

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A PRINCIPAL'S
SELF-PERCEIVED LEADER STYLE
AND
SELF-PERCEIVED JOB STRESS

DISSERTATION

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by

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Proponents of school effectiveness have shown considerable interest in the effectiveness of America's public schools through publications such as A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), A Place Called School (Goodlad, 1984), and Action For Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools (Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983). In this literature, many researchers agree that the principal is the most important individual in influencing the improvement of instructional programs and educational experiences for students (Halpin, 1966; Brieve, 1972; Byrne, Hines, & McCleary, 1978; Goodlad, 1979; Neagley & Evans, 1980; Daniel, 1981; Lipham, 1981; Hay, 1980; Sweeny, 1982; Cedoline, 1982; Hodgkinson, 1982; Murphy 1983; Troisi, 1983; Beasley, 1984). Miller (1976) and Lipham (1981)

found that principal performance can affect teacher performance either positively or negatively. When effective principal leadership is absent, teacher performance is typically poorer than when effective principal leadership is present (Sweeny, 1982; Freed & Sheppard, 1983). Mize further determined that good principal/teacher relationships foster high student achievement. Research by Felsenthal (1982), Goodlad (1979), U. S. Congress, Senate Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity (1970), Sweeny (1982), and Freed & Sheppard (1983) determined that strong leadership from the principal is the most crucial variable to a school's effectiveness. Felsenthal's (1982) findings indicated that the results of strong principal leadership can be observed through improvements in school climate, school/student expectations, academic standards, and parent/school relations.

The effectiveness of the school may be jeopardized when a principal experiences self-perceived job stress. Boenisch (1983) determined that statistically significant relationships exist between different levels of job stress and leader style. He also found that an individual's leader style influenced the level of perceived job stress. Gmelch, (1977); Stewart, (1980); Vanderpol, (1981); and Brimm,

(1983) determined that inordinate levels of self-perceived job stress over prolonged periods of time may adversely affect the principal's health and psychological status. Howard (1975), Anderson (1976), Gmelch (1983), and Conaway & Coleman (1984) also stated that prolonged stress levels lead to the deterioration of the principal's job performance, which, in turn, has a negative rippling effect upon the environment and effectiveness of the entire school.

In publications related to school effectiveness, researchers further reported that school effectiveness can be correlated with many variables. Among those variables examined, a positive correlation was found between school effectiveness and various characteristics of school climate and instructional management (Murphy, 1983). Parental involvement, community involvement, facilities, goals, instruction, staff, students, and leadership roles are among the school climate and instructional management variables that can be manipulated for school improvement (Westbrook, 1982).

Leadership

For several decades the leadership function has been a perplexing phenomenon. This phenomenon has

captured the interest of many scholars and researchers who attempted to define and explain its meaning. Their attempts resulted in a lack of consensus about the meaning of leadership and also resulted in the postulation of several leadership theories. Three of the more notable leadership theories are 1) the great man or trait theory, 2) the behavior theory, and 3) the situational theory (Bavelas, 1959; Bennis, 1959; Scott, 1967; Michaelson, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Yukl, 1982).

Leadership Theories

The great man or trait theory of leadership encompassed the concept that a few superior people are born to be leaders. Researchers studied the lives of outstanding people in an attempt to isolate and identify variables related to success (Scott, 1967; Bass, 1981). This theory of leadership emphasized the idea that leaders were endowed with certain traits which differentiated them from the masses of average people (Sisk, 1969; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; House & Baetz, 1979; Bass, 1981; Yukl, 1982). In an effort to determine which leadership traits were related to effectiveness, study groups were separated into those

who were perceived as being non-leaders, ineffective leaders, and effective leaders. Researchers then compared the various traits characterized within each group to determine those that were desirable for producing or choosing effective leaders (Scott, 1967). However, this theory had inherent weaknesses. Two of the weaknesses of the trait theory were that there was no agreement on a set of best traits for all situations and that situational factors were not considered (Sisk, 1969; Reddin, 1970). Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 trait studies conducted during the period from 1904 to 1948 and determined that individual traits failed to correspond with leadership effectiveness in a strong and consistent manner. Thus, before the beginning of World War II, the trait theory had decreased in importance as a research topic (Shartle, 1951). However, business and industry continued to use trait theory concepts to improve managerial selection and promotion (Yukl, 1981). Stogdill's 1974 review of trait studies revealed that trait research was useful when predicting who would be a more effective leader rather than what traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders. The modern understanding of the trait theory of leadership is more balanced in that certain traits may increase but do not guarantee the likelihood

that a leader will be effective. It is further understood by scholars that these traits, which may increase the ability to predict effective leaders, are situationally dependent (Yukl, 1981).

Near the end of World War II, several large-scale research programs on leadership were being developed and implemented (Korman, 1966). Research done at The Ohio State University, the University of Michigan and Harvard University, emerged as the core of current leadership ideology and research (Reddin, 1970). The research at the three universities utilized the main concepts of Taylor's (1912/1970) scientific management theory and Mayo's (1945/1970a & 1970b) work regarding the human relations theory as the basic beginning for their studies. The findings of the leadership studies emanating from these three universities were not only similar to each other but the researchers at all three institutions also theorized that there were two dimensions of leader behavior (Reddin, 1967; Reddin, 1970). One dimension of leader behavior, task orientation, emphasized production or the formal goals of the organization (scientific or classical management theory), and the other, relations orientation, emphasized the workers needs or interpersonal relationships within the organization (human relations

management theory) (Halpin, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Reddin, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Bass, 1981; Reddin, 1970). However, there was a difference in how the interaction was interpreted. Researchers at Harvard University interpreted the two dimensions as being separate, researchers at the University of Michigan interpreted them as being on a single continuum, and researchers at The Ohio State University interpreted them as being on two separate but connected axes (Reddin, 1967; Reddin, 1970).

The Ohio State University researchers also began testing hypotheses concerning situational aspects of leader behavior (Shartle, 1957). The situational theory of leadership maintained that leadership was determined in large part by the demands of a particular situation (Bavelas, 1951; Shartle, 1957; Scott, 1967; Hollander, 1971; Litterer, 1973; Yukl, 1982). Thus, a leader in one situation may not be a leader in another situation (Scott, 1967).

Hersey & Blanchard's (1975; 1977) life cycle theory of leadership was another concept of the situational theory of leadership. The life cycle theory was a behavioral theory which proposed that the style of leadership utilized in a particular situation should be a function of the maturity of the individuals

being supervised. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1975; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). It was also a leadership effectiveness theory which synthesized Argyris' (1957) maturity-immaturity continuum theory, Blake & Mouton's (1964; 1985) Managerial Grid® and Reddin's (1970) 3-D management style theory (Bass, 1981). The life cycle theory is of particular interest to this study because it clearly links the maturity-immaturity, effectiveness, ineffectiveness descriptors with the leader styles presented by the above theories. In addition, the theory provides a means of measuring self-perceived leader style in combinations of task/relations behaviors.

Perceived Job Stress

Perceptions

Perceptions are influenced by an individual's past experiences. These past experiences assist in the determination of what an individual perceives in a current situation (Likert, 1961; Gmelch, 1977; Ragland & Saxon, 1985). Maslow & Mintz (1956) also indicated that the situation a person is in greatly influences the individual's perception of events. In addition, an

individual's perception of events is influenced by his needs and moods (Ragland & Saxon, 1985). Therefore, when an individual whose past experiences, needs, and moods evaluates a situation or event and perceives it as being a stressor, the stress that results is real to the individual even though self-imposed. Miller (1979) also pointed out that stress is self-imposed and/or derived from a combination of situational factors (Miller, 1979). Consequently, current experiences, needs, moods, and the situation itself become part of past experiences which may modify and enrich the individual's basic formulation of perceptual framework. Therefore, no two individuals perceive things in exactly the same manner (Likert, 1961; Gmelch, 1977; Ragland & Saxon, 1985).

A manager's behavior in any given situation will be influenced by the many forces operating within the individual's perceptual framework and the situation and the individual will perceive leadership problems based upon his or her background, knowledge, and experiences. Several of the important internal forces affecting the manager in the situation will be: "1) His value system 2) His confidence in his subordinates 3) His own leadership inclinations and 4) His feelings of security in an uncertain situation" (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958,

p. 98). Gmelch (1983) stated that "...the effectiveness of job performance depends upon three conditions: (1) Our state of arousal or stimulation, (2) Our talents and capabilities to meet the challenges of management, and (3) the difficulty or nature of the workload we have to achieve" (p. 9).

Stress

Stress is defined in several ways: "...the body's nonspecific response to any demand placed upon it, whether that demand is pleasant or not" (Selye, 1976, p. 29); "...the response the body makes to any unusual demand, whether that demand results from pleasant or unpleasant experience" (Stewart, 1980, p. 17); "...any perceived event that causes a demand upon one's mind or body. The stressor can be physical or psychological, actual or imagined" (Cedoline, 1982, p. 1).

Individuals respond, psychologically, to stress in four ways:

- 1) Fight (Selye, 1956; Gmelch, 1977; Stewart, 1980).
- 2) Flee (Selye, 1956; Gmelch, 1977; Stewart, 1980).
- 3) Freeze (Gmelch, 1977).
- 4) Learn (Gmelch, 1977; Ragland & Saxon, 1985).

Selye (1956) further defined a stressor as "...that which produces stress" (p. 64). Stress is then classified into two categories: Eustress, which is beneficial or positive and Distress, which is harmful or negative (Selye, 1956; Selye, 1976; Carlton & Brown, 1981). For a particular event or demand to generate distress, that event or demand must be perceived as being inimical to the individual's well-being (Gmelch, 1977; Giammatteo & Giammatteo, 1980; Brimm, 1983). In researching the literature for this project, it was found that researchers rarely mentioned eustress and mainly addressed the distress category of stress as "stress". In deference to this and the common practice of using stress as meaning distress, the two terms, stress and distress, will be used interchangeably in this paper and eustress will be specifically identified where applicable.

Effects of Stress

When excessive stress is present over a prolonged period of time, the weakest part of the body is most affected and damaged (Selye, 1956; Stewart, 1980). Some primary symptoms of stress are feelings of tension, frustration, insomnia, short temper, excessive

indulgence in alcoholic beverages, food, or smoking, and various aches and pains in the joints, neck or back (Jacobson, 1962; Stewart, 1980; Vanderpol, 1981).

Physical problems which have been linked to stress include high blood pressure, migraine headaches, back problems, digestive disorders, circulatory disease, ulcers, heart disease, and cancer (Vanderpol, 1981; Stewart, 1980). Carlton & Brown (1981) stated that as a result of on the job stress, there has been a 17 billion dollar decrease in productive worker capacity in the United states. Carlton & Brown (1981) also pointed out that coronary heart disease "accounts for the deaths of over 700,000 Americans annually, 200,000 of whom are younger than sixty-five. Clearly, these statistics include a number of building principals" (p. 10).

Administrator Stress

The school principalship is considered by Stewart (1980), Piatt (1981), and Cedoline (1982) to be a moderately high to high stress occupation. This is because of the principal's hierarchical position within the school organization. The public school principalship is hierarchically located between central office supervisors and subordinates at the local school which

categorizes it as a middle management position (Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand, 1977; Cedoline, 1982). Perham (1972) deduced that middle managers experienced the most stress in an organization and Cedoline (1982) stated that the principal experienced the most stress in the school system. According to Swent & Gmelch (1977), Stewart (1980), Brimm (1981), Piatt (1981), a difficult or heavy workload is one of several administrator stressors.

When a stressor such as a heavy workload is perceived by the administrator as being negative, his or her physical and psychological health may be adversely affected if the stress is perceived over a prolonged period of time (Gmelch, 1977; Stewart, 1980; Vanderpol, 1981; Brimm, 1983).

A list of administrator stressors which have been identified by various researchers follows:

- 1) Complying with policies (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Brimm, 1981; Vanderpol, 1981).
- 2) Completing reports and paperwork on time (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Brimm, 1981).
- 3) Time consuming meetings (Swent & Gmelch, 1977).
- 4) Parent/school conflicts (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Washington, 1980; Brimm, 1981; Erez & Goldstein, 1981).

- 5) Evaluation of staff members (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Brimm, 1981; Vanderpol, 1981).
- 6) Self-imposed high standards (Swent & Gmelch, 1977).
- 7) Interrupting telephone calls (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Giammatteo & Giammatteo, 1980; Brimm, 1981).
- 8) Role conflicts (Kahn, Wolf, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964; Brief, 1980; Brimm, 1981; Erez & Goldstein, 1981; Lipham, 1983).
- 9) Increased administrative responsibility (Hendrickson, 1979; Brown & Carlton, 1980; Vanderpol, 1981).

Tung & Koch's (1980) review of stress literature indicated that "...there is a plethora of analytically independent sources of stress, implying the multi-dimensionality of the construct" (p. 63). Their study sought to develop an instrument that would specifically measure school administrators' job-related stress while taking the multi-dimensionality of the stress construct into consideration. Tung & Koch (1980) tested Swent & Gmelch's (1977) original 35 item Administrative Stress Index (ASI) using a varimax rotation procedure and found that 25 of Swent & Gmelch's (1977) original 35 items clustered around four dimensions of job stress and were identified as task based stress (TB), role

based stress (RB), conflict mediating stress (CM), and boundary spanning stress (BS). Of the nine administrator stressors previously identified, Completing Reports and Paperwork on Time (2), Time Consuming Meetings (3), and Interrupting Telephone Calls (7) are included in the task based stress (TB) dimension; Self-imposed High Standards (6), Role Conflicts (8), and Increased Administrative Responsibility (9) are included in the role based stress (RB) dimension; Parent/School Conflicts (4) is included in the conflict mediating stress (CM) dimension; and Complying with Policies (1), and Evaluation of Staff Members (5) are included in the boundary spanning stress (BS) dimension.

Through their statistical manipulation Tung & Koch (1980) also determined that the revised ASI instrument measured the multi-dimensionality of job stress. This determination is consistent with recent theoretical treatments of job stress (McGrath, 1976; Tung & Koch, 1980; Daresh, 1986). The revised ASI was used to measure the perceived job stress variable in this study because it measured the multi-dimensionality of the job stress variable and it was specifically designed to measure school administrator's perceived job stress.

Significance of the Study

When a principal's performance is ineffective, there may be an adverse rippling effect within the school. The principal's performance may directly affect all aspects of the local school organization and this ineffective performance may equate to an improper and ineffective school environment. One of several situational moderators which affect leader performance is stress (Korman, 1966; Gorton, 1982). Wilson (1962) reasoned that since stress in business executives has attracted nation-wide attention, stress in school principals should have, at least, equal consideration. Brimm (1983) further stated that "...presently, there is little research which has been completed on the perceptions that educational administrators have on stress related to their jobs" (p. 65). This indicates a need to examine the relationships between a principal's perceived leader style and perceived job stress. This study could provide answers to basic questions concerning job stress and leadership. The findings of these relationships could also indicate the nature of and direction for future studies when examining leadership and/or job stress. The study results may also be used by principals to seek new and innovative ways to improve

themselves. These self-improvements could then be reflected through:

- 1) An improved local school environment and organization.
- 2) A healthier workplace for human beings.
- 3) A more efficient attainment of stated goals.

Superintendents could use the results of this study to provide information about leader style and stress to principals within their school systems. Workshops and seminars could be arranged to inform principals about stress management, stress coping techniques, and the relationship leader style has with job stress. Superintendents would also be able to make more informed decisions about principal/position matches which would result in a higher degree of potential effectiveness.

The information presented in this study could also be incorporated into educational administration graduate training programs to further inform administrators about the relationship between leader style and job stress. Graduate training programs could also provide training to administrators in areas such as determining leader style, anticipating or understanding potential physiological and psychological problems which are associated with administrator job stress and leader styles.

Statement of the Problem

This study attempts to answer the question: "What is the relationship between a principal's perceived leader style and perceived job-related stress?"

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1.

There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between the principal's self-perceived leader style and the principal's self-perceived job stress.

Hypothesis 2.

There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between elementary principals' self-perceived job stress and secondary principals' self-perceived job stress.

Hypothesis 3.

There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between principals' self-perceived

leader style, self-perceived job stress and self-reported demographics.

Operational Definitions

Elementary School Principal: The certified professional who is employed by the local West Virginia public school system as the school-level chief administrator for public schools which are organized in the K-6 grade configuration.

Secondary School Principal: The certified professional who is employed by the local West Virginia public school system as the school-level chief administrator for public schools which are organized in the 7-12, 7-9 and 10-12 grade configurations.

Leader Style: The perceived degree of task/relations behavior an administrator would apply to a job situation and is determined by responses to Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description-Self (LEAD-Self).

Job Stress: The stress that is perceived by the principal in performing his daily work activities. Job stress is composed of four dimensions of

stress (task based, role based, conflict mediating, and boundary spanning) which are determined by responses to Tung & Koch's (1980) revised Administrative Stress Index (ASI).

Limitations

1. Random stratified samples of elementary and secondary school principals were chosen from a culled list of operationally defined Elementary and Secondary schools derived from the 1985-1986 West Virginia Education Directory (1986). Inaccuracies may exist with respect to current addresses, principals' names and grade configurations.

2. The mailed questionnaire survey's central difficulties lie with its low return rate (Wallace, 1954; Van Dalen, 1962; Travers, 1969; Kerlinger, 1973) and an inability to verify instrument responses (Kerlinger, 1973).

3. Fixed alternative items may irritate respondents who cannot find a suitable alternative response. These types of items may also force responses which conceal ignorance, do not accurately represent true opinions or facts and may be superficial (Kerlinger, 1973).

4. The accuracy of the study findings are limited to the individual respondent's perceptions of the questionnaires and the individual respondent's resulting answers. Identical questions frequently have different meanings for different individuals (Wallace, 1954; Van Dalen, 1962; Kerlinger, 1973).

5. The study findings are limited by the reliability and validity of the instruments utilized.

6. Generalizing the findings of this study outside of the representativeness of this study population, as defined in Chapter I, should be performed with care.

7. The study was restricted to principals who were administrators for schools having the elementary and secondary school configurations that are operationally defined in this chapter.

CHAPTER II

Related Literature

Overview

A 1970 report by the U. S. Senate Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity determined that the principal's leadership within the school is an important variable. It stated:

In many ways the school principal is the most important and influential individual in any school. He is the person responsible for all the activities that occur in and around the school building. It is his leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for learning, the level of professionalism and morale of teachers, and the degree of concern for what students may or may not become. He is the main link between the school and the community and the way he performs in the capacity largely determines the attitudes of students and parents about the school. If a school

is a vibrant, innovative, child-centered place; if it has a reputation for excellence in teaching; if students are performing to the best of their ability one can almost always point to the principal's leadership as the key to success.

(U. S. Congress, Senate Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity, 1970, p. 305)

Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand (1977) stated that "The individual school is the center for all teaching and learning. In any given neighborhood the effectiveness of the local school may be the criterion by which people judge the effectiveness of the entire school system. Hence the principal is a key person in the administrative organization" (p. 240).

The principal's hierarchical position within the school organization is that of middle management. He or she is the individual who frequently interacts with the central office personnel, teachers, parents, students, and people from other factions and groups outside of as well as inside the school setting (Erez & Goldstein, 1981; Cedoline, 1982; Strother, 1983). This position is considered by Albrecht (1979) to be the most frustrating position in an organization due to the many demands required of it. The principal and middle management positions are also viewed by Stewart (1980), Carlton & Brown (1981) and Piatt (1981) as high stress

occupations because of the inherent frustrations and demands of the position. However, Cedoline (1982) and Ragland & Saxon (1985) related that just as all humans are different hereditarily, mentally and physically, everyone perceives events and situations differently. Womack, Mundt, and Reinking (1981) stated that during periods of stress, an individual's perception and understanding of a given situation will be altered.

This individual difference in perception leads to individual perceptions of stressful situations and individual thresholds of stress (Gmelch, 1982; Cedoline, 1982; Brimm, 1983; LaGreca, 1985). Stress not only affects the individual's health but it also has an enormous impact upon the entire organization. The monetary costs of stress to organizations is in the billions of dollars (McGaffey, 1978; Carlton & Brown, 1981; Wallis, 1983). These costs are incurred through lost performance, absenteeism, employee turnover, inefficiency, medical expenses related to heart disease, and sudden death (McGaffey, 1978; Carlton & Brown, 1981; Piatt, 1981; Wallis, 1983; Monagan, 1986).

Hendrickson (1979) and Cedoline (1982) related that an additional cost to school organizations is the loss of a principal's potential productivity. At a time when the principal's experience, expertise and insight should be paying off to the school organization, stress

burnout becomes a major factor in the delivery of poor quality performance. The principal's attitude, self-concept and performance directly affects the performance and effectiveness of other individuals within the school organization (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1982; Houlihan, 1983). Miller (1976), Lipham (1981) and Houlihan (1983) further added that this level of performance permeates the entire school organization and affects not only teacher performance but student performance as well. Therefore, anything that affects the principal's or the school organization's effectiveness should be investigated to determine answers to basic questions (Korman, 1966; Gorton, 1982).

Several leadership researchers determined that for a leader to be effective, the individual's leader style must be adapted to correspond with a particular situation (Hill, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Freed & Sheppard, 1983). Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand (1977) pointed out that selecting and utilizing a less effective leader style could eventually cause additional stress and further misinterpretations. Argyris (1957) and Hersey & Blanchard (1977) stated that a correct diagnosis of a situation is necessary to determine which leader style will be the most effective for a given situation. However, a correct situational diagnosis may be in jeopardy during times of stress.

The following pages are devoted to the related literature on the topics of organizations, leadership, perceived job stress, and related research.

Organizations

Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand (1977) stated that a school district is a formal organization. Organizations are defined as "A system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons" (Barnard, 1948, p. 81); "...two or more persons interacting within a recognized power relationship for some common purpose" (Tagliere, 1973, p. 3); "...a social unit within which people have achieved somewhat stable relations...among themselves in order to facilitate obtaining a set of objectives or goals" (Litterer, 1963, p. 5); or "...a group of people bound together in a formal relationship to achieve organizational goals" (Sisk, 1969, p. 239). These definitions are similar in that they contain the same elements of people in an organized setting striving to accomplish a shared purpose or objective.

The fundamental assumptions that the leaders or managers of an organization espouse in regard to the nature of the work to be performed and the employees in the work situation are known as theories of

organization (Sisk, 1969). These theories are important to the organizational entity for they determine the structure of and the methods utilized by the organization to accomplish its objectives. The theoretical framework that accentuates work or tasks to be accomplished is known as the production emphasis theory. The framework that accentuates people as the central theme of the organization is known as human relations theory (Scott, 1967; Sisk, 1969; Steinmetz & Todd, 1975; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Hersey & Blanchard (1977) stated that the production emphasis theory and the human relations theory are the two earliest schools of organizational ideology. Both organizational theories have several things in common, such as:

- 1) The organizational entity is operating to achieve an organizational goal.
- 2) People are the agents that achieve the formal organizational goals.
- 3) Organizations are a means for people to satisfy motivational needs.
- 4) The unity of various sub-systems within an organization into a whole is achieved through some form of management or leadership.

Leadership

Leadership, one of the three basic elements of an organization (Tagliere, 1973), is defined as "...the process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner" (Bennis, 1959, p. 295); "...the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1950, p. 4); "...a working relationship among members of a group, in which the leader acquires status through active participation and demonstration of his capacity for carrying cooperative tasks through to completion" (Bass, 1981, p. 81); "...the accomplishment of organizational objectives as the result of interpersonal relationships with other members of the group" (Sisk, 1969, p. 391).

Leadership, according to Selznick (1957), defines the organization's role and mission, infuses the organization with value and identity, and shapes the character of the organization. When an organization is infused with value, it becomes an institution. The leader's function within the institution then becomes one of maintaining the institutional values and identity, protecting the institutional embodiment of purpose, and controlling internal conflicts while

ensuring that the institution's direction does not change.

Selznick's and several other theories have been postulated to explain leadership. These theories have been empirically tested, and then modified or discredited. Among the most notable of the theories are the trait theory, the behavior theory, and the situational theory (Bavelas, 1959; Bennis, 1959; Scott, 1967; Michaelsen, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Yukl, 1982).

The trait theory of leadership is one of the earliest attempts to identify any distinctive physical or psychological characteristic of an individual that relates to or explains why the individual was a leader (House & Baetz, 1979; Yukl, 1982). This idea of leadership was based upon the premise that great leaders possessed certain traits. Researchers compared traits of individuals who were classified as outstanding leaders and individuals who were classified as non-leaders in order to isolate and identify traits related to outstanding leadership (Scott, 1967; Bass, 1981). These identified traits could then be utilized in the selection and training of potential leaders (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Tead (1935) believed that individuals should possess ten specific traits to be an ideal leader. The ten attributes were physical and

nervous energy, a sense of purpose and direction, enthusiasm, friendliness and affection, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skill, and faith. However, all of these traits were not required of every leader in every situation. Other studies which attempted to discover the universal attributes of leaders generated extensive lists of traits. Scott (1967) reported that "In a study of just these kinds of lists some 17,000 one-word descriptions of leader qualities were assembled" (p. 210).

