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THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND WORK SETTING  
ON THE JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS OF  
THE TRAINABLE MENTALLY IMPAIRED

by

John Charles Woods

A Dissertation  
Submitted to the  
Faculty of The Graduate College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor of Education  
Department of Special Education

Western Michigan University  
Kalamazoo, Michigan  
December 1988

THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND WORK SETTING  
ON THE JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS OF  
THE TRAINABLE MENTALLY IMPAIRED

John Charles Woods, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1988

This study examined the effect that leadership style and work setting would have on the job satisfaction of teachers of the trainable mentally impaired (TMI). Leadership style was based on the adaptability score from the LEAD Other instrument by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). Work setting was defined by one of three teaching situations, (1) integrated, with one or two teachers of the TMI working in a regular education building; (2) clustered, with three or more teachers of the TMI working in a regular education building; or (3) segregated, with teachers of the TMI working in a separate facility. Job satisfaction was measured by four factors taken from the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ) by Lester (1987).

Eight hypotheses were made based on the following assumptions, (a) leadership style of the building administrator would affect job satisfaction, (b) type of work setting would affect job satisfaction, and (c) the interaction between leadership style and work setting would affect job satisfaction.

Altogether, 133 subjects (78 segregated, 28 clustered, and 27 integrated) were selected from teachers of the trainable mentally impaired working in the state of Michigan. All subjects completed

the LEAD Other, the 40-item TJSQ, and a demographics questionnaire.

Based on the adaptability score from the LEAD Other, administrators were assigned to one of three groups--high leadership, medium leadership, or low leadership. The results of a factorial analysis of variance comparing the variables of leadership style, work setting, and job satisfaction found significant differences between leadership style and job satisfaction with the more adaptable administrators resulting in higher job satisfaction. There was not, however, a significant difference indicated between work setting and job satisfaction, nor were there significant interaction effects between leadership style and work setting.

The implications of the present study relate to decisions regarding the integration of programs for the trainable mentally impaired and the resulting effects on the satisfaction of teachers. The results of the present study indicate that the type of leadership evidenced by the building administrator rather than type of setting would be an important factor to consider in the job satisfaction of teachers of the trainable mentally impaired.

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**Western Michigan University, 1988**

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

During recent years the trend in education of the moderately and severely handicapped has been more towards integrated school settings (inclusion in regular education buildings) rather than segregated (separate school) settings (Kenowitz, Zweibel, & Edgar, 1978). Much has been written (Brown et al., 1979; Gilhool, 1973; Sontag, Certo, & Button, 1979) concerning the potential benefits to handicapped students from this integration, but very little has been said of the potential effects on teachers of being integrated into a regular education staff.

This study examined the possible effects of type of work setting on the job satisfaction of special education teachers and how this relationship may be moderated by the leadership style of the building administrator. Of particular interest to this study is a comparison of integrated settings in which a special education teacher is functioning with handicapped students in a regular education building to that of segregated settings where all teachers in the building are working with the same or similar handicapped population. In this introductory section the three variables involved--type of work setting, leadership style, and job satisfaction--will be defined further and a brief review of the literature presented.

## Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined by Wheelless, Wheelless, and Howard (1983) as "one's affective response to various facets of the work environment" (p. 146) and by Dessler (1977) as "the degree to which one's important needs for health, security, nourishment, affiliation, esteem, and so on are fulfilled on the job or as a result of the job" (p. 204). The term job satisfaction has also been used interchangeably with the concept of morale (Blocker & Richardson, 1962). Job satisfaction has been receiving increasing attention in the teaching profession and has been characterized by Kelly (1981) as an important ingredient for positive school climate. Concerned that morale among teachers was decreasing, the National Education Association conducted a survey in 1981 that found 37% of the teachers polled expressing feelings of dissatisfaction ("Teacher Opinion Poll," 1981).

Dessler (1977) has also reported on studies attempting to relate job satisfaction to increased productivity. His review indicated that although the literature does not totally support a direct connection between job satisfaction and increased productivity, there has been a clear relationship shown between increased job satisfaction and better attendance at work. Therefore, the organization benefits financially, if for no other reason, from having satisfied workers. In addition, lack of job satisfaction has been related in the literature to increased levels of employee stress and burnout (Fimian, 1986; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979; Moracco, D'Afienzo, &

Danford, 1983) and also to increased employee absenteeism and worker turnover (Heflich, 1981; Holburn & Forrester, 1984; Lawler & Porter, 1972). From a review of the literature, it becomes apparent that satisfaction with one's job is a desirable and important variable to the overall health of the organization.

In addition to studying the effects of lack of job satisfaction, other authors have looked at what factors contribute to work satisfaction. Wheelless et al. (1983) found the following variables contributing to job satisfaction: need fulfillment, achievement, promotion opportunities, pay, verbal recognition, working conditions, and higher position in the organization. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) have also examined the phenomenon of job satisfaction and found it related to the dimensions of supervision, pay, work, co-workers, and promotion. One of the earlier theoretical discussions of job satisfaction that also included interrelated factors was by Herzberg in 1959. Herzberg (1966) described two distinct factors leading to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction--Motivation factors and Hygiene factors. Hygiene factors were described as basic work conditions such as supervision, pay, interpersonal relationships, etc.; and Motivation factors included such situations as responsibility, recognition, and achievement. The Hygiene factors were seen as necessary in maintaining a basic level of satisfaction while Motivation factors were important in terms of increasing productivity and personal satisfaction.

The present study focused on two of the aforementioned dimensions or factors involved in job satisfaction, those of supervision

and work setting--specifically relationships among co-workers. A. Hopkins (1983), in a study of work and job satisfaction in the public sector, found positive correlations between supervisory behavior and job satisfaction and also between work relationships and job satisfaction. Fimian (1986) has also included the variables of supervisor support and co-worker support in considering what might reduce stress levels in special education teachers. He concluded that both support systems served to reduce stress. Staff viewed supervisory support as having more potential for reducing stress although this support was not always realized.

In reviewing the literature concerning job satisfaction, it can be seen that it has been treated as both an independent and dependent variable (A. Hopkins, 1983). As an independent variable, job satisfaction has been seen as the cause of other phenomena such as productivity and motivation. As the dependent variable, job satisfaction has been found to be caused by other conditions such as is proposed in the present study.

As indicated earlier, A. Hopkins (1983) has studied the relationship between job environment and job satisfaction and found a positive correlation. However, few studies have looked specifically at the relationship between special education work settings and job satisfaction.

A review of the literature pertaining to work settings, including how social system theory might lead one to predict the benefits of certain work settings in establishing and improving job satisfaction among the workers, is presented in the next section.

## Work Setting

Few studies in special education have examined the effect that type of work setting or job environment may have on job satisfaction. In examining the potential influences of work setting, Napier and Gershenfeld (1985) have found that in order for a group to function at an optimal level it should be comprised of at least five to seven persons. One of the benefits of belonging to a group these authors discussed was the opportunity to "brainstorm" and share ideas with other members of the group. Getzels and Guba (1957) used the principles of social system theory to help explain organization effectiveness. These authors postulated that the closer the individual's goals were to the goals of the organization the easier it would be to produce satisfied workers and a smooth, efficient organization. They used the term nomothetic to describe group goals and idiopathic to describe personal goals. The integration of these two areas was seen as an indication of overall job satisfaction and positive climate. Fimian (1986) also used the principles of social system theory in connection with education, specifically special education. He theorized that the school represents a social system made up of inter-related and interacting parts. The degree to which these parts are "oiled" by the social system determines in part how efficiently they operate. He further stated that when the school's social system does not operate as it should, the "wear and tear" on the human component becomes evident. Gouldner (1957) described individuals' roles in the organization using the descriptive terms "cosmopolitans" and "locals".

Cosmopolitans are low on loyalty to the immediate organization and high on commitment to specialized role skills. This situation would be very similar to the special education teacher who is integrated into a regular education building. Locals, on the other hand, are high on commitment to the building in which they work. In a segregated special education setting where all teachers are working with the same or a similar population, the entire staff would be considered locals. Once they become integrated into a regular education building, they would lose that role. Gouldner described the local-cosmopolitan interaction on a staff as a strong source of potential conflict.

Likert (1967) pointed out the value of being in a tightly knit, synergistic organization in terms of achieving high levels of performance. In reviewing what he considered important criteria for the effective operation of an organization, Likert has listed the following: (a) loyalty and a sense of identification with the organization, (b) adequacy and fluency of communication, (c) incidence of teamwork, and (d) trust among workers. His emphasis on working in a coordinated and cooperative manner would seem to be easier to accomplish when individual and group goals are congruent. Cartwright and Zander (1960) in relation to group dynamics listed the following as benefits of belonging to a group: (a) opportunity for social contact, (b) the increased efficiency of work groups, and (c) the importance of group cohesiveness.

The above studies have pointed out the positive effects of being part of an organization that is cohesive and has commonality of

purpose. In transferring these theories to the present study it would seem that when all teachers in a building are working with the same population of special education students such as in a segregated setting there would be more congruency between group and individual goals and, therefore, more likelihood of satisfied workers. Donder and York (1984) in supporting this segregationist viewpoint have described some of the benefits to teachers of being in a separate school or segregated setting: (a) The administrator often has a special education background, (b) staff can share similar feelings of isolation/despair from working with this demanding population thus providing support to each other, (c) all support services are available in one building, and (d) there would be more opportunity for related in-service and staff development.

The proponents of the integrated setting (Brown et al., 1979; Gilhool, 1973; Sontag et al., 1979; Wolfensberger, 1972) have emphasized the purported benefits of integration to the handicapped students involved but have not addressed the question of influence on teacher job satisfaction or morale. The current trend in special education appears to be toward increased integration (Kenowitz et al., 1978) without there being consideration for the long term effects on teachers in terms of job satisfaction, morale, stress, burnout, etc. This study attempted to determine if a relationship exists between work setting and job satisfaction and, if so, that this relationship needs to be considered in long term planning for handicapped students.



The variable of leadership style of the building administrator and what part it might play in modifying or influencing this relationship between work setting and job satisfaction are examined in the next section.

### Leadership Style

Leadership is defined as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in their efforts towards goal achievement" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 83). Early studies of leadership focused on "traits" of leaders indicating that "good" leaders differed from "poor" leaders in characteristics such as physical energy and friendliness (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). However, research over the years has not supported this viewpoint, instead shifting more towards an emphasis on behavioral variables rather than personality. Most recently, Fiedler (1967) and Hersey and Blanchard (1982) have stressed adaptive or situational leadership, indicating that certain leader behaviors are more appropriate in some situations than others. It is the leader's ability to adapt his or her style based upon the situation (e.g., followers, environment, expectations, etc.) that makes him or her an effective leader.

In studying leadership styles, most authors have focused on two approaches or styles: a relationship or people oriented approach and a product or task oriented approach. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) referred to this dichotomy as relationship versus task; McGregor (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) used the terms Theory Y and Theory X; Tannebaum, Wechsler, and Masarik (1959) democratic versus

authoritarian; and Hemphill and Coons (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) consideration versus initiating structure. It has been recognized that leaders are not necessarily one style or the other, but a combination of the two. It has also been generally accepted that the best style of leadership is one that involves a great deal of both relationship and task orientation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) have developed their own instruments to measure leadership style, specifically the degree of relationship and task behavior evidenced by the individual. Two forms of this instrument are available--the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) Self (self-administered) and LEAD Other (completed by subordinates). Both of these forms involve a third dimension "leader effectiveness" that is a measure of how well a person is able to adapt successfully to various situations. Thus, individuals are not only measured on a relationship versus task dimension but also on how they are able to modify their style dependent on the situation. Hersey and Blanchard's model is referred to as the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model.

