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# A Study of an Administrator's Use of Authority as it Relates to Teacher Loyalty, Job Satisfaction, and Alienation in the Public Schools of Guam

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# A STUDY OF AN ADMINISTRATOR'S USE OF AUTHORITY AS IT RELATES TO TEACHER LOYALTY, JOB SATISFACTION, AND ALIENATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF GUAM

by

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Jose S. Leon Guerrero, Jr.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Tensions, strained relations, and other kinds of professional pressures between teachers and school administrators have become more prominent in the school setting. Rosenthal (1970) and Rubin (1970) found that this universal problem was caused by a perceived disparity between the professional norm of classroom autonomy and bureaucratic requirement of hierarchical authority in the school system. In the past, internal disagreements appeared minimal and the unity of the education profession was very good. Collegiality, good interpersonal relations, cooperation, and a personal dedication to quality teaching and to students were prevalent.

Recently, however, some changes in attitudes and professional thrust appeared to be creating considerable turmoil within the educational enterprises. Gettel, Hollander, and Vincent (1967) observed the polarization of educators into factions which took adversary roles. This was particularly evident between the classroom teachers and school administrators. For political and other reasons, administrators were oftentimes forced to take a stand on issues; and in so doing, they frequently found themselves at odds with their teachers.

The situation was further aggravated by the sudden rise in parental involvement within the school setting. Schools became open institutions, and the citizens were demanding proof that their tax

dollars were spent wisely. The parents not only wanted to participate directly in the decision making but also were vocal in airing complaints whether justified or not. The federal government, too, has added much to the aggravation. Regulations, guidelines, and other frustrating federal dicta became nightmarish realities of the administrators who must conform if their schools were to receive badly needed federal funds (Bailey & Mosher, 1970).

The emerging militancy of the public, the parents, government officials, and teachers created an institutional setting which posed new threats and concern for administrative equanimity. These pressures were more often than not miscalculated or mistakenly diagnosed by the administrator. The administrator, anticipating support from his teachers, suddenly found himself at odds not only with his teachers but also with top educational management from the central office. Attractive promises from unions which vied for teacher membership placed him in a defensive role; and since contracts were often negotiated between top management and the unions, the school administrator found himself in a tenuous struggle which undermined his administrative authority. The examination of this authority, then, was the major thrust of this study.

Authority, as defined by Blau and Scott (1962) was the exercise of control that depended on the willing compliance of subordinates with the directives of their superiors. These authors found that authority was legitimated by informal and formal means.

Formal authority is legitimated by values that have become institutionalized in legal contracts and cultural ideologies,

> and the social constraints that demand compliance pervade the entire society. Informal authority, on the other hand, is legitimated by the common values that emerge in a group, particularly by the loyalty and superior commands among group members, and group norms and sanctions enforce compliance. (p. 144)

Isherwood (1973) in an analysis of the works of several authors who have studied authority and related concepts such as power and influence, devised a linear model of authority which delineated formal and informal authority in categories. Formal authority was conceptualized as the sum of traditional authority and legal authority, while informal authority was conceptualized as the sum of charismatic authority, authority of expertise, normative authority, and authority derived through human relations skills. An administrator's total authority can then be considered to be the sum of formal and informal components of authority.

## The Statement of the Problem

At the time of this study, Guam had only one public school system. In 1978, there were 35 elementary and secondary schools with a student enrollment of about 28,000. The student population in the various schools were of diverse ethnic backgrounds with the exception of one or two elementary schools in the southern part of the island. The dominant ethnic groups were Guamanians, Americans, and Filipinos.

Most, if not all, of the teachers at that time were professionally certified in their respective teaching areas. All senior high

schools were accredited by the Western Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges. A large number of the secondary school teachers originally came from the United States and about three-fourths of all the elementary school teachers were native Guamanians with the balance consisting of American and Filipino teachers. All of the school administrators were either Guamanians or Americans.

Guam, being a territory of the United States, offered curriculum similar to those provided in many school districts on the mainland United States. The language of instruction was English.

This study proposed to investigate the relationship between teachers' perception of the administrator's use of authority and the teachers' job satisfaction, loyalty, and feeling of alienation. The principal premise for the study was that certain combinations of informal and formal authority were related to a teacher's performance as demonstrated through loyalty, job satisfaction, and alienation.

A detailed presentation of the study hypotheses are given in Chapter II. Succinctly, the tested hypotheses were a series of authority combinations which were alleged to yield varying levels of job satisfaction, loyalty, and feeling of alienation.

## Assumptions

### The First Assumption

The first assumption was that authority behavior was not a single continuous dimension but was the result of various combinations of factors or orientations. In short, authority was not an either/or

behavior that could be predicted on a single dimension, moving from very formal (authoritarian) at one end to very informal (democratic-relationship) at the other end. Instead, authority patterns could be plotted on two separate axes. Thus, the formal authority dimension could be plotted vertically (ordinate = y) while the informal authority dimension could be plotted horizontally (abscissa = x). The point determined by values of the ordered pair, x and y, would suggest the combined formal and informal authority level.

The Second Assumption

The second assumption was that teachers respond to an authority figure based on their perception of reality on that figure.

## Definition of Terms

Elementary school was a building which had pupils in grades kindergarten to six.

Secondary School was a building which had pupils in grades seven to 12.

An administrator was the individual of highest authority in a school who was by policy given the responsibility for the total operation of the institution.

Formal authority was the sum of traditional authority and legal authority. Traditional authority was the authority extended to an organizational role by society at large, and by a given community in particular. Role incumbents received deference by their occupancy of a particular position with the school which was held in high exteem

by community members (Isherwood, 1973).

Legal authority was the authority within a school that was derived from the contractual agreement between the individual and the organization. The contract specified the employee's rights and duties. Further, the contract delineated a hierarchy of offices to which subordinates were to defer (Isherwood, 1973).

Informal authority (Isherwood, 1973) was the sum of charismatic authority, authority of expertise, normative authority, and authority derived through human relations skills.

Charismatic authority was the authority attributed to a person by others because of his unique personality qualities or behavioral stances. Charisma was based upon the devotion of one to another and the desire to merit his approval.

Authority of expertise was the deference one individual gave another because of the former's knowledge in executing his job at a professional rather than an affective level. The knowledge has, typically, come from some combination of experience and formal training.

Normative authority was the manifestation of a supportive group norm which could have a pervasive effect on individual action (Hollander, 1958).

Human relations skill was the authority a superior had over a subordinate because of the means he employed in their interactions. The superior who exhibited tact, understanding, and empathy rather than formality, persuasion, or even force had the more extensive human relations skill.

Loyalty to a superior was defined as holding firm to a set of beliefs that embodied an unquestioning faith of a leader.

Job satisfaction was a multi-faceted concept which greatly depended on the unique needs of individuals to determine how satisfaction was derived in a work situation.

Alienation was defined as the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior could not determine the occurrence or the reinforcements he sought.

## Limitation of the Study

The study was confined to the territory of Guam. It was limited to the elementary and secondary public schools. The research population included Guamanian, American, and Filipino teachers.

## Significance of the Study

Hoy and Rees (1974), Isherwood (1973), Peabody (1962), and Sidotti (1976) have championed the need for intensive research on the concept of authority in the local school setting. These researchers were particularly impressed by the need for greater understanding of the question of authority and its relationship with such variables as loyalty, job satisfaction, and alienation. The need for this understanding became significant within an island setting that has been, for all intent and purpose, outside the mainstream of the traditional American environment.

The present study should provide some knowledge of the actual relationship between several kinds of authority combinations and

several teacher qualities deemed requisite for better performance in an insular setting.

## Organization of the Study

An introduction to the study, a statement of the problem, hypotheses, assumptions, definition of terms, limitation of the study, and significance of the study were stated in Chapter I.

Chapter II contains the review of the literature pertinent to the study, rationales and presentation of the hypotheses. Description of the population, selection of the research sample, instrumentation and methods used in the data collection are presented in Chapter III.

Results pertinent to each hypothesis are the major emphases of Chapter IV, while Chapter V contains appropriate conclusions, recommendations, and implications of the study.