Early research based upon the trait theory of leadership has produced largely inconclusive results. Stogdill's 1948 review of 124 trait studies, which were performed between 1904 and 1948, determined that individual traits failed to consistently correspond with leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1981; Yukl, 1982).

Stogdill's 1974 review of trait studies, conducted between 1949 to 1970, related leader traits to leader effectiveness rather than on the comparison of leaders and nonleaders. "Today there is a more balanced viewpoint about traits. It is now recognized that certain traits increase the likelihood that a leader will be effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness, and the relative importance of different traits is

dependent on the nature of the leadership situation" (Yukl, 1981, p. 70).

Near the end of World War II, several large-scale research programs on leadership were being developed and implemented (Korman, 1966). These studies, by researchers at The Ohio State, Michigan, and Harvard Universities, represented the core of current leader behavior theory and research (Reddin, 1970).

The Ohio State University leadership studies were initiated to provide basic information about leadership theory. The researchers were interested in determining leader behavior rather than leader traits (Shartle, 1957) and determining the most basic dimensions which would accurately and adequately describe leader behavior (Korman, 1966). Their results indicated that leader behavior could be classified into two independent dimensions or factors termed initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Halpin, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Korman, 1966; Reddin, 1970). Because of their independence, the dimensions are drawn at right angles to each other (Reddin, 1970) (Figure 2.1). A leader's style can then be represented by plotting his or her exhibited initiating structure and consideration behavior within the enclosed area. As Reddin (1970) indicated, "This is a vital point for it means that a manager may be

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY'S LEADER DIMENSIONS



Figure 2.1

Source: Reddin, W. J. (1970). Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, Copyright© 1970, page 21. Reproduced by permission.

using much of both, little of both, much of one and little of the other, or any combination in varying degrees of these two factors" (p. 21).

The University of Michigan's Survey Research Center conducted leadership studies utilizing a variety of organizations (Kahn & Katz, 1960). Katz, Maccoby, & Morse (1950) completed the first leadership study which involved the home office of a large insurance company. A subsequent study by Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor

(1951) concerned supervisors of railroad right-of-way maintenance workers. The results of both these studies revealed that workers who were highly productive were found to be supervised by employee-centered managers who utilized general rather than close supervision techniques (Bass, 1981).

From these initial studies, the University of Michigan researchers identified two dimensions of leader or manager behavior. These dimensions were termed employee orientation and production orientation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Utilizing these findings and terms, the Michigan researchers also developed the Michigan style continuum (Reddin, 1970). This continuum is described as consisting of two extremes on a single scale. At one extreme is employee-centered behavior and at the other extreme is production-centered behavior (Figure 2.2). As a manager or leader exhibits more employee-centered behavior, the less production-centered behavior he or she can exhibit (Reddin, 1970). However, during the late 1950's Michigan University researchers changed their understanding of leader behavior to agree with The Ohio State University researcher's concept of production-centered and employee-centered dimensions as independent variables rather than a single continuum (Kahn, 1960).

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN'S STYLE CONTINUUM



Figure 2.2

Source: Reddin, W. J. (1970). Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, Copyright© 1970, page 22. Reproduced by permission.

Harvard University researchers such as Bales (1953) studied leadership in small experimental groups of college students. They determined that there were two distinct leaders in small groups. One leader, who was identified through his talking more and offering more suggestions than others, was termed the task leader. The other leader, or socioemotional leader, was identified as the individual who offered psychological support and made it easier for others to talk. Bales (1953) believed that the task leader and the socioemotional leader were two separate and different individuals and should be represented as two separate and unattached entities.

Reddin (1970) stated that the Harvard leadership studies contained limitations which restricted generalizing the findings to other populations. The researchers did not include any "managers" in their experiments. However, the results of the experiments were quite similar to research findings from the University of Michigan and The Ohio State University leadership studies. Researchers at the three universities determined that there were two dimensions of leader behavior, task orientation and relations orientation. One, task orientation (Classical Management), emphasized production or meeting the formal goals of the organization, and the other, relations orientation (Human Relations Management), emphasized the needs of the workers (Bass, 1981; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Reddin, 1970). Halpin (1966) further reinforced these findings in his review of early leadership studies when he determined that initiating structure (tasks) and consideration (relations) were fundamental dimensions of leader behavior. Other researchers and theorists have termed these two basic dimensions of leader behavior as follows:

- 1) Production and employee orientation (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse, 1950).

- 2) Goal achievement and group maintenance
(Cartwright & Zander, 1953).
- 3) Nomothetic and idiographic (Getzels and Guba,
1957).
- 4) Instrumental and expressive dimensions
(Parsons, 1951; Bales, 1953; Etzioni, 1961).
- 5) Employee centered and job centered (Likert,
1961).
- 6) System oriented and person oriented (Brown,
1967).
- 7) Task-oriented and relationship-oriented
dimensions (Fiedler, 1967).

The behavior theory of leadership is concerned with describing the nature of managerial work and/or determining differences in the behavior of effective leaders as compared to ineffective leaders. The information was accumulated from diaries, observational records and questionnaires (Yukl, 1982). Yukl also stated that the questionnaire is the most common method for gathering research information about leader behavior. The leader behavior research area has been dominated by methods and concepts which were developed from The Ohio State University leadership studies of the early 1950's (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Bass, 1981; Yukl, 1982). Yukl (1982)

believed that progress in the leader behavior research area has been slowed because of researchers' reliance on inaccurate measures and an inadequate conceptualization of leadership behavior and further stated that:

The various behavior taxonomies have differed considerably, and none of them have satisfied the need for a set of behavior categories that are comprehensive, relevant for leader effectiveness, applicable to different kinds of leaders, and capable of being measured with a variety of techniques, particularly questionnaires, diaries, observations, and classification of critical incidents (p. 16).

For some time, researchers have recognized a limitation to leader behavior research. Situational determinants had not been included in many studies (Litterer, 1973; Yukl, 1982). Tead (1935), Scott (1967), Hollander (1971), Litterer (1973), Miskel, (1974), Dunifon (1978), Bass (1981), and Yukl (1982) believed that leadership exists between people within situations and that a leader in one situation may not be a leader in another. Even though Selznick (1957) stated in his classical study of leadership "...it does not follow that the nature of leadership varies with each social situation" (p. 23), many authors and researchers stated that no single leader style seemed

to be effective in all situations (Argyris, 1957; Blau, 1968; Sisk, 1969; Reddin, 1970; Litterer, 1973; Tagliere, 1973; Miskel, 1974; Spiess, 1975; Dunifon, 1978; Perrow, 1979; Freed & Sheppard, 1983; Yukl, 1982). Hersey & Blanchard (1977) stated "When the style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when the style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed ineffective" (p. 105). Sisk (1969), Reddin (1970), Hill (1973), Tagliere (1973), Hersey & Blanchard (1977); Freed & Sheppard (1983), and Lipham (1983) concurred with this by stating that for a leader to be effective he must adapt leader style to match the situation. In this statement, the leader's ability to correctly diagnose the situation and utilize appropriate leadership behavior to respond to the current situation is implied.

For the past two decades, the situational theory has been the most recent trend of studying leadership (Yukl, 1982). Proponents of this theory attempted to identify any distinctive characteristics of individual situations which influenced a leader's behavior (Hoy & Miskel, 1982; Yukl, 1982). The main emphasis of this theory is upon the behavior of leaders in relation to followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Four of the more notable leadership theories are Blake & Mouton's (1964; 1985) Managerial Grid®,

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, Reddin's (1970) tri-dimensional effectiveness theory, and Hersey & Blanchard's (1975) situational leadership theory. These four theories addressed the task and relationship dimensions of leadership and, except for the contingency theory, also conceptualized these dimensions on two axes. Further, these theories held that leaders exhibit a wide variety of combinations of both dimensions.

Blake & Mouton's (1964; 1985) Managerial Grid theory postulated that the concern for production and concern for people dimensions are complementary and must be integrated in order to achieve efficient and effective performance (Blake, Mouton, & Williams, 1981). These two dimensions are also independent of each other, resulting in the possibility of a leader's style being depicted as high or low on both axis or any one of several other style combinations. Through the utilization of the Managerial Grid coordinates, there are 81 possible leader styles. These styles are generalized into five categories and labeled as the "impoverished" leader, the "authority-obedience" leader, the "team" leader, the "country club" leader, and the "organization man" leader (Figure 2.3).

The "impoverished" leader (1,1 style) is described as exhibiting low concern for people and low concern

BLAKE AND MOUTON'S MANAGERIAL GRID®

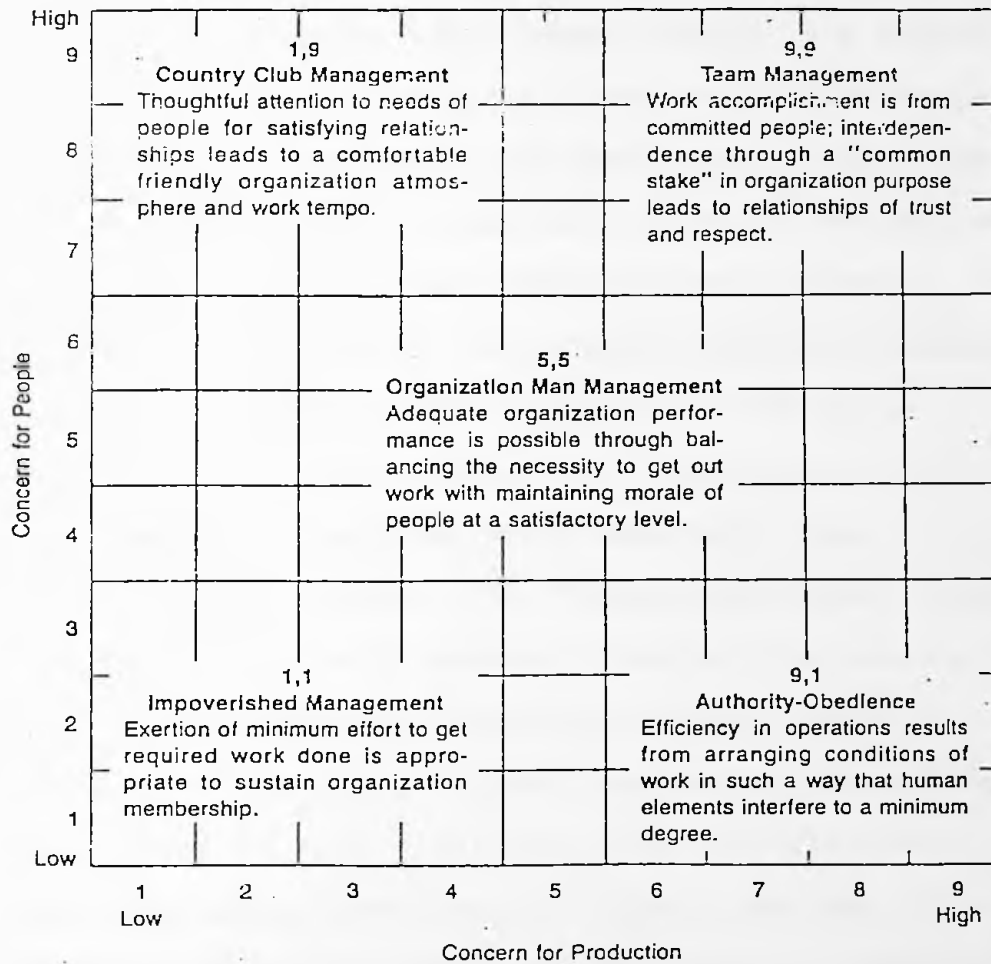


Figure 2.3

Source: Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1985). The Managerial Grid III: The Key to Leadership Excellence. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, Copyright© 1985, page 12. Reproduced by permission.

for production. People are assigned tasks and left alone. The "authority-obedience" leader (9,1 style) is described as being primarily concerned with task accomplishment. This leader style has little or no concern for people. The "team" leader (9,9 style) achieves institutional goals through the participation of organization members and their ideas. He or she fosters group unity, a personal sense of belonging and interdependence between organizational members. The "country club" leader (1,9 style) exhibits a maximum concern for people and a minimum concern for production. Worker morale and relationships are viewed by this leader as being more important than organizational goals. The "organization man" leader (5,5 style) exhibits moderate concern for people and moderate concern for production. This leader is similar to the "team" leader except that he or she is less prone to take risks and more satisfied with adequate worker performance (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Blake, Mouton, & Williams, 1981; Boenisch, 1983; Blake & Mouton, 1985).

The Managerial Grid theory additionally postulates that an administrator not only has a dominant leader style but also a secondary leader style. The secondary leader style is utilized when the leader's dominant

style fails to accomplish his or her desired objectives (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Blake, Mouton, & Williams, 1981; Blake & Mouton, 1985).

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory combines both leadership traits and situational factors within an organizational setting. His theory is credited by Boenisch (1983) as introducing a new dimension, effectiveness. Leader effectiveness is situationally dependent upon three variables:

- 1) Leader-member Relationships-the acceptance of the leader by the group members.
- 2) Task Structure-the degree to which a group assigned task is defined.
- 3) Position Power-the recognized ability of the leader to influence subordinates' work lives.

These three variables, combined differently, create situations that are either favorable or unfavorable to leader success.

The favorableness of a situation is defined as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over his group" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 13). Fiedler (1967) additionally stated that for effective leadership to take place in an organization, there has to be a favorable match between an individual's leader style and the needs of the situation.

Fiedler's theory utilizes a continuum approach with task-oriented and relationship-oriented leader behavior, to determine the favorableness or unfavorableness of a situation (Figure 2.4). This portion of his theory is a reversion to earlier

LEADER STYLE CONTINUUM
(FIEDLER, 1967)

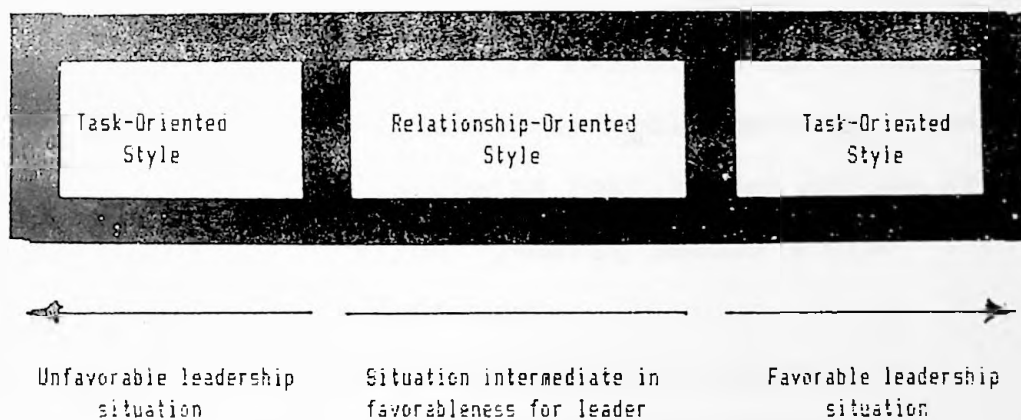


Figure 2.4

Source: Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, Copyright© 1967, page 14. Reproduced by permission.

theories which also postulated the two dimensions of leader behavior as being on a single continuum (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). As stated previously in this paper, results of more recent leadership studies indicate that the two dimensions of leader behavior are independent and must be plotted on two separate axes.

Reddin's (1970) tri-dimensional (3-D) leader theory combines the two independent dimensions of task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior with an effectiveness dimension similar to that mentioned in Fiedler's theory. Reddin (1970) also stated that different managers exhibited different combinations of task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior. His theory contains four leader styles as a basic framework. The four general leader styles (exhibited in Figure 2.5) are:

- 1) Separated Style-utilizes small degrees of relationship-oriented and task-oriented behaviors.
- 2) Integrated Style-utilizes both behaviors simultaneously.
- 3) Related Style-relationship-oriented behavior is utilized alone.
- 4) Dedicated Style-utilizes task-oriented behavior alone.

BASIC LEADER STYLE FRAMEWORK
(REDDIN, 1970)

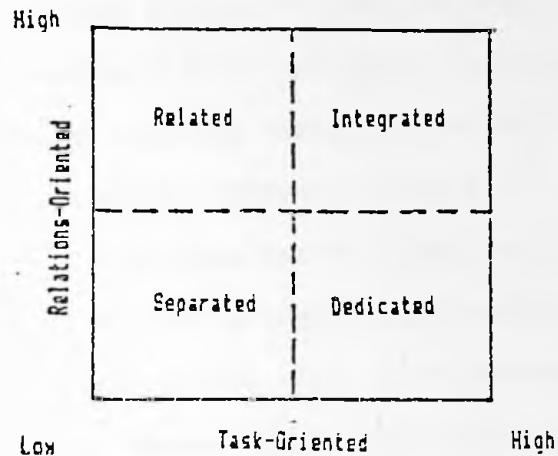


Figure 2.5

Source: Reddin, W. J. (1970). Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, Copyright© 1970, page 12. Reproduced by permission.

Reddin (1967) defined effectiveness as "...the extent to which a manager's style, his combination of task and relationship orientation, fits the style demands of the situation he is in" (p. 15). In his later work, Reddin (1970) further stated that each of the four basic leader behavior styles could be effective in certain situations and not effective in others. Their effectiveness depends upon the situation in which they are used. Therefore, with the effectiveness

dimension, each basic leader style is attributed a more effective and a less effective equivalent.

These equivalents are not eight additional leader styles of behavior but are descriptors which are utilized when the effectiveness dimension is incorporated. If the dedicated leader style, high task-orientation, is inappropriately applied in a situation, the descriptive name then becomes autocrat. When the dedicated leader style is utilized appropriately in a situation, the descriptive name is then benevolent autocrat. The four basic leader styles and their effectiveness equivalents are:

LESS EFFECTIVE EQUIVALENT STYLE	BASIC STYLE	MORE EFFECTIVE EQUIVALENT STYLE
Autocrat	Dedicated	Benevolent Autocrat
Compromiser	Integrated	Executive
Missionary	Related	Developer
Deserter	Separated	Bureaucrat

These leader styles are then arranged in relation to each other depicting the effectiveness dimension. The four basic leader styles are placed in the center of the figure with the ineffective equivalents to the front and the effective equivalents to the rear (Figure 2.6).

The situational theory accentuates the idea that, for effective leadership to take place in an organization, leaders must be flexible in their leader styles, must be able to diagnose specific situations and

LEADER STYLE EFFECTIVENESS DIMENSION
(REDDIN, 1970)

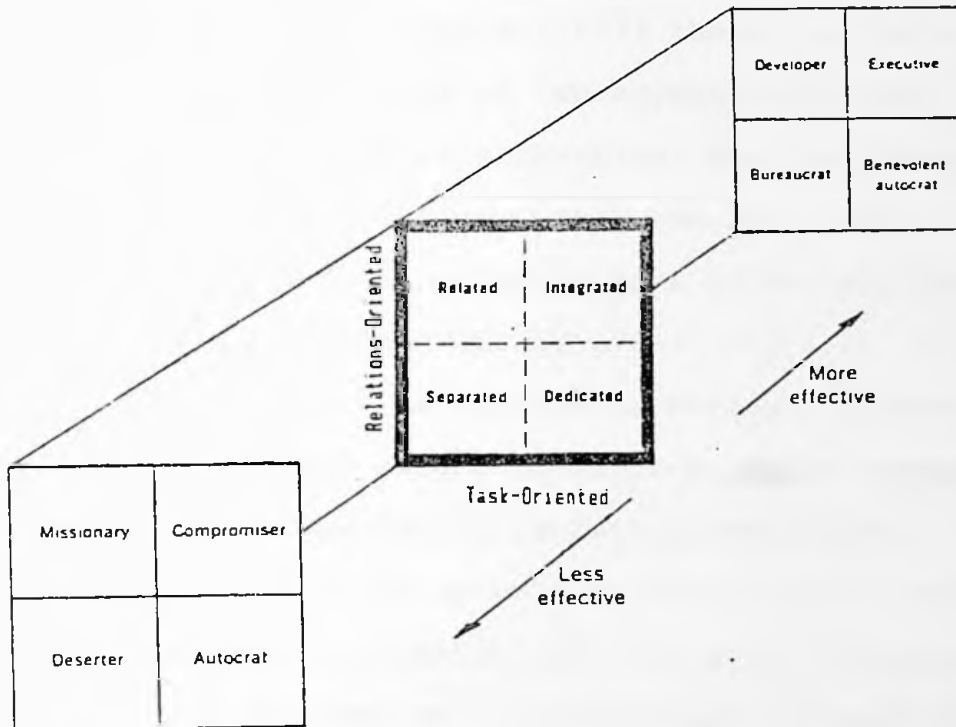


Figure 2.6

Source: Reddin, W. J. (1970). Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill. Copyright © 1970, page 13. Reproduced by permission.

utilize appropriate leadership styles to remedy those situations. Hersey & Blanchard (1977) define consistency in leader style utilization as "...using the same style for all similar situations but varying the style appropriately as the situation changes" (p. 173).

Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) theory explains leader effectiveness in terms of two aspects of leader behavior, tasks and relationships, and one situational variable. The situational variable pertains to follower maturity in relation to a given task that the follower must perform (Yukl, 1982).

Task Behavior is defined by Hersey & Blanchard (1977) as "...the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication by explaining what each subordinate is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished" (p. 168). Relationship Behavior is defined as "...the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socioemotional support, 'psychological strokes', and facilitating behaviors" (p. 168). Hersey & Blanchard (1977) also explain maturity in terms of willingness (motivation) and ability (competence) through four combinations of these two factors. Beginning with 1) as the lowest level, Hersey & Blanchard (1977) further explain maturity as:

- 1) individuals who are neither willing nor able to take responsibility,
- 2) individuals who are willing but not able to take responsibility,
- 3) individuals who are able but not willing to take responsibility, and
- 4) individuals who are willing and able to take responsibility (p. 162).

The situational leadership theory proffers that as followers' maturity levels increase, in relation to accomplishing a specific task, the leader should begin to reduce his or her task behavior and increase relationship behavior. When the followers exhibit a moderate level of maturity, the leader should decrease relationship behavior in addition to a continuing decrease in task behavior. When a high level of maturity is reached by followers, the leader does not need to provide much direction or support. At high levels of maturity, Hersey & Blanchard (1977) feel that individuals or the group can provide their own socioemotional support and work best when allowed considerable autonomy.

To determine an appropriate leader style for a given situation, the leader must initially determine the followers level of maturity in relation to that

situation. Once the followers maturity level is determined, the appropriate leader style can be identified by drawing a vertical line from that point on the maturity continuum to the point where it intersects the curvilinear depiction incorporated into the leader style area. The quadrant in which the intersection occurs is the leader style the leader should utilize in that particular situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Figure 2.7 illustrates this concept.

Hersey & Blanchard (1977) related that a major attribute which distinguishes successful organizations from unsuccessful organizations is effective leadership. Effective leaders, according to Hill (1973), Hersey & Blanchard (1977), and Yukl (1982), must be able to diagnose which leader style is appropriate for individual situations. If the individual is unable to properly diagnose and apply the appropriate leader style to a given situation, he or she will become ineffective. Effective leaders are able to properly diagnose situations and utilize an appropriate leader style to remedy that situation. "The difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader but the appropriateness of this behavior to the environment in which it is used. When the style of a

DETERMINING APPROPRIATE LEADER STYLE

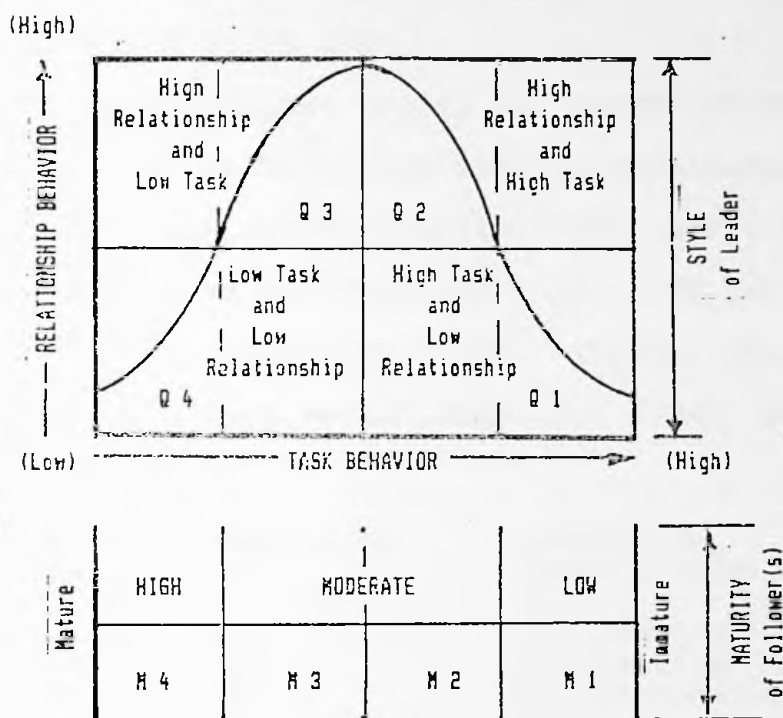


Figure 2.7

Source: Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, (3rd Ed.), New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Copyright© 1977, page 167. Adapted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when the style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed ineffective" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 105). Hersey & Blanchard (1977) also state that any of the four basic leader styles may

be effective or ineffective depending upon the situation in which it is used.