A number of studies have reviewed the influence of leadership behavior on job satisfaction (Braukmann, 1980; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Dessler, 1977; Garland, 1980; Kelly, 1981). The findings of these studies have indicated a strong positive relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction, especially on the dimensions of job satisfaction such as recognition, working conditions, responsibility, etc. A. Hopkins (1983) has also reported that in almost all studies when the two variables--leader behavior and job

satisfaction--have been examined, there has been a positive relationship. This study examined whether leader behavior is strong enough to be a factor in modifying or moderating the positive or negative relationship between work setting and job satisfaction.

### Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of leadership style on the relationship between work setting and job satisfaction of teachers of the trainable mentally impaired (TMI) working in integrated, segregated, or clustered special education settings.

Specifically, work settings are defined as follows:

1. Integrated: one or two teachers of the TMI working in a regular education building.
2. Segregated: teachers of the TMI working in a separate facility.
3. Clustered: three or more teachers of the TMI working together in a regular education building.

In all three types of settings teachers are functioning in group settings; the distinction in the settings lies in the possible differences in commonality of goals and group cohesiveness. This study looked at the effect that leadership style of the building administrator may have on the relationship between work setting and job satisfaction. It was hypothesized that leadership style is a more powerful predictor of satisfaction, but also that job satisfaction would be less dependent on leadership style if the work setting was positive. A special education teacher of the TMI in a regular school

may feel that his or her goals are quite discrepant from the group; however, if the leader is effective in involving that person as a contributing member of the group, then perceptions of job satisfaction might still be quite high. On the other hand, in a separate school for the TMI the goals of the individual and the group might be quite congruent; however, if the leader is authoritarian and/or exploitative, the group may not function well together and satisfaction may not be as high. It is predicted that the benefits of strong leadership will make the effects of certain work settings less powerful in determining job satisfaction.

This study examined the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between setting and job satisfaction?
2. What is the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction?
3. How does leadership style effect the relationship between work setting and job satisfaction?

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Job Satisfaction

##### Definition of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined by a number of researchers. Wheelless et al. (1983) viewed job satisfaction as one's affective response to various facets of the work environment. Dessler (1977), on the other hand, defined satisfaction as "the degree to which one's important needs for health, security, nourishment, affiliation, esteem, and so on are fulfilled on the job or as a result of the job" (p. 204). Davis (1981) simply described job satisfaction as resulting from a positive attitude towards one's work. The term job satisfaction has also been used interchangeably in the literature with the concept of "staff morale" (Blocker & Richiardson, 1962). All of these definitions relate job satisfaction to certain aspects of the work environment, similar to what is being proposed in the present study. Also, in the context of the work environment, job satisfaction has been studied as both an independent variable--causing or leading to a certain outcome, or as a dependent variable--effected by other variables. In the next two sections discussion will focus specifically on research that has included job satisfaction first as an independent variable, then as a dependent variable.

### Job Satisfaction as an Independent Variable

The earliest research studying job satisfaction occurred in business and industry. More recently, research has focused on job satisfaction within the field of education. This section will first review the research done within the business sector followed by the research in education and special education.

When used as an independent variable in research dealing with business or industry, job satisfaction has typically been related to such outcomes as productivity, motivation, and increased performance; the lack of satisfaction has been correlated with stress, burnout, and attrition (A. Hopkins, 1983). Dessler (1977) has reported on studies attempting to relate job satisfaction to increased productivity. His review indicated that although the literature does not totally support a direct connection between job satisfaction and increased productivity, there has been a clear relationship shown between increased job satisfaction and better attendance at work. Therefore, financially, if for no other reason, Dessler stressed the importance of job satisfaction to the organization. Heflich (1981) found that the average turnover rate among American manufacturing workers was approximately 67% a year. In terms of wasted time, resources, and productivity, turnover was seen as an expensive problem, costing an average of \$800 to \$1,000 per new employee that had to be trained. Heflich concluded that many of the problems could be directly related to the employee's dissatisfaction with the work or work environment.

Lawler and Porter (1972) provided an interesting discussion on the relationship between satisfaction and performance. They also spoke to the often held assumption that satisfaction resulted in increased performance, a belief that was prominent in the early studies of satisfaction. Lawler and Porter traced this thinking to the human relations movement which supported the viewpoint that the satisfied worker was a productive worker. However, they concluded that the research done thus far had not supported this relationship and that indeed if there was a link it was more complicated than originally believed. Lawler and Porter in their research with managers and nonmanagers found that a third variable, rewards, affected the relationship between satisfaction and performance so that increased performance tended to bring about greater rewards which in turn increased satisfaction. They depicted the entire process as cyclical in nature. They believed, however, that job satisfaction remains an important variable to study in an organization for two reasons:

1. Although the relationship between satisfaction and performance has not been significant by research standards, there has been found to be a consistent, positive relationship in most studies.
2. There does exist an empirically demonstrated relationship between satisfaction and turnover, and between satisfaction and absenteeism, both of which should be a concern to management.

Studies within the educational arena have also attempted to indicate a relationship between teacher attitudes regarding job satisfaction and student performance. Anderson (1953) examined the

level of teacher morale in high and low achieving high schools in Iowa. Students' scores on the Iowa Basic Achievement Tests were used to divide the schools into two groups--schools with high achieving students and schools with low achieving students. Teacher morale in the two groups was then compared. It was found that teacher morale in the high achieving schools was significantly higher than in the low achieving schools; however, the authors did not address the question as to which of the two variables might have been causative. Morale may have been higher due to the higher achieving students or the higher morale of the teachers might have been causing the higher achievement.

Kelly (1981) also examined the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity in the school setting and how the two variables impacted on school climate. Similar to the conclusions of Lawler and Porter (1972), Kelly saw the relationship between satisfaction and productivity as an interactive one rather than one of direct cause and effect. Kelly concluded that the literature had not supported a direct tie between satisfaction and productivity although other findings continued to support the conclusion that educational settings can and do make a difference for students.

In addition to productivity and performance, job satisfaction has been studied in relation to increased levels of employee stress and burnout in education (Davis, 1981; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979; Levitov & Wangberg, 1983; Sutton & Huberty, 1984). Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) undertook a study of satisfaction and teacher stress in the schools of England. A total of 257 teachers in 16 medium



sized, mixed comprehensive schools in England were mailed questionnaires designed to investigate prevalence and sources of teacher stress or lack of job satisfaction. The results of this study indicated that 20% of the teachers responding to the questionnaire found teaching either "very stressful" or "extremely stressful." Kyriacou and Sutcliffe concluded that stress was related directly to unhappiness or dissatisfaction with one's work or workplace. Levitov and Wangberg (1983) administered a teacher stress inventory to 10% of the teachers in a large urban school district ( $N = 337$ ) and found dissatisfaction to be significantly correlated with the factors of burnout/attrition and physical symptoms. When elementary and secondary teachers were compared on the above factors, it was discovered that elementary teachers evidenced less stress in their environment but more stress from their workload. Overall teacher burnout was more of a problem for the secondary teachers.

The above studies have related job satisfaction to productivity as a positive outcome and to stress and burnout as a negative result of low job satisfaction. Recognizing that job satisfaction is an important variable, the following section focuses on the factors that affect job satisfaction as a dependent variable.

#### Job Satisfaction as a Dependent Variable

This section begins with a review of theoretical models that have posited various factors that may be related to job satisfaction. Smith et al. (1969) devised an instrument to measure job satisfaction based on their theories of what influences the level of satisfaction.

They included the dimensions of supervision, pay, work, co-workers, and promotion as separate contributors to the overall job satisfaction. One of the earliest discussions of job satisfaction in which satisfaction was seen as the result of interrelated factors, was by Herzberg in 1959. Herzberg (1966) described two distinct factors leading to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction--Motivation factors and Hygiene factors. Hygiene factors were described as basic work conditions such as supervision, pay, interpersonal relationships, etc., while Motivation factors included responsibility, recognition, and achievement. The Hygiene factors were seen as necessary in maintaining a basic level of satisfaction while Motivation factors were important in terms of increasing productivity and personal satisfaction.

In applying the "motivator-hygiene" theory of Herzberg (1966) to the field of education, Pellicer (1982) found that teachers more often attributed lack of job satisfaction and discontent to the hygiene factors described by Herzberg, such as ineffective supervision, poor interpersonal relations among workers, and other basic "work conditions." It was Pellicer's conclusion that principals were better able to impact these work condition factors in attempting to bring about positive changes in worker satisfaction.

Chase (1966) undertook an ambitious study attempting to identify the major factors contributing to varying levels of job satisfaction for 1,784 teachers in over 200 school systems in 43 states. A summary of the major results were as follows:

1. Teachers in elementary schools were somewhat more enthusiastic about their job than were secondary teachers.

2. Women teachers were slightly more satisfied than men teachers.

3. Married teachers were slightly more satisfied than were single teachers.

4. Teachers rated superior by their superintendent were considerably more satisfied.

5. Extent of satisfaction tended to increase with years of experience.

6. Extent of satisfaction tended to increase with increases in salary.

Overall, Chase (1966) came to the following conclusions as to what contributed to positive job satisfaction: (a) democratic or participative leadership, (b) recognition by superiors, (c) dynamic and stimulating leadership by the principal, (d) a voice in policy making, and (e) better working conditions.

Davis (1981) focused on the relationship between satisfaction and stress among teachers of physical education. The outcome of his study was to determine the predictors of job satisfaction such as organizational climate, leader behavior, and interpersonal relationships in the workplace. He also identified common sources of job dissatisfaction to be poor quality relationships, a sense of isolation, institutional practices and policies, and public criticisms of teachers. Overall, he concluded that the subjects of his study were only "somewhat satisfied"--a mean of 3.11 on a scale of 1-5--with the

different facets of job satisfaction.

Wheeless et al. (1983) were concerned with the increasing problems of turnover, absenteeism, and stress among faculty in higher education. They found employee satisfaction to be an important factor in modifying these negative outcomes and in turn identified the following variables contributing to job satisfaction: need fulfillment, achievement, promotion opportunities, pay, verbal recognition, working conditions, and higher position in the organization.

### Summary

The studies reviewed thus far have focused on job satisfaction as an independent variable and as a dependent variable within both business and educational settings. As the present study focuses on the setting of special education, specifically dealing with the trainable mentally impaired, the following section will review studies of job satisfaction in that arena.

### Job Satisfaction in Special Education

Studies in special education have generally focused on the effects of lack of satisfaction--such as stress, burnout, and turnover (Fimian & Santoro, 1983; George & Baumeister, 1981; Greer & Wethered, 1984; Weiskopf, 1980; Zabel & Zabel, 1982). Recognizing that these outcomes are undesirable in relation to the overall well-being of the organization, this section will review the many independent variables in special education that can effect the dependent variable--job satisfaction. These factors could be categorized as

- (a) conditions related to the specialized role of teachers of the handicapped, (b) relationships with clients and/or co-workers, and
- (c) influence of the administrator or supervisor.

### Effects of Specialized Role

Many of the researchers in the field of special education have attempted to make an argument that job satisfaction among special educators is less because of factors related to their specific job functions or the role conflicts involved (Bensky et al., 1980; Crane & Iwanicki, 1986). Other authors, although not necessarily claiming that special educators experience lower satisfaction than regular educators, have discussed the sources of dissatisfaction that are unique to special education. In summarizing significant sources of dissatisfaction for special educators, Weiskopf (1980) described work overload, program structure, lack of perceived progress with children, staff-child ratio, and responsibilities for others as important factors to consider. In the context of Smith's et al. (1969) theoretical framework these factors would all be similar to the subcategory of "work conditions." Another discussion that focused on the effects of work conditions was by Greer and Wethered (1984). These authors described a condition known as "learned helplessness" that they believed was prevalent among many special education teachers. This condition, characterized by despair and dissatisfaction results when a person is subjected to an environment in which there is no apparent connection between responses and outcomes. Greer and Wethered found this situation to exist in many special education

settings, especially when working with more impaired populations. Cook and Leffingwell (1982) have reviewed other types of work conditions that are unique to special education and which may lead to stress and burnout. Among these are lack of role clarity, lack of time, lack of material resources, and insufficient recognition. Role clarity includes either ambiguous or conflicting demands from others or work expectations that are too great or too difficult. Lack of time or resources result in an inability to complete the job the teacher thinks needs to be done. Finally lack of recognition effects the normal reinforcement necessary to continue to feel good about the job being done. Cook and Leffingwell also discussed the importance of positive personal relationships within the work setting, an important variable in the present study.