## CHAPTER II

## REVIEW OF PERTINENT LITERATURE AND RATIONALES FOR HYPOTHESES

The primary focus of this study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' perception of the administrator's use of authority and teachers' loyalty, job satisfaction, and feeling of alienation. The discussions in this chapter are divided into five sections. The first describes the roles of organizations, the second deals with the various theories of authority, and the remainder discuss the theories and research findings pertinent to the concepts of job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation.

### Organizations

Contemporary school systems have become complex organizations. Wolin (1960) likened a school system to a world of feudalism dominated by castles while Griffiths, Clark, Wynn, and Iannacone (1962) functionally defined it as a plan with a particular social setting that showed how to accomplish a task efficiently and effectively. This was elaborated on by Weinrich and Weinrich (1974) who described organization as an activity process which included clear definition of purposes and tasks to be performed and the people to accomplish those tasks.

While Bennis (1966) referred to organizations as "complex goal-seeking units," Pfiffer and Sherwood (1960) pointed out that it was

the pattern of ways in which large numbers of people, too many to have face-to-face contact with all others and to engage in a complexity of tasks, related themselves to each other in the conscious, systematic establishment of mutually agreed purposes.

Even though organizations were often thought of as self-contained units, they would usually be part of a larger social system. The school, for example, could be considered a social organization within several larger organizations such as the school system which would also exist within the larger state school system. Conversely, the school could consist of subsystems such as student personnel services, the instructional programs, and the managerial agencies. Each of these subsystems in turn might consist of smaller groups or social systems. Every individual in the organization could interact with others in his immediate group of social system, but the individual might also interact with persons in the larger system of which his unit would be a part. Thus, the individual would occupy a role (or roles) in a work group, within an organization, within a culture (Griffiths, 1964).

Organizations, then, could be defined as social systems made up of people in various positions or offices which have established relationship to each other. The hierarchy of superordinate-subordinate relationship would serve to facilitate the allocation of roles and resources in order to achieve the goals of the organization. Any given position would be the location of individual or class of individuals within the social system. The behavior of people in these positions would depend in part on how they thought they were expected

to behave by their superordinates, but their behaviors would also be influenced by the expectations of others. These expectations would influence the definition of roles in the organization, and one such role would be the system of authority.

Authority was the right of a person to decide, determine, or influence what others in the organization would do. It might be acquired through formal action such as laws and board policies (authority of legitimacy) or conferred by the organization through the position or office which one occupied (authority of position). Authority might also be acquired through professional or technical competence and/or experience or by personal characteristics such as seniority, popularity, knowledge of human aspects of administration, rapport with subordinates, persuasive ability, and ability to mediate individual needs. Peabody (1962) classified the first and second categories of authority (legitimacy and position) as formal bases of authority and the latter two (competence and person) as functional authority.

The concept of hierarchical authority was designed into a theory of bureaucracy by Weber (1947). He defined authority as organizational influence derived from a contractually defined status difference between offices which was not dependent upon the personal attributes of the office incumbent. When a person became a member of an organization, he was already predisposed to accept orders given to him by persons acknowledged to be his superiors by their position in the formal organizational chart. Weber was quick to point out, however, that formal authority did not include every mode of exercising power

of influence over other persons. He suggested that a certain amount of voluntary compliance was associated with legitimate commands.

Weber identified three pure types of legitimate authority. Legal authority in which obedience would be owed to the legally established order. This extended to the person exercising the authority of the office control over subordinates but only within the scope of authority of the office. Traditional authority in which obedience would inure to the person who occupied the traditionally sanctioned position of authority, and charismatic authority in which the leader would be obeyed by virtue of personal trust in his knowledge and exemplary qualities.

Bernard (1938) extended the notion of authority by noting its probabilistic quality. A subordinate, once employed, was likely to accept an order from a superior only when four conditions were met: (a) He could and did understand the communication; (b) he believed it consistent with the purpose of the organization; (c) he believed it to be compatible with his personal interest as a whole; and (d) he was able mentally and physically to comply with it.

For Bernard (1938), authority was "the character of a communication (order) in a formal organization by virtue of which it is accepted by a contributor to or 'member' of the organization, as governing the action he contributes" (p. 163). Moreover, a positive equilibrium of rewards over contributions, from the perspective of the subordinate, was necessary to insure the continued maintenance of authority. Even though the four conditions might be met for a specific order, a subordinate response was likely to be tempered by the long

rewards-contributions equilibrium.

Dubin (1951) followed Weber's classification of types of authority but added an analysis of authority and organization. In Dubin's analysis, he considered how the staff was related to the leader and the object of staff obedience for each kind of authority. Thus, the typical administrative staff in a bureaucracy in which authority was rationally delegated would be obedience to the body of rules and regulations of the organization. The leader under these circumstances was the one with the greatest amount of authority derived from his position in the organization. Though the leader might change, the office of the leader would retain the authority.

In the case of traditional authority, Dubin (1951) indicated that the typical administrative staff of the leader would be a group of retainers. To these retainers the leader might give limited and revocable delegations of authority. The obedience of the staff was to the person of the leader and not to some impersonal order. Charismatic authority, on the other hand, was the opposite of rational authority. The leader was considered by his followers to be more than most mortals, and there would be little or no delegation of authority which was owed only to the idealized person of the leader.

Anderson (1966), Dubin (1951), and Peabody (1969) suggested that, in most organizational situations, there would likely be more than one type of authority present and operating at the same time.

Anderson, for example, suggested that in addition to formal authority there existed another authority base which was functional authority. This depended on the persons involved and their particular

competencies and skills. In this case, authority was not limited to hierarchical positions but was also based on technical skill and expertise on one hand and personal characteristics on the other. Griffiths (1956), Knezevich (1962), and Newman (1950) published corroborating findings.

Blau and Scott (1962) developed the concept of authority in its normative or group sense. When a superior's subordinate group developed norms of allegiance, respect, and support for him as a leader, he would have considerable authority over them. Specifically, the authors maintained that "a value orientation must arise that defines the exercise of social control as legitimate, and this orientation can arise only in a group context" (p. 143). They concluded that a basic characteristic of the authority relation was the subordinate's willingness to suspend voluntarily his own criteria for making decisions and comply with directives from the superior. This willingness resulted largely from social constraints exerted by norms of the social group and not primarily from the power the superior himself can bring to bear. Consequently, a superior's authority was to a great degree the result of the personal qualities and personal interaction he had with his subordinates rather than that of bureaucratic arrangements. Bennis (1959), Gouldner (1959), Litvak (1961) and Presthus (1960) consistently pointed out the fundamentally different criteria for the legitimation of authority including authority based on technical knowledge and experience, and authority based on incumbency in the office--simultaneously operating in the same organization. Thompson (1961), expressing similar concerns with these authors, wrote "The

most symptomatic characteristics of modern bureaucracy is the growing imbalance between ability and authority" (p. 6).

The writings of the authors cited suggested the existence of additional bases of authority beyond the traditional, legal and bureaucratic authority relationships. Most distinguished the bases of formal authority--legitmacy and position--from the source of functional authority--particularly, competence and human relations skills. It could be stated that formal authority would legally be established in rules and regulations of the organization in contractual agreements between the organization and the employee. Functional or informal authority, on the other hand, would have a variety of sources including authority of competence, authority of person, human relations skills and the normative sanctions of the group.

In summary, Isherwood (1973) tried to establish some of the common aspects of the various theses on authority when he devised a linear model based on six authority bases. He postulated that a superior's total authority was the sum of six discrete constructs or bases of authroity, namely, traditional authority, legal authority, charismatic authority, authority of expertise, normative authority, and authority derived through human relations skills. He further postulated that certain of these bases would be highly correlated and could be combined into formal authority and informal authority. The sum of traditional and legal authority would constitute a measure of formal authority while informal authority would be the sum of charismatic, expertise, normative authority, and human relations skills.

## Loyalty

Blau and Scott (1962) found that supervisors who commanded the loyalty of a group had better control than others because of a deeper sense of security in the given authority to execute commands. Further, since the best indicator of an effective supervisory authority was related with the output of the subordinates, supervisors who commanded loyalty would have more productive work groups than those who did not. This hypothesis was also corroborated by French and Snyder (1959) who concluded that the acceptance of the leader was positively correlated with the productivity of the group.