The four basic leader styles are termed by Hersey & Blanchard (1977) as High Task and Low Relationship (HT & LR), High Task and High Relationship (HT & HR), High Relationship and Low Task (HR & LT), and Low Relationship and Low Task (LR & LT). The designations for the basic, ineffective and effective leader styles are as follows:

Basic and/or Ineffective Leader Style	Effective Leader Style
HT & LR / Q1	S1 (Telling)
HT & HR / Q2	S2 (Selling)
HR & LT / Q3	S3 (Participating)
LR & LR / Q4	S4 (Delegating)

These leader styles are then arranged in relation to each other to depict Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory with an effectiveness dimension. Hersey and Blanchard's (1975; 1977) situational leadership theory combined aspects of Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid, Reddin's tri-dimensional leader theory and Argyris' maturity-immaturity theory (Bass, 1981). This arrangement is represented by placing four basic leader styles at the center of the figure, the four ineffective leader style equivalents to the front, and the four effective leader style equivalents to the rear (Figure 2.8).

LEADER STYLE EFFECTIVENESS DIMENSION
(HERSEY & BLANCHARD, 1977)

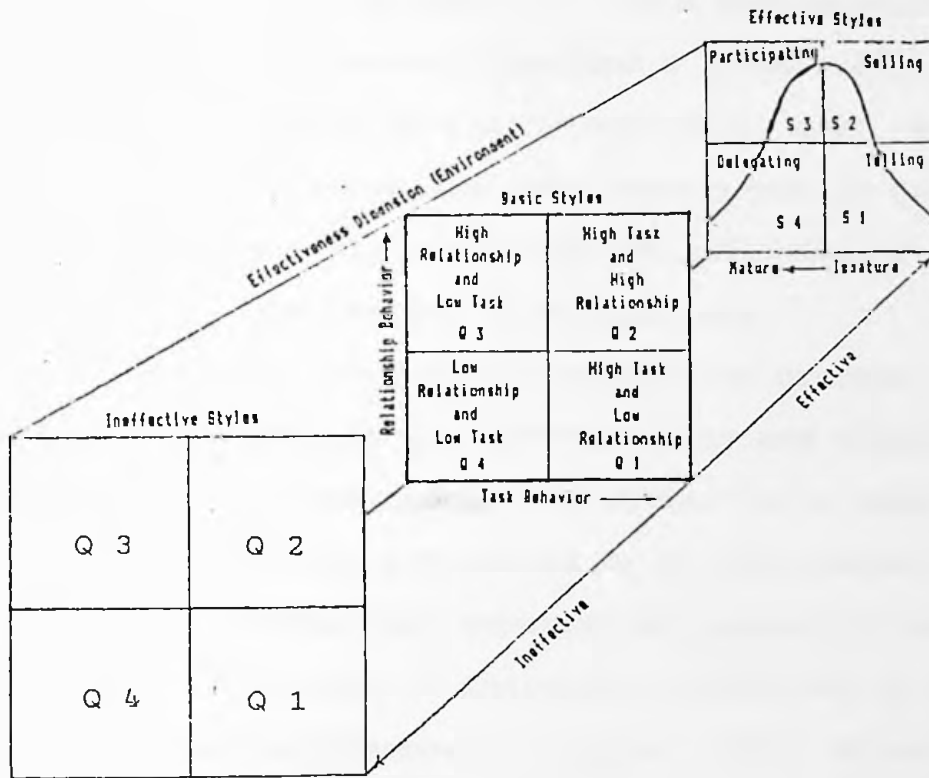


Figure 2.8

Source: Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, (3rd Ed.), New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Copyright© 1977, page 172. Adapted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Perceived Job Stress

Perceptions

Perception is defined as "...the psychological interpretation of events" (Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 18). Individuals initially see, feel, hear, smell or taste stimuli which are then interpreted by the brain. Interpretation involves the individual's personality, experiences, knowledge, and predispositions. Through the perception process, events and sensations are given meaning and either omitted from or admitted to the individual's cognition.

Perceptions are influenced by an individual's past experiences. These past experiences assist in the determination of what an individual perceives in a current situation (Feshback & Singer, 1957; Likert, 1961; Gmelch, 1977; Ragland & Saxon, 1985). Maslow & Mintz (1956) also indicated that the situation a person is in greatly influences the individual's current perception of events. Additionally, an individual's perception of events is influenced by their needs and moods (Ragland & Saxon, 1985). These needs, moods, and the situation itself are then continually modifying and enriching the individual's body of experiences.

Consequently, no two individuals perceive things in the exact same way (Brimm, 1983; Ragland & Saxon, 1985; Argyris, 1964; Giammatteo & Giammatteo, 1980; Fineman, 1979; Cedoline, 1982; LaGreca, 1985; Likert, 1961; Gmelch, 1977).

The individual then responds to situations, stimuli and events based upon his or her interpretation and expectation (perception) of whether the current experience will be harmful or helpful (Scott, 1967; Ragland & Saxon, 1985). Consequently, perceptions determine responses, and an individual can internally trigger a positive or negative stress reaction through accurate or inaccurate perceptions (Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand, 1977; Giammatteo & Giammatteo, 1980; Gmelch, 1982; Cedoline, 1982). This agrees with Miller's (1979) conclusion that stress is self-imposed and/or derived from a combination of situational factors.

Stress

Stress is present in everyone's life at all times. It is necessary for life and only in death can organisms be totally free from stress (Selye, 1956; Langer, 1970; Selye, 1976; Gmelch, 1977; Kolgraf, 1979; Stewart, 1980; Carlton & Brown, 1981; Cedoline, 1982;

Gmelch, 1983). Stress is defined in several ways: "the body's nonspecific response to any demand placed upon it, whether that demand is pleasant or not" (Selye, 1976, p. 29); "the response the body makes to any unusual demand, whether that demand results from pleasant or unpleasant experience" (Stewart, 1980, p. 17); "any perceived event that causes a demand upon one's mind or body. The stressor can be physical or psychological, actual or imagined" (Cedoline, 1982, p. 1). Selye (1956) further defines a stressor as "that which produces stress" (p. 64). Stress is then categorized into Eustress, which is beneficial or positive and Distress, which is harmful or negative (Selye, 1956; Selye, 1976; Carlton & Brown, 1981). Positive stress, or Eustress, is necessary for an organism to perform well, particularly under pressure. Negative stress, or Distress, is harmful to an organism and causes actual physical wear and tear or damage to that organism (Selye, 1976; LaGreca, 1985).

For a particular event or demand to generate distress, that event or demand must be perceived as being inimical to the well-being of the individual (Gmelch, 1977; Giammatteo & Giammatteo, 1980; Brimm, 1983).

Individuals respond to environmental stimuli by a complex set of reactions which begin with the

perception of a situation. The stable state of the body, homeostasis, is changed when the brain senses or perceives a stressor. Selye (1976) states that individuals respond physiologically to perceived stress through similar patterns. He termed this response pattern the General Adaptation Syndrome (G.A.S.). The G.A.S. presents three stages through which organisms pass in response to any nonspecific source of stress. This syndrome is the body's attempt to re-establish homeostasis. The first stage of the G.A.S. is termed the Alarm Reaction, the second stage is termed Resistance and the third stage is termed Exhaustion (Figure 2.9).

In this first stage of reaction to a perceived stressor, Alarm, the individual initially reacts with shock which results in depressed levels of physiological functioning. Subsequently, the brain stimulates the hypothalamus which activates the adrenal glands, the adrenal glands release adrenalin into the blood stream setting off a complex chain of effects. Respiration also increases, muscles tense, heart rate and blood pressure increase, blood vessels constrict, glucose production is increased, and digestive activities are decreased (Selye, 1976; Gmelch, 1977).

Selye (1976) further explains that in the second stage of reaction, Resistance, the organism or body

GENERAL ADAPTATION SYNDROME (G.A.S.)
(SELYE, 1976)

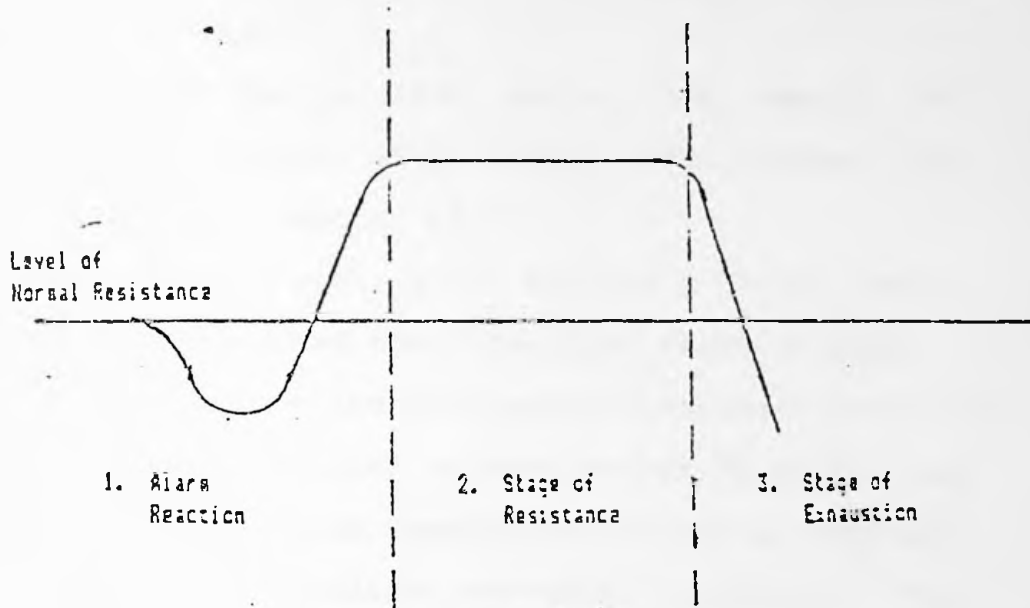


Figure 2.9

Source: Selye, H. (1974). The Three Phases of the General Adaptation Syndrome (G.A.S.). Pennsylvania: Harper & Row, Copyright© 1974, page 39. Reproduced by permission.

uses its psychological and physiological processes to cope with the stressor. If the body is able to successfully manage the stress, the body is restored to homeostasis and the third stage, Exhaustion, is bypassed.

Individuals respond psychologically to stress in one of four ways:

- 1) Fight (Selye, 1956; Selye, 1976; Gmelch, 1977).
- 2) Flee (Selye, 1956; Selye, 1976; Gmelch, 1977).
- 3) Freeze (Gmelch, 1977).
- 4) Learn (Gmelch, 1977; Ragland & Saxon, 1985).

Gmelch (1977) stated that the first three - fight, flee, and freeze - are instinctive responses which are present in and utilized to some extent by people and animals. These three responses are only a temporary solution to the immediate stressful situation. The fourth response - learning - is totally unique to human beings. Not only does this response enable individuals to control stressful situations in an effective and constructive manner but it is also a process which may be applicable to future stressful situations in moderating potential ill-effects.

These responses are nature's way of assisting the body to adapt to stressful situations in order to preserve life. However, if the perceived stress is frequent and prolonged the third stage, exhaustion, will result. Exhaustion occurs when the individual's physiological and psychological resources are depleted and serious physiological maladies may and often do occur (Selye, 1976; Gmelch, 1977; Ivancevich &

Matteson, 1978; Rummel & Rader, 1978; Stewart, 1980; Huber, 1981; Mickel, 1981; Brimm, 1983; LaGreca, 1985; Monagan, 1986).

Effects of Stress

As early as 1956 Selye began linking diseases and ailments to stress. Other researchers, such as Presthus (1962), Chase (1972), Gmelch (1977; 1982; 1983), Ivancevich & Matteson (1978), Stewart (1980), Carlton & Brown (1981), Mickel (1981), Vanderpol (1981), Cedoline (1982), Baldwin (1983), and Brimm (1983) have additionally attributed high blood pressure, digestive diseases, cardiovascular diseases, sexual derangements, cancer, and other physical and psychological health problems to stress. Jacobson (1962) also correlated coronary heart disease with stress. He utilized data from the autopsies of three hundred Korean combat troops, whose ages averaged in the early twenties, and found that coronary heart disease was present in approximately 77 percent of them. In normal American life, the incidence of severe coronary heart disease for men in their early twenties is extremely rare. This left only one conclusion - that the cause of wear and tear upon the cardiovascular

system, which resulted in a higher incident of coronary heart disease, was the extreme conditions of perceived stress during combat.

A similar situation was incurred during the 1960's when young rocket engineers at the Kennedy Space Center began dying at double the rate for men of their age. Autopsies of these men revealed that more than 80 percent of them died from stress cardiomyopathy. The underlying reason for this unusually high death rate was stress related. The work force was being drastically reduced in a short time and the men perceived that they were headed for economic oblivion (Monagan, 1986).

More recently, Monagan (1986) linked the leading killer in the industrial world, sudden cardiac death, to stress. He stated that "About 20 percent of those who either die of sudden cardiac arrest or are revived after runaway heart rhythms have experienced acute psychological stresses in the preceding 24 hours" (p. 68).

In the United States, stress accounts for a greater loss of work time than all other causes combined. Hypertension afflicts more than 23 million individuals, of which 90 percent cannot be traced directly to any physiological irregularities (Cedoline,

1982). Between 1958 and 1973 absences from work due to physical illness rose 22 percent and mental disorders, during this same period, increased 152 percent among men and 302 percent among women (Kerns, 1973).

Carlton & Brown (1981) reported that "The U. S. National Clearing House for Mental Health Information recently reported a 17 billion dollar decrease in productive capacity of workers resulting from job stress" (p. 10). Wallis (1983) additionally stated that stress disorders are estimated to cost organizations between 50 and 75 billion dollars each year in terms of absenteeism, lost productivity and company medical expenses.

Stress also has an interesting relationship with effective job performance. Howard (1975), Anderson (1976), Ivancevich & Matteson (1978), Carlton & Brown (1981), Huber (1981), and Gmelch (1983) stated that the relationship between stress and performance resembles an inverted U or bell shaped curve. When stress levels are perceived as being either extremely high or extremely low, performance is low. When stress levels are perceived as being moderate, performance is at its optimum level (Figure 2.10). Gmelch (1983) also added that the stress and performance curve should not be viewed as being static in nature. "Everyone rolls up and down between zones depending upon the type of

STRESS AND PERFORMANCE CURVE
(GMELCH 1977)

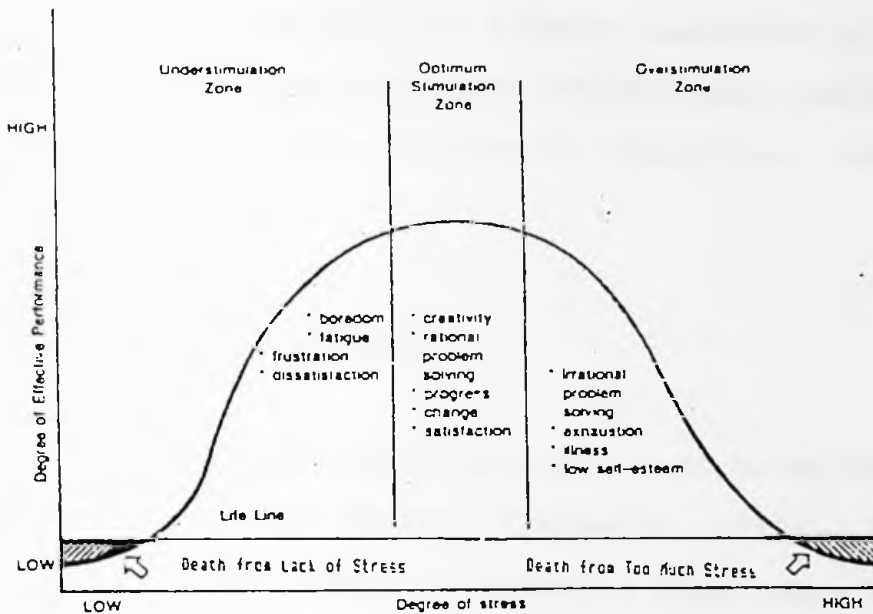


Figure 2.10

Source: Gmelch, W. H. (1977). Beyond Stress to Effective Management, Oregon: Oregon School Study Council, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 140 440), page 44.

activity and the period of time (daily, weekly, monthly, or yearly cycles)" (p. 10).

Several researchers have determined that certain occupations have a natural tendency to produce higher levels of stress in individuals than other occupations.

Over a two and one-half year period, Colligan, Smith & Hurrell (1977) reviewed health records of more than 22,000 workers representing 130 occupations. Their findings indicated that the highest incidence of stress related disease occurred among secretaries, clinical laboratory technicians, laborers, inspectors, and administrators.

Administrator Stress

The most frustrating position in an organization is that of middle management (Albrecht, 1979). Not only is the middle manager pressured from higher-level supervisors, but he or she must also deal with the demands of their subordinates. Cedoline (1982) stated that middle managers who are eager to succeed will not only attempt to satisfy supervisors, but subordinates as well. Carlton & Brown (1981) added that performing this dual role, satisfying both parties, creates additional pressures for the middle manager and further contributes to his or her stress.

Cedoline (1982) theorized that: "It is the manager caught between upper levels of management and subordinates who experiences the most distress" (p. 72). Perham (1972) added that middle managers

experience more stress than top executives. Stewart (1980), Piatt (1981) and Cedoline (1982) further related that administrators are classified as being in moderately high to high stress occupations.

Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand (1977) stated that a school district is a formal organization and the individuals in a school or school district are members of that formal organization. They also stated that the administrative functions at the principal level are complicated by circumstances that require treatment unique to each school.

The school principal's role has some attributes of a first line supervisor and some of a middle manager (Yukl, 1982). Principals are hierarchically located between central office supervisors and subordinates at the local school (Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand, 1977). The principalship can then be categorized as a middle management position. Thus, the principal is in the position that experiences the most stress in the school system (Cedoline, 1982).

The causes of stress in school administrators can be attributed to many things, depending upon the individual's perceptions. Many research findings indicate that the major causes of stress among school administrators, to mention a few, are:

- 1) Person/position mismatch (Piatt, 1981).
- 2) Brain processing mismatch (Piatt, 1981).
- 3) Uncertainty (Piatt, 1981).
- 4) Work overload/underload (Piatt, 1981).
- 5) Excess competition (Piatt, 1981).
- 6) External pressure (Piatt, 1981).
- 7) Role conflict (Kahn, Wolf, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964; Brief, 1980; Brimm, 1981; Erez & Goldstein, 1981; Lipham, 1983).
- 8) Inadequate compensation (Hendrickson, 1979; "Long Hours," 1979; Carlton & Brown, 1981).
- 9) Interpersonal conflicts with parents, teachers, and students (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Washington, 1980; Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Brimm, 1981; Erez & Goldstein, 1981; Piatt, 1981).
- 10) Long hours (Hendrickson, 1979; "Long Hours," 1979; Carlton & Brown, 1981; Piatt, 1981).
- 11) Increased administrative responsibilities (Hendrickson, 1979; Brown & Carlton, 1980; Vanderpol, 1981).

These job stressors can then be collapsed into common categories for ease of identification. McGrath (1976) classified stressors in an organizational setting into six categories. The six categories are Role Based

Stress, Task Based Stress, Stress within the Person System, Physical Environment Stress, Social Environment Stress, and Stress Intrinsic to the Behavior Setting. Another classification of stressors is viewed by Tung and Koch (1980) as being categorized into four distinct dimensions of job stress, Task Based Stress, Role Based Stress, Conflict Mediating Stress, and Boundary Spanning Stress. Task Based Stress is defined as stress arising from the administrator's day-to-day work activities. Role Based Stress is defined as originating from the school administrator's beliefs and attitudes about his or her organizational role. Conflict Mediating Stress arises from the administrator's attempts to satisfy responsibilities and obligations to various groups or sectors within and outside the organization and to resolve the conflicts between these various groups. Boundary Spanning Stress originates from the administrator's external environmental activities which are related to the school organization, such as collective bargaining (Tung & Koch, 1980). Tung & Koch (1980) utilized these elements or dimensions of job stress to illustrate that job stress is a multi-dimensional construct and needs to be treated as such when performing stress research.

Related Research

Wilson's (1962) research results indicated that high stress in business executives and principals is closely associated with individual, personal attitudes. Comparisons of both groups indicated that stress was significantly related to attitudes which involve their jobs (tasks) and their associates (relations).

Saffer (1984) indicated that previous stress research in educational administration has focused on three main areas: 1) The causes of stress, 2) The effects of stress on the educational community as a whole, and 3) Stress-coping strategies. Saffer (1984) reviewed 44 dissertations on stress in educational administration that were completed between 1969 and 1982. She observed that the administrators' scores for stressors such as anxiety, role conflicts, and tasks related to their jobs did not support the administrators' perceptions that 70 percent of the stress in their lives was job related. Saffer (1984) additionally found that participating administrators in the reviewed dissertations reported experiencing low to moderate levels of stress. Luzzolino (1986) determined that the principals he surveyed reported 79 percent of their total life stress came from job related

experiences. He also noted that 52 percent of the principals in his study perceived their job as being very stressful.

Farkas & Milstein's (1986) and Gorton's (1982) research supported Saffer's (1984) findings about school administrators experiencing low stress. Gorton (1982) explains that, "although the principalship may contain stressful elements, these principals were effective in coping with such elements and, therefore, were not actually feeling much stress" (p. 195). Gorton (1982) further explained that even though the majority of principals in the study did not appear to be operating under a great deal of stress, there was a minority of principals who were. Although one explanation of reduced or low administrative stress could be coping techniques, another, leader style, seems to be just as plausible.

There is a paucity of research about the relationships between leader styles and stress. Two studies involving these relationships reported different results. Dillihunt (1986) found that no significant relationships or correlations existed between task-oriented and relations-oriented leader style and stress indicators. Dillihunt (1986) used the LBDQ (Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) to

determine leader style and the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist to identify six stress indicators which were physical, psychological, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, and total stress. The study population included public school administrators (vice principals, principals, assistant superintendents, and the superintendent) within the Memphis, Tennessee city school system. Dillihunt (1986) collapsed the LBDQ's four quadrants of leader style behavior (High Task-High Relations, High Task-Low Relations, Low Task-High Relations, and Low Task-Low Relations) into two categories of leader style behavior. These two categories of leader style behavior were termed Relations-oriented (Low Task-High Relations and Low Task-Low Relations) and Task-oriented (High Task-High Relations and High Task-Low Relations). The statistical analysis of these variables determined that there was no significant relationship between Task-oriented leaders and stress indicators and Relations-oriented leaders and stress indicators.

Boenisch (1983) determined that there is a significant difference in perceived job stress levels between individuals with different leader styles. Boenisch (1983) utilized Blake & Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid as a determinant of leader style and a

17 item instrument to measure perceived stress, tension, and anxiety experienced as a result of 17 job conditions. The population studied consisted of community and junior college student services professionals in Colorado and Wyoming. His research findings indicated that individuals who perceived themselves as being 1,1 (Low Task-Low Relations) leaders also perceived themselves as experiencing the most stress, the 5,5 (Moderate Task-Moderate Relations) leaders perceived themselves as experiencing less stress than the 1,1 (Low Task-Low Relations) leaders, and the 9,9 (High Task-High Relations) leaders perceived themselves as experiencing the least stress.

Several similarities exist between Dillihunt's (1986) work, Boenisch's (1983) work, and this study. The similarities are:

- 1) All three studies determined the sample population's perceptions of leader style and stress.
- 2) All three studies determined perceived leader styles which used a combination of task-oriented and relations-oriented behavior.
- 3) All three studies measured the variable perceived stress.

- 4) All three studies determined the statistical significance of the relationship between perceived leader style and perceived stress.
- 5) Both this study and Dillihunt's (1986) study measured public school administrator's perceived leader style.
- 6) Both this study and Boenisch's (1983) study measured perceived job stress.

