideas of their faculty members in the following manner: "If you do not allow your teachers to express themselves to you, then they are going to express them to someone else and it might not be someone you would want to know your business." Finally, one of the principals noted "I have no problem getting the input of my staff, especially my assistant principal—she's also my wife."

Interview Question Nine. The ninth question asked of the principals was: Do you feel the teachers at your school feel comfortable coming to you with problems, concerns, and assistance? If yes, explain. All but one of the principals interviewed reported that most of their teachers did feel comfortable coming to them to discuss problems and concerns. One principal implied that most of his teachers probably would not come to him in such a manner because he did not prefer to "get too close" to members of his faculty. Ten of the principals replied that they felt their teachers would

come to them for assistance, while two said that some of their faculty might seek help in certain situations but that most would not do so. Two of the principals stated that the average teacher was too insecure in his/her position to ever complain about their job or to seek assistance even though it was available. One principal replied, "Most teachers feel that if they come to the principal for help it will look like they are not doing their job very well. They think that if they ask for help or guidance it will mean that they are incompetent."

Several principals mentioned that many times their teachers came to them with personal issues for guidance and assistance. One principal responded,

> Often times members of my faculty have personal problems such as problems with their marriage, children who are sick, and financial matters that need attending to and need to take some time off work. I always remind them that this job will still be here when they get back and certain things are even more important than their job. Of course, you always have to be careful that such privileges are not abused.

Communication, both formal and informal, with members of the faculty was the most common answer given by the principals as a means to ensure that their teachers would feel comfortable coming to them with problems, concerns, and assistance. Several of the principals acknowledged that by assuring their teachers that they were concerned about them and their ideas, taking time to really listen to their teachers, and by ensuring the confidentiality of their conversations, a feeling of closeness would result.

Interview Question Ten. The tenth and final question asked of the principals was: How do you recognize and reward outstanding accomplishments of your faculty? Each of the principals agreed that public acknowledgment of outstanding achievement was an important ingredient of improving the school's image, improving teacher morale, and improving the effectiveness of the school. Several different ideas were mentioned.

Most of the principals interviewed implied that outstanding accomplishments, such as the funding of grants written by their teachers, receiving advanced graduate degrees, and acceptance into professional organizations, were sent to the local newspaper for publication. Other ways of acknowledging outstanding accomplishments of their faculties noted by the principals included announcements over the intercom, placing their picture in the hallways, and placing their names on the marquee in front of the building. Other principals mentioned acknowledging successful teachers at faculty meetings, sending notes to the superintendent about outstanding accomplishments of their faculty members, writing letters to the teachers' spouses, and "just patting them on the back for a job well done."

Several principals reported that special gifts were given to teachers for outstanding achievement that included $100 gift certificates, flowers, and gift certificates for meals at local restaurants. Half of the principals interviewed had implemented teacher of the month programs, and most of the principals expressed the view that successful standardized tests scores were also reflections of jobs well done.

Although the range of acknowledgment varied, all of the principals interviewed agreed that recognition of outstanding accomplishments among their faculty members was important. As one principal replied,

> We don't have a lot of money in our school to honor outstanding teachers but there are other ways to let them know how much you appreciate them. Praising teachers in front of their peers, students, and members of the community always makes teachers feel appreciated and feel good about what they are doing.

In summary, all of the principals believed that communication was an important ingredient of successful schools and all of the principals expressed their support of an open door policy. A majority of the principals perceived the morale level of their faculty as being very high, although most of them reported that their own leadership skills played a very minor role in the morale level of their teachers. Only one principal stated that the morale of the teachers in his school was low. All but one of the

principals interviewed felt that they demonstrated democratic leadership in their schools, even though several principals noted that they were sometimes a combination of the democratic and autocratic styles of leadership. Only one of the principals stated that he was autocratic at all times. The principals were not as unanimous when considering the teacher's input and ideas, as some of the principals questioned believed it important and some did not. All of the principals agreed that personal observation, assistance, and documentation were important aspects of dealing with teachers who were not performing at an acceptable level. All of the principals also agreed that recognition of outstanding teacher accomplishment was a very important part of promoting high morale in their schools.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present a summary of the study, the major

findings, and conclusions and recommendations based on these findings.