Murray and Corenblum (1974) presented two new definitions of loyalty. Workers would have a cognitive orientation to their supervisor when they held firm to a set of beliefs that embodied an unquestioning faith and trust in him as a leader. Loyalty also might be given the behavioral definition in an actual or expressed willingness to follow one's superior to a new position. Hence, subordinate loyalty could be defined in cognitive, affective, or behavioral terms.

Williams and Hoy (1971) developed a rationale for predicting authoritarianism and teacher loyalty from the analysis of Blau and Scott's (1962) work. They predicted that the authoritarian supervisor would attempt to increase control by resorting to formal sanctions or to threats of formal sanctions. The extended use of sanctions and threats, however, would tend to diminish authority in the long run. Blau and Scott (1962) indicated that bureaucratic authority depended on the power of sanctions but would be weakened if used frequently.

Although they found authoritarian supervisory behavior was not related to commanding subordinate loyalty in a welfare agency, Hoy and Rees (1974) hypothesized that the relationship would exist in a school setting. They developed a theoretical basis for predicting that more authoritarian principals would have significantly less loyalty than less authoritarian principals. In several samples of school principals, Hoy and Rees (1974) found this hypothesis to be supported: the more authoritarian the principal, the less loyal the teachers.

Hoy and Rees (1974) also investigated the concept of teacher loyalty as it related to the degree of emotional detachment of the principal. They found that the principal stood between the higher administration on one side and professional teaching faculty on the other. He was the direct link between the two and his effectiveness was dependent on the support he received from both sides. They found no relationship between hierarchical independence and teacher loyalty. However, a strong relationship was found between emotional detachment and teacher loyalty--the more emotionally detached the principal, the more loyalty he would command from his teachers.

Building on the works of other authors, Hoy and Rees (1974) predicted and found evidences that highly influential principals would command more loyalty from teachers than less influential principals. The greater the influence the principal was perceived to have, the greater the loyalty he commanded from teachers.

Blau and Scott (1962) found in a study of social welfare agencies that loyalty to superiors in a hierarchical organization was pronounced at alternate levels. If a superior commanded loyalty from

subordinates, then the immediate supervisor was not likely to command the subordinate's loyalty. Blau and Scott's findings, however, were not supported in two recent studies of schools (Hoy & Rees, 1974; Williams & Hoy, 1971). Contrary to Blau and Scott's (1962) findings, Hoy, Rees, and Williams found that teachers were not less loyal to principals who had high loyalty to their superiors.

## Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been found to be any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that would cause a person to say "I am satisfied with my job" (Hoppock, 1935). Maslow (1965) placed human needs in five categories based upon their prepotent capacity to influence behavior. These were the basic needs to sustain life: the need to be free of danger or need deprivation; the need for social interactions and belonging; the need for prestige, status, and recognition; and lastly, the need for self-fulfillment, i.e., to be what one has the capacity of being.

According to Maslow (1965), physiological need would dominate behavior until fairly well satisfied, at which point the safety need, followed by self-actualizing needs, would dominate. However, he cautioned the business world that his studies dealt with neurotic subjects in a laboratory environment, and there was almost no support for the application of these findings to the industrial situation.

The "traditional" view regarded job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as the terminal points on a continuum. When certain elements were present in a work situation in relation to a given worker,

satisfaction resulted; when these elements were absent, dissatisfaction appeared. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) challenged this by theorizing that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were energized by different factors, rather than by varying amounts of the same factor. Salvage (1967) later showed that teacher satisfaction was energized by achievement, recognition, and interpersonal relationships with students, while teacher dissatisfaction was triggered by poor or unacceptable supervision or by factors in the subject's personal life.

A study (Paul, Robertson, & Herzberg, 1969) using five groups of British workers did not support the Herzberg theory in totality. However, a partial support for the two-factor theory can be found in studies (Bingham, 1969; Koren, 1967; Ulrich, 1968) of hospital personnel and electrical workers, maritime engineering officers, and employment counselors. The works of Brown (1968), Henricks (1968), Hulin (1968), Klaurens (1967), and Martin (1968) also provided partial support. These investigations generally concluded that while some job content variables and some job context variables were related both to satisfaction and dissatisfaction, others were related only to satisfaction or to dissatisfaction.

Among school principals, Gross, Giaquinta, Mapior, and Pederson (1968) concluded that level of occupational aspiration was inversely related to the subject's current salary. Reporting in a study of middle-level managers, Chiselli (1968) stated that middle-level managers tended to be more pronounced in their desire for self-actualization in their work and had less desire for increased salary than was observed among a stratified sample of employees at other levels.

In a study of the relationship between supervisory style and worker personality, Boyles (1968) found that reservation agents employed by domestic airlines who were themselves high in authoritarianism and low in independence exhibited greater satisfaction when they worked under "authoritarian" supervisors. Those high in independence and low in authoritarianism, however, were equally satisfied under democratic or authoritarianism supervisors.

Tuckman (1968) used the Interpersonal Topical Inventory to categorize his sample of production supervisors with respect to personality type. He reported that job satisfaction related positively to the opportunity for self-expression in work among those supervisors with "concrete-independent" personalities and to the opportunity for social contact, self-expression, and autonomy among those with "abstract-independent" personalities. In a similar situation, it was found that job satisfaction of elementary school principals related positively to the degree to which they felt they had participated in decision making, a function of the structure of their personalities (Weiss, 1968).

In relation to education, Abbott (1965) hypothesized that an educator's performance was to some degree related to the way his position was defined for him. He stated that a teacher would anticipate a relationship between his performance and the rewards offered by the school district; and if these rewards were not forthcoming, a condition of dissonance or inequity would occur. This would modify a teacher's affective response to the job and the job satisfaction level.

Sergiovanni (1967) indicated that factors such as feelings of achievement, feelings of recognition, and feelings of advancement functioned to motivate teachers positively; however, absence or decrease of these factors did not lessen such motivation. Moreover, while factors such as interpersonal relations with students, parents, and administration; school policies, supervisory practices; and restraints on personal life operated to motivate teachers negatively, the absence or decrease of these factors did not operate positively. Factors affecting teacher satisfaction with their jobs, reported by Johnson (1967), included achievement, interpersonal relations, recognition, work itself and responsibility. Policy and administration, working condition, status, and personal life showed satistical relationship to teacher dissatisfaction. Salary was one of the five factors which did not show statistical relation to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction of teachers with their jobs.

Wayson (1966) found that the teachers' wanting to leave or remain in their position was positively correlated to the way in which the principals met teachers' expectations. Chase (1953) earlier showed a close relationship among the teachers' rating of their principals, meeting teachers' role expectations, and job satisfaction. In sum, it appeared that teacher dissatisfaction was rooted in the administrator's failure to meet the role expectations held by teachers.

## Alienation

In a study involving 662 classroom teachers in 10 school systems, Moeller and Charters (1966) found that teachers in highly bureaucratic

systems had significantly higher sense of power than those in less bureaucratic systems. There was, however, a remarkable drop in sense of power in the second through seventh year of teaching. The authors concluded that teachers' feeling of power to influence school system policies appeared to be affected by variables lying within the teachers themselves and in the organizational structure of the school system.

Hearn (1971) reported no significant differences in teacher alienation in highly structured as opposed to loosely structured schools. He found men teachers to be more alienated than women, and teachers with long tenure in the district to have increasingly higher feelings of alienation. Seeman and Evans (1962) and Seeman (1963, 1967) consistently found a positive relationship between the degree of powerlessness of an individual and his ability to learn specific information. Subjects with a high sense of alienation (powerlessness) achieved significantly less than those with low sense of powerlessness. Chase (1951) also reported some evidences which seemed to point to the importance of control over one's work and to a promising future as factors to morale.

Schultz (1952) found that 98 percent of the most satisfied teachers in his study agreed that they had sufficient voice in school plans and policies while only 23 percent of the least satisfied agreed on this point. He reported that the most significant differences between satisfied and unsatisfied teachers were in the area of administrative practices and staff relations. Chase (1951) likewise found that the most frequently mentioned factor contributing to job satisfaction of

teachers was stimulating leadership of the principal. In particular, he/she was expected to allow the teacher considerable latitude in choosing teaching materials and methods, and he/she was expected to respect the teacher's rights and dignity when offering advice. Similar studies (Barry, 1956; Bridges, 1964; Hood, 1965; Leiman, 1961; Sweat, 1963) were fairly consistent in their findings.