The differences that this study has with Dillihunt's (1986) study and Boenisch's (1983) study are:

- 1) Dillihunt (1986) used the LBDQ, Boenisch (1983) used Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid, and this study used Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) LEAD-Self instrument to determine self-perceived leader style.
- 2) Dillihunt (1986) used Hopkins Symptom Checklist, Boenisch (1983) used a 17 item instrument, and this study used Tung & Koch's revised ASI to determine perceived stress. The revised ASI is an instrument that takes the multi-dimensionality of job stress into consideration and is

designed to measure the perceived job stress of public school administrators.

- 3) Dillihunt's (1986) population included vice-principals, principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents of a school system, Boenisch's (1983) population consisted of junior college student professionals, and this study restricted the sample population to the specific job categories of public elementary and secondary school principal as operationally defined in Chapter I.
- 4) Dillihunt (1986) investigated the relationship of six stress indicators with two leader style behaviors; Boenisch (1983) studied the relationship of perceived leader style with perceived stress, tension and anxiety; and this study determined the relationships between public school principal's perceived leader style, perceived job-stress, and self-reported demographics.

CHAPTER III

Methods and Procedures

This chapter presents the methodology for collecting and statistically analyzing the data needed to investigate the relationship between a principal's self-perceived leader style, self-perceived job stress and self-reported demographics. The population and sample size, study design, data collecting instruments to be used, procedures to be followed, and statistical treatment of the data are explained. Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) LEAD-Self instrument was utilized to determine individual subjects' self-perceived leader style, and Tung & Koch's (1980) revised Administrative Stress Index (ASI) instrument was used to measure self-perceived job stress. After reviewing the literature, a demographic questionnaire was designed for the study and each individual was requested to complete the instruments.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was the West Virginia elementary and secondary school principals employed in that capacity at the time of the study. In order to increase the precision of the population value/estimate, a representative, stratified population sample was utilized in this project (Slonim, 1960; Kerlinger, 1973). The sample was randomly chosen, with replacement, from the total stratified population of elementary and secondary school principals listed in the 1985-1986 West Virginia Education Directory (1986).

The State Department of Education reported that there was a total of 957 public school principals in West Virginia (1986 - 1987). It was decided to restrict the study population to clearly defined elementary and secondary schools. Those schools that were not used combined some elements of elementary and secondary grade configurations, partial elementary grade configuration, middle school grade configuration, and other grade configurations that did not meet the operational definition of elementary and secondary schools. Grades 1-6, K-3, K-4, 8-12, K-12, and 9-12 are a few examples of the configurations that were excluded. The operational definitions for elementary

and secondary public schools are defined in Chapter I as follows:

Elementary public schools in West Virginia are those which are organized in the K-6 grade configuration.

Secondary public schools in West Virginia are those which are organized in the 7-12, 7-9 or 10-12 grade configuration.

The total stratified population within the grade configurations and definitions was determined to be 611 West Virginia public school principals. Of the 611, 421 were elementary and 190 were secondary principals. Based upon the stratified totals, the recommended sample sizes ranged between 10% and 25% for the elementary and 25% to 50% for secondary school populations (Randolph, Tseng & Greever, 1974). Following this recommendation, the initial sample range was determined to be between 42 and 105 for elementary school principals and between 48 and 95 for secondary school principals.

To compensate for attrition, respondent refusal to participate, incomplete respondent information or other reasons for unusable returns, the initial sample ranges were adjusted upward. When utilizing the mail questionnaire instrument, Balian (1982) suggested an increase in sample size of between 60% to 100% to

attain the desired sample size. Initial sample ranges were then increased 70% to adjust for low responses and unusable questionnaires. The final sample ranges were from 71 to 178 for elementary school principals and from 81 to 162 for secondary school principals.

Within these sample ranges, sample sizes were defined toward assuring both a valid representation of the population and a high potential for receiving a questionnaire response of 50% or better. The sample sizes utilized in this project were 170 West Virginia elementary school principals and 150 West Virginia secondary school principals.

Study Design

This study utilized questionnaire survey procedures to gather data regarding public school principals' self-perceived leader style, self-perceived job stress, and self-reported demographics. The hypotheses stated in Chapter I were answered by analyzing data collected from a stratified, randomly selected sampling of elementary and secondary principals in West Virginia's public school system. Survey research, which was utilized for this project, offers a means of investigating a wide range of

educational problems (Borg & Gall, 1979). Borg & Gall (1979) and Kerlinger (1973) stated that survey research is a valuable and useful tool when determining personal perceptions, social facts, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and preferences. Kerlinger (1973) and Campbell & Stanley (1963) have also termed survey research as the "One-Shot Case Study." Kerlinger (1973) further indicated that "...even though the one-shot case study is a faulty design it is instructive" (p. 318).

Campbell & Stanley (1963) stated that the 12 sources of invalidity which can be found in experimental designs are described in general terms as controlled factors, weaknesses and factors not relevant. The one-shot case study has no controlled factors. The design weaknesses are interaction of selection and the independent variable, history, maturation, selection, and mortality. Factors which are not relevant to the one-shot case study are testing, instrumentation, regression, interaction of selection and maturation, interaction of testing and the independent variable, reactive arrangements, and multiple treatment interference.

Instrumentation

Demographic Questionnaire

During the literature search, it was found that certain demographic data were correlated with stress. Therefore, a demographic questionnaire, Appendix C, was prepared by the researcher to collect information about the individuals participating in the study. It consisted of twelve items: job title, age, sex, years of experience in current job title, total years of administrative job experience, level of education, school type, number of staff in school, number of pupils in school, number of assistant administrators in the school, average number of hours worked per week, and percentage of student population participating in a free lunch program.

LEAD-Self

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) developed this instrument as a means for leaders to determine their self-perceived leader style by a self-assessment instrument. The responses to the questions presented in the instrument are tabulated and the results identify the individuals basic and supporting leader

styles in terms of combinations of task and relations behaviors.

The LEAD-Self instrument consists of twelve hypothetical situations which describe a particular manner in which followers are performing and four alternative actions to each situation. The respondents are asked to select one alternative action which most closely described the leader behavior they would use in that situation. Each alternative action reflects one of the following task and relations behaviors:

- 1) High task-low relations behavior (also termed "Telling", HT-LR, Style 1 or S1).
- 2) High task-high relations behavior (also termed "Selling", HT-HR, Style 2 or S2).
- 3) Low task-high relations behavior (also termed "Participating", LT-HR, Style 3 or S3).
- 4) Low task-low relations behavior (also termed "Delegating", LT-LR, Style 4 or S4).

These four leader styles are depicted in Figure 3.1.

The respondent's basic or dominant leader style is identified by tabulating the alternative actions selected (Appendix D) in response to each hypothetical situation. Hersey & Blanchard (1977) defined basic or dominant leader style as "...the style or styles for which you have the most responses." They further presented examples to illustrate that a basic leader

LEADER STYLES
(HERSEY & BLANCHARD, 1977)

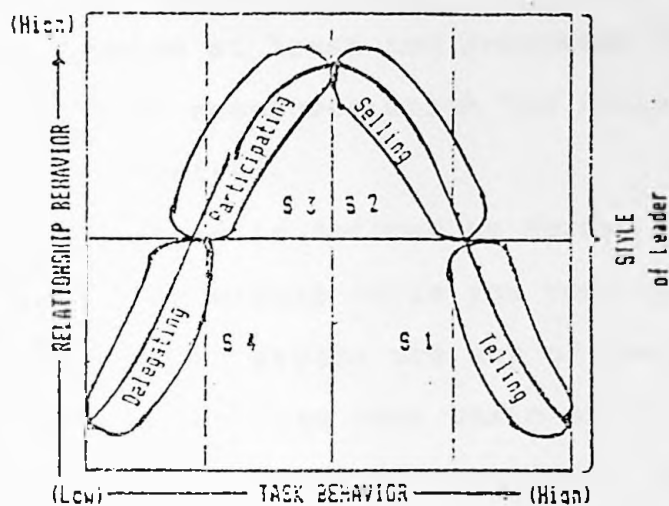


Figure 3.1

Source: Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, (3rd Ed.), New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Copyright© 1977, page 170. Adapted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

style can consist of one leader style (single basic), such as HT-HR (style 2), or a combination of leader styles (multiple basic), such as HT-HR/LT-LR (style 2 and style 3 combined). With the four main behavior quadrants (HT-LR, HT-HR, HR-LT, LR-LT), four single basic styles and eleven multiple basic styles are possible. The basic style can range from a single style (where one style has more responses than any of the other three) to a multiple style with four single styles (where each style receives three of the twelve

responses). The supporting styles are the single styles that receive at least two responses but fewer than the number of responses which the basic or dominant style received.

Supporting style is defined by Hersey & Blanchard (1977) as "...a leadership style you tend to use on occasion. Supporting styles are any of the other configurations, other than your basic style, in which you have two or more responses" (p. 232). Therefore, an individual respondent will always have at least one basic or dominant style and from zero to three supporting styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). This study will concentrate only on the basic or dominant leader styles.

The reliability of the LEAD-Self instrument is reported by Greene (1980) and Eberhardt (1985) as being moderately strong. Greene (1980) stated:

"In two administrations across a six-week interval, 75% of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71% maintained their alternate style. The contingency coefficients were both .71 and each was significant ($p < .01$). The correlation for the adaptability scores was .69 ($p < .01$). The LEAD-Self scores remained relatively stable across time, and the user may rely upon the results as consistent measures" (p. 1).

Greene (1980) further added that:

"The logical validity of the scale [LEAD-Self] was clearly established. Face validity was based upon a review of the items, and content validity emanated from the procedures employed to create the original set of items" (p.11).

The concurrent validity coefficients of the twelve LEAD-Self items ranged from 0.11 to 0.52 (Greene, 1980; Eberhardt, 1985). Greene (1980) additionally stated that:

"...10 of the 12 coefficients (83%) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than 80% with respect to selection frequency" (p.11).

This is indicative of a concurrent validity which is weak but significant at the 0.01 alpha level. Greene (1980) and Eberhardt (1985) do not inform researchers which criterion measurement was administered with the LEAD-Self instrument to produce the concurrent validity coefficient. However, the LEAD-Self instrument is easily administered by mail, takes less than ten minutes to complete, and measures perceived leader style in terms of task and relations dimensions. For these reasons, it was decided to use

the LEAD-Self instrument even though there are some apparent limitations.

Permission was secured from the Center For Leadership Studies to utilize the LEAD-Self instrument for this research project (Appendix A).

Administrative Stress Index

The original Administrative Stress Index (ASI) was developed by Swent and Gmelch (1977) to ascertain what stresses school administrators. The Administrative Stress Index (ASI) is comprised of items from Indik, Seashore, & Slesinger's (1964) Job Related Strain Index, items from school administrator's stress logs and items from a review of current publications which identified school administrator stressors (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Tung & Koch, 1980; Tung, 1980; Gmelch & Swent, 1984). The instrument was specifically designed to measure educational administrators' job stress.

Swent & Gmelch (1977) developed the instrument through a series of repeated designs to insure that all relevant dimensions of school administrator job-related stress were investigated. The instrument items are written in the form of questions which can easily be answered on a five-point Likert response scale (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Tung & Koch, 1980; Tung, 1980; Gmelch &

Swent, 1984). The pilot instrument was then pretested by Swent & Gmelch (1977),

...with a sample of 25 practicing administrators. After revision and a second pilot test (n=20) the final instrument comprised of 35 items with the following 5-point Likert-type response categories: 1 = "rarely bothers me," 3 = "occasionally bothers me," 5 = "frequently bothers me." This 35-item instrument was designated as the Administrative Stress Index (ASI) (Tung, 1980, p. 347).

At this writing there were no empirical measurements of the reliability or validity of the original or revised ASI. However, Tung & Koch (1980) were interested in establishing the content validity of the Administrative Stress Index as well as wanting an instrument which measured the multi-dimensionality of educational administrators' job stress. They subsequently revised the original 35 item ASI instrument by subjecting its principal components to varimax rotation. Item factor loadings of less than 0.30 were not included in the final stress index instrument (revised). This statistical operation revealed ten items which failed to meet the factor loading criteria and were subsequently deleted. The principal components varimax rotation also revealed a weak general factor

which indicated that the ASI measured the multi-dimensionality of the job stress construct.

Koch, Gmelch, Tung, & Swent (1982) reported that the Varimax rotated factor matrix of the remaining 25 items clustered around four interpretable factors. Factor 1, termed Role Based Stress, accounted for seven items and 50% of the common variance. Factor 2, termed Task Based Stress, accounted for ten items and 22% of the common variance. Factor 3, termed Boundary Spanning Stress, accounted for five items and 16% of the common variance. Factor 4, termed Conflict Mediating Stress, accounted for three items and 12% of the common variance. Coefficient alphas of each factor were 0.70 or higher. The average amount of shared variance between dimensions was less than one percent with factor intercorrelations ranging from 0.14 to 0.02.

Swent & Gmelch's (1977) original Administrative Stress Index was utilized to secure respondents job stress information. Table 3.1 groups the four ASI factors by job stress dimension.

TABLE 3.1
ASI ITEM GROUPING
BY
JOB STRESS DIMENSION

<u>Job Stress Dimension</u>	<u>Item Number and Item</u>
<u>Task Based Stress</u>	1. Being interrupted frequently by telephone calls.

TABLE 3.1 (cont'd.)
 ASI ITEM GROUPING
 BY

Job Stress Dimension	Item Number and Item
<u>Task Based Stress</u> (cont'd.)	2. Supervising and coordinating the tasks of many people.
	9. Having my work frequently interrupted by staff members who want to talk.
	10. Imposing excessively high expectations on myself.
	12. Writing memos, letters, and other communications.
	18. Feeling I have to participate in school activities outside of the normal working hours at the expense of my personal time.
	19. Feeling I have too much responsibility delegated to me by my superior.
	26. Feeling that I have too heavy a work load, one that I cannot possibly finish during the normal work day.
	31. Feeling that meetings take up too much time.
	32. Trying to complete reports and other paper work on time.
	<u>Role Based Stress</u>
6. Thinking that I will not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of those who have authority over me.	
13. Trying to resolve difference with my superiors.	

TABLE 3.1 (cont'd.)
 ASI ITEM GROUPING
 BY

JOB STRESS DIMENSION

<u>Job Stress Dimension</u>	<u>Item Number and Item</u>
<u>Role Based Stress</u> (cont'd.)	16. Not knowing what my superior thinks of me, or how he/she evaluates my performance.
	22. Feeling that I have too little authority to carry out to carry out responsibilities assigned to me.
	30. Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of my job are.
	34. Trying to influence my immediate supervisor's actions and decisions that affect me.
<u>Conflict Mediating Stress</u>	7. Trying to resolve differences between/among students.
	20. Trying to resolve parent-school conflicts.
	23. Handling student discipline problems.
<u>Boundary Spanning Stress</u>	21. Preparing and allocating budget resources.
	24. Being involved in the collective bargaining process.
	27. Complying with state, federal, and organizational rules and policies.
	29. Administering the negotiated contract (grievances, interpretation, etc.).
	35. Trying to gain public approval and/or financial support for school programs.

The items listed in Table 3.2 were deleted by Tung & Koch (1980) after their statistical treatment and were excluded from the statistical manipulation of this study.

TABLE 3.2
ASI ITEMS
DELETED FROM
JOB STRESS DETERMINATION

Item Number	Item
3.	Feeling staff members don't understand my goals and expectations.
4.	Feeling that I am not fully qualified to handle my job.
8.	Feeling not enough is expected of me by my superiors.
11.	Feeling pressure for better job performance over and above what I think reasonable.
14.	Speaking in front of groups.
15.	Attempting to meet social expectations (housing, clubs, friends, etc.).
17.	Having to make decisions that affect the lives of individual people that I know (colleagues, staff members, students, etc.).
25.	Evaluating staff members' performance.
28.	Feeling that the progress on my job is not what it should or could be.
33.	Trying to resolve differences between-among staff members.

Even though there were no empirical measurements of the reliability or validity of the original or

revised ASI at this time, the instrument was used because it specifically measures perceived job stress of school administrators, is easily administered by mail, measures the multi-dimensionality of the job stress construct, and takes a short time to complete.

Permission was secured from Dr. Walter Gmelch and John Wiley & Sons Limited to utilize the revised Administrative Stress Index instrument for this research project (Appendix A).

Procedures

Mailing

An envelope containing a cover letter, the survey instruments, and a self-addressed, stamped return envelope was mailed to each principal within the sample population. The cover letter explained the general purpose and scope of the research project and requested cooperation and support. Several steps were taken to maximize the response rate.

- 1) The cover letter was printed on West Virginia College of Graduate Studies letterhead and each letter personally addressed (Appendix B).
- 2) Participants were informed that strict anonymity of responses would be followed.

- 3) Each respondent was given the opportunity to request a report of the findings.
- 4) A self-addressed, stamped business reply envelope was included.
- 5) Since the first mailing did not produce a better than 50% response, a second, follow-up reminder mailing took place three weeks after the initial mailing. Total responses to both mailings amounted to 62.5% or 200 principals from both stratified populations combined. Of these, a total of 196 (61%) responses were usable. This equated to 107 (63%) usable elementary principal responses and 89 (59%) usable secondary principal responses.

Data Analysis

The independent variables in this study were Self-perceived Leader Style and a combination of Self-perceived Leader Style and Self-reported Demographics. The dependent variable was Self-perceived Job Stress. The research question was preliminarily tested by the Chi Square, Stepwise Regression, and Discriminant Analysis statistical procedures included in SAS (Statistical Analysis System), a computer software

system for data analysis. These preliminary procedures were used based upon the appropriate measurement for the level of data. The Chi Square test (non-parametric) examines differences in distributions between two mutually exclusive groups and is appropriately used with nominal level data. Stepwise Regression and Discriminant analyses were used to provide insight into the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. These statistical procedures also provided insight into the potential "best" model for the data. The preliminary procedures provided insight into potentially significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables. The variables for which this potential relationship existed were then submitted to the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) General Linear Models (GLM) procedure to test the statistical significance of the relationships. The ANOVA (GLM) procedure was used to test the potentially significant data because it provided a statistical procedure by which unbalanced classification or continuous variables may be tested to determine significant relationships. To reduce the chances of a Type I error, a probability level of 0.05 was selected for rejecting the null hypothesis (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1982).

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of the Data

This chapter describes the demographics of the subjects, and the results of the study. Tables and graphs were used to depict data.

Population and Sample

The stratified population consisted of 611 West Virginia public school principals. Of the 611, 421 were elementary and 190 were secondary public school principals. All were employed as principals at the time of the study. A stratified, random sampling strategy was used. Stratification was based upon the type of school, elementary and secondary. The sample was randomly chosen, with replacement, from the total stratified population of public elementary and secondary school principals, as defined in Chapter I and listed in the 1985-1986 West Virginia Education Directory (1986).

The total sample consisted of 320 West Virginia public school principals. Of the 320, one hundred seventy were elementary principals and one hundred fifty were secondary principals. The response rate was 200 (62.5 percent) of which 196 (61 percent) were usable and 4 (2 percent) incomplete. One hundred seven (63 percent) elementary principals' and eighty nine (59 percent) secondary principals' responses were usable.

Demographics

The demographic questionnaire requested the following information from each subject:

- 1) Current job title.
- 2) Sex.
- 3) Age.
- 4) Education level.
- 5) Years of experience in current job title.
- 6) Total years of administrative experience.
- 7) School type.
- 8) Number of staff in the principal's school.
- 9) Number of pupils in the principal's school.
- 10) Number of assistant administrators in the principal's school.

- 11) Average number of hours worked per week.
- 12) Percentage of student population participating in a free lunch program.

The demographic "current job title" was included to assure that all subjects were principals. Since 100 percent of the subjects responded "Principal" to "current job title", it was excluded from all tables and figures. The remaining demographic data is presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2. Figures 4.1 through 4.18 were prepared for a clearer understanding of the demographic information. A description of the demographic data follows:

1. The total sample consisted of 157 male principals (80.1 percent) and 39 female principals (19.9 percent) (Figure 4.1).

Further examination revealed:

- a) Of elementary school principals (n=107), 73 (68.2 percent) were male and 34 (31.8 percent) were female.
- b) Of secondary school principals (n=89), 84 (94.4 percent) were male and 5 (5.6 percent) were female.

The ratios of male to female in the sample are consistent with the universe from which they were drawn.

TABLE 4.1
DEMOGRAPHICS
(Sample "n" = 196)

SEX: Male . . .	80.1%	Female . . .	19.9%
AGE: Under 25 . . .	0	25 - 34 . . .	5.1%
45 - 54 . . .	34.7%	55 - 64 . . .	20.4%
		35 - 44 . . .	38.9%
		Over 64 . . .	1%
<u>EDUCATION LEVEL:</u>			
BS + 15 . . .	0	BS + 30 . . .	0.5%
MS + 15 . . .	8.2%	MS + 30 . . .	84.2%
		MS/MA . . .	2.6%
		Dr. . . .	4.6%
<u>YEARS EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT JOB TITLE:</u>			
Under 4 yrs. . .	19.9%	4-9 yrs . . .	25.5%
16-21 yrs . . .	19.9%	Over 21 yrs . . .	8.7%
		10-15 yrs . . .	26%
<u>TOTAL ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE:</u>			
Under 4 yrs. . .	5.6%	4-9 yrs . . .	20.4%
16-21 yrs. . .	24%	Over 21 yrs..	16.3%
		10-15 yrs . . .	33.7%
<u>SCHOOL TYPE:</u>			
Elementary (107)	54.6%	Secondary (89)	45.4%
<u>STAFF NUMBER:</u>			
Under 10	2.6%	11-20	20.9%
31-40	23%	41-50	11.7%
		21-30	23.5%
		Over 50	18.4%
<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS:</u>			
Under 250	22.4%	251-500	46.4%
751-1000	8.7%	1000-1250	1%
		501-750	17.9%
		Over 1250	3.6%
<u>ASSISTANT ADMINISTRATORS:</u>			
None	57.7%	One	32.1%
Three	1%	Over three.	1%
		Two	8.2%
<u>AVERAGE HOURS/WEEK WORKED:</u>			
Under 40	0	40-49	36.2%
		50-59	50%
		Over 60	13.8%
<u>PERCENTAGE OF STUDENT POPULATION ON FREE LUNCH:</u>			
Range (in percent) of Student Population on Free Lunch		Percentage of Schools Within Range Indicated	
0 - 15		10.2%	
16 - 30		25.0%	
31 - 45		26.5%	
46 - 60		18.3%	
61 - 75		9.7%	
Over 75		9.7%	

TABLE 4.2
DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPATING PRINCIPALS BY STYLE

VARIABLE	TOTAL	BASIC STYLES									
		Single Basic Styles				Multiple Basic Styles					
		S1	S2	S3	S4	S2/S3	S1/S2	S2/S4	S1/S4	S1/S2/S3	
N =	196	6	109	50	2	19	6	2	1	1	
	#	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
SEX											
Male	157	80.1	2.6	43.8	19.4	0.5	8.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
Female	39	19.9	0.5	11.8	6.1	0.5	1.0	0	0	0	0
Totals		100	3.1	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
AGE											
Under 25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
25 - 34	10	5.2	0	2.6	2.6	0	0	0	0	0	0
35 - 44	76	38.7	1.5	21.9	9.2	0.5	3.6	1.0	1.0	0	0
45 - 54	68	34.8	1.1	19.4	7.1	0.5	5.2	1.1	0	0	0.5
55 - 64	40	20.3	0.5	10.7	6.6	0	1.0	1.0	0	0.5	0
Over 64	2	1.0	0	1.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Totals		100	3.1	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
EDUCATION											
BS/BA + 15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BS/BA + 30	1	0.5	0	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0
MS/MA	5	2.5	0	0.5	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MS/MA + 15	16	8.1	0.5	2.5	2.1	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.0	0	0
MS/MA + 30	165	84.3	2.1	49.0	20.9	0.5	8.7	2.1	0	0.5	0.5
Doctorate	9	4.6	0.5	2.6	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0
Totals		100	3.1	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
AV HRS/WRK-WK											
Under 40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
40 - 49	71	36.2	1.5	17.4	11.7	0.5	3.1	1.5	0	0	0.5
50 - 59	98	50.0	1.5	29.2	9.7	0	6.6	1.5	1.0	0.5	0
Over 60	27	13.8	0	9.2	4.1	0.5	0	0	0	0	0
Totals		100	3.0	55.8	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.0	1.0	0.5	0.5

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, S4=LT-LR. Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2, Seventh style=S2/S4, Eighth style=S1/S4, and the Ninth style=S1/S2/S3.