Summary

This study was conducted to determine whether or not a statistically

significant relationship exists between the leadership style of principals and teacher

morale in public secondary schools in north Louisiana, as perceived by the teachers in

the schools. In the Spring of 1998, information on teacher morale was collected from

teachers located in 14 randomly selected schools of north Louisiana. Information was

obtained concerning teacher morale using the PTO. Teachers also completed the

LBDQ, indicating their perceptions of the principals' leadership style. In addition,

teachers completed a questionnaire that provided demographic data regarding gender of

the teacher, years of teaching experience, and race of the teacher for the study. The

researcher also conducted structured interviews with each principal to obtain the

principal's perception of his/her own leadership style and his/her perceptions of the

level of teacher morale in his/her school.

The schools chosen for this study were selected randomly from the qualifying

schools by utilizing the Louisiana High School Directory (Louisiana Department of

Education, 1997) and the population of this study consisted of the teachers and

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principals of the 14 schools selected. Three hundred fifty-three teachers and 14 principals participated in the study.

To analyze data, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's New Multiple Range Test were used to detect differences in the level of morale related to consideration of the principal and initiating structure of the principal. Levene's Test for Equality of Variance and t test were used to detect differences in the level of morale related to demographic variables. Content analysis was used to analyze principal interviews.

Findings

Based upon the data analysis, the major findings of this investigation concerning teacher perceived level of morale and leadership style were:

1. The results indicate that a statistically significant relationship existed between leadership styles of principals and teacher morale in secondary schools in north Louisiana.

2. Varying levels of consideration by the principal appeared to produce corresponding varying levels of teacher morale according to the perceptions of the teachers in the study. Higher levels of consideration exhibited by the principal reflected higher levels of teacher morale reported by the teachers.

3. Varying levels of initiating structure by the principal appeared to produce corresponding varying levels of teacher morale according to the perceptions of the teachers in the study. Higher levels of initiating structure exhibited by the principals created higher levels of morale among the teachers.

4. The teachers' perceptions concerning the variable of gender and teacher morale were not significant. Although the number of female teachers were far greater than the number of male teachers in the study, the perceptions of the two groups were very similar.

5. The teachers' perception concerning the variable of years of teaching experience and teacher morale were not significant. The teacher morale mean scores were very similar regardless of the years of teaching experience of the teacher.

6. The teachers' perceptions concerning the variable of race and teacher morale were not significant. Although the number of White teachers included in the study outnumbered the number of Black teachers in the study, the perceptions reported by the two groups were very similar.

Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that the level of teacher morale is affected by the leadership style exhibited by the school principal. This conclusion supports the previous findings of Devault (1981), Wey (1990), and Boyd (1993) who agreed that the type of leadership provided by the school principal had an effect on the morale of his/her faculty. Although other factors such as the conditions of the school facility, discipline in the school, and salary may also contribute to high or low morale among teachers, the leadership style of the principal appears to be the major factor affecting teacher morale. This supports the previous findings of Magoon and Linkous (1979), Devault (1981), and Wey (1990).

According to the perceptions of the teachers in the study, teacher morale was higher in schools in which the principals were perceived as high in consideration, supporting the previous findings of Devault (1981), Morris (1981), and Middleton (1990). The results indicated that principals perceived as high in initiating structure by the teachers resulted in higher morale among faculty members, similar to findings reported by Halpin (1956).

The demographic variables of gender, years of teaching experience, and race did not contribute significantly in the morale level of the teachers surveyed. In their study,

Petty and Lee (1975), Cobb (1985), Baker (1985), and Middleton (1990) reported similar findings.

It was surprising that the variables of race and years teaching experience did not produce significant differences in teacher morale. Race had not been investigated thoroughly by researchers and it was expected to produce a significant difference. Intuitively, one might also expect levels of teacher morale to be higher after several years in the teaching profession. One would expect unhappy teachers to have left the profession, leaving well satisfied teachers behind, thus the increasing morale level among experienced teachers.

In comparing the results of the present study with previous studies, the researcher discovered that the theoretical basis and other studies suggested that a significant relationship existed between communication and morale. The strength of the relationship was supported by this study. Teachers who perceived their principals as visible in the classrooms and hallways, accessible to the teachers, and principals who encouraged communication and trust, appeared to result in schools that had high morale among faculty members. During principal interviews most of the principals acknowledged the importance of communication, trust, and an open-door policy in producing high morale among their teachers. All of the principals agreed that higher morale among the faculty resulted in higher academic achievement of their students, supporting the findings of Sergiovanni (1966), Lange (1976), Glatthorn and Spencer (1986), and Wey (1990).