One area of work conditions mentioned by Cook and Leffingwell (1982) was role conflict or role ambiguity. This variable in particular was the focus of a study by Crane and Iwanicki (1986). They sampled special education teachers in 10 central city school systems in Connecticut on the measures of role conflict, stress, and job satisfaction. Their results supported prior studies that had found a significant relationship between role conflict and the outcomes of stress, lower job satisfaction, and anxiety.

#### Effect of Relationships With Clients and/or Co-Workers

A second factor that may impact on job satisfaction of special education teachers is relationships with clients/co-workers. Researchers have hypothesized that the severity levels of the clients

served by special education may be a factor in determining levels of job satisfaction (Holburn & Forrester, 1984; Sarata, 1978; Silver, Lubin, & Silverman, 1984; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1979). The present study included teachers of the trainable mentally impaired, a moderate to severe handicap by special education standards. Some authors focusing on this population have examined the question of whether the degree of handicap might effect the satisfaction level of the teacher and also whether the type of work setting is an important variable to consider. Holburn and Forrester (1984) compared the factors of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction in a state residential facility for the mentally retarded. Intrinsic job satisfaction would be similar to Herzberg's (1966) Motivation factors (e.g., responsibility, recognition), while extrinsic would be related to the Hygiene factors (e.g., pay, supervision). Holburn and Forrester were interested in identifying what aspects of the work environment might be impacting on job satisfaction. Overall their sample included 154 full-time employees of a residential institution. They found that decision frequency and clarity of supervisor instructions were related to both factors of job satisfaction. Rewards and satisfaction with materials were related only to extrinsic satisfaction while amount of resident contact and organizational standards were related only to intrinsic satisfaction. This study, unlike others the authors had reviewed, did not find that increased resident contact lowered overall job satisfaction. Silver et al. (1984) examined the question of whether the employee's satisfaction might be correlated with the perceived lack of progress of the clients served. They

reasoned that the chances of this occurring would be greater when working with severely or profoundly retarded persons. They were also interested in examining the effect of work setting in terms of de-institutionalization versus residential care. Staff in one developmental disabilities specialty hospital and 13 community-based intermediate care facilities were chosen for the study. Both groups expressed positive feelings toward their clients and there were no adverse results found from working with the "more severe" population. Hospital staff did endorse more "normalized" experiences with residents even though the hospital itself would be considered a more restrictive environment. Bersani and Heifetz (1982) were also concerned with the movement toward less restrictive settings for the severely retarded and what influence this might have on the direct care workers. They sampled subjects from a total of 22 residences in upstate New York. A total of 83 persons operating as direct care workers were identified to be included in the study. An analysis of the results indicated two primary sources of stress or satisfaction--resident related such as low levels of self-care, violent behavior, and inability to be left unattended, and work related such as low salary, insufficient privacy, and excessive work load. Bersani and Heifetz also found that resident-related satisfaction and work-related satisfaction were positively correlated indicating that workers satisfied with resident contact were also satisfied with work in general. However, none of the measures of satisfaction were significantly correlated with either work-related or resident-related stress. This suggested to Bersani and Heifetz that stress and



satisfaction operated as independent factors, i.e., stress and satisfaction were not opposite poles on a single continuum such that stress decreased as satisfaction increased.

Zabel and Zabel (1982) were interested in whether there were differences in stress associated with the type of handicap served and type of setting. A random sample of 100 teachers from each of the larger categories of special education, such as learning disabled, mentally impaired, and emotionally impaired, were mailed questionnaires requesting information related to personal characteristics of the respondents (e.g., age, experience, certification) and general job conditions (e.g., age level of the students, labels of the students, program delivery models, support from administrators, colleagues, etc.). The teachers were also asked to complete the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) designed to provide measures of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Results indicated that junior high teachers of emotionally disturbed/behaviorally disordered experienced the greatest occupational stress or lower job satisfaction. Consulting teachers, possibly because of the role clarity problem also experienced more stress.

#### Effect of Relationship With Supervisor

A third major factor that has been studied in its effects on job satisfaction has been the role of the administrator/supervisor. Zabel and Zabel (1982) found significant correlations between support from administrators and/or peers and lower stress. This role of support systems on the satisfaction of the workers is similar to the

premise of the present study and was examined in more depth by Fimian (1986). Fimian looked at the role of administrative and peer support systems questioning which of these support systems might be more important in reducing worker stress. He believed that when the components of the school social system did not function smoothly, then the wear and tear on the human components would become obvious. To test his theories three samples of full-time special education teachers from Connecticut and Vermont were questioned as to whether the administrator and/or peers provided more help in dealing with on-the-job stress. In addition, the subjects were given the Teacher Stress Inventory to measure stress strength and frequency levels. Fimian's results indicated that both administrator and peer relationships served to reduce stress; however, it was also apparent that teachers were more likely to receive aid and support from peers in times of stress than from supervisors. The degree of stress resulting from lack of administrator support was also greater than the degree of stress resulting from lack of peer support. This would indicate that the administrator, although providing less overall support than the peers, was still a powerful force in moderating both the perceived strength and frequency of teacher stress.

This section has reviewed the factors involved in increasing or decreasing job satisfaction and its related conditions, specifically in the field of special education. Kenowitz et al. (1978) have reported that the increasing trend in the field of special education, particularly with the moderately-severely handicapped, is away from the separate school concept and towards more integration into regular

education buildings. The research supporting this trend has previously focused on the benefits for the students involved without really addressing the impact on staff. The present study examined the effects of different settings on the job satisfaction of special education teachers and how the leadership of the building administrators might impact on this relationship. In the next two sections, discussion will focus more specifically on the past research that has examined the relationship between leadership style-job satisfaction and work setting-job satisfaction.

### Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

As indicated in the previous section the relationship between the administrator's leadership behavior and satisfaction of employees both in business and education has been well documented in the literature (Araki, 1982; Braukmann, 1980; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Dessler, 1977; Garland, 1980; Hedlund & Brown, 1951; Kelly, 1980; Schultz, 1952; Silverman, 1957). Chapman and Lowther (1982), in viewing the significance of the administrator, developed a model for assessing the factors that influence teachers' satisfaction with their jobs. Data for their model were gathered from 5,764 graduates of the University of Michigan. This sample represented 400 randomly selected teacher candidates taken each year between 1946 and 1976. The study was conducted in May of 1980; therefore, the minimum years of experience in teaching was 4 years. Subjects completed a survey that contained demographic data and questions designed to determine their sources of satisfaction. One of the prominent findings from

this study was that the recognition received from administrators and supervisors had a strong positive relationship to career satisfaction. Vivian (1983) looked at the variables of leadership style, size of the school, and amount of time spent in noninstructional activities and their effects on the satisfaction of teachers. Overall 82 teachers were randomly selected from schools in South Carolina. The results of this study indicated that leadership style of the building principal was the only variable of the three that was significantly related to satisfaction. Araki (1982) also conducted a study of principal's leadership in the schools of Hawaii. He was particularly interested in finding out how the leadership of the principal might affect the schools. Approximately 30% of the teachers in the state or 3,000 subjects were included in the study. Likert's (1967) System 4 method for assessing school climate and administrative behavior was used as the survey instrument. This instrument measures administrative behavior along a continuum ranging from authoritarian and punitive (System 1) to participative (System 4). Analyzing the results, Araki found a positive relationship between perceived leadership style and satisfaction and also between perceived leadership style and student Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores. He also found that the higher the teacher satisfaction, the higher were the student SAT scores ( $r = +.31$ ). Araki concluded that the principal perceived as higher in participative management (System 4) produced higher teacher satisfaction.

Other researchers have supported this positive link between leadership style and satisfaction. For example, Blocker and

Richiardson (1962) reviewed 25 years of research into job satisfaction and concluded that the administrator was the key figure in determining teacher morale. Sergiovanni (1975) and Kelly (1980) have also studied school climate and teacher satisfaction, both finding that the administrator has a major influence on the climate of the building. A. Hopkins (1983), in a major review of the body of literature relating to leadership and job satisfaction, reported a positive correlation in all the studies reviewed.

More recently, research has focused on the aspects of leader behavior that lead to this positive relationship. This research has used as a theoretical base the models of Hersey and Blanchard (1982), Stogdill and Coons (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), McGregor (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), and other theorists that attempted to describe the different aspects of leadership behavior. Although using somewhat different terminology, each of these models has focused on the dichotomy of concern for people versus concern for task in describing leadership style. Each model posits that leaders are neither totally one or the other, but rather a combination of people orientation versus task orientation. In fact, most theorists have postulated that the "effective" leader has an equal balance of both people and task orientation. The present study used as a model of leadership behavior the tridimensional theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982) which acknowledges a third dimension of leadership--that of "adaptability." Adaptability maintains that effective leaders need to be able to change their people versus task orientation depending on the situation or maturity level of the workers. The

present study used the adaptability score as the best measure of the "effective" leader. In the review that follows, discussion focuses specifically on the studies that have investigated this people versus task orientation and those that have also looked at the effects of leadership adaptability.

Holt (1974) examined the aspects of leadership style that effect both Motivation and Hygiene factors from Herzberg's (1966) satisfaction model. The subjects chosen for the study were teachers from an elementary school district. Holt had hypothesized that leadership style as measured by the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) would effect both Motivation and Hygiene factors. The actual findings, however, showed that leader behavior effected Motivation factors but not Hygiene factors. In other words, leader behavior seemed to have the greatest impact on teacher feelings of satisfaction such as recognition and responsibility. Holt recommended a need to encourage a high degree of both concern for people and concern for task in bringing about an optimal level of satisfaction. Sumrall (1976) conducted a similar study using as subjects 240 teachers from 13 school districts in Texas. He was also interested in looking at the relationship between concern for people and concern for task and the resulting effects on satisfaction of the teachers. The Job Description Inventory (JDI) by Smith et al. (1969) was used to measure satisfaction. This instrument divides satisfaction into different areas such as satisfaction with people, satisfaction with supervisor, and satisfaction with work. His results indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between teacher

satisfaction in all areas and strong people oriented leader behavior. However, there was a significant negative relationship between teacher satisfaction with people and supervisor and strong task oriented leader behavior. Sumrall, in conclusion, recommended a training program for principals that emphasized a high degree of concern for people skills and a moderate degree of concern for task.

One of the questions addressed in a study by Baker (1979) was whether or not an administrator needed to be high in both concern for people and concern for task and whether or not this type of administrator was necessarily more "effective." His results, using 210 teachers from Mississippi and their perceptions of the principal's leadership, found that the only significant relationship was a negative correlation between job satisfaction and the principal low in both concern for people and concern for task. Another study by Bhella (1975) examined the effects of leadership style on different aspects of job satisfaction. In surveying 132 teachers from 10 schools in Oregon, he found that leadership behavior, including both concern for people and concern for task, was positively related to the Rapport With Principal variable of satisfaction but not overall satisfaction with teaching. In directly comparing the influence of concern for people versus concern for task, Allred (1980) found concern for people on the Consideration factor from the LBDQ instrument to be a stronger factor in determining satisfaction than concern for task or the Structure factor from the LBDQ.

Oberlin (1980) looked at the relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction among intermediate school district

(ISD) personnel in the state of Michigan. Overall, subordinates in 49 of the 57 ISDs responded to a survey designed to measure job satisfaction and their perceptions of the administrator's leadership style. Oberlin cited not only the concern for people or Consideration aspect to be important, but also the relationship between the supervisor and his or her superior. Results indicated that if that relationship was cordial and there was positive influence being exerted on the superior, then job satisfaction of the subordinates was higher.