TABLE 4.2 (cont'd.)
DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPATING PRINCIPALS BY STYLE

VARIABLE	TOTAL	BASIC STYLES									
		Single Basic Styles				Multiple Basic Styles					
		S1	S2	S3	S4	S2/S3	S1/S2	S2/S4	S1/S4	S1/S2/S3	
N =	196	6	109	50	2	19	6	2	1	1	
		#	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
YRS. EXP.											
< 4	39	19.9	2.0	10.7	4.1	0	2.6	0.5	0	0	0
4 - 9	50	25.4	0.5	14.8	6.6	0.5	2.0	1.0	0	0	0
10 - 15	51	26.0	0	13.3	6.6	0.5	3.6	0.5	1.0	0	0.5
16 - 21	39	19.8	0	12.2	5.6	0	1.5	0.5	0	0	0
> 21	17	8.7	0.5	4.6	2.6	0	0	0.5	0	0.5	0
Totals	196	100	3.1	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
TOT ADM EXP											
< 4	11	5.5	0.5	2.0	1.5	0	1.5	0	0	0	0
4 - 9	40	20.3	0.5	12.7	4.1	0.5	1.5	1.0	0	0	0
10 - 15	66	33.6	1.5	18.4	9.2	0.5	3.5	0	0	0	0.5
16 - 21	47	24.4	0	13.8	5.6	0	2.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0
> 21	32	15.2	0.5	8.6	5.1	0	1.0	1.0	0	0	0
Totals	196	100	3.0	55.5	25.5	1.0	9.5	3.0	1.0	1.0	0.5
STAFF NO.											
Under 10	5	2.5	0.5	0	1.0	0	0.5	0.5	0	0	0
11 - 20	41	20.9	1.1	9.6	8.7	0	0.5	0.5	0	0.5	0
21 - 30	46	23.5	0	13.8	4.6	0.5	2.6	0.5	1.0	0	0.5
31 - 40	45	23.0	0.5	13.4	4.0	0	4.6	0.5	0	0	0
41 - 50	23	11.7	0	5.1	4.6	0.5	1.0	0.5	0	0	0
Over 50	36	18.4	1.1	13.7	2.6	0	0.5	0.5	0	0	0
Totals	196	100	3.2	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.0	1.0	0.5	0.5
SCHOOL TYPE											
Elementary	107	54.6	0.5	29.2	16.8	0.5	4.6	1.5	1.0	0	0.5
Secondary	89	45.4	0.5	26.5	8.7	0.5	5.1	1.5	0	0.5	0
Totals	196	100	3.1	55.7	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.0	1.0	0.5	0.5

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, S4=LT-LR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2, Seventh style=S2/S4, Eighth style=S1/S4, and the Ninth style=S1/S2/S3.

TABLE 4.2 (cont'd.)
DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPATING PRINCIPALS BY STYLE

VARIABLE	TOTAL	BASIC STYLES									
		Single Basic Styles					Multiple Basic Styles				
		S1	S2	S3	S4	S2/S3	S1/S2	S2/S4	S1/S4	S1/S2/S3	
N =	196	6	109	50	2	19	6	2	1	1	
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
NO. OF PUPILS											
< 250	44	22.5	0.5	11.3	7.7	0.5	1.5	0.5	0	0.5	0
251 - 500	91	46.5	1.6	26.5	9.1	0	6.2	1.6	1.0	0	0.5
501 - 750	35	17.8	1.0	7.1	8.2	0	1.5	0	0	0	0
751 - 1000	17	8.6	0	7.1	0.5	0.5	0	0.5	0	0	0
1001 - 1250	2	1.0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0
> 1250	7	3.6	0	3.1	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0
Totals	196	100	3.1	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
ASST. ADMS.											
None	113	57.7	1.5	28.1	17.4	0.5	6.1	2.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
1	63	32.2	1.5	19.4	7.7	0.5	3.1	0	0	0	0
2	16	8.1	0	6.1	0.5	0	0.5	1.0	0	0	0
3	2	1.0	0	1.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Over 3	2	1.0	0	1.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Totals	196	100	3.0	55.6	25.6	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5
STUDENTS ON LUNCH PROG. (Range in %)											
0 - 15	20	10.2	0	5.6	3.1	0	1.0	0.5	0	0	0
16 - 30	49	25.0	0.5	14.8	5.6	0	3.1	0	1.0	0	0
31 - 45	52	26.5	0.5	15.8	6.6	0	2.6	0.5	0	0.5	0
46 - 60	37	18.9	1.1	10.2	5.5	0	1.0	1.1	0	0	0
61 - 75	19	9.7	0.5	3.6	3.1	0.5	1.5	0.5	0	0	0
Over 75	19	9.7	0.5	5.6	1.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0	0	0.5
Totals	196	100	3.1	55.6	25.5	1.0	9.7	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.5

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, S4=LT-LR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2, Seventh style=S2/S4, Eighth style=S1/S4, and the Ninth style=S1/S2/S3.

PARTICIPATING PRINCIPAL PERCENTAGES
(Sample "n" = 198)

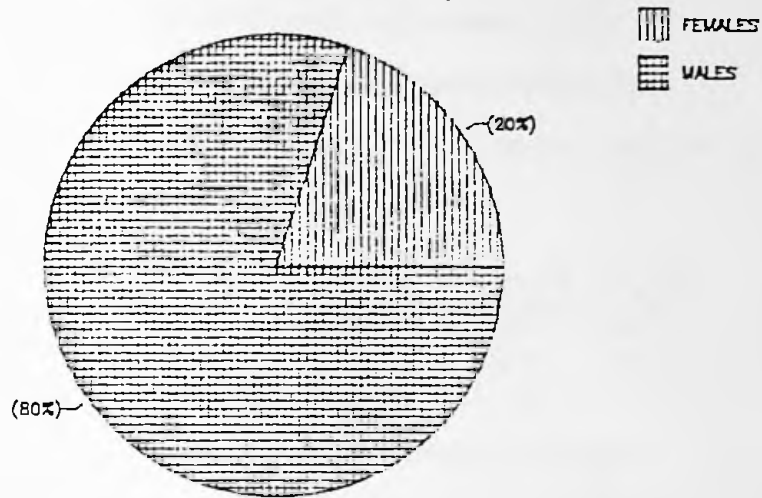


Figure 4.1

The male to female principal ratios for the various populations are:

<u>POPULATION</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>RATIO (M:F)</u>
Universe	957	708	249	3:1
Stratified	611	458	153	3:1
Elementary	407	270	137	2:1
Secondary	204	188	16	11:1
Sample	196	157	39	4:1
Elementary	107	73	34	2:1
Secondary	89	84	5	16:1

The ratio of male to female secondary principals for the sample (16:1) only varied from the stratified sample (11:1) by two female principals and was not considered to be indicative of a skewed sample.

2. Except for the youngest and oldest, the ages of the sample (n=196) were divided into ten-year periods. The data, presented in Figure 4.2 as a percent of "n", consisted of the following:

<u>Age Group</u>	<u>No. in Group</u>	<u>% of "n"</u>	<u>Age Range</u>	<u>No. in Group</u>	<u>% of "n"</u>
< 25	0	0	45-54	68	34.7
25-34	10	5.1	55-64	40	20.4
35-44	76	38.8	> 64	2	1.0

3. The education level of the sample (n=196) ranged from a BS/BA degree plus 15 graduate credit hours to a Doctorate. The BS and MS categories also include BA and MA degrees.

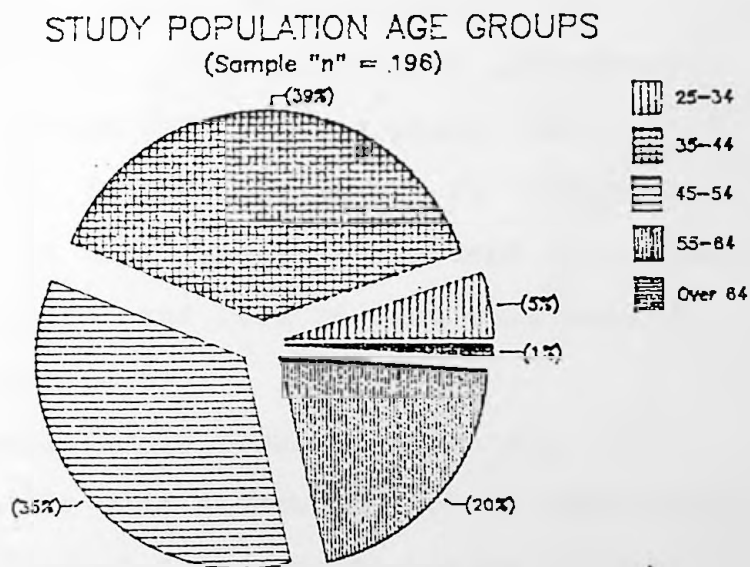


Figure 4.2

Figure 4.3 presents the category and percent of "n" the category represents. The category, number and percent (percent in parentheses) within each category follow:

<u>Category</u>	<u>No. and (%)</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u>No. and (%)</u>
BS + 15	0 (0)	MS + 15	16 (8.2)
BS + 30	1 (0.5)	MS + 30	165 (84.2)
MS	5 (2.6)	Doctorate	9 (4.6)

The majority of principals (84.2%) in this study are in the Masters plus 30 category.

4. The sample (n=196) reported years of experience in their current job title as 19.9 percent (39) under 4 years, 25.5 percent (50) from 4 to 9 years, 26 percent (51) from 10 to 15 years, 19.9 percent (39) from 16 to 21 years and 8.7 percent (17) over 21 years (Figure 4.4).
5. The total range of administrative experience was 5.6 percent (11) under 4 years, 20.4 percent (40) from 4 to 9 years, 33.7 percent (66) from 10 to 15 years, 24 percent (47) from 16 to 21 years, and 16.3 percent (32) over 21 years (Figure 4.5).
6. Of the total sample population (n=196), 54.6 percent (107) were elementary school principals and 45.4 percent (89) were secondary school principals (Figure 4.6).

PRINCIPALS' EDUCATION LEVEL
(Sample "n" = 196)

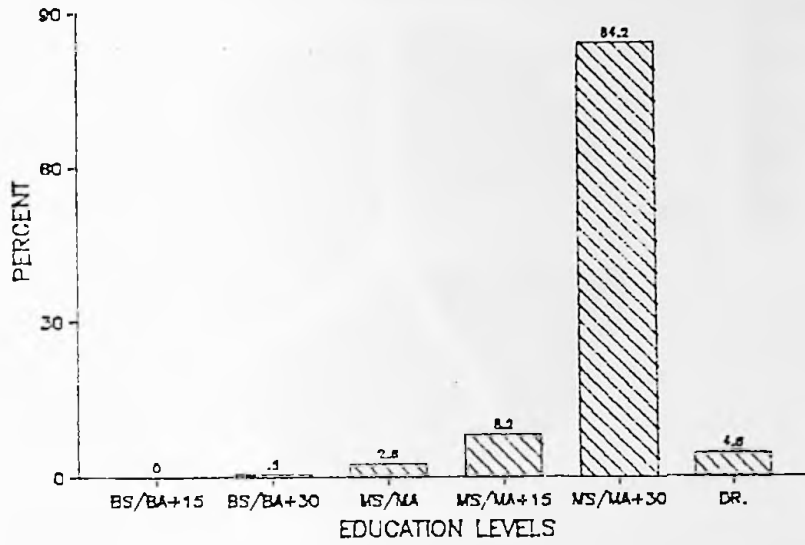


Figure 4.3

EXPERIENCE — CURRENT POSITION
(Sample "n" = 196)

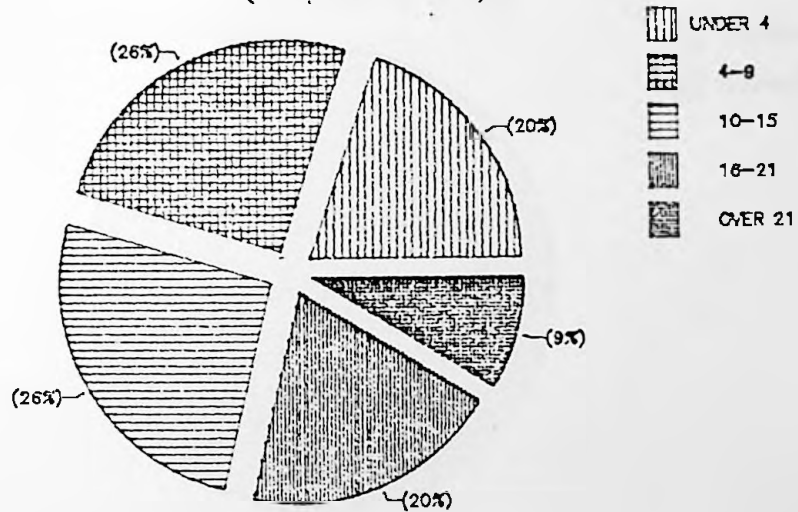


Figure 4.4

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL ADMIN. EXPERIENCE
(Sample "n" = 198)

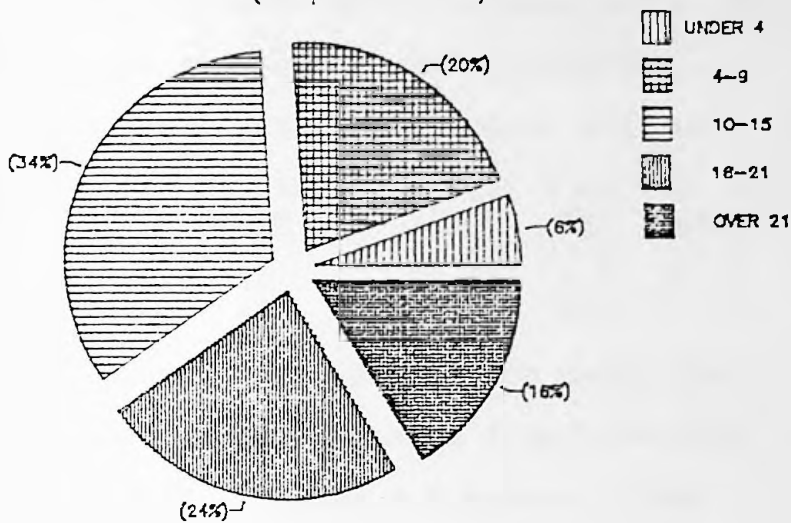


Figure 4.5

SCHOOL TYPES PARTICIPATING IN STUDY
(Sample "n" = 196)

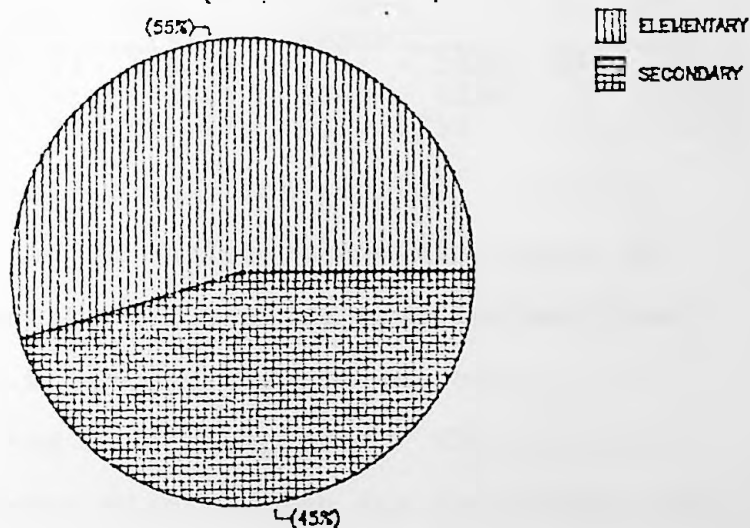


FIGURE 4.6

7. The range of the principal's staff size was from under ten to over fifty (Figure 4.7). The staff size and the percent of principals reporting a staff within that range follows:

<u>Staff Size</u>	<u>% of "n"</u>	<u>No. in Range</u>	<u>Staff Size</u>	<u>% of "n"</u>	<u>No. in Range</u>
< 10	2.6	5	31-40	23.0	45
11-20	20.9	41	41-50	11.7	23
21-30	23.5	46	O> 50	18.4	36

8. The size of the student population under the principal's supervision ranged from less than 250 to over 1250. Figure 4.8 presents the distribution of the student ranges by percent. For this study sample (n=196), the range of student populations, number and the percent of schools (percent in parentheses) having a student population within that range follows:

<u>Pop. Range</u>	<u>No. and (%)</u>	<u>Pop. Range</u>	<u>No. and (%)</u>
< 250	44 (22.4)	751 - 1000	17 (8.7)
251 - 500	91 (46.4)	1000 - 1250	2 (1.0)
501 - 750	35 (17.9)	> 1250	7 (3.6)

9. Of the sample population (n=196), 113 (57.5 percent) had no assistant administrator, 63 (32.1 percent) had one, 16 (8.2 percent) had two, 2 (1.0 percent) had three, and 2 (1.0 percent) had more than three. The assistant administrator distribution for the sample (in

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS' STAFF SIZE
(Sample "n" = 196)

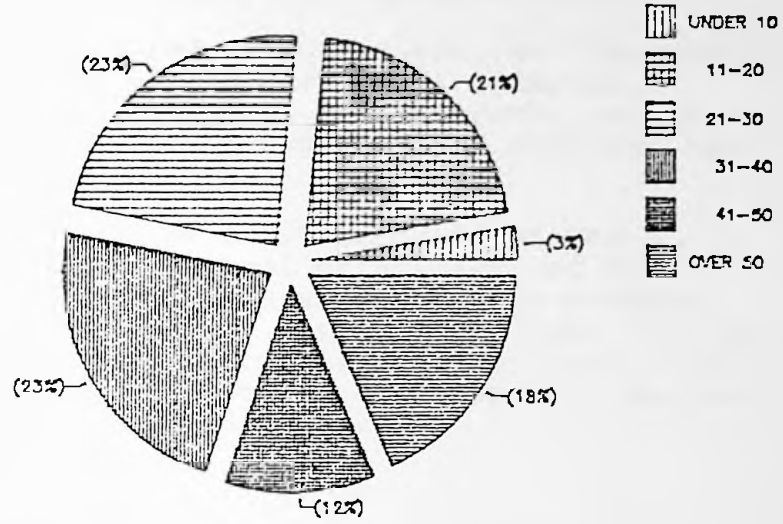


Figure 4.7

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT POPULATION
(Sample "n" = 196)

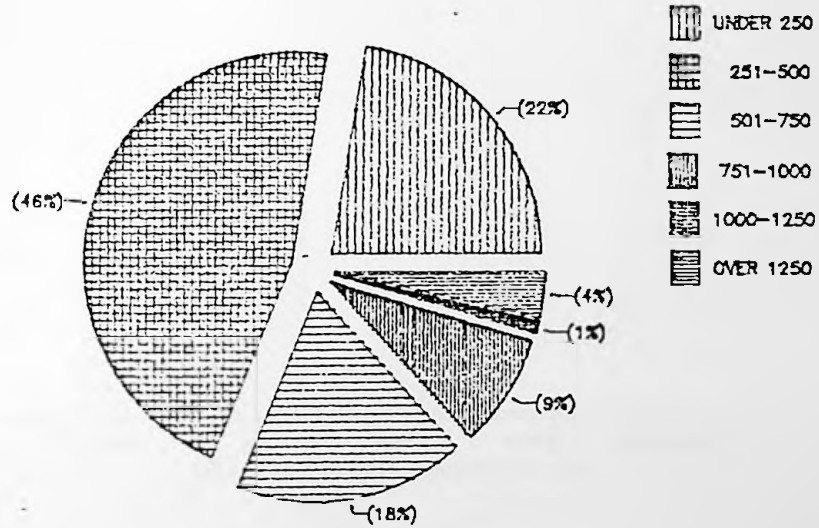


FIGURE 4.8

percent) is presented in Figure 4.9. Further examination of this data revealed that:

- (a) One hundred seventy-eight (90.7 percent) of the elementary school principals had no assistant administrator, eighteen (9.3 percent) had one, and none had two or more.
- (b) Thirty-five (18.0 percent) of the secondary school principals had no assistant administrators, one hundred eighteen (59.6 percent) had one, thirty-five (18.0 percent) had two, four (2.2 percent) had three and four (2.2 percent) had more than three.

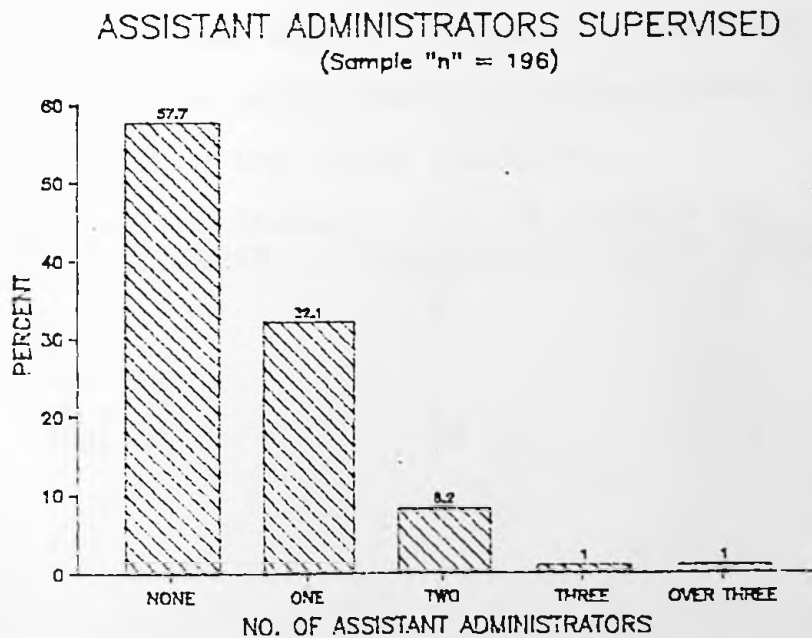


Figure 4.9

10. The principals in this study perceived that their average work week ranged from 40 to over 60 hours (Figure 4.10). Of the total sample (n=196), none reported having an average work week of less than 40 hours per week, 71 (36.2 percent) reported working an average of 40 to 49 hours per week, 98 (50.0 percent) reported working 50 to 59 hours per week, and 27 (13.8 percent) reported working over 60 hours per week.
11. The principals in the sample (n=196) reported, within the ranges indicated, the percentage of their student body enrolled in the free lunch program at their school. Figure 4.11 presents the percentage (shown below in parentheses) of schools within the range indicated.

<u>Range (in %) of Student Body in Program</u>	<u>No. of Schools and Percent (%) Within Range</u>
0 - 15	20 (10.2)
16 - 30	49 (25.0)
31 - 45	52 (26.5)
46 - 60	37 (18.9)
61 - 75	19 (9.7)
Over 75	19 (9.7)

AVERAGE HOURS WORKED PER WEEK

(Sample "n" = 196)

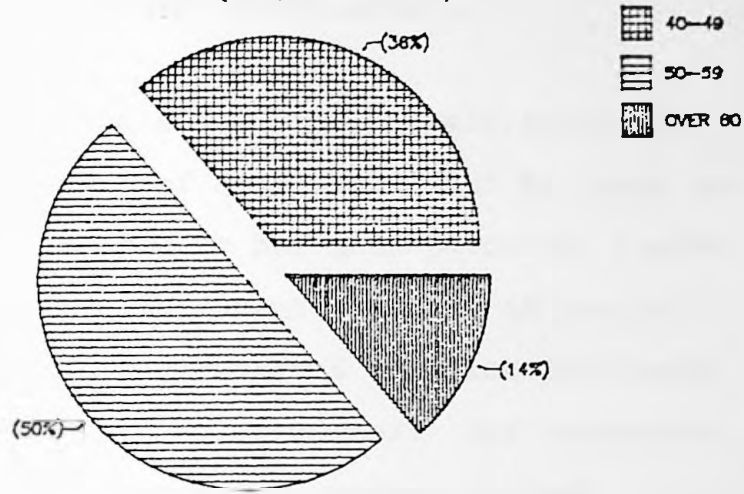


Figure 4.10

SCHOOL FREE LUNCH PROGRAM

(Sample "n" = 196)

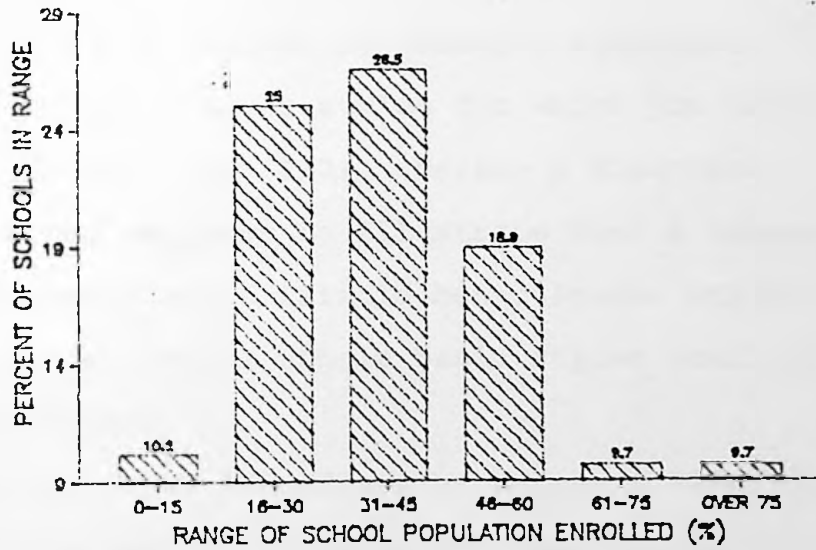


Figure 4.11

Principal's Self-perceived Leader Style

Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) LEAD-Self instrument (Appendix C) is a means of self-assessment by which an individual identifies his or her self-perceived leader style. The LEAD-Self instrument consists of twelve hypothetical leadership situations in which followers are performing in a particular manner. The respondent selects one of four alternative actions to each individual situation which he or she perceives would most closely describe their own leader behavior in that situation. The Scoring Key to Hersey & Blanchard's LEAD-Self (Appendix D) provides the procedures needed to determine a respondent's basic and supporting styles.