Principal interviews also produced data indicating that the principals, who believed the morale level in their school to be high, did not believe that their own leadership skills caused high morale in their schools. Perceptions of the teachers concerning the leadership style of the principal and its affect on morale produced very different results. Teachers perceived the leadership style of the principal to be a leading reason for low or high morale in their school, while the principals placed more

emphasis on salary, facilities, and demands for accountability. Several possible explanations are suggested for the differences in the opinions of the principals and teachers. One such explanation is that teachers in Louisiana have received pay raises for three consecutive years and the governor of the state has continuously pledged to move salaries among Louisiana teachers to the Southeastern regional average. Another possibility appears to be that construction was visible at nearly all school sites visited by the researcher, indicating that facility improvements were ongoing. Thirdly, principal accountability is as apparent as teacher accountability, if not more so, as the Louisiana legislature seeks to improve public education in the state. Perhaps the fears expressed by principals concerning teacher accountability were also fears they had themselves concerning their own employment. Finally, the principals may have down played their own importance as a factor affecting morale because of modesty. Only the two principals acknowledged their own leadership abilities as playing a major role in producing high morale and effective schools.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. This research focused on a specific geographic area, consequently caution must be exercised in generalizing these results. To further the generalizability of the results of this research, future researchers might replicate this study in other areas of Louisiana, such as south Louisiana, and in other areas of the country. It is especially recommended that such research be done in secondary schools in the western section of the United States, as most of the previous studies found by the researcher were conducted in the eastern part of the country and were concerned with elementary schools.

2. Further research efforts should examine the role of other important members of educational administration. A study examining superintendents and school board members and their effects on teacher morale may produce interesting and informative results. Benefits may be gained by examining the effects of parents and community involvement in schools on teacher morale. Further research on the effects of the new legislative accountability for school administrators and teachers and its effect on morale might also be informative.

3. Further research investigating the role of demographic factors such as gender and race and their effect on teacher morale should be investigated. Because of the relatively low numbers of male teachers and black teachers, future studies with more evenly matched demographic variables may produce meaningful results.

4. Future investigations that compare the demographics of principals and their effect on teacher morale might add beneficial findings to the body of educational knowledge. Because all but two principals were White and male, the role of gender and race of the principal was not considered in this study. Future studies that included more minority and female principals might produce significant results.

5. Finally, some objective measure of the leadership style of the principal and teacher morale by an outside person might produce enlightening results. Two of the schools included in the study only had 14 teachers; therefore, teachers in that school might have been apprehensive about reporting low scores. Still, other teachers expressed concerns about the confidentiality of their answers because of fear of repercussions by the principals. An outside evaluator might produce a more accurate and unbiased analysis of the leadership style of the principal and the actual morale level of the teachers.

Recommendations for Practice

1. The primary implication of this study for the practice of educational administration is the verification that the style of leadership exhibited by principals plays a major role in the morale of their faculties. Principals must be aware of that fact if they are to help produce schools in which the morale of their faculty may reach its optimal level. Although this study did not explore the area of how low or high morale among teachers leads to improved student academic achievement, the review of literature produced continuous examples of student academic gains because teachers in schools with higher morale were more effective in the classroom. Evidence gathered supported claims found in the review of literature that democratic leadership produced higher teacher morale, which in turn produced more effective instructors in the classrooms.

2. The evidence gained through principal interviews indicated that the principals in the study realized the importance of how their teachers perceived them. The principals also indicated that they would like their faculties to perceive them in a favorable manner. It is imperative that principals regularly assess their leadership style and the morale of their teachers to take steps to improve morale.

3. Teachers whose basic needs are satisfied may exhibit a positive attitude and are more willing and ready to strive toward higher goals. Those efforts ultimately may affect student academic gains and help to establish productive schools.

4. Other implications are derived from the teachers' perceptions of leadership style and teacher morale. Teachers perceived that principals high in consideration and initiating structure produced schools that were high in teacher morale. Principals should be aware of this fact and should strive to achieve such an atmosphere in their schools.