The studies cited above have generally followed the model from Stogdill and Coon (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) that compares concern for people (Consideration) with concern for task (Structure). The instrument usually used to measure these factors has been the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The present study used the theoretical model from Hersey and Blanchard (1982) that not only looks at relationship versus task characteristics similar to the LBDQ, but also at the ability of the leader to adapt or change styles depending on the situation. Winkler (1983) has used this model in correlating the leadership style and adaptability of the principal with the job satisfaction of elementary teachers. Overall, he found the two variables to correlate at a significant level (.001 level). In comparing relationship behavior with task behavior, he found both the principal with high relationship/high task and also the principal with high relationship/low task to correlate positively with job satisfaction. The person with low scores in both areas or the principal with low relationship and high task



correlated negatively with job satisfaction. Winkler concluded that of the two variables it was more important to emphasize relationship or people oriented behavior. Weed and Moffitt (1976) have conducted an experimental study of the effects of leadership style and type of task on job satisfaction. Instruments developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) were used to measure leadership style. Students from a psychology class were chosen for the study and placed into one of three groups. The groups corresponded with superiors that exhibited one of three leadership styles: high relationship/low task, low relationship/high task, and high relationship/high task. Type of task was used as an intervening variable giving the subjects either a difficult-ambiguous task or an easy-straightforward task. As predicted, there were significant interaction effects between leadership style, type of task, and satisfaction, with the strongest being in the difficult-ambiguous task group. Overall, subordinates were found to be significantly more satisfied with leadership behavior that was high in human relations orientation.

Henson (1984) used the adaptability score from the LEAD Other as a measure of leadership behavior in studying the influence of superintendents' leadership behavior on the satisfaction level of principals. She found that stress or lack of satisfaction was inversely correlated with high leader adaptability scores.

Few of the studies reviewed have used special education or special education personnel as a variable. Dixon, Shaw, and Bensky (1980) have discussed in their article the importance of the special education administrator in dealing with the stress levels of the

special education staff. They cited the importance of the special education administrator in the following four areas: (a) diagnosing the environmental conditions that influence the individual teacher, (b) planning and designing intervention strategies, (c) implementing appropriate change strategies, and (d) evaluating the effectiveness of the strategies. The studies reviewed in this section have emphasized the importance of the administrator in creating positive job satisfaction. This has been demonstrated in both the theoretical discussions presented and the empirical literature reviewed. The present study investigated the ability of leadership behavior to effect the job satisfaction of special education teachers in either integrated or segregated settings. As described by Kenowitz et al. (1978), more teachers of the moderately-severely handicapped are being integrated into regular education buildings and the importance of this type of change in work setting on satisfaction has not been widely studied. The literature describing the importance of work setting and its effects on satisfaction will be reviewed in the section that follows.

#### Work Setting-Job Satisfaction

In the following section discussion will focus on the relationship between various organizational variables in the work setting and how they may impact on job satisfaction.

The first studies examined look at the types of tasks given to workers. Hener and Mier (1981) examined the task characteristics of congruency, consistency, and differentiation and how they might

affect the satisfaction of the workers. Congruency was defined as the match between the type of job and the worker's preference for a vocation. Consistency referred to the consistency in duties from day to day, and differentiation represented the variation in tasks assigned to each worker. They conducted their study with 126 registered nurses. In comparing the three variables they found congruency to be the only one that was related to job satisfaction. Swaney and Prediger (1985) also have looked at the relationship between interest-occupation congruency and job satisfaction. They have reported mixed results in their reviews of previous research. Their research involved a longitudinal study of a national sample of 1,688 young adults. Three subvariables were found to "cloud" the overall effects: clarity of interest, career selection, and value placed on interesting work. When these three variables were controlled for, a positive relationship was found between congruence and satisfaction.

Froebe (1970) looked at two other variables related to work setting--morale and group cohesiveness. She examined the importance of these two variables in the nursing profession at the time of a turnover in the group leader (e.g., head nurse). For her study she chose the head nurse and staffs in six hospital settings. The results indicated a relationship between morale and group cohesiveness and one that was not affected by a change in leadership. Overall, the leadership style was related to cohesiveness. In another study that looked at group cohesiveness, Martin and Hunt (1980) viewed the different processes that affect worker satisfaction and intent to leave the organization. They concluded that group cohesiveness

affected job satisfaction and conversely job satisfaction affected intent to leave.

Doran (1970) examined the size of the work group as a variable effecting satisfaction and group cohesiveness. He found that cohesive groups had a stronger desire for group achievement and also contained highly developed communication structures which cut down on confusion and distortion. Doran concluded that for the most satisfied workers a medium sized group of between 7 and 12 was advised. Work groups over 12 had lower satisfaction. He also concluded that the manager needed to balance the need to maximize scarce resources with the need to attend to workers' social and satisfaction needs. Parks (1976) also studied effects of work group size on productivity, efficiency, and satisfaction among aircraft workers. For his study he included personnel at two Air Force bases. He found that smaller work groups increased job satisfaction, safety factors, efficiency, and compliance.

Jahr (1973) studied the job satisfaction of group workers in mental health settings in New York City. Involved in the study were 53 organizations and 121 respondents. Specifically, he was interested in seeing if there were differences in the perceptions of workers that were primarily working in agency settings versus those that were primarily itinerant. He found that different settings and congruence between professional functions and organizational environment effected both their sense of power and also job satisfaction. The sense of power and satisfaction were greater when functioning in an agency setting rather than an itinerant role.

In another study related to group dynamics in the work setting, Cleveland (1973) examined the relationship between level, or category, of group membership and its effects on job satisfaction. In terms of category of membership, Cleveland used a theory of group membership which differentiated between "psychological" and "formal" membership. In his model the psychological membership would denote a deeper commitment to the organization. For his study Cleveland involved public elementary teachers in New York State. Overall, 15 schools were chosen and 191 out of 330 teachers responded (57.8%). All respondents were administered the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Group Membership Questionnaire, and the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire to measure the three variables (morale was also included along with satisfaction). Cleveland found that the teachers' level of intrinsic, extrinsic, and general levels of job satisfaction were all positively related to their category of group membership with teachers classified as psychological having higher levels of satisfaction. This would be similar to the theory of Gouldner (1957) when describing the difference between locals and cosmopolitans in an organization.

Dipasquale (1978) investigated the relationship between organizational structure, principal leadership style, and job satisfaction. He described organizational structure in terms of mechanistic (task oriented) or organic (people oriented). For his study he chose 45 principals and 538 teachers in 45 elementary schools in Nassau County, New York. Dipasquale hypothesized that the closer the match between organizational structure and principal's leadership style the

greater the chance for job satisfaction. No significant relationships were found and it was theorized that the inclusion of extremes in style or structure influenced the results. A correlational analysis, however, indicated organizational structure highly related to satisfaction.

The following studies include variables similar to those included in the present study. Bridges (1980) conducted a study to look at the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism among 488 elementary teachers in 36 elementary schools. He found that satisfaction with superior and satisfaction with co-workers were important variables in establishing negative correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism. Satisfaction with pay and work itself were less important. Fimian (1986), in a study previously reviewed, examined the importance of the administrators and co-workers in reducing the stress level of workers. Although it was believed that administrators held more potential to bring about reductions in stress, it was actually the co-workers that were seen as having more actual impact.

The studies reviewed in this section have all looked at certain variables in the work setting that relate to job satisfaction. In reference to the present study the assumption is made that factors such as group cohesiveness, congruence in goals and clientele, and "psychological" group membership are all involved in predicting that the segregated special education facility would promote higher levels of job satisfaction.

### Summary of the Review of the Literature

A review of research and theoretical discussion from past studies that have focused on the variable of job satisfaction have been presented in this chapter. This variable has been found to have an effect on productivity from the standpoint of reducing worker stress and its associated factors such as absenteeism and turnover. Studies reviewed have shown a relationship between satisfaction and the two independent variables of the present study--leadership style of the administrator and work setting. Research has generally supported a relationship between these variables both in private industry and in the field of education. Research has also been presented that focuses more specifically on special education--the setting of the present study.

Discussion in the next chapter focuses on the methodology and research design of the present study.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the present study was to compare the job satisfaction of teachers of the trainable mentally impaired (TMI) working in different special education settings and to examine how the leadership style of the building administrator might effect this relationship. This chapter will present the methodology of the study including subject selection and description, instrumentation, administrative procedures, statistical design and hypotheses, and possible limitations.

#### Subjects

##### Subject Description

The population from which the subjects were chosen were teachers working with trainable mentally impaired students preschool through the age of 26 in the state of Michigan. This population of teachers was chosen for the present study for two basic reasons: (1) The trainable mentally impaired are part of the moderate-severely handicapped group described by Donder and York (1984) and Kenowitz et al. (1978) as being subject to increased integration into regular education buildings as part of the "least restrictive environment" movement; and (2) the trainable mentally impaired comprise a large segment of the special education population thereby creating an adequate



pool of subjects (teachers) for study. A definition of trainable mentally impaired and the requirements from the State Department of Education of the state of Michigan to qualify as a teacher of the trainable mentally impaired are included in Appendix A. Subjects to be included in the present study were teachers of the trainable mentally impaired (TMI) functioning in three types of work settings:

1. Integrated teachers in a regular school: One or two teachers housed in a regular education building. This has been referred to in the literature as the "dispersal" approach to the education of the handicapped.

2. Integrated teachers in a "clustered" group: Three or more teachers working together in a regular education building. These teachers are not segregated in the sense of being in a separate building but may comprise a "subgroup" within a regular setting. This group represents a setting between totally integrated and totally segregated.

3. Segregated teacher in a separate facility: All teachers in the building are working with the same level of handicapped student.

### Subject Selection

Subjects for all three groups were identified in the following manner:

1. As many of the programs for the TMI are frequently under the direction of the intermediate school districts, letters were sent to directors of special education in all of the 57 intermediate school districts (ISDs) in the state of Michigan (see Appendix B). In

addition to explaining the study, the following information was requested: (a) For the integrated and clustered settings the ISD directors were asked to provide the names and school assignments of TMI teachers operating in regular education facilities in their ISD or to identify a contact person in the local district that could provide the needed information. (b) For the segregated settings the ISD directors were asked to identify any separate facilities operating for the trainable mentally impaired within their ISD and to provide a list of teachers operating in such settings. As an alternative it was suggested that they could mail a copy of the ISD staff directory which would include the needed information.

2. After a period of 2 weeks, a follow-up letter was sent to those ISD directors that had not responded (see Appendix C).

Based upon the initial letter and follow-up a total of 38 out of the 57 (67%) ISD directors responded to the request for names of TMI staff. With the exception of two responses, the ISD directors sent either a list of teachers' names with assignment or a directory that provided such information. In the two exceptions, the name of a contact person in a separate facility was provided.

Based on the information provided by the directors, 41 subjects were judged to fit into the integrated category and 36 subjects fit into the clustered category. A total of 266 subjects were identified as being employed in a segregated setting.

Because of the comparatively smaller numbers in the integrated and clustered groups, all subjects that were identified were included in the study. However, because of the larger number of subjects

identified as operating within the segregated setting, systematic random sampling was utilized to arrive at the final sample. All segregated staff that were identified for inclusion in the study were listed in the order in which their names were received and every other subject was chosen for inclusion in the study--a total of 133 for the segregated group. Therefore, the initial sample included the 41 integrated (I), 36 clustered (C), and 133 segregated (S)--a total of 209 prospective subjects.

All of the 209 teachers were contacted and responses were received from 146 subjects with 13 having to be rejected due to failure to fully complete the surveys. Thus, the final sample included 133 subjects. Of the 133 subjects included for data analysis, 28 were included in the integrated setting, 27 in the clustered, and 78 in the segregated group.

### Description of the Subjects

Table 1 provides a description of the final subjects according to different variables that were included in a demographic survey mailed to each participant.