Napier (1966) echoed the conclusions of these studies when he reported that teachers' morale and satisfaction were associated with: (a) the administrator's understanding and appreciation of the teacher as an individual, (b) the confidence the teacher had in the administrator's professional competence, (c) the support the teacher received from the administration regarding discipline problems, (d) teacher participation in formulation of policies that affected them, (e) adequate facilities and equipment and teaching supplies, (f) teaching assignment commensurate with training and fair equitable distribution of the teaching load, and (g) salaries which were comparable with those of other professions requiring equal training.

## Hypotheses and Rationales

An important source of authority in bureaucratic organizations was formal authority which was based in the office or position and not in the office holder who performed the role (Abbott, 1965). Since the authority component would play an important role in the administrator-teacher relationship, it seemed important to investigate the administrator's use of authority and its effect on the performance of the teacher. The administrator would have the power, through his formal

position, to issue directives and elicit at least minimum levels of performance. The teacher, entering into a contractual agreement, usually accepted the formal authority relationship, and would, within limits, follow directives issued by those in superordinate roles (March & Simon, 1958). The exclusive use of formal authority, however, which was locked in the contractual agreement and supported by formal sanctions might not be sufficient to elicit maximum teacher support and performance. Blau and Scott (1962) stated that supervisors who frequently made use of sanctions and threats would in the long run undermine authority. They further stated that bureaucratic authority which depended on the power of sanctions was weakened by too frequent use. It would appear that the basic task of the school administrator would be to develop means of extending his scope of influence beyond the basic limits of formal authority. Bernard (1938) suggested that the effective supervisor should temper his positional authority with "authority of leadership" which was based on ability, expertise, and understanding, and that by doing so he would increase his total authority over subordinates.

The degree of job satisfaction, teacher loyalty, and feeling of alienation could significantly affect the total teacher performance. It seemed logical to assume that the administrator who could enhance his authority through the use of tact, understanding, and expertise would engender loyalty, job satisfaction, and lower feeling of alienation.

The above rationales, then, provided the bases for the following study hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1. The combination of informal and formal authority would lead to the following degrees of job satisfaction: high informal-high formal would result in the highest job satisfaction, high informal-low formal would result in the second highest job satisfaction, low informal-high formal would result in the third highest job satisfaction, and low informal-low formal would result in the fourth highest job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. The combination of informal and formal authority would lead to the following degrees of teacher loyalty: high informal-high formal would result in the highest teacher loyalty, high informal-low formal would result in the second highest teacher loyalty, low informal-high formal would result in the third highest teacher loyalty, and low informal-low formal would result in the fourth highest teacher loyalty.

Hypothesis 3. The combination of informal and formal authority would lead to the following degrees of alienation: high informal-high formal would result in the lowest feeling of alienation, high informal-low formal would result in the second lowest feeling of alienation, low informal-high formal would result in the third lowest feeling of alienation, and low informal-low formal would result in the fourth lowest feeling of alienation.

## Summary

The Review of Pertinent Literature was a discussion of the major concepts of authority, organizations, job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation.

Formal authority was that legally established in rules and regulations of the organization in contractual agreements between the organization and the employee. Functional or informal authority, on the other hand, would have a variety of sources including authority of competence, authority of person, human relations skills, and the normative sanctions of the group.

Additionally, a review of the research findings emphasized important relationship between loyalty and such concepts as authoritarianism, emotional detachment, hierarchical influence, and hierarchical dependence. Research findings concerned with administrator-teacher relationships seemed to indicate that the degree of teacher loyalty to the administrator might serve as a measurement of the administrator's success in schools.

The concept of job satisfaction has been conceptualized in a variety of ways and has been studied empirically in relation to a wide range of variables. In education, limited research has been conducted in the area of teacher job satisfaction as it related to such variables as leadership style, authority, and performance level.

Lastly, the review of the literature indicated the importance of needs satisfaction for the individual to function effectively and efficiently. Thus, teachers' feeling of alienation, job satisfaction, and loyalty would be important areas for research.

# CHAPTER III

## DESIGN AND DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of the problem and describe the procedures used to conduct the study. Specifically discussed were population and sample, instrumentation, procedures, and analyses.

### Review of the Problem

This study was proposed to investigate the relationship between teacher's perception of the administrator's use of authority and the teacher's job satisfaction, loyalty, and feeling of alienation. The principal premise for the study was that certain combinations of informal and formal authority were related to teacher's performance as demonstrated through loyalty, job satisfaction, and alienation.

### Population

The research population consisted of all regular classroom teachers in the 27 elementary, five junior high, and three senior high schools on Guam. It did not include nonclassroom personnel such as assistant principals, administration staff, guidance personnel, special education teachers, remedial reading teachers, school health counselors, para-professionals, maintenance staff, and cafeteria workers.

## Selection of the Sample

A random sampling procedure (Glass & Stanley, 1970, pp. 212-223) was employed in selecting the research sample. As shown in Figure 1, the research population was stratified according to school districts and a 25 percent sample was drawn from each stratum. This was accomplished by assigning each teacher a number and then proceeding to select the sample by using a table of random digits (Glass & Stanley, 1970, pp. 510-512).

Figure 1

Research Sample

1. Total Certificated Teacher Population

THE RESEARCH POPULATION (1,200 Teachers)

2. Teachers by School Districts

STRATIFIED POPULATION BY SCHOOLS (35 Schools)

3. 25% Stratified Population

RANDOM SELECTION FROM STRATIFIED SAMPLES USING TABLE OF RANDOM DIGITS (300 Teachers)

4. Research Sample

| School | Regular Teachers | Sample 25% |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Adelup | 18 | 5 |
| 2. Agana Heights | 18 | 5 |
| 3. Agat | 30 | 8 |
| 4. Andersen | 39 | 9 |
| 5. Carbullido | 17 | 4 |
| 6. Finegayen | 37 | 9 |
| 7. Harmon Loop | 29 | 7 |

Figure 1--Continued

| School | Regular Teachers | Sample 25% |
|---|---|---|
| 8. Inarajan | 18 | 5 |
| 9. LBJ | 16 | 4 |
| 10. FB Leon Guerrero | 39 | 10 |
| 11. MU Lujan | 33 | 7 |
| 12. PC Lujan | 31 | 8 |
| 13. Merizo | 16 | 4 |
| 14. New Piti | 14 | 3 |
| 15. Old Piti | 14 | 4 |
| 16. Ordot/Chalan Pago | 15 | 4 |
| 17. Price | 30 | 7 |
| 18. Sanchez | 6 | 2 |
| 19. San Miguel | 19 | 5 |
| 20. Taitano | 23 | 6 |
| 21. Talofofo | 13 | 3 |
| 22. Tamuning | 39 | 9 |
| 23. Torres | 12 | 3 |
| 24. Truman | 26 | 7 |
| 25. Ulloa | 34 | 9 |
| 26. Wettengel | 29 | 8 |
| 27. Yigo | 24 | 6 |
| 28. Barrigada Jr. | 51 | 13 |
| 29. Dededo Jr. | 73 | 18 |
| 30. Inarajan Jr. | 52 | 13 |
| 31. S Sanchez Jr. | 61 | 15 |
| 32. A Johnston Jr. | 64 | 16 |
| 33. GW High | 108 | 27 |
| 34. JFK High | 88 | 22 |
| 35. VocTech High | 59 | 15 |
| Totals | 1,200 | 300 |

## Instrumentation

The following data were needed in order to test the hypothesized relationships of the variables: the teachers' perception of their administrator's use of authority; the teachers' perception of their loyalty to their administrator; the teachers' perception of their job

satisfaction; and the teachers' feeling of alienation.

For data collection, the study used the Principal-Staff Authority Inventory (Isherwood, 1973), Teacher Alienation Inventory (Isherwood, 1973), Teacher Loyalty Inventory (Williams & Hoy, 1971), and the Teacher Job Satisfaction Inventory (Isherwood, 1973). To avoid the possibility of respondents' prejudice toward any one instrument, items in the instruments were integrated into a single instrument. This integrated instrument was labeled the "Survey of Administrator's Use of Authority." The single instrument was a composite of the four validated tests and consequently possessed the validity of its components. This instrument could be seen in Appendix C.