5. School districts should monitor and evaluate school principals to create more productive principals and schools. Inservice programs should be developed on the central office level to better equip principals for the changes they must face.

6. New principals should be encouraged to model high consideration skills initially and continue to practice such skills as they continue to grow professionally. High initiating structure skills exhibited by principals may also improve teacher morale. Appropriate inservices and training sessions should stress the importance of effective leadership among principals.

7. Principals and other school administrators should realize the importance of the outcomes of the PTO and the LBDQ and that such outcomes are very important to teachers. Visibility of principals, improved communication between principals and teachers, and availability of principals to teachers are major concerns of teachers of which all principals should be conscious.

8. Principals and other school administrators should emulate productive administrative practices and procedure. Observation of school principals who are cognizant of the perceptions of their teachers are important for the growth and effectiveness of their schools.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PURDUE TEACHER OPINIONAIRE

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THE PURDUE TEACHER OPINIONAIRE
Prepared by Ralph R. Bentley and Averno M. Rempel

PLEASE FILL IN THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION.

SCHOOL._____

YEARS EXP_____SEX._____

RACE._____DATE._____

41. The work of individual faculty members
is appreciated & commended by our
principal   A PA PD D

42. Teachers feel free to criticize admini-
strative policy at faculty meetings
called by our principal   A PA PD D

43. Our principal show favoritism in his
relations with the teachers in our school   A PA PD D

44. My principal makes a real effort to
maintain close contact with the faculty   A PA PD D

45. Our principal's leadership in faculty
meetings challenges and stimulates
our professional growth   A PA PD D

46. Teaching gives me a great deal of
personal satisfaction   A PA PD D

47. Teaching enables me to make my
greatest contribution to society   A PA PD D

48. I love to teach   A PA PD D

49. If I could plan my career again, I
would choose teaching   A PA PD D

50. I would recommend teaching as an
occupation to students of high scholastic ability   A PA PD D

51. If I could earn as much money in
another occupation, I would stop teaching   A PA PD D

52. My principal makes my work easier
and more pleasant   A PA PD D

53. My school principal understands and
recognizes good teaching procedure   A PA PD D

54. The lines and methods of communica-
tion between teachers and the princi-
pal in our school are well developed and maintained   A PA PD D

55. Our principal shows a real interest in
my department   A PA PD D

56. Our principal promotes a sense of
belonging among the teachers in our school   A PA PD D

57. I find my contacts with students, for
the most part, highly satisfying and rewarding   A PA PD D

58. I feel that I am an important part of
this school system   A PA PD D

59. My principal has a reasonable
understanding of the problems connected
with my teaching assignment   A PA PD D

60. I feel successful and competent in my
present position   a PA PD D

DIRECTIONS FOR RECORDING RESPONSES ON
OPIONAIRE

Read each statment, carefully. Then indicate whether you aree,
probable agree, probable disagree, or disagree with each statment.
Mark your answers in the following manner:

61. I enjoy working with student organiza-
tions, clubs, and societies   A PA PD D

62. I am at a disadvantage professionally
because other teachers are better pre-
pared to teach than I am   A PA PD D

63. As far as I know, the other teachers
think I am a good teacher   A PA PD D

64. My principal acts as though he is
interested in me & my problems   A PA PD D

65. The "stress & strain" resulting from
teaching makes teaching undesirable
for me   A PA PD D

66. I do not hesitate to discuss any
school problem   A PA PD D

67. My school principal supervises rather
than "snoopervises" the teachers in our school   A PA PD D

68. I really enjoy working with my students   A PA PD D

69. To me there is no more challenging
work than teaching   A PA PD D

70. My students appreciate the help I give
them with their school work   A PA PD D

71. I feel that my work is judged fairly by
my principal   A PA PD D

72. Most of the actions of the students
irritate me   A PA PD D

73. My students regard me with respect &
seem to have confidence in my prof ability   A PA PD D

74. My principal is concerned with the
problems of the faculty and handles these
problems sympathetically   A PA PD D

75. Teacher's meeting as now conducted by
our principal waste the time & energy of the staff   A PA PD D

76. As a teacher, I think I am as competent
as most other teachers   A PA PD D

77. My principal tries to make me feel com-
fortable when he visits my classes   A PA PD D

78. My principal makes effective use of the
individual teacher's capacity & talent   A PA PD D

79. I am well satisfied with my present
teaching position   A PA PD D

80. Teachers feel free to go to the principal
about problems of personal & group welfare   A PA PD D

APPENDIX B

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONAIRE

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DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