### Instrumentation

#### Measurement of Job Satisfaction

In selecting an appropriate measure of job satisfaction for use in the present study many types of instruments were reviewed (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Hoppock, 1935; Smith et al., 1969; and

Table 1  
Comparison of Subjects According to Demographic Variables

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age		
Under 30	12	9
30-40	77	58
41-50	32	24
Over 50	12	9
Sex		
Males	29	22
Females	104	78
Years teaching		
0-5	15	11
6-10	31	23
11-15	46	34
Over 15	41	32
Highest degree attained		
B.A./B.S.	57	43
M.A./M.S.	55	41
M.A. + 15	19	14
Ph.D.	2	2

Table 1--Continued

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Type of classroom		
Preschool	8	6
Elementary	41	31
Secondary	52	39
Other	32	24
Number of students in classroom		
0-5	1	1
6-10	45	34
Over 10	87	65

others). The Hoppock (1935) and Brayfield and Rothe (1951) instruments were examples of measures that focused in on a more global or overall score of job satisfaction, while the Smith et al. (1969) instrument initiated a trend towards a factor analytic approach to evaluating job satisfaction. Although the major interest of the current study is job satisfaction-general, it began to appear that more information might be arrived at through specific factor analysis. After a careful review of the available instruments that utilized categories of satisfaction in measuring job satisfaction, the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ) by Lester (1987) was selected for use in the present study. The reasons for this choice were the following:

1. The ability to compare job satisfaction in various categories or subscales of the work environment including two that are of particular interest to this study--supervisor relationships and relationship with colleagues.

2. The TJSQ is relatively new (1986) but also contains adequate documentation and information related to reliability and validity (Lester, 1987).

3. The instrument and items contained in the instrument were designed specifically for use with teachers in an educational setting.

4. The instrument was based on the theoretical model of Herzberg--one also embodied in the theoretical framework of the present study.

The TJSQ measures satisfaction using the following factors (number of items in parentheses):

Factor 1--Supervision (14).

Factor 2--Colleagues (10).

Factor 3--Working Conditions (7).

Factor 4--Pay (7).

Factor 5--Responsibility (5).

Factor 6--Work Itself (9).

Factor 7--Advancement (5).

Factor 8--Security (3).

Factor 9--Recognition (3).

The present study will focus in on four of the above factors, Factor 1--Supervision, Factor 2--Colleagues, Factor 3--Work

Conditions, and Factor 6--Work Itself. These four factors were chosen because of their relationship to the Hygiene factors described earlier by Smith et al. (1969).

Factor 1--Supervision: This factor deals with two aspects of supervision: supervisory behavior and interpersonal relationships. For example: "My immediate supervisor provides assistance for improving instruction" would be an item that describes supervisory behavior in the workplace. On the other hand, "My immediate supervisor makes me feel uncomfortable" describes characteristics of interpersonal relationships with the supervisor. In the present study a direct relationship is predicted between Factor 1 and leadership style.

Factor 2--Colleagues: This factor refers to group outcomes and goal interdependence, such as "My colleagues stimulate me to do better work" or "I do not get cooperation from the people I work with." This factor also refers to the social aspect of teaching ("My colleagues seem unreasonable to me"). Colleagues are defined as the teaching work group and the social aspects of the school setting. The teachers in the work group give and receive support and seek cooperation in the achievement of a common purpose or goal. For purposes of the present study it is predicted that the segregated group will have more satisfaction in this area than the integrated or clustered groups because of the "collegial" relationships. However, this factor may also be influenced by the perceived "effectiveness" of the building administrator.

Factor 3--Work Conditions: This factor contains items that relate to the environmental characteristics of the teaching situation. An example of an item in this category would be, "Physical conditions in my school are unpleasant." Items in this factor reflect the hygiene thinking of Herzberg and like the next factor are a more general measure of satisfaction.

Factor 6--Work Itself: This factor contains items which relate to daily tasks, creativity, and autonomy. An example of an item in this section would be "I do not have the freedom to make my own decisions," or "Teaching is very interesting work." The factor of Work Itself is the job of teaching or the tasks related to the job. It is seen in the present study as a more general measure of overall work satisfaction. It is predicted that it will be effected by both leadership style and work setting with the former having a greater influence.

Each of the 63 items on the TJSQ is designed with a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A low score would represent low job satisfaction whereas a high score would represent high job satisfaction. The use of specific factors allows for individual hypotheses to be made between the variables involved--leadership style and work setting, and their effect on any of the nine factors contributing to satisfaction.

In considering the reliability of the TJSQ, Lester (1987) computed coefficients of internal consistency for each of the nine



factors plus the total. The alpha coefficients ranged from .71 to .92. The coefficient for the entire scale was .93.

### Measurement of Leadership Style

In reviewing the literature pertaining to measurement of leadership style, especially in the area of educational research, two instruments have been used extensively--the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) by Halpin (1959) and the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) by Hersey and Blanchard (1987). The LBDQ and the LEAD are similar in that they place leadership style along two dimensions--initiating structure versus consideration from the LBDQ and relationship versus task from the LEAD. In comparing the two instruments the dimensions of initiating structure and task would be similar as would be consideration and relationship. Both instruments see administrators as possessing elements of both dimensions, but also exhibiting a dominant style such as high relationship/low task. From the LEAD instrument task behavior is the extent to which a leader employs one-way communication to promote task attainment while relationship behavior is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socioemotional support and facilitating behavior to achieve task attainment (Greene, 1980).

Although the LBDQ seems to have had more use from the literature reviewed in the field of education, the LEAD was chosen for the present study. The LEAD would be the instrument of choice in part because it is based on the principles of situational leadership

described by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). Hersey and Blanchard expressed the belief that leadership needs to be able to adapt and change based on the specific type of work group involved. Therefore, an effective administrator would use different elements of relationship versus task behavior depending on the task involved and the maturity of the work group. In the present study it is believed that the integration of special education staff into a regular education building demands an adaptability in administrative behavior for optimal job satisfaction to take place.

The LEAD was also chosen for the present study because, in addition to the elements of relationship versus task, it also yields one normative adaptability (effectiveness) score. This allows comparison among leaders or, for the purposes of this study, categorizing administrators into high, medium, and low adaptability groups. Adaptability scores are based on the premise that an effective administrator would respond differently depending on the situation. Therefore, the adaptability scores are arrived at by analyzing the response option for each of 12 hypothetical work situations. The four possible choices under each situation are weighted +2 to -2 with +2 being the leader behavior with the highest probability of success and -2 being the leader behavior with the least probability of success. The second best alternative is rated +1 and the third alternative a -1. Therefore, the range of scores would be -24 to +24. Greene (1980) converted raw scores on the adaptability measure to normal curve equivalents and identified ranges of high, medium, and

low adaptability, the same categories what were used in the present study.

The LEAD uses two formats for measuring leader behavior--the LEAD Self which is completed by the leader or the LEAD Other which is completed by the followers or subordinates. In the development of the instrument, the LEAD Self and LEAD Other have been characteristically used together to compare self-perceptions of the leader with the perceptions of the leader's behavior by the subordinates. However, the LEAD Other has also been used singularly in research (Guagulwong, 1981; Henson, 1984; Klawitter, 1985) as a measure of leadership style under the premise that subordinates' perceptions are more valid or unbiased than self-perceptions. For the present study the emphasis is more on how the perceptions of the teachers concerning the leader behavior effect teacher job satisfaction; therefore, the LEAD Other was utilized. The LEAD Other also contains 12 work related situations with four alternative actions presented for each situation. The followers or employees must choose, based upon their experience with the leader, the action choice which they think would most closely describe the behavior of the leader in the situation presented.

Greene (1980) studied the test-retest reliability of the LEAD instruments by administering them to 88 managers enrolled in a graduate class. Correlations between first and second administrations were .71 for the dominant style and also .71 for alternate style. Reliability of adaptability scores for the same group was .69.

## Procedures

### Data Collection

All 209 subjects selected for the study (I = 41; C = 35; S = 133), were mailed a survey packet including the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ)--Factors 1, 2, 3, and 6 (a total of 40 items); the LEAD Other, and a questionnaire requesting such demographic information as age, sex, experience, and type of teaching situation. In addition all subjects were asked to respond to two items that asked whether supervisors/colleagues supported them in times of stress. All subjects were also given a letter which contained instructions related to the study. Teachers were instructed as to the nature of the study, the importance of their participation, and the fact that their responses would be totally confidential. The survey packet is included in Appendix D. Subjects were instructed to complete the TJSQ and the LEAD Other which would measure their perceptions of the leadership style of their building administrator. Teachers in an integrated or clustered setting were instructed to answer questions on the LEAD Other according to the regular education administrator, not a special education administrator or coordinator in another building. Subjects that did not respond to the survey packet within 14 days were sent a follow-up postcard as a reminder (see Appendix E). As noted previously, usable responses were received from 133 subjects (I = 28, C = 27, S = 78).

### Data Analysis

The effects of the two independent variables, leadership style (high, medium, low) and work setting (integrated, clustered, segregated); on the dependent variable--job satisfaction--were analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance (3 x 3 factorial) procedure. As can be seen in Figure 1, nine separate groups are potentially identified through a combination of the variables leadership style and work setting.

Work setting	Leadership style		
	High	Medium	Low
Integrated			
Clustered			
Segregated			

Figure 1. Leadership Style x Work Setting.

Four factorial analyses were done based on separating the dependent variable, job satisfaction, into four factors: Factor 1--Satisfaction With Supervisor, Factor 2--Satisfaction With Colleagues, Factor 3--Satisfaction With Work Conditions, and Factor 4--Satisfaction With Work Itself. A separate 3 x 3 factorial analysis of variance was used to examine each of the following relationships:

- (a) leadership style/work setting--Satisfaction With Supervisor,
- (b) leadership style/work setting--Satisfaction With Colleagues,
- (c) leadership style/work setting--Satisfaction With Work Conditions,
- and (d) leadership style/work setting--Satisfaction With Work Itself.

Analysis of the data examined the main effects of leadership style and work setting on the four factors of satisfaction and also how the interaction between leadership style and work setting effects each of these four relationships. The SSPS-X statistical package was used to test the following research hypotheses.

#### Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were tested:

1. High leadership style will result in greater Satisfaction With Supervisor (Factor 1) than will low leadership style.
2. Segregated work settings will result in greater Satisfaction With Colleagues (Factor 2) than will integrated work settings.
3. High leadership style will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Conditions (Factor 3) than will low leadership style.
4. High leadership style will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Itself (Factor 6) than will low leadership style.
5. Segregated work settings will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Itself (Factor 6) than will integrated work settings.
6. Segregated work settings will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Conditions (Factor 3) than will integrated work settings.
7. Leadership style will effect the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Work Itself (Factor 6).

8. Leadership style will effect the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Work Conditions (Factor 3).

The null hypothesis in each case would be that there would be no relationship between the variables.

### Significance Level

The .05 level of significance was selected to test the research hypotheses. The reasoning behind this selection is the fact that the .05 level has become the accepted level of significance in many of the research designs used today (K. Hopkins & Glass, 1978). It also reduces the chance of a Type II error that might occur if a more conservative level of significance was used.

### Additional Analyses

Additional analyses looked at the main effects of each of the demographic variables on the four satisfaction variables. If these variables were being controlled for in the study, then there should be no significant relationship between them and the dependent variable--satisfaction.

Also, the two questions relating to administrator and peer support in time of stress were analyzed to see if there was a relationship between support systems and satisfaction.

### Limitations

Based on a review of the variables of the present study, the following limitations in interpreting the results are noted:

1. Sample size: There was an unequal representation among the three work setting groups--integrated, clustered, and segregated. As suspected initially the segregated group was considerably larger (78) than either the integrated (27) or clustered (28) groups. Also, in dividing the subjects by leadership category, the high leadership group contained a low number of subjects (16) compared to either the medium leadership group (66) or the low leadership group (51). This low number of subjects in the high leadership category in particular became more significant when divided over three work settings (see Chapter IV).