Principal-Staff Authority Inventory

The Principal-Staff Authority Inventory section was used to measure the bases of authority of individual administrators. In a previous study, Isherwood (1973) devised an instrument to measure six particular bases of authority which he delineated as: traditional authority, legal authority, charismatic authority, normative authority, authority of expertise, and authority derived through human relations skills.

Through correlation and factor analysis, Isherwood (1973) found that traditional and legal authority were positively and significantly related, while charismatic, expertise, normative, and human relations aspects of authority formed another distinct cluster. Based on the correlation study, traditional and legal authority were combined and considered a measure of formal authority. The charismatic, expertise,

normative, and human relations skills bases of authority were combined and considered a measure of the administrator's informal authority.

The instrument was comprised of 13 likert-type items, all scored from five to one, with four items measuring formal authority, and nine items measuring informal authority. The item scores were summed to provide a total score in each subarea, with higher subscores indicating higher total authority of the administrator as perceived by the teachers in their school.

Loyalty

Loyalty to the administrator was measured by eight likert-type items scored from five to one. Two items measured the behavioral dimension of loyalty, two the affective dimension, and four the cognitive dimension. Using this instrument in an earlier study, Williams and Hoy (1971) summed item scores to obtain a total loyalty score and found correlation coefficients (Pearson) ranging from a low of .72 to a high of .97 with a median of .95 between the items and total loyalty. Williams and Hoy (1971) developed the measure from the prior work of Blau and Scott (1962), and Murray and Corenblum (1966).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by six likert-type items where the teachers indicated how satisfied they were on a five-point scale, with student academic performance, student behavior, relationships with school administrators, support by school administrators in

parental situations, and the general operation of the school. This instrument was used in a study by Isherwood (1973) and coefficients of correlation between individual items and total job satisfaction (the sum of the items) ranged from .48 to .65.

Alienation

Teacher alienation was measured by the Teacher Alienation Inventory, a six-item likert-type measure. Each of the items exhibited face validity with regard to Seeman's (1959) definition. In a prior study, the alpha coefficient for the measure was found to be .73 providing evidence of relatively high internal consistency.

Summary

In summary, the survey instrument, shown in Appendix C, measured the following variables: Administrators' use of authority was measured by items 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14, 16, 19, 20, and 23. Teacher alienation was measured by items 3, 9, 12, 17, 21, and 24. Teacher job satisfaction was tested by items 6, 10, 15, 18, 22, and 25; and teacher loyalty was measured by items 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33.

## Data Collection

The conduct of the research was authorized by the central administration (see letter of Associate Superintendents, Appendix B). Each school principal was contacted for appointments to administer the survey questionnaire. The researcher personally administered the

instrument which minimized the problem of nonresponding teachers. It was felt, too, that a one-to-one contact with the research subjects created a more conducive situation for teacher confidence and frankness.

## Treatment of the Data

The data were first analyzed to determine the composition of the sample population. This was accomplished by summing and averaging the likert-type measures for each variable being examined. For those items where the responses were missing, only the answered items were used in computation to obtain the means of the items in each of the schools. The means of the variables for each school and the grand means provided the total populations' profile with respect to use of informal and formal authority, job satisfaction, teacher loyalty, and alienation.

After the composite profile of the research population was determined, each school administrator was categorized, according to the teachers' perceptions, into one of four combinations of authority bases: high informal-high formal, high informal-low formal, low informal-high formal, and low informal-low formal. This was accomplished by finding the median of the means for the informal and formal variables of all the schools. Those measuring at the median and above were classified as high and those below the median were classified as low.

The mean scores of each dependent variable (job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation) from each school were then compared to the

various authority combinations.

Western Michigan University's Digital Equipment Corporation PDP 10 Computer was used to assist in the data analysis. The One-Way Analysis of Variance (Glass & Stanley, pp. 363-368) was used to test the hypothesized relationships of the independent variables (authority combinations) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation). The Protected Least Significant Difference (Ostle & Mensing, 1975) was used to uncover which differences between pairs of means contributed to an overall significance in the One-Way Analysis of Variance.

## CHAPTER IV

## PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Three major hypotheses were proposed in pursuing the goals of the study. Essentially, the hypotheses maintained that certain combination of informal and formal use of authority by school administrators would yield varying degrees of job satisfaction, teacher loyalty, and alienation. Each dependent variable was tested against a combination of high or low informal and high or low formal authority.

The "Survey of Administrator's Use of Authority" instrument was used to collect the data needed for the study. It was administered to a selected sample of teachers in all the schools. A total of 290 teachers participated and completed the questionnaire.

Each school administrator was subsequently classified, according to the teachers' perceptions, into one of four combinations of authority bases: high informal-high formal, high informal-low formal, low informal-high formal, and low informal-low formal. This was accomplished by finding the median of the means for the informal and formal variables of all the schools. Those measuring at the median and above were classified as high and those below the median were classified as low. The frequency distribution of the school administrators into the various authority combinations was summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 indicated that 14 school administrators were perceived by their teachers as exhibiting low in both authority dimensions, while four school administrators fell into the category of low

informal-high formal and a similar number to the high informal-low formal. Thirteen school administrators fell in the category of high informal-high formal group.

Table 1

Distribution of Administrators into Various Authority Combinations as Perceived by Their Teachers

| | Low Formal Authority | | High Formal Authority | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | % | n | % |
| Low Informal Authority | 14 | 40 | 4 | 11 |
| High Informal Authority | 4 | 11 | 13 | 37 |

Note. N = 35.

The next section of this chapter discussed the findings on the relationship between the authority dimension and each of the three dependent variables: job satisfaction, teacher loyalty, and alienation variables.

## Types of Authority to Job Satisfaction

The first hypothesis stated that the combination of informal and formal authority would lead to the following degrees of job satisfaction: High informal-high formal would result in the highest job satisfaction; high informal-low formal would result in the second highest job satisfaction; low informal-high formal would result in the third highest job satisfaction; and low informal-low formal would result in

the fourth highest job satisfaction.

The job satisfaction variable was subjected to a One-Way Analysis of Variance to test the null hypothesis for the following authority combinations: high informal-high formal, high informal-low formal, low informal-high formal, and low informal-low formal. Since the probability of obtaining an F-ratio of 9.35 or greater for the job satisfaction variable was less than the predetermined probability for committing Type I error of .05 (see Table 2), the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 2

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Job Satisfaction Variable

| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 2.635 | 3 | 0.878 | 9.35 | .000* |
| Within groups | 2.911 | 31 | 0.094 | | |
| Total | 5.546 | 34 | | | |

*$p < .05$.

The Protected Least Significant Difference testing procedure was used to reveal if any difference between the pairs of means contributing toward the overall significance of the One-Way Analysis of Variance was as implied by the research hypothesis.

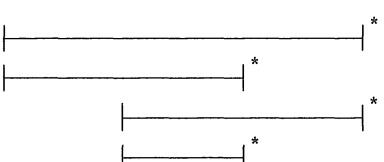
In Figure 2, the four combinations of authority bases were organized according to degree variations of teacher satisfaction as

predicted by the research hypothesis. It should be noted that none of the results of the Protected Least Significant Difference tests contradicted the research hypothesis.

Figure 2

Descriptive Data and Mean Scores for Hypothesis 1, Comparison of the Various Informal and Formal Authority Combinations as Related to Teacher Satisfaction Variable

| Group | High Informal High Formal | High Informal Low Formal | Low Informal High Formal | Low Informal Low Formal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mean | 4.27 | 4.13 | 3.70 | 3.70 |
| Std. Dev. | 0.23 | 0.21 | 0.15 | 0.40 |
| Sample Size | 13 | 4 | 4 | 14 |



*Ends of each line segment indicate significant pairs of means significant at $\alpha = .05$.

The research hypothesis inferred that there would be a significant difference between the high informal-high formal group mean and each of the authority combination group means with the high informal-high formal group mean being the largest. However, the data indicated that there was no significant difference between the high informal-high

formal group mean and the high informal-low formal mean, but it was found that the differences between the high informal-high formal group mean and the means of the low informal-high formal group and the low informal-low formal group were significant in the expected direction.