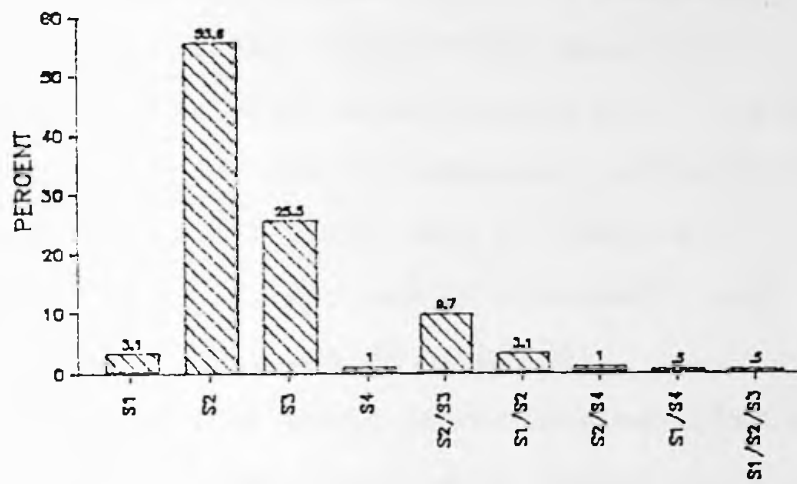
Basic style is defined by Hersey & Blanchard (1977) as "...the style or styles for which you have the most responses" (p. 232). Hersey & Blanchard (1977) presented examples to illustrate that a leader can have one basic style (single basic leader style) or a combination of several single basic styles (multiple basic leader style).

Supporting style is defined by Hersey & Blanchard (1977) as "...a leadership style you tend to use on

occasion. Supporting styles are any of the other style configurations, other than your basic style, in which you have two or more responses" (p. 232). Therefore, an individual respondent will always have at least one basic style and have from zero to three supporting styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). This study concentrates only on the basic or dominant leader styles.

The data from this study identified nine basic leader style configurations (4 single basic leader styles & 5 multiple basic leader styles) (Figure 4.12) out of a possible fifteen basic leader style configurations (4 single basic leader styles & 11 multiple basic leader styles). Those single basic leader styles which the data identified were Style 1 (S1, High Task-Low Relations); Style 2 (S2, High Task-High Relations); Style 3 (S3, Low Task-High Relations); and Style 4 (S4, Low Task-Low Relations). Those multiple basic leader styles which were identified by the data were arbitrarily assigned descriptor titles of the fifth basic leader style through the ninth basic leader style. These multiple basic leader styles are combinations of single basic leader styles in the following configurations: the

STUDY POPULATION LEADER STYLES
(Sample "n" = 198)



LEADER STYLES
Figure 4.12

fifth basic leader style, S2/S3 (Styles 2 & 3 combined); the sixth basic leader style, S1/S2 (Styles 1 & 2 combined); the seventh basic leader style, S2/S4 (Styles 2 & 4 combined); the eighth basic leader style,

S1/S4 (Styles 1 & 4 combined); and the ninth basic leader style, S1/S2/S3 (Styles 1, 2, & 3 combined). The multiple basic leader styles which were not indicated by the data were leader styles S1/S3 (S1 and S3 combined), S3/S4 (S3 and S4 combined), S1/S2/S4 (S1, S2, and S4 combined), S1/S3/S4 (S1, S3, and S4 combined), S2/S3/S4 (S2, S3, and S4 combined), and S1/S2/S3/S4 (S1, S2, S3, and S4 combined).

Of the two types of basic leader styles, single basic leader style and multiple basic leader style, the single basic leader style accounted for the majority of principals (85.2 percent) in this study with the multiple basic leader style (14.8 percent) clearly in the minority. The most frequently perceived leader styles in the study were S2 (55.6 percent), S3 (25.5 percent) and the fifth basic leader style (S2/S3) (9.7 percent). S1 (3.1 percent), S4 (1.0 percent), S1/S2 (the sixth basic leader style - 3.1 percent), S2/S4 (the seventh basic leader style - 1.0 percent), S1/S4 (the eighth basic leader style - 0.5 percent), and S1/S2/S3 (the ninth basic leader style - 0.5 percent) accounted for the remaining 9.2 percent of the sample (Table 4.2, page 97).

Principal's Self-perceived Job Stress

Swent & Gmelch's (1977) original thirty-five item Administrative Stress Index (ASI) was used to secure and determine individual respondent's self-perceived job stress information (Appendix C). The instrument is comprised of items to which a response is made on a five-point Likert scale (Swent & Gmelch, 1977; Tung & Koch, 1980; Tung, 1980; Gmelch & Swent, 1984). Table 3.1, page 86, groups the twenty-five items by applicable job dimension. The ten items in Table 3.2, page 89, (3, 4, 8, 11, 14, 15, 17, 25, 28, and 33) which were deleted by Tung & Koch (1980), were also excluded from this study.

The four categories of self-perceived job stress, as determined by Tung & Koch (1980) and listed in Table 3.1, page 86, are task based stress (responses to items 1, 2, 9, 10, 2, 18, 19, 26, 31, and 32), role based stress (responses to items 5, 6, 13, 16, 22, 30, and 34), conflict mediating stress (responses to items 7, 20, and 23), and boundary spanning stress (responses to items 21, 24, 27, 29, and 35).

Table 4.3 revealed that the principals' responses to self-perceived job stress was distributed over the

TABLE 4.3
JOB STRESS DIMENSIONS BY SCHOOL TYPE

TASK BASED STRESS													
LEADER STYLE	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (n=107)						SECONDARY SCHOOLS (n=89)						
	LOW		MOD.		HIGH		LOW		MOD.		HIGH		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
S1	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5.6	0	0	
S2	17	16.0	33	30.9	7	6.5	14	15.7	27	30.3	11	12.4	
S3	21	19.7	9	8.4	3	2.8	5	5.6	8	9.0	4	4.5	
S4	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	0	0	
S2/S3	1	0.9	3	7.5	0	0	3	3.4	4	4.5	3	3.4	
S1/S2	1	0.9	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	3	3.4	0	0	
S2/S4	0	0	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
S1/S4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	
S1/S2/S3	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
TOTALS	43	40.2	54	50.5	10	9.3	23	25.9	48	53.9	18	20.2	

ROLE BASED STRESS													
LEADER STYLE	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (n=107)						SECONDARY SCHOOLS (n=89)						
	LOW		MOD.		HIGH		LOW		MOD.		HIGH		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
S1	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	3	3.3	2	2.4	0	0	
S2	43	40.3	14	13.1	0	0	37	41.6	10	11.2	5	5.6	
S3	30	28.0	3	2.8	0	0	12	13.5	4	4.5	1	1.1	
S4	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	
S2/S3	4	3.7	5	4.7	0	0	4	4.5	6	6.7	0	0	
S1/S2	2	1.9	1	0.9	0	0	2	2.3	1	1.1	0	0	
S2/S4	0	0	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
S1/S4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	
S1/S2/S3	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
TOTALS	82	76.6	25	23.4	0	0	58	65.2	25	28.1	6	6.7	

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, S4=LT-LR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2, Seventh style=S2/S4, Eighth style=S1/S4, and the Ninth style=S1/S2/S3.

TABLE 4.3 (cont'd.)
JOB STRESS DIMENSIONS BY SCHOOL TYPE

LEADER STYLE	CONFLICT MEDIATING STRESS											
	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (n=107)						SECONDARY SCHOOLS (n=99)					
	LOW		MOD.		HIGH		LOW		MOD.		HIGH	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
S1	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	2	2.2	3	3.4	0	0
S2	17	15.9	25	23.5	15	14.0	25	28.1	12	13.5	15	16.9
S3	13	12.2	16	14.9	4	3.7	7	7.9	10	11.2	0	0
S4	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	0	0
S2/S3	3	2.8	6	5.6	0	0	4	4.5	5	5.6	1	1.1
S1/S2	0	0	3	2.8	0	0	1	1.1	2	2.3	0	0
S2/S4	0	0	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S1/S4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0
S1/S2/S3	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	34	31.8	54	50.5	19	17.7	40	44.9	33	37.1	16	18.0

LEADER STYLE	BOUNDARY SPANNING STRESS											
	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (n=107)						SECONDARY SCHOOLS (n=99)					
	LOW		MOD.		HIGH		LOW		MOD.		HIGH	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
S1	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	4	4.5	1	1.1	0	0
S2	50	46.8	6	5.6	1	0.9	38	42.7	12	13.5	2	2.2
S3	31	29.0	2	1.9	0	0	15	16.8	2	2.3	0	0
S4	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	0	0
S2/S3	8	7.5	1	0.9	0	0	7	7.9	3	3.4	0	0
S1/S2	3	2.8	0	0	0	0	2	2.3	1	1.1	0	0
S2/S4	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S1/S4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	0	0
S1/S2/S3	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	97	90.7	9	8.4	1	0.9	67	75.3	20	22.5	2	2.2

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, S4=LT-LR. Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2, Seventh style=S2/S4, Eighth style=S1/S4, and the Ninth style=S1/S2/S3.

job stress dimensions as follows:

<u>Stress Dimension</u>	<u>Low Stress</u>	<u>Mod. Stress</u>	<u>High Stress</u>
Task Based	33.7%	52.0%	14.3%
Role Based	71.4%	25.5%	3.1%
Conflict Med.	37.8%	44.4%	17.8%
Boundary Span.	83.7%	14.8%	1.5%

Table 4.3 shows the relationship between the sample population's perceived job stress and the self-reported demographic school type. Table 4.4 shows the relationship between the sample population's perceived job stress and the self-reported demographic sex. Table 4.5 presents the frequency of job stress dimensions by leader style. Figure 4.13 depicts the individual means of the four stress categories.

TABLE 4.4
STRESS BY SEX

STRESS	SEX					
	MALE (157)			FEMALE (39)		
	LOW (%)	MOD (%)	HIGH (%)	LOW (%)	MOD (%)	HIGH (%)
TASK	29.3	56.7	14.0	51.3	33.3	15.4
ROLE	68.2	28.0	3.8	84.6	15.4	0
CONFLICT	36.3	45.9	17.8	43.6	38.5	17.9
BOUNDARY	82.2	16.5	1.3	89.7	7.7	2.6

TABLE 4.5
 FREQUENCY OF JOB STRESS DIMENSIONS AND LEADER STYLE
 (Total n=196)

LEADER STYLE	STRESS DIMENSION											
	TASK BASED STRESS						ROLE BASED STRESS					
	LOW		MOD.		HIGH		LOW		MOD.		HIGH	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
S1	1	0.5	5	2.6	0	0	4	2.0	2	1.0	0	0
S2	31	15.8	60	30.6	19	9.2	80	40.8	24	12.3	5	2.6
S3	26	13.4	17	8.6	7	3.6	42	21.5	7	3.6	1	0.5
S4	2	1.0	0	0	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.5	0	0
S2/S3	4	2.0	12	6.1	3	1.5	8	4.1	11	5.6	0	0
S1/S2	1	0.5	5	2.6	0	0	4	2.0	2	1.0	0	0
S2/S4	0	0	2	1.0	0	0	0	0	2	1.0	0	0
S1/S4	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	0	0	1	0.5	0	0
S1/S2/S3	1	0.5	0	0	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	66	33.7	102	52.0	28	14.3	140	71.4	50	25.5	6	3.1

LEADER STYLE	STRESS DIMENSION											
	CONFLICT MEDIATING STRESS						BOUNDARY SPANNING STRESS					
	LOW		MOD.		HIGH		LOW		MOD.		HIGH	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
S1	3	1.5	3	1.5	0	0	5	2.6	1	0.5	0	0
S2	42	21.4	37	18.9	30	15.3	88	44.8	18	9.3	3	1.5
S3	20	10.3	26	13.3	4	2.0	46	23.5	4	2.0	0	0
S4	1	0.5	1	0.5	0	0	2	1.0	0	0	0	0
S2/S3	7	3.6	11	5.6	1	0.5	15	7.7	4	2.0	0	0
S1/S2	1	0.5	5	2.6	0	0	5	2.6	1	0.5	0	0
S2/S4	0	0	2	1.0	0	0	2	1.0	0	0	0	0
S1/S4	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	0	0	1	0.5	0	0
S1/S2/S3	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	74	37.8	87	44.4	35	17.8	164	83.7	29	14.9	3	1.5

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, S4=LT-LR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2, Seventh style=S2/S4, Eighth style=S1/S4, and the Ninth style=S1/S2/S3.

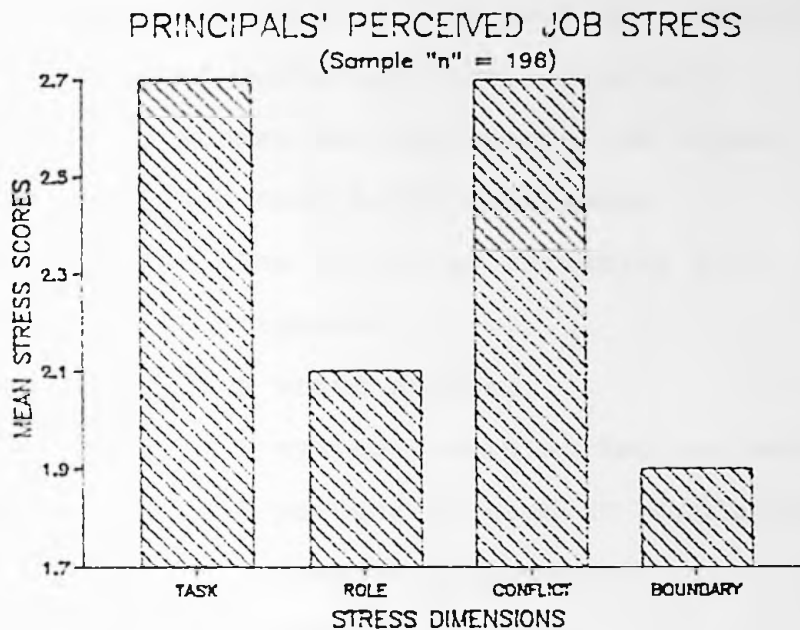


Figure 4.13

Statistical Analysis Procedures

The original proposal for data analysis included Chi Square, Stepwise Regression and Discriminant Analysis. These statistical tests identified strong relationships. These data were then used as a basis for further testing. Additionally, the Analysis of Variance procedure in the General Linear Models of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used.

The Chi Square goodness of fit test was used to analyze self-reported demographic variables with self-perceived job stress and self-perceived leader style. The Chi Square test identified those relationships between the following variables that required further investigation:

- 1) School type & staff number.
- 2) School type & average hours worked per week.
- 3) School type & percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program.
- 4) School type & sex.
- 5) School type & task based stress.
- 6) Task based stress & average hours worked per week.
- 7) Task based stress & total administrative experience.
- 8) Task based stress & percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program.
- 9) Task based stress & sex.
- 10) Single/multiple basic leader style & role based stress.
- 11) Single/multiple basic leader style & average hours worked per week.

12) Single/multiple basic leader style & conflict mediating stress, conflict mediating stress & total administrative experience.

13) Conflict mediating stress & number of assistant administrators.

The Stepwise Regression procedure is useful in identifying appropriate independent variables to be included in a statistical analysis model when there are many independent variables. It is useful in presenting insight into relationships between the independent and dependent variables (Ray, 1982).

The model selection methods used to explore the independent variables were Forward Selection, Backward Elimination and the Maximum R-Square improvement technique.

The stepwise procedure indicated that there was a potentially significant relationship between the dependent variable task based stress and the following independent variables:

- 1) Education level.
- 2) Years of administrative experience in current position.
- 3) Total administrative experience.
- 4) Staff number.
- 5) Number of assistant administrators.

- 6) Average hours of work per week.
- 7) Percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program.

The stepwise procedure further indicated that there was a potentially significant relationship between the dependent variable role based stress and the following independent variables:

- 1) Education level.
- 2) Number of pupils in the school.

Further, the stepwise procedure indicated that there was a potentially significant relationship between the dependent variable conflict mediating stress and the following independent variables:

- 1) Total years of administrative experience.
- 2) Staff number.
- 3) Number of assistant administrators.
- 4) Percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program.

And finally, the stepwise procedure identified the following variables as potential correlates with the dependent variable boundary spanning stress:

- 1) Age.
- 2) Education level.
- 3) Years of administrative experience in current position.

4) Total years of administrative experience.

5) Number of pupils in the school.

The Discriminant analysis procedure analyzes data by relating the variance of several continuous variables to a category or classification variable (Ray, 1982).

The variables used in this procedure were self-perceived leader style and all thirty-five responses to Swent & Gmelch's (1977) original Administrative Stress Index (ASI). These thirty-five items were used by Tung & Koch (1980) in their statistical manipulation to define the four dimensions of self-perceived job stress.

The Discriminant Analysis procedure revealed that seven of the thirty-five responses to the ASI exhibited a potential for a strong relationship with the independent variable leader style. Of these seven responses, two were not included in any of the four dimensions of self-perceived job stress. The remaining five responses were included in three of the four dimensions of self-perceived job stress, one in task based stress, one in role based stress and three in boundary spanning stress.

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses were tested with the Analysis of Variance-General Linear Model (GLM) procedure. The 0.05 alpha level of significance was selected as the criterion for rejecting the null hypothesis. The total sample (196) was utilized in the statistical procedures except where noted. The total sample was not used when the "n" in a variable category was less than two because the statistical procedures cannot predict statistical relationships. When leader style was partitioned into its nine individual style categories and these further segmented into school type categories (elementary and secondary), the "n"s within the leader style categories were too small to support a valid statistical test of leader style and job stress by school type.

Each hypothesis statement is followed by a description of the variables, the statement of acceptance or rejection, and its applicable statistical table. The table heading identifies the statistical procedure used to test the variables included in the procedure. The dependent variable (DV) in all Analysis of Variance (GLM) procedures is principal's perceived job stress.

There are six columns in each table which list the variable name and statistical outputs for the individual procedure using the variables stated in the table heading. Excluding the model statement, column 1 (SOURCE) identifies the titles of the between group and within group variables included in the procedure.

The various statistics associated with the variables identified in column 1 are listed from column 2 through column 6. Column 2 indicates the degrees of freedom, column 3 the sum of squares, column 4 the mean square, column 5 the F value, and column 6 the probability of significance for the F value.

Statistical significance for a variable or a relationship of variables is individually determined and reflected through the F value (column 5) and its associated probability level (column 6).

On an a priori basis a probability of 0.05 was the criterion set for rejecting the null hypothesis. Any probability level of 0.05 or less was sufficient basis to reject the null hypothesis. The F value was the determinant for the probability levels. In the following tables, 4.6 through 4.16, statistically significant relationships are identified with an asterisk (*).

Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between the principal's self-perceived leader style and the principal's self-perceived job stress.

The variables in this hypothesis were self-perceived leader style (Style) and self-perceived job stress (Stress). Self-perceived leader style was determined by responses on Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) LEAD-Self instrument and consisted of the four single basic leader styles and five of the possible eleven multiple basic leader styles.

The four single basic leader styles 1 through 4 were intended to be identical to Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) basic leader styles S1 (HT-LR), S2 (HT-HR), S3 (LT-HR), and S4 (LT-LR). The remaining five multiple basic leader styles were arbitrarily termed the fifth through the ninth style and were depicted by placing a slash between the combined single basic styles involved. The multiple basic leader styles were the fifth style (S2/S3), the sixth style (S1/S2), the seventh style (S2/S4), the eighth style (S1/S4), and the ninth style (S1/S2/S3). Basic leader styles S1/S4 and S1/S2/S3 were excluded from the ANOVA (GLM) procedure because their "n" was less than two.

Self-perceived job stress consisted of the four dimensions which were identified by Tung & Koch (1980). The four dimensions are task based stress, role based

stress, conflict mediating stress, and boundary spanning stress.

The seven self-perceived leader styles defined seven between group levels, and the four self-perceived job stress dimensions defined four within group levels. These between and within group levels were subjected to a mixed design Analysis of Variance (GLM) procedure.

The results of the analysis (Table 4.6) supported the null hypothesis statement. The F value (column 5) for the relationship of the variables perceived leader style and perceived job stress (style*stress) was 0.65 and its probability of significance (column 6) was 0.8565. Therefore, on the basis of the data, Hypothesis 1 was not rejected. There is no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between the principals' self-perceived leader style and the principals' self-perceived job stress.

Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between elementary principals' self-perceived job stress and secondary principals' self-perceived job stress.

The variables for this procedure were school type (Sctype) and self-perceived job stress (Stress). School type consisted of elementary and secondary schools as defined in Chapter I. Self-perceived job

TABLE 4.6
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)

STYLE AND STRESS
(Styles 1 through 7)

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	214	331.038	1.547	4.91	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	6	14.33082337	2.388	2.08	0.0573
ID*Style (Error Between)	187	214.58666375	1.148		
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	19.86092925	6.620	21.03	0.0001*
Style*Stress	18	3.70725244	0.206	0.65	0.8565
Residual (Error Within)	579	180.35	0.311		
Corrected Total	775	507.680			

*Statistically significant

stress consisted of the four dimensions which were identified by Tung & Koch (1980), task based stress, role based stress, conflict mediating stress, and boundary spanning stress.

The two school types defined two between group levels, and the four self-perceived job stress dimensions defined four within group levels. These between and within group levels were subjected to an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) GLM procedure.

The analysis results did not support the null hypothesis statement (Figure 4.14 and Table 4.7).

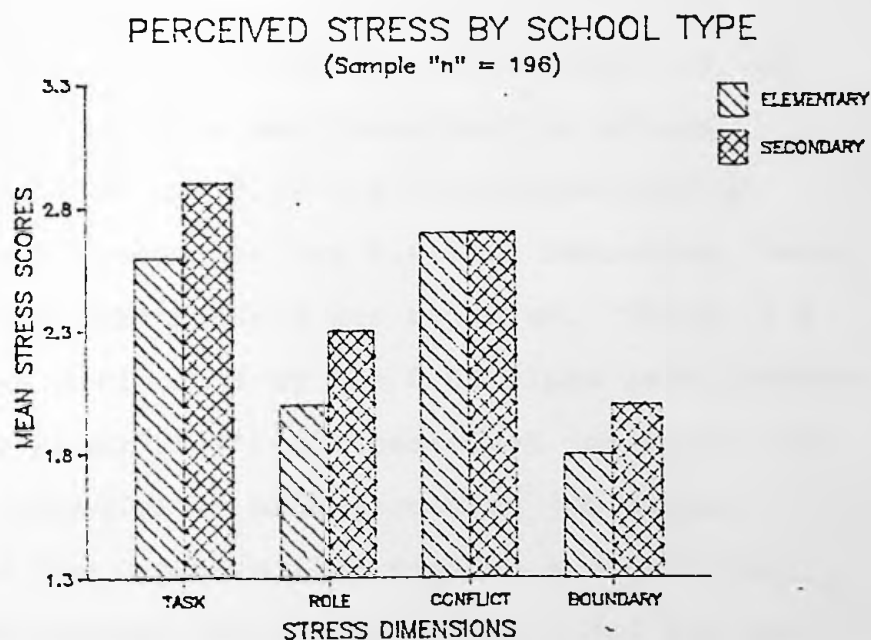


Figure 4.14

TABLE 4.7
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)

SCHOOL TYPE AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR>F
Model	201	332.046	1.652	5.35	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Schtype	1	6.43171047	6.432	5.56	0.0193*
ID•Schtype (Error Between)	194	224.22645280			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	95.76181246	31.921	103.47	0.0001*
Schtype•Stress	3	3.47645532	1.159	3.76	0.0180*
Residual (Error Within)	582	179.55	0.309		
Corrected Total	783	511.598			

*Statistically significant

The F value (column 5) for the relationship of the variables school type and perceived job stress (schtype•stress) was 3.76 and its probability of significance (column 6) was 0.0180. Therefore, based on the data, Hypothesis 2 was rejected. There is a significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between elementary principals' self-perceived job stress and secondary principals' self-perceived job stress. The results of the analysis also yielded a significant difference between school types and within the stress variable.