2. Lack of randomization: Because of the relatively low number of subjects in both the integrated and segregated settings, neither group was randomized for final inclusion in the study. Therefore, the possibility of selective representation in these two groups exists.

3. Definition of work setting variable: It appeared that the variable of work setting, particularly in the clustered situation, was not as clearly defined as the leadership or job satisfaction variables. The possibility of many varied conditions of clustering of teachers in a regular education building makes it difficult to look at this group as a clearly defined entity.

4. Control of intervening variables: Despite the attempt to control for various variables through demographic information, there remains the possibility that there were other variables effecting teachers' satisfaction besides the ones looked at in this study. One of the basic assumptions of the present study was the importance of



peer support found through working with a similar population such as is found in a segregated setting. However, it was not possible to control for the alternative type of support systems that teachers in integrated settings possess that might counterbalance the support found in segregated settings.

5. Definition of leader: There also appeared to be confusion among integrated and clustered teachers in particular as to who was their direct leader in terms of completing the leadership instrument. There were instructions included that attempted to define this variable more completely, and if it was apparent that the instructions had not been followed the survey was thrown out. However, this also produced another group--those that were in regular education settings but administered by special education personnel in another location.

The limitations listed above could possibly effect the results and should be considered in making generalizations from the present study. They will also be addressed further in the discussion section.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The present study proposed to examine the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction and also between work setting and job satisfaction. In addition, it was the design of the study to determine if there would be an interaction effect between leadership style and work setting in the subsequent relationship to job satisfaction. This chapter presents the results of analyses that tested hypotheses based on the predicted relationships. Both the main effects of leadership style and work setting and the interaction effects of these two variables on job satisfaction are presented. The results section will also include an analysis of certain demographic variables to determine if the subjects differed in their levels of satisfaction according to age, sex, and years of experience. Finally, a comparison of administrator and peer support systems in relation to job satisfaction will be presented.

The relationship between leadership style, work setting, and job satisfaction was tested using a 3 x 3 factorial design with leadership style and work setting being the independent variables and job satisfaction the dependent variable. Both the main effects of leadership style and work setting and also the interaction effect between the two variables was examined. Job satisfaction, the dependent

variable, was divided into four separate dependent variables--Satisfaction With Supervisor, Satisfaction With Colleagues, Satisfaction With Work Conditions, and Satisfaction With Work Itself. These variables were based on factors taken from Lester's (1986) Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. The results of the four separate 3 x 3 analyses are summarized in Tables 2 through 5.

Table 2  
Satisfaction With Supervisor by  
Lead Style and Work Setting

Source of variation	Sum of squares	<u>df</u>	Mean square	<u>F</u>
Main effects				
Lead style	3990.241	2	1995.121	22.690*
Work setting	215.392	2	107.696	1.220
2-Way interactions				
Lead Style x Work Setting	249.305	4	62.326	0.709

\*p < .05.

Table 3  
Satisfaction With Colleagues by  
Lead Style and Work Setting

Source of variation	Sum of squares	<u>df</u>	Mean square	<u>F</u>
Main effects				
Lead style	193.833	2	96.916	3.845*
Work setting	129.891	2	64.946	2.576
2-Way interactions				
Lead Style x Work Setting	58.729	4	14.682	0.582

\* $p < .05$ .

Table 4  
Satisfaction With Work Itself by  
Lead Style and Work Setting

Source of variation	Sum of squares	<u>df</u>	Mean square	<u>F</u>
Main effects				
Lead style	121.926	2	60.963	3.260*
Work setting	25.522	2	12.761	0.682
2-Way interactions				
Lead Style x Work Setting	112.875	4	28.219	1.509

\* $p < .05$ .

Table 5  
Satisfaction With Work Conditions by  
Lead Style and Work Setting

Source of variation	Sum of squares	<u>df</u>	Mean square	<u>F</u>
Main effects				
Lead style	728.049	2	364.024	16.244*
Work setting	45.083	2	22.542	1.006
2-Way interactions				
Lead Style x Work Setting	45.815	4	11.454	0.511

\*p < .05.

### Research Hypotheses

#### Research Hypothesis 1

Research Hypothesis 1: High leadership style will result in greater Satisfaction With Supervisor than will low leadership style.

The null hypothesis of no difference in satisfaction scores between the high leadership and low leadership groups was tested as part of the 3 x 3 factorial design. The mean Satisfaction With Supervisor score for the high leadership group was 54.56 (N = 16), while the mean Satisfaction With Supervisor score for the low leadership group was 41.22 (N = 51). A third group comprising a medium leadership style obtained a mean Satisfaction With Supervisor score of 51.75 (N = 66). The main effects difference in the relationship

between leadership style and Satisfaction With Supervisor was found to be significant at the .05 level ( $F = 22.69$ ), thus rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference. A post hoc analysis utilizing the least squares difference (LSD) procedure indicated that there were significant differences between the high leadership group and the low leadership group and also between the medium leadership group and low leadership group. No difference was found between the high leadership group and the medium leadership group. Thus, Research Hypothesis 1, predicting that the high leadership group would produce greater Satisfaction With Supervisor than the low leadership group, was supported. A listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 6.

Table 6  
Leadership Style and Satisfaction With Supervisor

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Low leadership	51	41.22	$F = 22.69, p < .001$
Medium leadership	66	51.76	
High leadership	16	54.56	

#### Research Hypothesis 2

Research Hypothesis 2: Segregated work settings will result in greater Satisfaction With Colleagues than will integrated work settings.

The null hypothesis of no difference in satisfaction scores between the segregated work setting and the integrated work setting was tested as part of the 3 x 3 factorial design. The mean Satisfaction With Colleagues score for the segregated setting was 38.68 ( $N = 78$ ), while the mean Satisfaction With Colleagues score for the integrated group was 36.86 ( $N = 28$ ). A third group comprising subjects in the clustered setting obtained a Satisfaction With Colleagues score of 40.19 ( $N = 27$ ). The main effects difference in the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Colleagues was found not to be significant at the .05 level ( $F = 2.576$ ), and thus the null hypothesis was not rejected. Research Hypothesis 2, predicting that segregated work settings would result in greater Satisfaction With Colleagues than integrated work settings, was not supported. A listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 7.

Table 7  
Leadership Style and Satisfaction With Colleagues

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Integrated	28	36.86	$F = 2.576, p < .08$
Clustered	27	40.19	
Segregated	78	38.68	

### Research Hypothesis 3

Research Hypothesis 3: High leadership style will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Conditions than will low leadership style.

The null hypothesis of no difference in satisfaction scores between the high leadership group and the low leadership group was tested as part of the 3 x 3 factorial design. The mean Satisfaction With Work Conditions score for the high leadership group was 26.94 ( $N = 16$ ), while the mean Satisfaction With Work Conditions score for the low leadership group was 21.71 ( $N = 51$ ). A third group comprising medium leadership style produced a Satisfaction With Work Conditions score of 26.42 ( $N = 66$ ). The main effects difference in the relationship between leadership style and Satisfaction With Work Conditions was found to be significant at the .05 level ( $F = 16.24$ ), thus rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference. A post hoc analysis utilizing the LSD procedure indicated that there were significant differences between both the high leadership group and low leadership group and also between the medium leadership and low leadership groups. There was no difference between the high leadership group and the medium leadership group. Thus, Research Hypothesis 3, predicting that high leadership style would result in greater Satisfaction With Work Conditions scores than would low leadership style, was supported. A complete listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 8.



Table 8  
Leadership Style and Satisfaction With Work Conditions

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Low leadership	51	21.71	$\underline{F} = 16.244, \underline{p} < .001$
Medium leadership	66	26.42	
High leadership	16	26.94	

#### Research Hypothesis 4

Research Hypothesis 4: High leadership style will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Itself than will low leadership style.

The null hypothesis of no difference in Satisfaction With Work Itself scores between the high leadership group and the low leadership group was tested as part of the 3 x 3 factorial design. The mean Satisfaction With Work Itself score for the high leadership group was 38.50 ( $\underline{N} = 16$ ), while the mean Satisfaction With Work Itself score for the low leadership group was 35.49 ( $\underline{N} = 51$ ). A third group comprising the medium leadership style obtained a Satisfaction With Work Itself score of 36.68 ( $\underline{N} = 66$ ). The main effects difference in the relationship between leadership style and Satisfaction With Work Itself was found to be significant at the .05 level ( $\underline{F} = 3.62$ ), thus rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference. A post hoc analysis utilizing the LSD procedure indicated that there were significant differences between the high leadership group and low leadership group. There were no differences found between either

the high leadership group and the medium leadership group or between the medium leadership group and the low leadership group. Thus, Research Hypothesis 4, predicting that high leadership style would result in greater Satisfaction With Work Itself scores than would low leadership style, was supported. A complete listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 9.

Table 9  
Leadership Style and Satisfaction With Work Itself

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Low leadership	51	35.49	
Medium leadership	66	36.68	<u>F</u> = 3.62, <u>p</u> < .04
High leadership	16	38.50	

#### Research Hypothesis 5

Research Hypothesis 5: Segregated work settings will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Itself than will integrated work settings.

The null hypothesis of no difference in Satisfaction With Work Itself scores between the segregated work setting and the integrated work setting was tested as part of the 3 x 3 factorial design. The mean Satisfaction With Work Itself score for the segregated group was 36.27 (N = 78), while the mean Satisfaction With Work Itself score for the integrated group was 37.21 (N = 28). A third group comprising subjects in the clustered setting had a Satisfaction With Work

Itself score of 36.15 ( $N = 27$ ). The main effects difference in the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Work Itself was found not to be significant at the .05 level ( $F = 0.68$ ); therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference between the groups could not be rejected. Research Hypothesis 5, predicting that segregated work settings would result in greater Satisfaction With Work Itself scores than would integrated work settings was not supported. A complete listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 10.

Table 10  
Work Setting and Satisfaction With Work Itself

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Integrated	28	37.21	$F = 0.68, p < .507 \text{ ns}$
Clustered	27	36.15	
Segregated	78	36.27	

#### Research Hypothesis 6

Research Hypothesis 6: Segregated work settings will result in greater Satisfaction With Work Conditions than will integrated work settings.

The null hypothesis of no difference in Satisfaction With Work Conditions scores between the segregated work setting and the integrated work setting was tested as part of the 3 x 3 factorial design. The mean Satisfaction With Work Conditions score for the segregated

group was 24.92 ( $N = 78$ ), while the mean Satisfaction With Work Conditions score for the integrated group was 23.50 ( $N = 28$ ). A third group of subjects in the clustered setting obtained a Satisfaction With Work Conditions score of 25.19 ( $N = 27$ ). The main effects difference in the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Work Conditions was found to be not significant at the .05 level ( $F = 1.006$ ); therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference between the groups could not be rejected. Research Hypothesis 6, predicting that segregated work settings would result in greater Satisfaction With Work Conditions scores than would integrated work settings, could not be supported. A complete listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 11.

Table 11  
Work Setting and Satisfaction With Work Conditions

Group	$N$	$\bar{X}$	$F$ value
Integrated	28	23.50	
Clustered	27	25.19	$F = 1.006, p < .369$ ns
Segregated	78	24.92	

#### Research Hypothesis 7

Research Hypothesis 7: Leadership style will effect the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Work Itself.

The null hypothesis of no interaction effect between the independent variables of leadership style and work setting on

Satisfaction With Work Itself was tested using the 3 x 3 factorial analysis of variance procedure. The results indicated that the interaction effect of the two variables was not significant at the .05 level ( $F = 1.51$ ); therefore, the null hypothesis of no interaction could not be rejected. Research Hypothesis 7, predicting that there would be an interaction effect between leadership style and work setting on Satisfaction With Work Itself scores, was not supported. A complete listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 12.