Similarly, it was expected that the high informal-low formal group mean would be significantly larger than either the low informal-high formal group mean or with the low informal-low formal group mean. This contention was supported as shown in Figure 2.

The research hypothesis also implied that there would be a significant mean difference between the low informal-high formal group and the low informal-low formal group with the latter being the smaller. However, since the sample means of these last two authority groups were equal, this dimension of the research hypothesis was not supported.

## Types of Authority to Teacher Loyalty

The second hypothesis stated that the combination of informal and formal authority will lead to the following degrees of teacher loyalty: High informal-high formal would result in the highest teacher loyalty; high informal-low formal would result in the second highest teacher loyalty; low informal-high formal would result in the third highest teacher loyalty; and low informal-low formal would result in the fourth highest teacher loyalty.

The teacher loyalty variable was subjected to a One-Way Analysis of Variance to test the null hypothesis for the following authority combinations: high informal-high formal group, high informal-low

formal group, low informal-high formal group, and low informal-low formal group. Since the probability of obtaining an F-ratio of 9.73 or greater for the teacher loyalty variable was less than the predetermined probability for committing Type I error of .05 (see Table 3), the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 3

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Loyalty Variable

| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 6.472 | 3 | 2.157 | 9.73 | .000* |
| Within groups | 6.872 | 31 | 0.222 | | |
| Total | 13.344 | 34 | | | |

*$p < .05$.

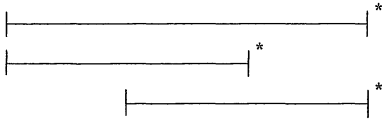
The Protected Least Significant Difference testing procedure was used to uncover which difference between pairs of means contributed toward the overall significance of the One-Way Analysis of Variance as inferred by the second research hypothesis.

In Figure 3, the descriptive names of the groups were placed according to the hypothesized degree of teacher loyalty. As with the first hypothesis, the results of the Protected Least Significant Difference tests were found to be consistent with the second research hypothesis.

Figure 3

Descriptive Data and Mean Scores for Hypothesis 2, Comparison of the Various Informal and Formal Authority Combinations as Related to Teacher Loyalty Variable

| Group | High Informal High Formal | High Informal Low Formal | Low Informal High Formal | Low Informal Low Formal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mean | 4.28 | 4.02 | 3.60 | 3.33 |
| Std. Dev. | 0.30 | 0.17 | 0.35 | 0.64 |
| Sample Size | 13 | 4 | 4 | 14 |



*Ends of each line segment indicate significant pairs of means significant at $\alpha = .05$.

The hypothesis implies that there would be a significant difference between the high informal-high formal group mean and each of the other authority combination group means with the high informal-high formal group mean being the largest. The data indicated that there was no significant difference between the high informal-high formal group mean and the high informal-low formal group mean; however, the differences between the high informal-high formal group mean and the low informal-high formal and the low informal-low formal group means were found significant in the expected direction.

Similarly, it was expected that the high informal-low formal mean would be significantly larger than either the low informal-high formal group mean or the low informal-low formal group mean. However, the only support that could be found was that the high informal-low formal group mean was larger than the low informal-low formal group mean. There was no significant mean difference between the high informal-low formal group mean and the low informal-high formal group mean. This contention was shown in Figure 3.

The second research hypothesis also inferred that there would be a significant difference between the low informal-high formal group mean and the low informal-low formal group mean with the latter being the smaller. Since these two sample means were similar, this section of the research hypothesis was not supported.

## Types of Authority to Alienation

The third hypothesis was that a combination of informal and formal authority would lead to the following degrees of alienation: High informal-high formal would result in the lowest feeling of alienation; high informal-low formal would result in the second lowest feeling of alienation; low informal-high formal would result in the third lowest feeling of alienation; and low informal-low formal would result in the fourth lowest feeling of alienation.

The alienation variable was subjected to a One-Way Analysis of Variance to test the null hypothesis for the following authority combinations: high informal-high formal group, high informal-low formal group, low informal-high formal group, and low informal-low formal

group. Since the probability of obtaining an F-ratio of 7.06 or greater for the alienation variable was less than the predetermined probability for committing Type I error of .05 (see Table 4), the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Alienation Variable

| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 1.181 | 3 | 0.394 | 7.06 | .001* |
| Within groups | 1.728 | 31 | 0.056 | | |
| Total | 2.910 | 34 | | | |

*$p < .05$.

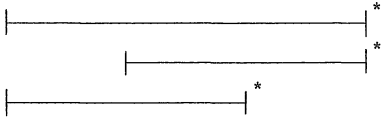
The Protected Least Significant Difference testing procedure was used to reveal if the differences between pairs of means contributing toward the overall significance of the One-Way Analysis of Variance were as predicted by the third research hypothesis.

In Figure 4, the descriptive names of the groups were placed according to the degree of teacher alienation as predicted by the research hypothesis. As with the first and second hypotheses, the results of the Protected Least Significant Differences tests were found to be in conformity with the expectations of the third research hypothesis.

Figure 4

Descriptive Data and Mean Scores for Hypothesis 3, Comparison of the Various Informal and Formal Authority Combinations as Related to Teacher Alienation Variable

| Group | High Informal High Formal | High Informal Low Formal | Low Informal High Formal | Low Informal Low Formal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mean | 4.05 | 4.01 | 3.76 | 3.66 |
| Std. Dev. | 0.19 | 0.14 | 0.12 | 0.30 |
| Sample Size | 13 | 4 | 4 | 14 |



*Ends of each line segment indicate significant pairs of means significant at $\alpha = .05$.

The research hypothesis inferred that there would be a significant difference between the high informal-high formal group mean and each of the three other combinations of group means with the high informal-high formal group mean being the largest and, therefore, most unalienated group. The results, however, indicated that the mean difference between the high informal-high formal group mean and the high informal-low formal group mean was nonsignificant. However, the differences between the high informal-high formal group mean and the other two means were significant as anticipated in the expected direction.

As with the teacher loyalty variable, the high informal-low formal group mean was found to be significantly larger and was, therefore, less alienated than the low informal-low formal group mean. The mean difference between the high informal-low formal group and the low informal-high formal group was nonsignificant. As the results showed in Figure 4, this contention in hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

It was also implied in the third research hypothesis that there would be a significant difference between the low informal-high formal group mean and the low informal-low formal group mean, with the latter being the smaller mean, and the more alienated group. Since these two sample means were statistically nonsignificant, this dimension of the research hypothesis, also, was not supported.

## Summary of Findings of the Chapter

The results of the Protected Least Significant Differences tests performed on the data collected for all three research hypotheses indicated that none of the findings were contradictory with the expectations of the research hypotheses.

In all of the three hypotheses, no significant difference was found between the high informal-high formal authority group mean and the high informal-low formal authority group mean. However, significant mean differences were found between the high informal-high formal authority group mean and the low informal-high formal and low informal-low formal authority group means. The high informal-low formal authority group mean was found to be significantly larger than either the low informal-high formal or low informal-low formal group

means only in the first research hypothesis. However, for the second and third hypotheses, the high informal-low formal authority group mean was found significantly larger only with the low informal-low formal group mean but not with the low informal-high formal group mean.

Lastly, the contention in each of the three hypotheses that there would be significant difference between the low informal-high formal group mean and the low informal-low formal authority group mean was not supported.

Chapter V contains the conclusions, recommendations, and implications that could be drawn from these statistical findings.

# CHAPTER V

## CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

### Conclusions

The study hypothesized that varying levels of job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation were the consequent correlatives of high or low formal and informal authority bases. These dependent variables were tested against varying combinations of formal and informal authority bases.

### Job Satisfaction

The findings of the present study supported the contention that administrators using high informal-high formal and high informal-low formal types of authority would tend to have the most satisfied teachers. While the mean difference between these two authority combinations was statistically nonsignificant, the slight mean variation between the two suggested that the high informal-low formal authority combination would tend to generate the second highest level of teacher satisfaction. Administrators using the combination of low informal-high formal or low informal-low formal types of authority had the least satisfied teachers. These conclusions were consistent with Chase's (1951) findings that dynamic and stimulating leadership by the building principal and the superintendent of schools rated highest in importance to satisfaction by teachers.