1. Does personal favors for group members.	A	B	C	D	E
2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.	A	B	C	D	E
3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Acts as the real leader of the group.	A	B	C	D	E
6. Is easy to understand.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Rules with an iron hand.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Finds time to listen to group members.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Criticizes poor work.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Gives advance notice of changes.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Keeps to himself/herself.	A	B	C	D	E
13. Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Assigns group members to particular tasks.	A	B	C	D	E
15. Is the spokesperson of the group.	A	B	C	D	E
16. Schedules the work to be done.	A	B	C	D	E
17. Maintains definite standards of performance.	A	B	C	D	E
18. Refuses to explain his/her actions.	A	B	C	D	E

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19. Keeps the group informed.   A   B   C   D   E

20. Acts without consulting the group.   A   B   C   D   E

21. Backs up the members in their actions.   A   B   C   D   E

22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.   A   B   C   D   E

23. Treats all group members as his/her equals.   A   B   C   D   E

24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.   A   B   C   D   E

25. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors.   A   B   C   D   E

26. Is willing to make changes.   A   B   C   D   E

27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood
    by group members.   A   B   C   D   E

28. Is friendly and approachable.   A   B   C   D   E

29. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.   A   B   C   D   E

30. Fails to take necessary action.   A   B   C   D   E

31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.   A   B   C   D   E

32. Lets group members know what is expected of them.   A   B   C   D   E

33. Speaks as the representative of the group.   A   B   C   D   E

34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation.   A   B   C ·D   E

35. Sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.   A   B   C   D   E

36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group.   A   B   C   D   E

37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.   A   B   C   D   E

38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.   A   B   C   D   E

39. Sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.   A   B   C   D   E

40. Keeps the group working together as a team.   A   B   C   D   E

APPENDIX C

PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

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Principal Interview Questions

1. How do you make an effort to maintain communication with all members of your faculty?

2. Do you feel the morale of the faculty at your school is high, middle, or low?

3. How do you include the faculty's in-put in decisions made at your school?

4. Would you describe yourself as an autocratic, democratic, or laissez faire leader?

5. How do you show your teachers that you are genuinely concerned about them?

6. How do you offer assistance to teachers' whose performance in the classroom is less than desirable?

7. Do you operate under the "open-door" policy? If yes, explain how. If no, why not?

8. How do you actively seek the ideas of faculty members concerning school issues?

9. Do you feel that the teachers at your school feel comfortable coming to you with problems, concerns, and assistance? Explain.

10. How do you recognize and reward the outstanding accomplishments of your faculty?

11. How do you allow teacher's the freedom to make their own decisions in their classroom?

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APPENDIX D

CONSENT LETTERS FOR THE PURDUE TEACHER
OPINIONAIRE AND THE LEADER BEHAVIOR
DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

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PURDUE RESEARCH FOUNDATION

**DIVISION OF
SPONSORED PROGRAMS**

April 9, 1997

Bob Webber
410 Summerset Drive
Monroe, LA 71203

Dear Mr. Webber:

This is in response to your request to reprint The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire and accompanying Manual, by Ralph R. Bentley and Averno M. Rempel.

Purdue Research Foundation hereby grants you permission at no charge to reprint this material with the appropriate acknowledgment: Copyright, Purdue Research Foundation, West Lafayette, IN 47907.

If our office can be of further assistance please let us know.

Sincerely,

Douglas S. Curry
Licensing Associate

DSC/pjh

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FISHER

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

BUSINESS RESEARCH

January 30, 1998

Mr. Robert W. Webber
410 Somerset Drive
Monroe, LA 71203
(318)343-4744

Dear Mr. Webber,

In response to your request, we grant you permission to use the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire(1957) for use for your dissertation. We understand that you will not use the instrument for promotional activities or for producing income.

Enclosed you will find your 300 copies of the LBDQ(1957) along with the manual and statement of policy. If you have any further questions, please to not hesitate to write or call.