Table 12  
Leadership Style/Work Setting and Satisfaction  
With Work Itself

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Low leadership--integrated	11	36.64	
Low leadership--clustered	9	36.89	
Low leadership--segregated	31	34.68	
Medium leadership--integrated	14	36.64	
Medium leadership--clustered	13	35.69	$F = 1.509, p < .204$ ns
Medium leadership--segregated	39	37.03	
High leadership--integrated	3	42.00	
High leadership--clustered	5	36.00	
High leadership--segregated	8	38.75	

### Research Hypothesis 8

Research Hypothesis 8: Leadership style will effect the relationship between work setting and Satisfaction With Work Conditions.

The null hypothesis of no interaction effect between the two independent variables of leadership style and work setting on Satisfaction With Work Conditions was tested using a 3 x 3 factorial analysis of variance procedure. The results of the analysis indicated that there was not a significant interaction effect between leadership style and work setting ( $F = 0.51$ ); therefore, the null hypothesis of no interaction effect could not be rejected. Research Hypothesis 8, predicting that there would be an interaction effect between leadership style and work setting on Satisfaction With Work Conditions scores, was not supported. A complete listing of the means and number of subjects in each group is given in Table 13.

### Additional Analyses

#### Demographic Variables

The relationship between the demographic variables of sex, age, years of teaching experience, and number of students and the four measures of satisfaction was tested through a series of one-way analysis of variance procedures with the exception of sex which was tested using a  $t$  test for independent means.

The results of each of these analyses failed to find a significant relationship indicating that there was no relationship between these demographic variables and job satisfaction. It was important

Table 13  
Leadership Style/Work Setting and Satisfaction  
With Work Conditions

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Low leadership--integrated	11	19.18	
Low leadership--clustered	9	22.33	
Low leadership--segregated	31	22.42	
Medium leadership--integrated	14	26.14	
Medium leadership--clustered	13	26.46	$F = 0.51, p < .369 \text{ ns}$
Medium leadership--segregated	39	26.51	
High leadership--integrated	3	27.00	
High leadership--clustered	5	27.00	
High leadership--segregated	8	26.88	

from a control standpoint to show that these variables would not effect the relationship between satisfaction and the two independent variables of the present study--leadership style and work setting. The categories included under each variable along with means and number of subjects is included in Tables 14 through 17.

Table 14  
Demographic Variables and Satisfaction With Supervisor

Variable	<u>N</u>	<u>x̄</u>	<u>F</u> value
Age			
Under 30	12	49.66	<u>F</u> = 1.79, <u>p</u> < .15 ns
30-40	77	47.50	
40-50	32	46.40	
Over 50	12	54.33	
Years teaching			
0-5	15	49.73	<u>F</u> = 0.44, <u>p</u> < .72 ns
6-10	31	49.16	
11-15	46	46.76	
Over 15	41	48.04	
Sex			
Male	29	49.27	<u>F</u> = 1.13, <u>p</u> < .65 ns
Female	104	47.71	
No. of students			
0-10	46	49.21	<u>F</u> = 0.82, <u>p</u> < .36 ns
Over 10	87	47.43	



Table 15  
Demographic Variables and Satisfaction With Colleagues

Variable	<u>N</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>F</u> value
Age			
Under 30	12	39.08	<u>F</u> = 0.409, <u>p</u> < .74 ns
30-40	77	38.23	
40-50	32	38.84	
Over 50	12	39.83	
Years teaching			
0-5	15	39.66	<u>F</u> = 0.491, <u>p</u> < .68 ns
6-10	31	38.93	
11-15	46	37.95	
Over 15	41	38.68	
Sex			
Male	29	37.75	<u>F</u> = 1.150, <u>p</u> < .59 ns
Female	104	38.83	
No. of students			
0-10	46	39.50	<u>F</u> = 2.140, <u>p</u> < .14 ns
Over 10	87	38.12	

Table 16  
Demographic Variables and Satisfaction With Work Itself

Variable	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Age			
Under 30	12	37.75	<u>F</u> = 0.843, <u>p</u> < .47 ns
30-40	77	36.04	
40-50	32	36.40	
Over 50	12	37.66	
Years teaching			
0-5	15	36.73	<u>F</u> = 1.068, <u>p</u> < .36 ns
6-10	31	37.16	
11-15	46	35.52	
Over 15	41	36.82	
Sex			
Male	29	35.41	<u>F</u> = 2.120, <u>p</u> < .15 ns
Female	104	36.73	
No. of students			
0-10	46	36.30	<u>F</u> = 0.069, <u>p</u> < .29 ns
Over 10	87	36.51	

Table 17  
Demographic Variables and Satisfaction  
With Work Conditions

Variable	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Age			
Under 30	12	26.50	<u>F</u> = 1.490, <u>p</u> < .22 ns
30-40	77	24.72	
40-50	32	23.34	
Over 50	12	26.08	
Years teaching			
0-5	15	25.46	<u>F</u> = 1.670, <u>p</u> < .17 ns
6-10	31	26.29	
11-15	46	23.86	
Over 15	41	24.07	
Sex			
Male	29	24.96	<u>F</u> = 1.120, <u>p</u> < .76 ns
Female	104	24.56	
No. of students			
0-10	46	25.23	<u>F</u> = 0.814, <u>p</u> < .36 ns
Over 10	87	24.37	

### Administrator/Peer Support

Each of the subjects was asked to respond to two questions related to support: (1) Does your administrator support you in time of stress? (Y/N); and (2) Do your peers support you in times of stress? (Y/N). The results of these responses divided the subjects into the following four groups for analysis: (1) Group 1--support from both peers and administrators, (2) Group 2--support from peers only, (3) Group 3--support from administrators only, and (4) Group 4--support from neither peers or administrators. Possible differences between these groups on each of the indices of satisfaction was tested utilizing a series of one-way analysis of variance procedures. Significant differences at the .05 level were found when comparing these groups with the dependent variables of Satisfaction With Supervisor, Satisfaction With Colleagues, and Satisfaction With Work Conditions. Only with the dependent variable of Satisfaction With Work Itself was there no relationship. A complete listing of means and number of subjects in each group is given in Tables 18 through 21.

Table 18

#### Supervisor/Peer Support and Satisfaction With Supervisor

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Both support	49	56.14	$F = 21.87, p < .001$
Peer only support	52	43.13	
Supervisor only support	4	48.00	
Neither support	28	43.03	

Table 19  
Supervisor/Peer Support and Satisfaction With Colleagues

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Both support	49	40.53	$F = 11.54, p < .001$
Peer only support	52	39.30	
Supervisor only support	4	35.00	
Neither support	28	34.42	

Table 20  
Supervisor/Peer Support and Satisfaction  
With Work Itself

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Both support	49	37.08	$F = 0.62, p < .59 \text{ ns}$
Peer only support	52	35.88	
Supervisor only support	4	36.75	
Neither support	28	36.32	

Table 21  
Supervisor/Peer Support and Satisfaction  
With Work Conditions

Group	<u>N</u>	$\bar{x}$	<u>F</u> value
Both support	49	27.57	$F = 9.87, p < .001$
Peer only support	52	22.78	
Supervisor only support	4	25.25	
Neither support	28	23.03	

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

The present study was designed to look at the variables of leadership style and work setting and their effects on the job satisfaction of special education teachers. Work setting, in this instance, was defined as either (a) integrated with one or two TMI teachers working together in a regular education building, (b) clustered with three or more TMI teachers working together in a regular education building, or (c) segregated with TMI teachers working together in a separate facility. Leadership style was defined as the perceived leadership of the building administrator as seen by the teachers. Job satisfaction was defined according to four different factors taken from the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ)--Satisfaction With Supervisor, Satisfaction With Colleagues, Satisfaction With Work Itself, and Satisfaction With Work Conditions. It was hypothesized that both the leadership style of the building administrator and type of setting would effect level of job satisfaction and also that the interaction between the two variables would effect satisfaction. For purposes of testing these hypotheses, subjects were selected from the population of teachers working with the trainable mentally impaired in the state of Michigan. Overall, 133 subjects participated in the study, 28 from an integrated setting, 78

from a segregated setting, and 27 from the clustered setting. A 3 x 3 factorial design using the three settings (integrated, clustered, and segregated) and the three levels of leadership style (high, medium, and low) was used to analyze the data. Both main effects of leadership style and work setting were examined, in addition to the interaction effects between these two variables.

This chapter will discuss the results and their implications for practice and also provide suggestions for further research in this area.

### Leadership Style

#### Discussion

Research Hypotheses 1, 3, and 4 looked specifically at the main effects of leadership style on three different facets of job satisfaction--Satisfaction With Supervisor, Satisfaction With Work Itself, and Satisfaction With Work Conditions. In all three cases, the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction was found to be significant with high leadership style producing higher job satisfaction scores than low leadership style. As the Satisfaction With Supervisor measure could be viewed as directly related to feelings about the building administrator, it could be expected that significant differences between high leadership and low leadership would be found. However, the factors of Work Conditions and Work Itself could be viewed as more "general" measures of satisfaction similar to the Hygiene factors described by Herzberg (1966) and Smith

et al. (1969) in their studies of satisfaction. In the present study leadership style was also found to be significantly related to differences in satisfaction on these more general factors. The results seem to support the conclusions of Pellicer (1982) that the principal or administrator is able to influence these Hygiene factors related to general work conditions.

In conducting post hoc analyses on the original factorial design, it was found that on the three measures of satisfaction the high leadership group and the medium leadership group did not produce significantly different satisfaction scores. Both the medium and high leadership groups were found to be significantly higher in satisfaction scores than the low leadership group, but were not significantly different from each other. Considering that the criteria of high, medium, and low leadership style was dependent on the measure of the administrator's perceived adaptability, it would seem that the administrator-supervisor who was seen as being able to adapt leadership skills to fit individual situations definitely had a more positive impact on staff satisfaction than those perceived to be lacking in adaptability. This finding was also evidenced across all work settings included in the study.

The finding of significance in comparing leadership style and these measures of satisfaction would seem to support one of the basic assumptions of the present study--that the building administrator does have an impact on the satisfaction of the staff in his or her building. The results also support the findings of numerous earlier studies that compared leadership behavior and satisfaction/morale



(Araki, 1982; Blocker & Richiardson, 1962; Braukmann, 1980; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Dessler, 1977; Hensen, 1984; Silverman, 1957; Zabel & Zabel, 1982).

### Implications

The major implications from the results looking at the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction would be the following:

1. For the successful integration of special education programs consideration should be given to the leadership style of the building administrator that would be receiving the special education program. The results of the present study would indicate that the moderate to high "adaptable" administrator has a better chance of creating a climate in which special education teachers express higher job satisfaction.

2. Even in those programs that will continue to be segregated, the "adaptability" of the building administrator would seem to be a major determiner of job satisfaction for teachers in those settings. This would imply that teachers in a segregated setting also need a moderate to high adaptable administrator in order to create a climate that would contribute to higher job satisfaction.

### Recommendations

Based upon the results of the present study regarding the relationship of leadership style to job satisfaction, the following recommendations would be made for future practice:

1. Administrators charged with decisions related to the integration of trainable mentally impaired students should develop a greater awareness of the different styles of leadership and what role they may play in the assimilation of integrated programs into regular education buildings. This information should then be used to make decisions related to placement of TMI programs into regular education buildings.

2. All persons in leadership positions should become more aware of how administrative styles affect teachers and teaching performance. Included in this awareness should be a discussion of the role of adaptability and the importance of responding differently based on the situation. The Situational Leadership principles of Hersey and Blanchard (1982) would be an excellent resource for in-service training in this area.

3. Higher education officials should consider including an in-depth study of the role of leadership style--particularly adaptability--in the training program for administrators.

4. Administrators may need to take additional training in how to use the principle of adaptability or the ability to change styles based on the individual situation. Such training could involve simulation activities to give administrators more practical experience.