It could be concluded that the most essential of the four independent variables for teacher satisfaction was high informality. This variable, coupled with either high or low formality would generate the highest yield of satisfied teachers. In contrast, low informality, coupled with either high or low formality, yielded the lowest levels of satisfied teachers.

Loyalty and Alienation Variables

Both the hypothesized direction and predicted levels of loyalty and alienation were supported by findings of the study. Statistical significance was found between the means of all nonconsecutive authority combinations. There was a strong possibility that significant differences between consecutive means were not detected because of small samplings. The differences, nevertheless, tended to support the hypothesized authority combinations and the levels of loyalty and alienation.

Administrators who used high informal-high formal authority combination tended to have the highest degree of loyal teachers and the least alienated. Those administrators with high informal-low formal authority bases were found to have the second highest degree of loyal teachers and the second least alienated group of teachers, while administrators with low informality and either low or high formality tended to have the most alienated and the least loyal teachers.

As with the job satisfaction variable, the findings of this study contrasted with those of Isherwood (1973). Weber (1947), too, presented contradictory evidences but the conclusions of this study were

congruent with the findings of Barnard (1938), Blau and Scott (1962), and Simon et al. (1970).

## Implications and Recommendations

School administrators could improve their management of schools by demonstrating leadership and service qualities to their teachers. On Guam where sheer legal authority and hierarchical formality have dominated management-employee relationships, the findings of this study have some very practical significance. The old insular qualities of life that championed unquestioned docility, the belief in the "powerful others" and dependence upon benevolence of authority have rapidly been replaced by attitudes and values of the Western cultures. Unfortunately, the authoritarian qualities of yesteryears have tenaciously remained as evidenced by the more than 50 percent of the sampled administrators demonstrating extreme authoritarian qualities. It should not be difficult to understand, therefore, the reasons for the rise of labor unions and the many and ever-present legal suits against management. Only a decade ago, the idea of questioning, much less fighting, authority was anathema in the minds of the local people.

The administrators on Guam, therefore, would need to place greater concentration on administrative leadership and interpersonal skills if the appropriate rapport and working conditions for optimal management-employee relationships were to be obtained. Emphasis should be placed on a cooperative definition of the goals and responsibilities of the members of the organization, helping them to

identify their objectives, and resolve conflicts which might arise in the organization. As Getzels (1968) suggested, the administrator's claim to obedience ideally would find its root in rationality. The administrator should demonstrate the practical skills and the competence to allocate and integrate the roles, personnel, and facilities required for attaining the goals of the system.

The administrator could lead by offering assistance and advice to those programs believed to be most important and by remaining faithful to those qualities which would generate or command informal authority. These qualities were found to include, among others, a refrain from despotic practices generally defended on legal or traditional grounds, carrying out administrative task proficiently but carefully not to hinder followers; providing service beyond that which might be normally expected; and interacting with followers and groups in a tactful, understanding manner. Finally, it would be extremely desirable for the Department of Education and the University of Guam to undertake a series of management workshops which emphasize the development of high informality behaviors and interpersonal skills for the administrators.

In retrospect, it was felt that by and large the procedures used and the results obtained in the present study were satisfactory as a preliminary study.

After an assessment of the data, however, several directions for further study in the area of administrator-teacher relationship seemed warranted. The data for the formulation of the study were based on limited information about the administrator-teacher relationship.

Hence, probable refinements in the findings would emerge as data from other studies and samples become available. In order to facilitate such new data, several suggestions for further study could be recommended. For example, because some of the mean differences between the various authority groups were found to be nonsignificant, it could be possible that the outcome would have been different had the sample size of the study included more schools in each of the four categories of authority.

Since there were more elementary school administrators than secondary school administrators in the present study, the question arose, was there a difference in the use of informal and formal authority combinations between the elementary and secondary school administrators? Did elementary teachers tend to be more loyal and possess lower feeling of alienation than secondary school teachers?

A host of other questions remained unanswered. Among them should be included:

1. Is there a relationship between the types of authority combination the administrator uses and the students' academic achievement?

2. How do school administrators perceive themselves in their use of authority as it relates to teacher job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation?

3. In what way and to what extent is the organizational climate of the schools affected by the kinds of authority combinations?

4. How do students perceive their teachers and administrators in regards to the dependent and independent variables treated in the

present study?

5. How and what perceptions do parents of students have of teachers and administrators?

6. How do these perceptions affect the institutional climate, achievements, etc.?

7. Is there a linkage between truancy, absenteeism, and other school problems to authority combinations?

The present study should be expanded to include such variables as the influence of unionization; the bureaucratization of the system and its effect on the teachers; the present educational system's impact upon the current organizational variables of loyalty, job satisfaction, and alienation; an indepth study of the expressed teacher satisfaction of students' academic performances and the ubiquitious and perennial allegations of poor student achievements; the teacher satisfaction of student behaviors versus mounting problems of discipline and dropouts; and the relationship of organizational variables and teacher productivity.

## Summary of the Study

This study investigated the relationship between the teacher's perception of the administrator's use of authority and the teacher's job satisfaction, loyalty, and alienation. The principal premise for the study was that certain combinations of informal and formal authority were related to a teacher's performance as demonstrated through loyalty, job satisfaction, and alienation.

The research population consisted of all regular teachers in the 27 elementary, five junior high, and three senior high schools in Guam. A stratified random sample of 300 teachers from a population of 1,200 teachers was used for this study. Ninety-seven percent of the teachers in this sample provided usable responses to the survey instrument.

The instrumentation drew from components of the Principal-Staff Authority Inventory, Teacher Alienation Inventory, Teacher Loyalty Inventory, and Teacher Job Satisfaction Inventory which have been previously used to measure identical research variables. The components were combined to form the research instrument referred to as the "Survey of Administrator's Use of Authority."

After the composite profile of the research population was determined, the 35 school administrators were assigned, according to their teachers' perceptions, to one of four possible combinations of informal and formal authority. These were: (a) high informal-high formal group, (b) high informal-low formal group, (c) low informal-high formal group, and (d) low informal-low formal group. Assignments to the authority category were made by finding the median of the means for the informal and formal authority variables of all the schools. Those measuring at the median and above were considered high in authority dimensions, and those measuring below the median were considered low in authority dimensions.

The One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test the null hypotheses. The Protected Least Significant Difference test was used to uncover which differences between pairs of means contributed to an

overall significance in the One-Way Analysis of Variance.

No difference was found between the high informal-high formal groups and the high informal-low formal groups on any of the dependent variables: teacher satisfaction, teacher loyalty, and teacher alienation. However, differences were found between the high informal-high formal authority groups and the low informal-high formal groups and the low informal-low formal groups in all three dependent variables.

The study concluded that the most desirable authority combination in an administrator would be high informal and high formal. The use of this type of authority led to teachers exhibiting greater job satisfaction, greater loyalty, and lesser feeling of alienation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Letter of Request to Conduct Survey

May 17, 1977
P. O. Box 6321
Tamuning, Guam 96911
Tel: 632-7079

Director of Education
Department of Education
Government of Guam
Agana, Guam 96910

Dear Ms Guzman:

As a graduate student at Western Michigan University, I am working on my dissertation proposal as part of the requirement for a doctorate degree in Educational Leadership. My area of interest is in the administrators' use of authority as perceived by their teachers. To do this, I am requesting permission to conduct a short survey questionnaire in order to gather the data needed.

Upon approval, I will distribute and collect the survey questionnaire from a representative sample of teachers in each school.

Let me assure you that this study is in no way to be intended to serve as an evaluation of any individual administrator. All responses will be used for the purpose of statistical analysis on a group basis. All responses will be kept confidential.

It is anticipated that this survey will be conducted before the end of the school year.

Sincerely,

JOSE S. LEON GUERRERO, JR.

Appendix B

Letter of Approval to Conduct Survey
From Department of Education

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
GOVERNMENT OF GUAM
AGANA

May 25, 1977

Memorandum

To: All Elementary Principals
All Secondary Principals

From: Associate Superintendent-Elementary
Associate Superintendent-Secondary

Subject: Mr. Jose S. Leon Guerrero

Mr. Jose S. Leon Guerrero has permission to conduct a survey at all schools in connection with his dissertation which he is writing as part of his graduate work at Western Michigan University.