Sincerely,

Micah E. McCready

Micah E. McCready

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APPENDIX E

HUMAN SUBJECT CONSENT FORM

.

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LOUISIANA TECH
U N I V E R S I T Y

MEMORANDUM

TO: Dr. Randy Parker
                Robert Webber
                Doctoral Student, LEC Consortium

FROM: Deby Hamm, Graduate School

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: March 16, 1998

In order to facilitate your project, an **EXPEDITED REVIEW** has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"The effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher morale in north Louisiana secondary schools"

Proposal # 1-MA

The proposed study procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Further, the subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary.

Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study.

If you have any questions, please give me a call at 257-2924.

APPENDIX F

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

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PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Research: The Effects of the Principals' Leadership Style on Teacher Morale in North Louisiana Secondary Schools.

Purpose of the Study: This study will explore the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher morale in fourteen north Louisiana secondary schools. The information obtained in this study will be used as partial fulfillment of a doctorate degree through the Louisiana Educational Consortium. Names of all the participants and schools will remain confidential.

Procedure: After schools are randomly selected each participant is asked to participate in the research voluntarily. Samples will be given the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ), to measure leadership style, and the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO), to measure the morale among faculty members. The teachers will be asked to complete the two surveys by making their responses on computer answer sheets. The principals will also be interviewed by the researcher. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete and the principal interview will require about 10 minutes.

Risks/Alternative Treatments: There are no known potential risks to the participants in this study. The identity of the subjects will be carefully safeguarded. Participation is voluntary and unauthorized access will be carefully guarded. Participation involves the two surveys (LBDQ and the PTO) and there are no alternate treatments.

Benefits/Compensation: Participation in this study will add to the body of knowledge concerning the principal's leadership style and teacher morale. There will be no financial compensation.

Contact Information: The researchers listed below may be reached to answer questions about the research, subjects' rights, or related matters:

Robert Webber,   Dr. Randy Parker
Doctoral Student, LEC Consortium   Major Professor
410 Somerset Drive   College of Education
Monroe, Louisiana 71203   Louisiana Tech Univ.
(318) 343-4744   (318) 257-3712
(318) 345-5100

The Human Subjects Committee of Louisiana Tech University may also be contacted if a problem cannot be discussed with the researchers:

**Dr. Terry McConathy (318) 257-2924 Dr. Mary Livingston (318) 257-4315
Mrs. Debbie Hamm (318) 257-2924**

I,_____, attest with my signature that I have read and understood the description above of the study, "The Effects of the Principals' Leadership Style on Teacher Morale in North Louisiana Secondary School," its purposes and methods. I understand that my participation in this research is strictly voluntary and my participation or refusal to participate in this study will not affect my relationship with Louisiana Tech University in any way. Further, I understand that the results will be freely available to me upon request. I understand that the results of my participation will be confidential, accessible only to the researchers, myself, or a legally appointed representative. I have not been requested to waive my rights related to participating in this study.

_____   _____
Signature of Participant   Date

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APPENDIX G

SUPERINTENDENT CONSENT FORM

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Robert Webber
410 Somerset
Monroe, LA 71203

January 20, 1998

Dear Superintendent,

I am a doctorate student in the Louisiana Educational Consortium home-based at Louisiana Tech University. I am presently working on my dissertation. The topic involves the effects of the principals' leadership style on teacher morale. The instruments being used are the <u>Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire</u> (LBDQ) and the <u>Purdue Teacher Opinionaire</u> (PTO). Short (10 minute) interviews will also be conducted with each school principal.

I am requesting permission to involve the faculty members and principals at one or two of the high schools in your district. I am also requesting permission to include demographic data for those people participating in the study. Since knowledge of the identity of the participating teachers and principals is of no value to my study, all precautions will be taken to protect the privacy of the subjects. Upon completion of the study, I would be happy to share the results of the study.