Hypothesis 3

There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between principals' self-perceived leader style, self-perceived job stress, and self-reported demographics.

The variables in this analysis were self-perceived leader style (Style), sex (Sex), age (Age), education level (Edlevel), school type (Schtype), total administrative experience (Totadme), staff number (Stafnum), average hours worked per week (Hrswk), percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program (Lunper), self-perceived job stress (Stress), number of people on staff (Stafnum), years in current position, number of assistant administrators, number of pupils (Numpup), years of administrative experience in current position, and total administrative experience. The difference between Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3 rests with the self-reported demographics that are included in Hypothesis 3.

Frequency cross tables were performed with self-perceived leader style and the demographic variables sex, age, education level, school type, total administrative experience, staff number, average hours worked per week, and percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program. Variables which had frequencies of more than one and categories of two or more were used to analyze self-perceived job stress.

Fourteen ANOVA procedures were performed. Of the fourteen, self-perceived job stress (within the stress variable) was significant at the 0.05 alpha level in all, self-perceived leader styles (between style categories) were significant at the 0.05 alpha level in seven of the fourteen GLMs, and two of the eight demographic variables were significant at the 0.05 alpha level. Tables 4.8 through 4.16 present the self-perceived leader styles that were statistically significant in the following configurations:

- 1) Styles S2, S3, and the fifth style (S2/S3) with number of people on staff (Stafnum) of 21-30, 31-40, & 41-50 and job stress (Table 4.8).
- 2) Styles S2, S3, and the sixth style (S1/S2) with education levels (Edlevel) of Masters plus 15 graduate hours and Masters plus 30 graduate hours and job stress (Table 4.9).
- 3) Styles S2, S3, the fifth style (S2/S3), and the sixth style (S1/S2) with total administrative experience (Totadme) of 4-9 years, 16-21 years, & over 21 years and job stress (Table 4.10).
- 4) Styles S2 and S3 with hours worked per week (Hrswk) of 40-49, 50-59, & over 60 and job stress (Table 4.11 and Figure 4.15).
- 5) Styles S2 and S3 with percent of school population on a free lunch program (Lunper) and job stress (Table 4.12 and Figure 4.16).
- 6) Styles S1, S2, S3, the fifth style (S2/S3), and the sixth style (S1/S2) with ages (Age) of 35-44 & 45-54 and job stress (Table 4.13).
- 7) Styles S2, S3, the fifth style (S2/S3), and the sixth style (S1/S2) with ages (Age) of 25-34, 35-44, & 45-54 and job stress (Table 4.14).

TABLE 4.8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)STYLE (S2,S3,S2/S3), STAFF NUMBER (21-30,31-40,41-50)
AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	131	189.457	1.446	4.88	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	2	8.71158131	4.356	4.13	0.0191*
Stafnum	2	0.49590724	0.248	0.24	0.7910
Style*Stafnum	4	8.09841254	2.025	1.92	0.1135
Style*Stafnum*ID (Error Between)	96	217.26056095			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	30.02611006	10.009	33.76	0.0001*
Style*Stress	6	0.61079175	0.102	0.34	0.9134
Stafnum*Stress	6	2.04388389	0.341	1.15	0.3339
Style*Stafnum*Stress	12	6.31595472	0.526	1.78	0.0517
Residual (Error Within)	288	85.37	0.296		
Corrected Total	419	274.830			

*Statistically significant

S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, Fifth style=S2/S3.

TABLE 4.9
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
 (GLM PROCEDURE)
 STYLE (S2,S3,S1/S2), EDUCATION LEVEL (MS+15,MS+30)
 AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	169	255.531	1.512	4.49	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	2	13.52484180	6.762	6.36	0.0022*
Edlevel	1	1.18543546	1.185	1.11	0.2927
Style*Edlevel	2	6.40227709	3.201	3.01	0.0523
Style*Edlevel*ID (Error Between)	146	155.22612538			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	18.98555478	6.329	18.79	0.0001*
Style*Stress	6	0.46461960	0.077	0.23	0.9669
Edlevel*Stress	3	2.53968886	0.847	2.51	0.0580
Style*Edlevel*Stress	6	0.81409967	0.136	0.40	0.8772
Residual (Error Within)	438	147.53	0.337		
Corrected Total	607	403.061			

*Statistically significant

S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, Sixth style=S1/S2.

TABLE 4.10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)

STYLE (S2,S3,S2/S3,S1/S2), TOTAL YEARS OF ADMINISTRATIVE
EXPERIENCE (4-9,16-21,and Over 21) AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	153	228.689	1.495	4.23	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	3	10.64813903	3.549	2.82	0.0426*
Totadme	2	0.89520728	0.448	0.36	0.7017
Style*Totadme	6	7.50831651	1.251	0.99	0.4335
Style*Totadme*ID (Error Between)	106	133.49965382			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	20.40330539	6.801	19.26	0.0001*
Style*Stress	9	2.17425078	0.242	0.68	0.7233
Totadme*Stress	6	0.94289209	0.157	0.44	0.8483
Style*Totadme*Stress	18	6.73941909	0.374	1.06	0.3922
Residual (Error Within)	318	112.30	0.353		
Corrected Total	471	340.993			

*Statistically significant

S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2.

TABLE 4.11

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)STYLE (S2,S3), HOURS WORKED PER WEEK (40-49,50-59,and Over 60)
AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	176	287.680	1.635	5.00	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	1	16.04614217	16.046	14.30	0.0002*
Hrswk	2	4.03864210	2.019	1.80	0.1689
Style*Hrswk	2	10.58145831	5.291	4.71	0.0103*
Style*Hrswk*ID (Error Between)	153	171.72740405			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	56.84130893	18.947	57.97	0.0001*
Style*Stress	3	0.40796978	0.136	0.42	0.7416
Hrswk*Stress	6	3.50762756	0.585	1.79	0.0997
Style*Hrswk*Stress	6	2.88150174	0.480	1.47	0.1869
Residual (Error Within)	459	150.02	0.327		
Corrected Total	635	437.703			

*Statistically significant

S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR.

TABLE 4.12

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)STYLE (S2,S3), PERCENT OF STUDENT POPULATION ON A FREE
LUNCH PROGRAM AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	194	295.946	1.525	4.75	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	1	4.96735832	4.967	4.13	0.0438*
Lunper	5	4.74351954	0.949	0.79	0.5589
Style*Lunper	5	6.26537395	1.253	1.04	0.3949
Style*Lunper*ID (Error Between)	147	176.66374681			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	61.23030360	20.410	63.49	0.0001*
Style*Stress	3	0.39934881	0.133	0.41	0.7429
Lunper*Stress	15	9.42090659	0.628	1.95	0.0171*
Style*Lunper*Stress	15	6.77210551	0.451	1.40	0.1407
Residual (Error Within)	441	141.76	0.321		
Corrected Total	635	437.703			

*Statistically significant

S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR.

STRESS AND HRS. WORKED PER WEEK BY STYLE
(S2, S3, HRSWK 2, 3, 4)

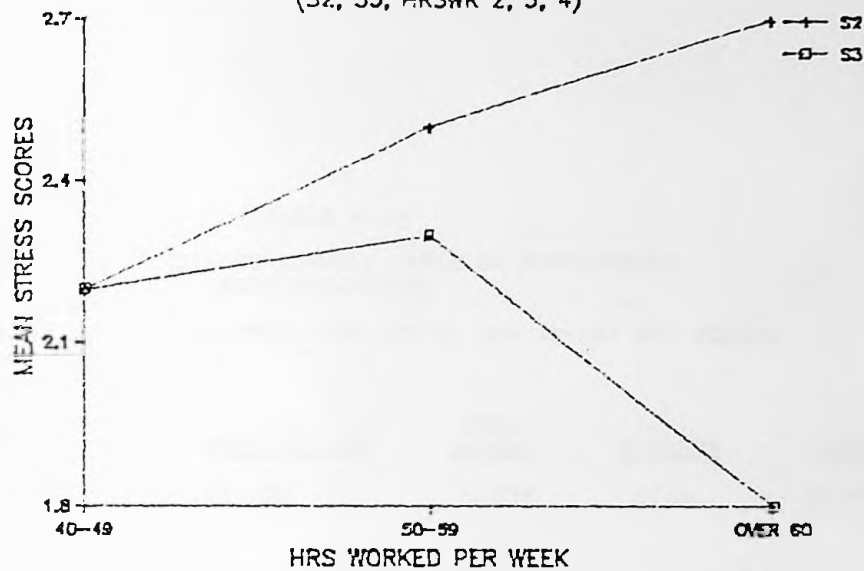


Figure 4.15

STRESS AND % STUD. POP. ON FREE LUNCH PRG.
(STYLES 2 & 3)

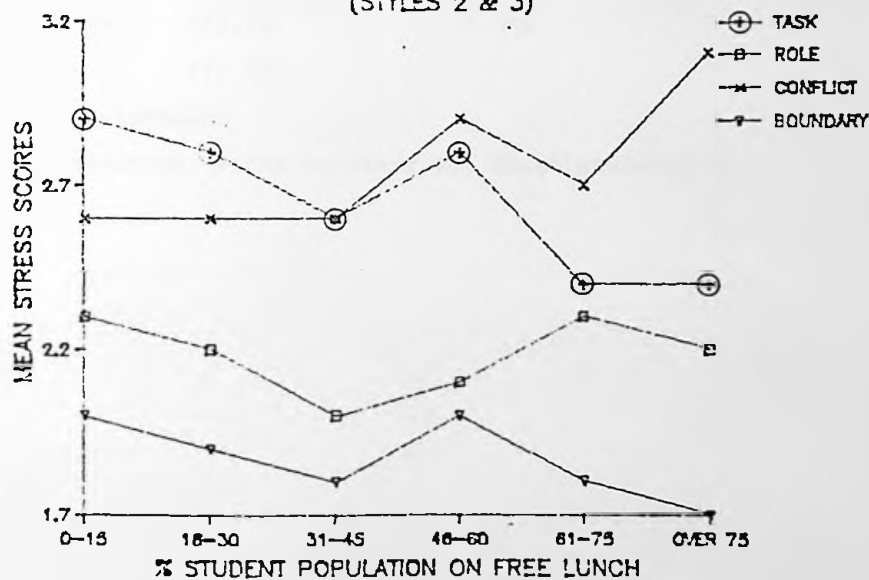


Figure 4.16

TABLE 4.13

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)

STYLE (S1,S2,S3,S2/S3,S1/S2), AGE (35-44 and 45-54) AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR>F
Model	168	258.420	1.538	5.14	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	4	18.61571763	4.654	3.87	0.0053*
Age	1	0.05504016	0.055	0.05	0.8310
Style*Age	4	2.68345703	0.671	0.56	0.6941
Style*Age*ID (Error Between)	129	155.31866996			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	23.47493612	7.825	26.17	0.0001*
Style*Stress	12	1.68482896	0.140	0.47	0.9320
Age*Stress	3	0.50414725	0.168	0.56	0.6404
Style*Age*Stress	12	2.20204444	0.184	0.61	0.8310
Residual (Error Within)	387	115.16	0.298		
Corrected Total	555	374.155			

*Statistically significant

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2.

TABLE 4.14

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
(GLM PROCEDURE)

STYLE (S2,S3,S2/S3,S1/S2), AGE (25-34,35-44,and 45-54) AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	207	304.216	1.470	4.57	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Style	3	10.06358945	3.355	2.92	0.0357*
Age	2	0.53003698	0.265	0.23	0.7941
Style*Age	6	6.15961767	1.027	0.89	0.5006
Style*Age*ID (Error Between)	160	183.68128443			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	27.18954941	9.063	28.21	0.0001*
Style*Stress	9	1.58979905	0.177	0.55	0.8379
Age*Stress	6	0.91760390	0.153	0.48	0.8263
Style*Age*Stress	18	5.20821597	0.289	0.90	0.5783
Residual (Error Within)	480	154.24	0.312		
Corrected Total	687	458.453			

*Statistically significant

S1=HT-LR, S2=HT-HR, S3=LT-HR, Fifth style=S2/S3, Sixth style=S1/S2.

The following demographic data were statistically significant in combination with self-perceived leader style and self-perceived job stress configurations:

- 1) Hours worked per week of 40-49, 50-59 & over 60 with between style groups of S2 and S3 (Table 4.11, page 136 and Figure 4.15, page 138).
- 2) Percent of student population enrolled in a free lunch program with job stress (within groups) in a style configuration of S2 and S3 (Table 4.12, page 137 and Figure 4.16, page 138).

It was further noted that there was a statistically significant relationship at the 0.05 alpha level within the job stress (Stress) variable. Inspection of the stress means for each of the four job stress dimensions revealed that boundary spanning stress was the dimension that was significantly lower than the other three. This was a consistent finding in all fourteen GLMs performed in this hypothesis.

The results of the fourteen GLM procedures did not support Hypothesis 3. Therefore, on the basis of the data, Hypothesis 3 was rejected. There is a statistically significant difference between principals' leader style, principals' job stress and principals' demographic data.

Ancillary Analyses

The demographic sex was tested with job stress to determine whether a significant relationship existed between these variables.

The two categories of sex defined two between group levels, and the four self-perceived job stress dimensions defined four within group levels. This between and within group design was used to analyze job stress.

The results of the analysis indicated a significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between male principals' self-perceived job stress and female principals' self-perceived job stress (Table 4.15 and Figure 4.17). Figure 4.17 illustrates the finding that across all four job stress dimensions, male principals perceived significantly more job stress than female principals. The results of the analysis also indicated a significant difference among the job stress dimensions.

Based upon the previous results, additional statistical treatment was indicated for the variables school type, sex, and self-perceived job stress. School type consisted of elementary and secondary schools as defined in Chapter I, sex consisted of

TABLE 4.15
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF PERCEPTIONS
 (GLM PROCEDURE)
 SEX AND STRESS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: DV

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	201	329.069	1.637	5.22	0.0001
<u>BETWEEN GROUPS</u>					
Sex	1	9.60169346	9.602	8.43	0.0041*
Sex*ID (Error Between)	194	221.05626980			
<u>WITHIN GROUPS</u>					
Stress	3	68.80743611	22.936	73.13	0.0001*
Sex*Stress	3	0.49906877	0.166	0.53	0.6615
Residual (Error Within)	582	182.53	0.314		
Corrected Total	783	511.598			

*Statistically significant

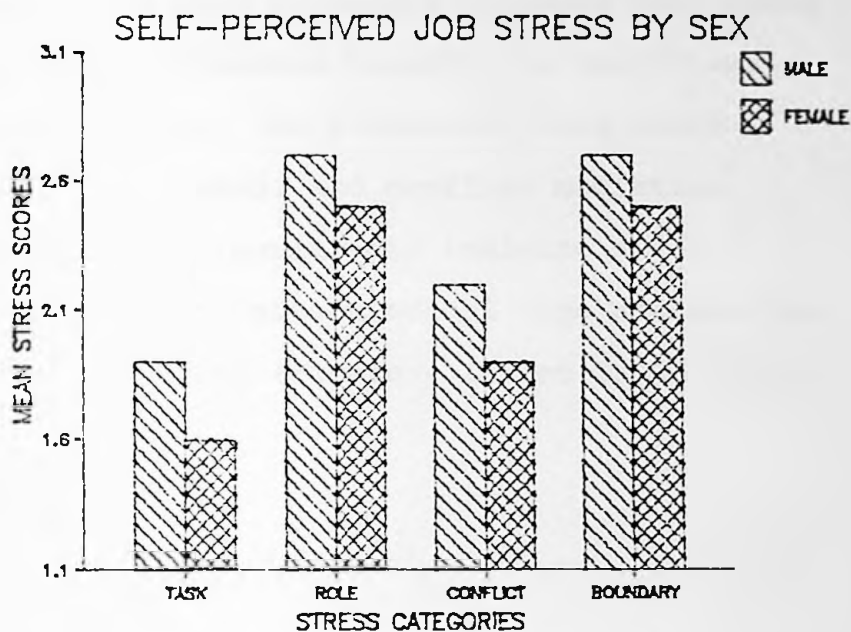


Figure 4.17

male and female, and self-perceived job stress consisted of its four dimensions, task based stress, role based stress, conflict mediating stress, and boundary spanning stress.

To make the test more precise, the self-perceived job stress variable was partitioned into its four stress dimensions (task based stress, role based stress, conflict mediating stress, and boundary spanning stress). These four dimensions were then subjected to a General Linear Model (GLM) mixed design MANOVA procedure with school type and sex.

The results of this procedure revealed that there is no significant difference between the variables school type and sex and the dimensions task based stress, role based stress, and conflict mediating stress. However, the results did indicate a significant difference between school type and sex and boundary spanning stress (Figure 4.18 and Table 4.16).

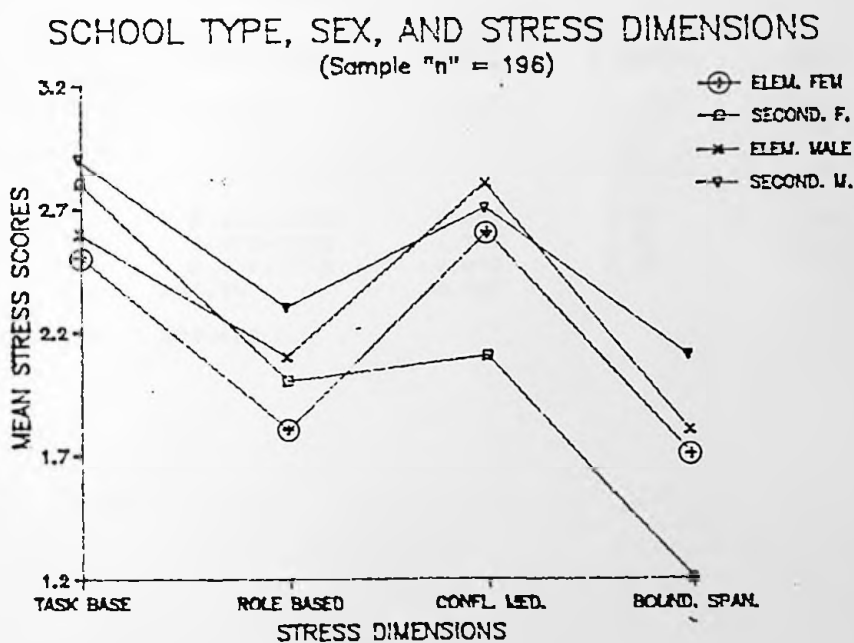


TABLE 4.16
GLM MIXED DESIGN MANOVA PROCEDURE
SCHOOL TYPE, SEX AND STRESS DIMENSIONS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: TASK BASED STRESS

SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR>F
Model	3	4.783	1.594	3.66	0.0134

WITHIN GROUPS

Schtype	1	1.56366872	1.564	3.59	0.0596
Sex	1	0.07742461	0.077	0.18	0.6738
Schtype*Sex	1	0.04037257	0.646	0.09	0.7611
Residual (Error Within)	192	83.62	0.436		
Corrected Total	195	88.401			

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ROLE BASED STRESS

SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR>F
Model	3	6.717	1.572	2.88	0.0374

WITHIN GROUPS

Schtype	1	0.30189658	0.302	0.55	0.4583
Sex	1	1.37168855	1.372	2.51	0.1148
Schtype*Sex	1	0.00012753	0.000	0.00	0.9878
Residual (Error Within)	192	104.94	0.547		
Corrected Total	195	109.660			

TABLE 4.16 (Continued)
 GLM MIXED DESIGN MANOVA PROCEDURE
 SCHOOL TYPE, SEX AND STRESS DIMENSIONS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: CONFLICT MEDIATING STRESS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	3	2.626	0.875	1.32	0.2679

WITHIN GROUPS

Schtype	1	1.19658874	1.197	1.81	0.1802
Sex	1	2.44774179	2.448	3.70	0.0558
Schtype*Sex	1	0.66662697	0.667	1.01	0.3166
Residual (Error Within)	192	126.97	0.661		
Corrected Total	195	129.595			

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: BOUNDARY SPANNING STRESS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>TYPE III SS</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>	<u>F VALUE</u>	<u>PR>F</u>
Model	3	7.282	2.427	5.92	0.0007

WITHIN GROUPS

Schtype	1	0.26188246	0.262	0.64	0.4252
Sex	1	4.13637686	4.136	10.09	0.0017*
Schtype*Sex	1	2.42431101	2.424	5.91	0.0160*
Residual (Error Within)	192	78.75	0.410		
Corrected Total	195	86.030			

*Statistically significant

CHAPTER V

Summary, Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between a principal's self-perceived leader style, self-perceived job stress, and self-reported demographics. Boenisch (1983) stated that one's characteristic leader style influences the individual's level of perceived stress. Howard (1975), Anderson (1976) and Gmelch (1983) additionally stated that prolonged stress levels lead to the deterioration of the school principal's job performance, which has an adverse rippling effect upon the environment and effectiveness of the entire school. Accordingly, the relationship between leader style and job stress merits scrutiny.

Recently, school effectiveness has been brought to national attention through such publications as A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform

(National Association for Mental Health, 1971), A Place Called School (Goodlad, 1984), and Action For Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools (Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983). In these publications researchers have reported that school effectiveness can be correlated with many variables. Clearly, job stress is one of these variables.

The school effectiveness literature strongly asserts that the principal is one of the most important individuals in influencing the improvement of instructional programs and educational experiences for students (Halpin, 1966; Brieve, 1972; Byrne, Hines, & McCleary, 1978; Goodlad, 1979; Neagley & Evans, 1980; Daniel, 1981; Lipham, 1981; Hay, 1980; Sweeny, 1982; Cedoline, 1982; Hodgkinson, 1982; Murphy 1983; Troisi, 1983; Beasley, 1984). Felsenthal (1982), Goodlad (1979), U. S. Congress, Senate Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity (1970), Sweeny (1982), and Freed & Sheppard (1983) indicated that strong leadership from the principal is the most crucial variable to a school's effectiveness.

Since the principalship is hierarchically located between Central Office supervisors and local school level subordinates, it is considered a middle management position (Campbell et. al., 1977; Cedoline, 1982).

Middle managers are believed to experience a great amount of stress because of their hierarchical position (Cooper & Marshal, 1978). The school principalship has also been generally termed by Albrecht (1979), Stewart (1980), Carlton & Brown (1981), and Piatt (1981) as being a moderately high to high stress occupation.

Korman (1966) and Gorton (1982) stated that stress or any situational moderator which impacts upon the effectiveness of a leader merits considerable attention. Brimm (1983) stated that "presently, there is little research which has been completed on the perceptions that educational administrators have on stress related to their jobs" (p. 65). Dillihunt's (1986) results opposed those reported by Boenisch (1983). Dillihunt (1986) reported that there is no relationship between leader style and stress. Boenisch (1983) reported that there is a significant relationship between leader style and stress and recommended that research in this area be pursued.

Therefore this research project was designed to investigate the relationship between a principal's perceived leader style and perceived job stress. This research project also provided basic information about the relationship between a principal's demographic data, leader style, and job stress.

Three null hypotheses were developed to test the research question.

- 1) There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between the principal's self-perceived leader style and the principal's self-perceived job stress.
- 2) There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between elementary principals' self-perceived job stress and secondary principals' self-perceived job stress.
- 3) There will be no significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between principals' self-perceived leader style, self-perceived job stress and self-reported demographics.

A survey was used because it offered a means of investigating a wide range of problems (Borg & Gall, 1979). Borg & Gall (1979) and Kerlinger (1973) stated that survey research is a valuable and useful tool when determining personal perceptions, social facts, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and preferences. The hypotheses stated in this chapter were answered by analyzing data collected from a stratified random sample of elementary and secondary principals in West Virginia's public school system.

A demographic data sheet (Appendix C), developed for this project, was used to collect information from the subjects. It consisted of twelve items: job title, age, sex, years of experience in current job title, total years of administrative job experience, level of education, school type, number of staff in

school, number of pupils in school, number of assistant administrators in the school, average number of hours worked per week, and percentage of student population participating in a free lunch program.

Two additional instruments were used to determine individual subject's self-perceived leader style and self-perceived job stress (Appendix C). Responses on Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) LEAD-Self determined principals' self-perceived leader style and responses on Tung & Koch's (1980) revised Administrative Stress Index measured principals' self-perceived job stress.

The sample was randomly chosen, with replacement, from the total (611) stratified population of public elementary and secondary school principals, as defined in Chapter I and listed in the 1985-1986 West Virginia Education Directory (1986). Stratification was based upon the type of school, elementary and secondary.

Questionnaires were sent to 320 public elementary and secondary school principals. The total response rate after two mailings was 200 (62.5 percent) of which 196 (61 percent) were usable and 4 (2 percent) were incomplete. This equated to 107 (63 percent of elementary principals) usable elementary principal responses and 89 (59 percent of secondary principals) usable secondary principal responses.