Your usual cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

BERNADITA B. TERRE

GARLAND S. WILHITE

BBT/GSW/rlgb
5/25/77

Appendix C

Survey of Administrator's Use of Authority

SURVEY OF ADMINISTRATOR'S USE OF AUTHORITY

PURPOSE: This questionnaire is intended to find out teacher's perceptions of administrators' use of authority. The answers you give will be kept strictly confidential and there is no way of identifying this questionnaire with you. Please answer each question as accurately as possible. If you are not sure about a question, please give your best guess.

Your principal is responsible for your school and could have considerable influence in its operation and functioning. However, to run an effective school he/she must seek the work and cooperation of staff members. Consider your relationship with the principal, and decide on the extent to which of the following factors influences you in following his suggestions and directions. Select the item that best expresses your attitude. Please be frank and answer all items.

| CIRCLE (1) for Never<br>(2) for Seldom<br>(3) for Sometimes<br>(4) for Most of the time<br>(5) for Always | Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Most of the time | Always |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. He goes out of his way, beyond the requirements of his job, to help me, yet he expects little in return. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My contract with the school requires me to carry out his requests. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Complaints I make about school rules and procedures are recognized by the administration of the school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I respect his expertise and follow his directions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. The parents of my students want me to follow his directions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I am satisfied with the academic performance of my students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I admire him for his personal qualities and I want to act in a way that merits his respect and admiration. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Most of the time | Always |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8. | He sets such a fine example for others I just want to be counted among his followers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | In doing my work, I can decide on the best methods to use. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | I am satisfied with the behavior of my students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | The principal is my boss, and consequently, I do as he says. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | When things get rough in my school, I can do something about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. | Members of the school community expect me to honor his wishes and directions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | He is very tactful and understanding in his dealings with me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | I am satisfied with the relationship I have with other teachers in my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | The other teachers and staff members are highly supportive of the principal, and I share their feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | I am satisfied that my principal is open to my ideas on educational matters. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | I am satisfied with my relationship with the school administration. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | He is very knowledgeable in school matters. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Most of the time | Always |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. | His past experience and training are evident in the way he runs his school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. | I am satisfied that I have been given enough authority by my principal to do my job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | I am satisfied with the way the school is run. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | He is a highly skilled man in administrative tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | I am an important member in the machinery of this school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | I am satisfied with the administration's support on parental confrontations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Select the answer that best describes your feeling about each question and place a check mark next to the number you selected for your answer.

26. If you had a chance to teach for the same pay in another school under the direction of another principal, how would you feel about moving?

_____ (1) I would very much prefer to move.
_____ (2) I would slightly prefer to move.
_____ (3) It would make no difference to me.
_____ (4) I would slightly prefer to stay where I am.
_____ (5) I would very much prefer to stay where I am.

27. If your principal transferred and you alone among the staff were given a chance to move with him (doing the same kind of work at the same pay), would you feel like making the move?

_____ (1) I would feel very much like not moving with him.
_____ (2) I would feel little like not moving with him.
_____ (3) I would not care one way or the other.
_____ (4) I would feel a little like making the move.
_____ (5) I would feel very much like making the move.

28. Is your principal the kind of person you really like working for?

_____ (1) No, he/she really is not.
_____ (2) No, he/she is not in many ways.
_____ (3) He/She is in some ways and not in others.
_____ (4) Yes, he/she is in many ways.
_____ (5) Yes, he/she is really that kind of person.

29. All in all, how satisfied are you with your principal?

_____ (1) Very dissatisfied with my principal.
_____ (2) A little dissatisfied.
_____ (3) Fairly satisfied.
_____ (4) Quite satisfied.
_____ (5) Very satisfied with my principal.

30. Generally speaking, how much confidence and trust do you have in your principal?

_____ (1) Almost none.
_____ (2) Not much.
_____ (3) Some.
_____ (4) Quite a lot.
_____ (5) Complete.

31. Principals, at times, must make decisions which seem to be against the current interests of their subordinates. When this happens to you, how much trust do you have that your principal's decision is in your interest in the long run?

_____ (1) No trust at all.
_____ (2) Only a little trust.
_____ (3) Some trust.
_____ (4) A considerable amount of trust.
_____ (5) Complete trust.

32. About how often is the principal responsible for the mistakes in your work unit?

_____ (1) Very often.
_____ (2) Quite often.
_____ (3) Occasionally.
_____ (4) Very rarely.
_____ (5) Never.

33. How much loyalty do you feel toward your principal?

_____ (1) Almost none at all.
_____ (2) A little.
_____ (3) Some.
_____ (4) Quite a bit.
_____ (5) A very great deal.

Appendix D

Total Populations' Combined Mean Scores for
Dependent and Independent Variables
by Institution

Appendix D

Total Populations' Combined Mean Scores for Dependent and Independent Variables by Institution

| Schools | Formal Authority | Informal Authority | Job Satisfaction | Loyalty | Alienation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 35 | 3.66 | 3.17 | 3.51 | 3.16 | 3.60 |
| 5 | 4.20 | 4.16 | 4.25 | 3.95 | 3.97 |
| 26 | 3.58 | 4.31 | 4.30 | 4.23 | 4.16 |
| 8 | 3.70 | 3.73 | 3.86 | 3.47 | 3.78 |
| 17 | 3.46 | 4.16 | 3.85 | 3.93 | 3.81 |
| 1 | 3.85 | 4.44 | 4.03 | 4.30 | 4.23 |
| 12 | 3.54 | 3.93 | 3.85 | 3.83 | 3.78 |
| 9 | 4.62 | 4.83 | 4.66 | 4.93 | 4.30 |
| 4 | 3.80 | 4.45 | 4.35 | 4.22 | 3.80 |
| 25 | 4.46 | 4.68 | 4.30 | 4.54 | 4.04 |
| 2 | 3.85 | 4.24 | 3.93 | 3.92 | 3.90 |
| 27 | 3.56 | 3.70 | 3.60 | 3.60 | 3.56 |
| 22 | 2.81 | 2.70 | 3.20 | 2.43 | 3.10 |
| 28 | 3.62 | 3.94 | 3.76 | 3.92 | 3.75 |
| 3 | 3.60 | 3.33 | 3.76 | 3.05 | 3.52 |
| 15 | 3.68 | 4.77 | 4.12 | 4.56 | 4.12 |
| 29 | 3.51 | 2.98 | 3.28 | 3.10 | 3.57 |
| 33 | 3.56 | 3.24 | 3.45 | 3.20 | 3.65 |
| 6 | 4.03 | 4.71 | 4.51 | 4.33 | 4.04 |
| 34 | 3.74 | 3.91 | 3.65 | 3.82 | 3.91 |

Appendix D--Continued

| Schools | Formal Authority | Informal Authority | Job Satisfaction | Loyalty | Alienation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19 | 3.11 | 4.27 | 4.30 | 4.08 | 4.07 |
| 7 | 3.30 | 4.11 | 4.20 | 3.70 | 4.11 |
| 20 | 2.91 | 3.98 | 4.08 | 3.77 | 4.16 |
| 32 | 3.32 | 2.70 | 3.50 | 2.46 | 3.58 |
| 13 | 2.93 | 3.70 | 4.04 | 3.90 | 3.95 |
| 18 | 3.63 | 4.85 | 4.61 | 4.33 | 3.94 |
| 31 | 3.10 | 3.70 | 3.96 | 3.67 | 3.78 |
| 11 | 3.75 | 4.23 | 4.23 | 4.12 | 3.83 |
| 24 | 3.87 | 4.54 | 4.33 | 4.18 | 3.93 |
| 21 | 4.33 | 4.44 | 4.33 | 4.45 | 4.44 |
| 10 | 3.60 | 4.31 | 4.10 | 3.86 | 4.01 |
| 30 | 3.01 | 1.97 | 2.86 | 2.03 | 3.15 |
| 16 | 3.30 | 3.80 | 4.03 | 3.75 | 3.67 |
| 23 | 4.00 | 4.17 | 3.92 | 3.85 | 4.16 |
| 14 | 3.41 | 4.03 | 4.00 | 4.16 | 3.66 |