I hope to complete the testing in February of 1998, I will conduct principal interviews during that period and each teacher will receive a copy of the LBDQ and the PTO.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

Yours truly,

Robert Webber
Principal, Ouachita Junior High

_____ Yes, You have my permission to conduct your research in my school system.

_____
Signature

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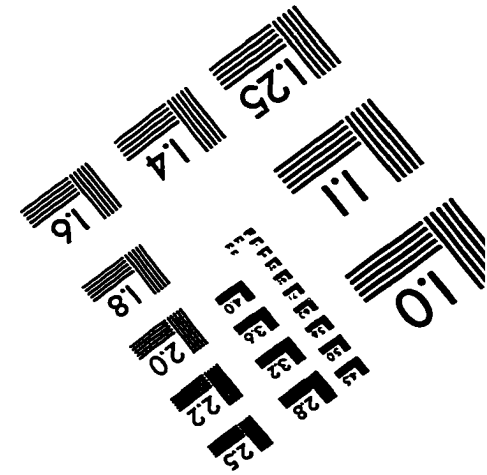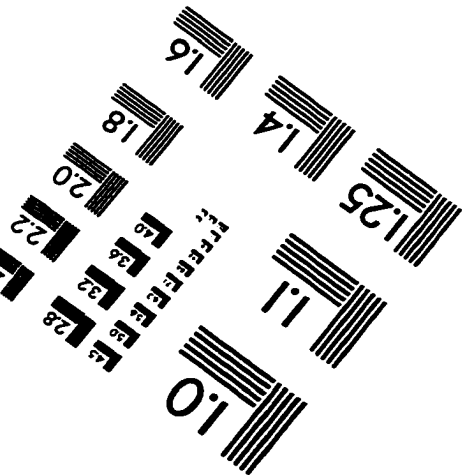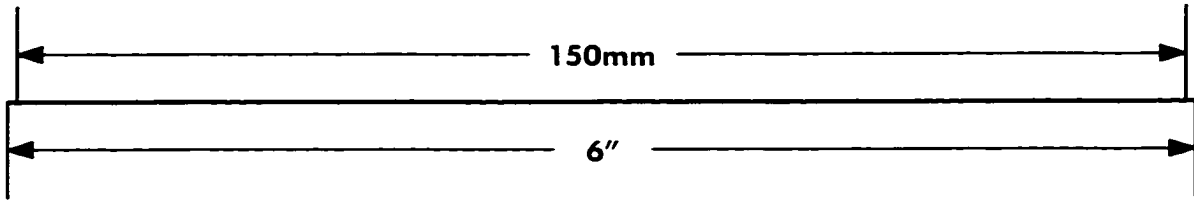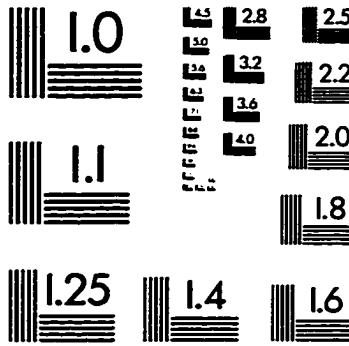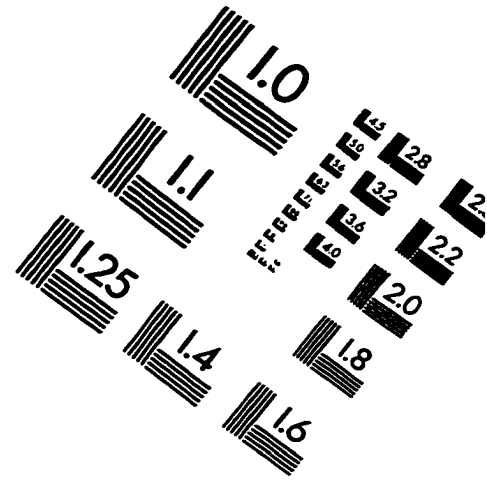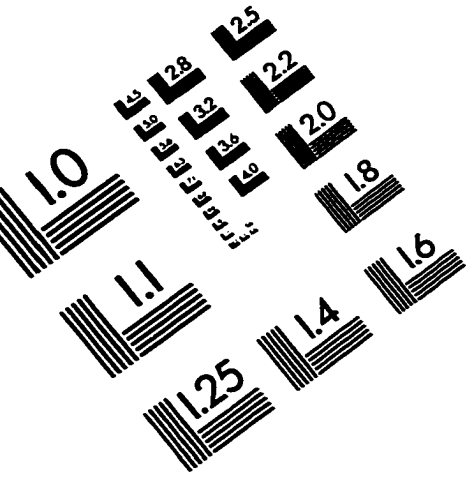
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IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (QA-3)

1.0
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