Findings

The Analysis of Variance - GLM procedure was used to test statistical significance at the 0.05 alpha level of the three stated null hypotheses. The data failed to reject one null hypothesis and rejected the remaining two.

1) On the basis of the data analysis, Hypothesis 1 was accepted. There was no significant difference between a principal's self-perceived leader style and self-perceived job stress.

2) On the basis of the data analysis, Hypothesis 2 was rejected. Therefore, there was a significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between elementary principals' self-perceived job stress and secondary principals' self-perceived job stress.

3) On the basis of the data analysis, Hypothesis 3 was rejected. Therefore, there was a significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level between principals' self-perceived leader style, principals' self-perceived job stress and principals' self-reported demographics.

4) There are two types of basic leader styles, single basic leader style and multiple basic leader style. In this study, the majority (85.2 percent) of

school principals perceived themselves as being single basic leaders and the balance (14.8 percent) perceived themselves as being multiple basic leaders. The most frequently perceived were single basic leader styles S2 (HT-HR) (55.6 percent) and S3 (LT-HR) (25.5 percent), and multiple basic leader style S2/S3 (HT-HR/LT-HR combined) (9.7 percent).

Of the 15 possible basic leader styles, the sample population perceived themselves as being one of nine basic leader styles - percentages of the total sample are indicated in parenthesis. The basic leader styles perceived (by percent) were:

S1 (3.1)	S4 (1.0)	S2/S4 (1.0)
S2 (55.6)	S2/S3 (9.7)	S1/S4 (0.5)
S3 (25.5)	S1/S2 (3.1)	S1/S2/S3 (0.5)

The participants in this study did not perceive themselves as being any one of the following six basic leader styles:

S1/S3	S2/S3/S4	S1/S3/S4
S3/S4	S1/S2/S4	S1/S2/S3/S4

5) There was a significant difference between school principals who perceived themselves as S2 leaders (High Task-High Relations), school principals who perceived themselves as S3 leaders (Low Task-High Relations), and school principals who perceived themselves as the fifth style (S2/S3 combined) leaders.

6) There was a significant difference between school principals who perceived themselves as S2 (High Task-High Relations) leaders, school principals who perceived themselves as S3 (Low Task-High Relations) leaders, and school principals who perceived themselves as the sixth style (S1/S2 combined) leaders.

7) There was a significant difference between school principals who perceived themselves as S2 (High Task-High Relations) leaders, school principals who perceived themselves as S3 (Low Task-High Relations) leaders, school principals who perceived themselves as the fifth style (S2/S3 combined) leaders, and school principals who perceived themselves as the sixth style (S1/S2 combined) leaders.

8) There was a significant difference between school principals who perceived themselves as S2 (High Task-High Relations) leaders and school principals who perceived themselves as S3 (Low Task-High Relations) leaders.

9) There was a significant difference between school principals who perceived themselves as S1 (High Task-Low Relations) leaders, school principals who perceived themselves as S2 (High Relations) leaders, school principals who perceived themselves as S3 (Low Task-High Relations) leaders, school principals who perceived themselves as the fifth style (S2/S3

combined) leaders, and school principals who perceived themselves as the sixth style (S1/S2 combined) leaders.

10) The data analysis revealed a significant difference between "Average Hours Worked Per Week" for school principals who perceived themselves as being S2 leaders (High Task-High Relations) and those who perceived themselves as being S3 (Low Task-High Relations) leaders.

11) On the basis of the data, it was determined that there was a significant difference within the self-reported demographic "Percent of Total Student Population Participating in a Free Lunch Program" and Job Stress. Beginning at the 0-15 percent category of participation, task based stress, role based stress and boundary spanning stress decreased as the population of school principals, who perceived themselves as S2 leaders and S3 leaders, approached and reached the 31-45 percent category while conflict mediating stress remained the same. Between the 31-45 percent category and the 46-60 percent category, all four dimensions of job stress increased. From the 46-60 percent category to the 61-75 percent category, task based stress, conflict mediating stress and boundary spanning stress decreased while role based stress continued to increase. From the 61-75 percent category to the Over 75 percent

category, task based stress remained the same, conflict mediating stress increases, and the two remaining dimensions (role based stress and boundary spanning stress) decreased (Figure 4.16, p. 138).

12) Self-perceived job stress was significant at the 0.05 alpha level, within its four stress dimensions, in all General Linear Model procedures performed in this study. Further investigation revealed that within the four dimensions of self-perceived job stress, boundary spanning stress was perceived by school principals as being significantly less than the other three stress dimensions. The task based stress and conflict mediating stress dimensions had identical mean stress scores (Figure 4.13, p. 119).

Ancillary Findings

1) Male school principals perceived significantly more job stress than did female principals within all four job stress dimensions (Figure 4.17, p. 144).

2) School-type was further tested with the demographic sex and the four dimensions of perceived job stress, through a General Linear Models mixed design MANOVA procedure. This statistical procedure revealed a significant difference within the group "School-type & Sex" for boundary spanning stress (Figure 4.18, p. 145).

When the mean stress scores for each of the dimensions of perceived job stress were compared with each other, it was evident that secondary female school principals perceived less conflict mediating stress and significantly less boundary spanning stress than any other principal group within any of the four job stress dimensions.

Conclusions

1) Based on the results of this study, it was determined that there was no significant relationship between West Virginia public school principals' perceived leader style and perceived job stress. These results support Dillihunt's (1986) finding but are contrary to those of Boenisch (1983). Since there is a paucity of research regarding these specific relationships, this research topic remains controversial.

2) West Virginia is a non-collective bargaining state and, at this time, public school principals do not perceive collective bargaining as a major stressor. This was one factor which contributed to lowering the mean stress score for the boundary spanning dimension.

However, the school principals in this study were more concerned with and perceived the most job stress about conflicts and tasks than the other two job stress dimensions. Politically induced job stress (boundary spanning), which includes dealing with Federal and State agencies and collective bargaining, was perceived as being the least stressful of the four dimensions. This indicated that West Virginia school principals perceived significantly more stress from those dimensions which dealt with current short term concerns rather than those of a long term political nature. Further, the principals in this study felt confident and secure about their professional roles.

More specifically, secondary female school principals perceived less conflict mediating stress and significantly less boundary spanning stress than the other principal groups. When viewed separately, the boundary spanning mean stress scores indicated that female principals, especially secondary female principals, perceived that dealing with boundary spanning stress (political) issues did not fall within their job responsibilities nor was it a major stressor.

3) The significant difference in perceived job stress between elementary and secondary school principals may be explained by Farkas & Milstein's

(1986) premise. They postulated that if secondary school organizations are more bureaucratic than elementary school organizations, secondary principals should experience greater job stress than elementary principals. The findings of this study and Feitler & Tokar (1986) supported Farkas & Milstein's (1986) premise.

4) The mean stress scores for the conflict mediating dimension were the same for both elementary and secondary principals. Conflicts with parents, teachers, and students invoked the same level of perceived stress whether the individual was an elementary or secondary school principal.

5) The finding that male school principals perceived significantly more job stress than female school principals agrees with the literature. Indik, Seashore, & Slesinger (1964) and Farkas & Milstein (1986) also determined that male principals perceived significantly more job stress than female principals. This difference in perception may be attributed to several factors. The difference in perceived job stress may be culturally induced, female principals may practice a more successful method of coping with stressful situations, females may be biologically more capable of a different attitude/response for coping

with job stress and/or may elicit a different attitude or response from their superiors and subordinates.

6) Individuals can internally trigger a positive or negative stress reaction through accurate or inaccurate perceptions (Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand, 1977; Giammatteo & Giammatteo, 1980; Gmelch, 1982; Cedoline, 1982). School principals who perceived themselves as High Task-High Relations (S2) leaders perceived that their average work week was longer than school principals who perceived themselves as Low Task-High Relations (S3) leaders. This subjective measurement, Perceived Average Work Week, indicated that principals perceiving themselves as S2 leaders have the potential to manifest greater physiological and stress related problems than those perceiving themselves as S3 leaders.

7) As more of the student population participated in their school free lunch program, High Task-High Relations (S2) and Low Task-High Relations (S3) leaders perceived that their free lunch program tasks and their dealings with outside agencies (State and Federal) became less stressful, their conflicts increased, and their overall understanding of their role in this area was perceived as invoking the same or a slight increase in their stress level.

The one noticeable exception to this is when the student population participating increased from the 31-45 percent category to the 46-60 percent category, an increase in all four job stress dimensions was evident.

Recommendations

The following recommendations for further research are made, based upon the findings and conclusions:

1) Studies should be conducted with a random sample of secondary and elementary school principals in the United States to provide a more accurate assessment of the relationship between a principal's perceived leader style and a principal's perceived job stress.

2) Studies to determine relationships between perceived leader style and perceived job stress should be conducted with a random sample of secondary and elementary principals in the United States with identified, specific leader styles which are identical to the leader styles in this study. Comparisons of these data would provide additional empirical evidence as to the relationships.

3) Future studies should expand the measurement of school principals' perceived leader style and perceived job stress to include leader style assessment

of the principal as perceived by the faculty within the schools which are selected for study.

4) Researchers need to evaluate principals' perceived job stress levels within the four dimensions of job stress to determine the dimensional relationship with school principal effectiveness and school climate.

5) Studies should be conducted with a random sample of elementary and secondary school principals in the United States with identified, specific leader styles which are identical to the leader styles in this study and their average hours worked per week. The information from these studies would provide additional information about the relationship between leader styles and average hours worked per week.

6) Future studies should be conducted to determine the relationship between elementary and secondary school principals' perceived job stress dimensions and the percent of the total student population, within a school, participating in a free lunch program.

7) Studies should be conducted to determine the relationship between perceived leader style and perceived job stress at different administrative levels within the school organization; specifically addressing central office directors, supervisors, superintendents, and assistant superintendents. Bishop's (1986)

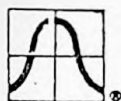
research has provided some insight into this relationship. Her research determined that a significant difference in the perception of stress exists between school-based and district-level administrators.

8) Future studies should be conducted to investigate the differences between male and female school principals' job stress coping strategies and methods.

9) Provide leader style and stress information as a part of Educational Administration courses available for principal preparedness. For students who are preparing for certification as a principal, identify perceived job stress dimensions and address stress management techniques.

10) Provide leader style and job stress information as a part of specialized training and administrator training courses for principals. For administrators, review the task/relations aspects of leader styles, present information about the perceived job stress dimension areas in detail, and emphasize stress management/coping techniques.

Appendix A
Permission Letters



LEADERSHIP
STUDIES

October 30, 1986

Paul H. Bisher
3 Estill Drive
Charleston, West Virginia 25314

230 W THIRD AVE.
ESCONDIDO
CALIFORNIA
92025-4180
619/741-6595

Dear Mr. Bisher:

Thank you for your inquiry regarding the LEAD Instrument.
Permission is granted for you to use this instrument for your
research.

Enclosed is the ordering and pricing information as you
requested. If you have any questions regarding the use of the
LEAD instrument or would like to discuss other instruments,
please feel free to call our consultants.

Also enclosed is a summary sheet regarding reliability and
validity. It is the only piece available at this time.

If I can be of further assistance, please do not hesitate to
call me. Good luck with your work.

Sincerely,

Maureen Shriver
Vice President-Administration

Enclosure: Resource Guide
Greene Summary

MS/mah



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Baffins Lane · Chichester · Sussex PO19 1UD · England
Telephone: Chichester (0243) 784531

DS/KM
5 December 1986

Mr P.H. Bisher
3 Estill Drive
Charleston
WV 25314
U.S.A

Dear Mr Bisher

Thank you for your request in September to our New York office for permission to reproduce material from *White Collar and Professional Stress* by Cooper and Marshall. A copy of your letter is enclosed and we must apologise for the delay there has been in your receiving a reply.

Your letter refers to the 'Revised Administrator Stress Index' which appears in chapter 3 of our book, but which unfortunately we are unable to identify. The chapter contains various tables, and reference to a 35 item instrument which maybe what you require. If this is the case, we grant permission for you to reproduce any of the tables and up to 250 words from this chapter, providing you show appropriate credit to the authors, title, copyright year and owner and 'Reproduced by permission of John Wiley and Sons Limited', within your dissertation.

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Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, Pullman, Washington 99164-2136

February 16, 1987

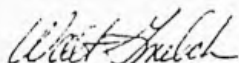
Mr. Paul H. Bisher
3 Estill Drive
Charleston, WV 25314

Dear Mr. Bisher:

Per your telephone request to use the Administrative Stress Index (ASI) for your doctoral studies, we hereby grant permission contingent upon your willingness to submit a summary of your results so we may be able to assist others interested in conducting studies using the ASI.

Thank you for the courtesy of your request. If you have any other questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,



Walter H. Gmelch
Chair

WHG:lb



3 Estill Drive
Charleston, WV 25314
February 26, 1988

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understanding of the project.

I would appreciate an early reply and have enclosed a self-addressed envelope for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Paul H. Bisher
Paul H. Bisher
Doctoral Candidate

Encl.

~~*Paul H. Bisher*~~
OK Paul H. Bisher Mar 15 88



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TELEX 776443

March 25, 1988

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Charleston, WV 25314

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Sincerely,

Paul H. Bisher
Paul H. Bisher
Doctoral Candidate

Encl.

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Appendix B
Cover Letter to Subjects

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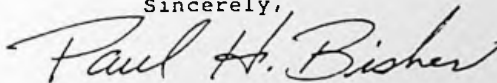
May 22, 1987

I am a doctoral student in the cooperative doctoral program offered through West Virginia University, Marshall University and the College of Graduate Studies in the area of educational administration. The study that I am conducting involves determining the relationships between a principal's self-perceived leadership style and his or her self-perceived job stress. As one of a special group selected to participate, your answers and those of the others in this statewide sample will represent the views of most of the Principals in West Virginia.

All the information you give will be kept strictly confidential. No reports of the data will refer to you or your school. The number on the questionnaires only identifies you as a respondent so that you will not be sent costly follow-up requests for assistance. If you wish to receive a copy of the results please enclose a stamped self-addressed envelope.

The questionnaires should take less than thirty minutes to complete and I've enclosed a "cup-o-coffee" for you to enjoy while filling them out. Since a response is needed from virtually every member of the sample, I urge you to set aside some time now or within the next day or two to check off your answers. Then, just return your survey responses to me in the enclosed self-addressed and stamped envelope. I shall appreciate your cooperation very much.

Sincerely,



Paul H. Bisher

Dr. Ken M. Young, Faculty Advisor
 WVU/MU/COGS *KMY*

PHB/epb
 Enclosures

• Providing Quality Graduate Education for a 16-County Area of Southern West Virginia •

Appendix C
Measurement Instruments

Code # _____

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

=====

Please mark the appropriate data to the following questions
which describe yourself in relation to that question.

=====

1. Current Job Title:

Principal (01) Headmaster (02) Director (03)

2. Sex:

Female (F) Male (M)

3. Age:

Under 25 (01) 25-34 (02) 35-44 (03)
45-54 (04) 55-64 (05) Over 64 (06)

4. Education Level:

BS+15 (01) BS+30 (02) MS (03)
MS+15 (04) MS+30 (05) Doctorate (06)

5. Years Of Experience In Current Job Title:

Less than 4yrs (01) 4-9yrs (02) 10-15yrs (03)
16-21yrs (04) More than 21 yrs (05)

6. Total Years Of Administrative Experience:

Less than 4yrs (01) 4-9yrs (02) 10-15yrs (03)
16-21yrs (04) More than 21 yrs (05)

Code # _____

LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND ADAPTABILITY DESCRIPTION-SELF

Questionnaire Instructions

=====

Assume that you are involved in each of the following twelve situations. READ each item carefully. THINK about what YOU would do in each circumstance. Then Circle the letter of the alternative action choice that YOU think would most closely describe your behavior in the situation presented. Circle only ONE CHOICE.

DO NOT respond to the items as if they were part of a test or in terms of what you think a leader or manager ought to do. Respond to the items in terms of the way you think you HAVE BEHAVED in the past when you were faced with situations similar to those described or in terms of the way you think you WOULD BEHAVE if you were faced with each of the situations described.

Respond to the items sequentially; that is, do item 1 before you do item 2, and so on. Do not spend too much time; respond to each item as if you were responding to a real life situation. Do not go back over each; stay with your original response.

Please continue with the LEAD-Self Questionnaire on the following pages.

=====

LEAD-Self Questionnaire use approved by Maureen Shriver,
Vice President-Administration, Leadership Studies.
220 W. Third Ave., Escondido, Cal. 92025

LEAD-Self Questionnaire

Situation	Alternative Action
1. Your subordinates are no longer responding to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment. B. Make yourself available for discussion, but don't push your involvement. C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals. D. Intentionally do not intervene.
2. The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance. B. Take no definite action. C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved. D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
3. Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Work with the group and together engage in problem solving. B. Let the group work it out. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Encourage group to work on problem and be supportive of their efforts.
4. You are considering a major change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't be too directive B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision. C. Allow group to formulate its own direction. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.

LEAD-Self Questionnaire (continued)

Situation	Alternative Action
5. The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Allow group to formulate its own directions. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but don't be too directive.
6. You stepped into an efficiently run organization, which the previous administrator tightly controlled. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved. B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks. C. Intentionally do not intervene. D. Get group involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.
7. You are considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Define the change and supervise carefully. B. Participate with the group in developing the change but allow members to organize the implementation. C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation. D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
8. Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat unsure about your lack of direction of the group.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Leave the group alone. B. Discuss the situation with the group and then you initiate necessary changes. C. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. D. Be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive.

LEAD-Self Questionnaire (continued)

Situation	Alternative Action
<p>9. Your superior has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.</p>	<p>A. Let the group work out its problems. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.</p>
<p>10. Your subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p>A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but do not take control. B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met</p>
<p>11. You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and directions. Group interrelations are good.</p>	<p>A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. B. Involve subordinates in decision making and reinforce good contributions. C. Discuss past performance with the group and then you examine the need for new practices. D. Continue to leave group alone.</p>
<p>12. Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.</p>	<p>A. Try out your solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices. B. Allow group members to work it out themselves. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Participate in problem discussion while providing support for subordinates.</p>

Code # _____

ADMINISTRATOR STRESS INDEX

School administrators have identified the following 35 work-related situations as sources of concern. It's possible that some of these situations bother you more than others. How much are YOU bothered by each of the situations listed below and on the following pages? Please circle the appropriate response.

	Not applicable	Rarely or never bothers me	Occasionally bothers me	Frequently bothers me
1. Being interrupted frequently by telephone calls	NA	1	2	3 4 5
2. Supervising and coordinating the tasks of many people	NA	1	2	3 4 5
3. Feeling staff members don't understand my goals and expectations	NA	1	2	3 4 5
4. Feeling that I am not fully qualified to handle my job	NA	1	2	3 4 5
5. Knowing I can't get information needed to carry out my job properly	NA	1	2	3 4 5
6. Thinking that I will not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of those who have authority over me.	NA	1	2	3 4 5
7. Trying to resolve differences between/among students	NA	1	2	3 4 5
8. Feeling not enough is expected of me by my superiors	NA	1	2	3 4 5
9. Having my work frequently interrupted by staff members who want to talk	NA	1	2	3 4 5

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ADMINISTRATOR STRESS INDEX (continued)

	<u>Not applicable</u>	<u>Rarely or never bothers me</u>	<u>Occasionally bothers me</u>	<u>Frequently bothers me</u>		
10. Imposing excessively high expectations on myself	NA	1	2	3	4	5
11. Feeling pressure for better job performance over and above what I think reasonable	NA	1	2	3	4	5
12. Writing memos, letters, and other communication	NA	1	2	3	4	5
13. Trying to resolve differences with my superiors	NA	1	2	3	4	5
14. Speaking in front of groups	NA	1	2	3	4	5
15. Attempting to meet social expectations (housing, clubs, friends, etc.)	NA	1	2	3	4	5
16. Not knowing what my superior thinks of me, or how he/she evaluates my performance	NA	1	2	3	4	5
17. Having to make decisions that affect the lives of individual people that I know (colleagues, staff members, students, etc.)	NA	1	2	3	4	5
18. Feeling I have to participate in school activities outside of the normal working hours at the expense of my personal time	NA	1	2	3	4	5
19. Feeling that I have too much responsibility delegated to me by my superior	NA	1	2	3	4	5
20. Trying to resolve parent/school conflicts	NA	1	2	3	4	5

ADMINISTRATOR STRESS INDEX (continued)

	<u>Not applicable</u>	<u>Rarely or never bothers me</u>	<u>Occasionally bothers me</u>	<u>Frequently bothers me</u>		
21. Preparing and allocating budget resources	NA	1	2	3	4	5
22. Feeling that I have too little authority to carry out responsibilities assigned to me	NA	1	2	3	4	5
23. Handling student discipline problems	NA	1	2	3	4	5
24. Being involved in the collective bargaining process	NA	1	2	3	4	5
25. Evaluating staff members' performance	NA	1	2	3	4	5
26. Feeling that I have too heavy a work load, one that I cannot possibly finish during the normal work day	NA	1	2	3	4	5
27. Complying with state, federal, and organizational rules and policies	NA	1	2	3	4	5
28. Feeling that the progress on my job is not what it should or could be	NA	1	2	3	4	5
29. Administering the negotiated contract (grievances, interpretation, etc.)	NA	1	2	3	4	5
30. Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of my job are	NA	1	2	3	4	5
31. Feeling that meetings take up too much time	NA	1	2	3	4	5
32. Trying to complete reports and other paper work on time	NA	1	2	3	4	5

ADMINISTRATOR STRESS INDEX (continued)

	Not applicable	Rarely or never bothers me	Occasionally bothers me	Frequently bothers me		
33. Trying to resolve differences between/among staff members	NA	1	2	3	4	5
34. Trying to influence my immediate supervisor's actions and decisions that affect me	NA	1	2	3	4	5
35. Trying to gain public approval and/or financial support for school programs	NA	1	2	3	4	5
Other situations about your job that bother you						
_____	NA	1	2	3	4	5
_____	NA	1	2	3	4	5
_____	NA	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D
Scoring Key
for
LEAD-Self Instrument

DETERMINING SELF-PERCEIVED LEADER STYLE

The Alternative Action choices within the sub-columns describe which style quadrant a particular Action Alternative represents for each situation. Sub-column (1) describes High Task - Low Relationship (Style 1), sub-column (2) describes High Task - High Relationship (Style 2), sub-column (3) describes Low Task - High Relationship (Style 3), and sub-column (4) describes Low Task - Low Relationship (Style 4).

Leader style is determined by circling the letter of the Alternative Action chosen for each situation in the LEAD-Self instrument. For each numbered situation, circle the letter to the right which was chosen from the Alternative Actions listed for that situation. After the letters have been circled, total the number of circles for each sub-column and enter the totals in the space at the bottom.

		Alternative Actions For LEAD-Self Instrument				
		1	A	C	B	D
S I T U A T I O N S	2	D	A	C	B	
	3	C	A	D	B	
	4	B	D	A	C	
	5	C	B	D	A	
	6	B	D	A	C	
	7	A	C	B	D	
	8	C	B	D	A	
	9	C	B	D	A	
	10	B	D	A	C	
	11	A	C	B	D	
	12	C	A	D	B	
	Sub-Columns		S1	S2	S3	S4
Totals						

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The Relationship
Between A Principal's Self-perceived Leader Style
and
Self-perceived Job Stress
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between a principal's self-perceived leader style, self-perceived job stress and self-reported demographics.

The three null hypotheses were answered by analyzing data collected from a stratified random sampling of elementary and secondary principals in the West Virginia public school system. A three part questionnaire was used to collect the data. The first section of the questionnaire consisted of twelve statements regarding demographic information. The second section consisted of Hersey & Blanchard's LEAD-Self instrument. The third section consisted of Tung & Koch's revised Administrative Stress Index which contained twenty-five job related stressor statements. Responses to these twenty-five items determined each principal's perceived job stress within its task based, role based, conflict mediating, and boundary spanning dimensions.

Questionnaires were sent to 320 public elementary and secondary school principals. The total response rate after two mailings was 200 (62.5%) of which 196 (61%) were usable. This equated to 107 usable elementary principal responses (63% of total elementary principals sampled) and 89 usable secondary principal responses (59% of total secondary principals sampled). The Analysis of Variance, GLM procedure, was used to test the three stated null hypotheses at a statistical significance of 0.05. Based on the data, it was determined that there is no significant relationship between principals' self-perceived leader style and self-perceived job stress. Statistically significant differences were found between male and female principals' perceived job stress; elementary and secondary principals' perceived job stress; and within the four dimensions of perceived job stress. The data further indicated that elementary and secondary principals perceive the same mean stress level for the job stress dimension, conflict mediating stress.

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