## Work Setting

### Discussion

The relationship between work setting and three measures of job satisfaction--Satisfaction With Colleagues, Satisfaction With Work Itself, and Satisfaction With Work Conditions--was tested in Research Hypotheses 2, 4, and 5. The main effects difference in each instance was not significant. This would indicate that for the present study work setting had no major effect on job satisfaction. There was also no pattern to the satisfaction scores with the clustered setting producing the highest satisfaction scores in the instances of Satisfaction With Colleagues and Satisfaction With Work Conditions, and the integrated setting producing the highest satisfaction scores in the category of Satisfaction With Work Itself. Segregated scores were not higher in any of the three tested hypotheses. In none of the three situations did the findings even approach significance.

These results need to be discussed in comparison with earlier research and theory. Both Smith et al. (1969) and Bridges (1980) discussed the importance of co-workers in bringing about satisfaction. The results of the present study do not refute these contentions but seem to indicate that co-workers might be equally important in both integrated and segregated settings. Two theoretical approaches to group membership, that of Gouldner (1957) with his "cosmopolitan" versus "local" discussion and also Cleveland (1973) and the "psychological" versus "formal," were used to predict that the integrated teacher would resemble the "cosmopolitan" or the more

"formal" type of membership and, hence, have more problems feeling "a part of" the group. The present results in regard to setting have either negated that assumption or possibly have indicated that the integrated teacher, even though unique in terms of the type of teaching situation and children taught, is still made to feel part of the greater group.

The finding of no significance in the hypotheses related to work setting and job satisfaction may also have been due in part to the lack of clarity in the definition of work setting. In the initial conceptualization of the integrated and segregated settings, it became evident that there were many variations being utilized in the integration of special education programs and, hence, the addition of a third category--clustered. Still it was much more difficult to operationalize the three types of work settings than it was to delineate leadership style.

Also the basic assumption of the study was that the support of co-workers in the segregated setting--because of the similar type of population being taught--would result in greater satisfaction. Instead the present study may have shown that the teachers in the integrated setting were developing different types of support systems that were equally effective or that the basic assumption of more support in the segregated setting was incorrect. In examining the role of support systems in producing satisfaction, it was found through a separate chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) test that the level of peer support across all of the settings was significantly higher than would be expected by chance ( $\chi^2 = 42.19$ , crit value = 3.99). However, the settings did

not differ significantly from one another in levels of peer support ( $\chi^2 = 3.31$ , crit value = 5.99). Level of administrator support was also significant but at a much lower level than was peer support ( $\chi^2 = 4.62$ ). The results also supported the findings of Fimian (1986) and Zabel and Zabel (1982) that indicated the importance of peer and administrator support in reducing levels of dissatisfaction. In the present study, these sources of support may have served to reduce the negative effects of one setting over another.

### Implications

The major implications from the present study related to work setting and job satisfaction are:

1. The results of the present study would indicate that the placement of the trainable mentally impaired program, in relation to integrated versus segregated setting, may not play a major role in the job satisfaction of the teaching staff involved. This would have further implications for directors/administrators charged with the decision of whether to integrate trainable mentally impaired programs. Considering that previous research (Brown et al., 1979; Sontag et al., 1979) has shown integration with regular education students to have positive effects on handicapped students, the present study would further indicate that teachers are not effected adversely by such a move.

2. The results also imply that other factors related to the work setting, such as a peer support system, may be more related to job satisfaction than the actual physical setting. This should help

the director/administrator in planning for a successful integration effort.

### Recommendations

Based on the results of the relationship of work setting to job satisfaction, the following recommendations would be made:

Directors/administrators charged with the task of integrating TMI programs should continue to focus primarily on the benefits to the students involved as results of the present study have indicated that the teachers involved in the integration are not effected solely by physical setting. But, it is also recommended that decision makers consider factors beyond a particular setting when determining whether to integrate handicapped children. One of the factors to consider is the support system present in the building. If the regular education staff is not supportive of the integration effort a series of in-service and awareness sessions may be necessary. An alternative consideration would be to cluster teachers of the trainable so that they have a built in support base.

### General Recommendations

Those administrators charged with determining the efficacy of integrating the handicapped should consider two factors based upon the results of the present study: (1) the leadership of the building administrator that would be receiving the special education program and (2) the level of support both from an administrative and peer standpoint that would exist in the regular education building.

Determining that both of these factors would be positive would greatly enhance the chances of achieving teacher job satisfaction. It should be pointed out that the results of the present study do not, in any way, preclude the practice of integrating handicapped students into a regular education facility.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

The following are suggestions for related research in future studies:

1. It is recommended that additional research should be conducted using the variables of leadership style and work setting using different work settings than were proposed in the present study. Among these could be: (a) resource room classroom setting versus self-contained and (b) rural versus urban special education settings.

2. Another variation in the present study would be to choose different populations, e.g., looking at the satisfaction of teachers working with the severely emotionally impaired both in an integrated and segregated setting.

3. It is also recommended that the variables of the present study be researched further with the variable of work setting--specifically integrated versus segregated--being further operationalized. It has already been stated that the variable of integration was very difficult to define in the present study because of the many variations possible in integration. Among these would be clustering, or placing teachers in a separate wing of the building, or team teaching. Each of these situations may have effected the variable of

satisfaction. In future studies it is suggested that integration could be more clearly defined so that the differences that exist between integration and segregation could be more attributed to the actual setting and not to other extraneous variables.

### Conclusions

The present study attempted to show that there was a relationship between leadership style, work setting, and job satisfaction specifically in the field of special education. The work setting variable focused on the present day options of integrating or segregating trainable mentally impaired students with the major interest being the attitudes of teachers involved. It was predicted that teachers would be more satisfied in segregated settings, but that the leadership of the building administrator would be an important variable in modifying this relationship. The results supported the hypothesis that leadership style was related to satisfaction, but did not support the contention that teachers would be more satisfied in a segregated setting. In fact there was no relationship found between setting and satisfaction, nor was there interaction between leadership style and setting.

The results hold certain implications for directors of special education and other administrators faced with the decision of whether to integrate special education students--specifically moderately to severely handicapped students. Previous research has supported the move towards integration in terms of the benefits to students (Gilhool, 1973; Sontag et al., 1979; Wolfensberger, 1972). The



present study would show that in addition, there does not appear to be negative effects on teacher satisfaction from the move to integration of trainable programs.

## APPENDICES

## Appendix A

### Requirements for Certification of Teachers of the Mentally Impaired in the State of Michigan

**R 340.1786 Teachers of the mentally impaired; special requirements.**

**Rule 86.(1)** The teacher education program for teachers of the mentally impaired shall include a minimum of 30 semester hours. In addition to the requirements of R 340.1781, the teacher education program for teachers of students with mental impairments shall include all of the following:

(a) A minimum of 12 semester hours of special skills and knowledge necessary for working with mentally impaired students, including all of the following:

- (i) The nature of mental deficiency.
- (ii) Differential curriculum development and teaching techniques.
- (iii) Basic components of language development.
- (iv) The basic sensori-neural system and its relationship to learning and development.
- (v) Classroom management techniques.

(b) A minimum addition of 10 semester hours in the development of competency in the following areas:

(i) Ability to observe and assess students, including all of the following:

- (A) The nature of mental deficiency.
- (B) Differential curriculum.
- (C) Development and teaching techniques.
- (D) Basic components of language development.
- (E) The basic sensori-neural system and its relationship to learning and development.
- (F) Classroom management techniques.

(ii) Ability to provide instruction and guidance to mentally impaired students in all of the following areas:

- (A) Self-help skills.
- (B) Prevocational and vocational skill training.
- (C) Recreation and leisure activities.

(iii) Ability to understand physical, sensory, and health related problems and their impact on learning and development, including the understanding and appropriate use of medical information.

(iv) Ability to guide and counsel mentally impaired students regarding all of the following:

- (A) Human sexuality.
- (B) Home, family, and community living.
- (C) Use of local, state, and national resources.

(v) Ability to understand and utilize basic behavioral management concepts and techniques to meet the unique needs of the mentally impaired individual.

(vi) Ability to organize and manage an educational environment and schedule for a group of mentally impaired students, including the understanding of the functions and role of the teacher as educational team leader and the role and function of related services personnel and aides.

(vii) Ability to instruct and reinforce a program of communication skills and techniques, both verbal and nonverbal, as deemed appropriate for the student.

(viii) Ability to utilize community resources and a variety of community settings and activities in the planning and implementation of an educational program for mentally impaired students.

(c) Directed student teaching with mentally impaired students pursuant to R 340.1782(c).

(2) A teacher assigned as a lead teacher of the trainable mentally impaired shall comply with all of the following requirements:

(a) Meet certification and full approval requirements for teaching the mentally impaired, as required in R 340.1782.

(b) Have completed 2 years of successful teaching experience with the trainable mentally impaired.

(c) Be recommended by an administrator who has supervised the teachers professional activities with trainable mentally impaired persons for at least 1 year.

(d) Have demonstrated ability to work cooperatively and creatively with other professional and nonprofessional staff members.

## Appendix B

Initial Letter to Directors of Special Education--  
Intermediate School Districts--Regarding  
Subjects for Study

January 18, 1988  
Grand Rapids, Michigan

Dear Director of Special Education:

I am presently a doctoral student in Special Education Administration at Western Michigan University. As part of my dissertation project I am interested in surveying the attitudes of teachers of the Trainable Mentally Impaired working in both integrated (in regular education facilities) and segregated (separate facilities) settings. Their involvement in the study would be totally confidential and voluntary.

I would like to request your assistance in identifying staff members within your ISD that are teaching TMI students in regular education buildings. I would need to know the names of those staff persons and their assigned buildings so that I could correspond with them directly.

Also I would like to request similar information in relation to those teachers working in segregated facilities. If information on staff working in either type of setting is available in the form of a staff directory for the entire ISD (as is the case at Kent ISD), I would very much like to receive a copy.

In either case if there is another person(s) that would be more appropriate to contact for such information, please send along that name(s) and address. I have enclosed a stamped self-addressed envelope for your response. Because of the time constraints involved in identifying subjects for my study I would appreciate hearing from you as soon as possible.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

John Woods

[COPY]

## Appendix C

### Follow-up Letter to Directors

January 30, 1988  
Grand Rapids, Michigan

Dear Director of Special Education:

On January 18, 1988, I corresponded with you regarding my dissertation project. In conjunction with that project I had requested the names of teachers in your ISD that were working with trainable mentally impaired students both in an integrated and a segregated setting. As of this date I have not received the information from your ISD.

Your cooperation in this project would be greatly appreciated. Obviously, I would like to involve as many of the ISDs as possible in the data collection. If you have further questions regarding the project please contact me.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

John Woods

[COPY]



## Appendix D

### Survey Packet Sent to Subjects

February 19, 1988  
Grand Rapids, Michigan

Dear Special Educator:

I am currently a doctoral student in Special Education Administration at Western Michigan University. I am writing to request your cooperation in conducting my dissertation research project dealing with the job attitudes of teachers of the Trainable Mentally Impaired.

Enclosed you will find two survey instruments, one dealing with your job satisfaction and one dealing with the perceived leadership style of your immediate supervisor. Instructions for each are attached. It should be noted, however, that if you are working in a regular education building the leadership instrument should be completed on the regular education administrator in that building. The two instruments together should take no longer than 15-20 minutes to complete. The surveys are confidential and you should not put your name on the forms. The surveys are coded so that reminders can be sent to persons who have not returned the packet within a reasonable amount of time. The coding system will then be destroyed following the collection of data so that confidentiality is assured.

In order to analyze the data in a timely manner I would request that all surveys be returned in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed folder by March 16, 1988. Your participation is extremely important in obtaining meaningful results and I would ask that you respond to the surveys when they first arrive.

Thank you for your cooperation and time. If you have any questions regarding the research please call me at (616) 243-1928.

Sincerely,

John Woods

[COPY]

## Personal Data Form

Please check the appropriate response to the questions below:

1. Your age:  
☐ under 30      ☐ 30-40      ☐ 40-50      ☐ over 50
2. Sex:  
☐ male      ☐ female
3. Number of years teaching:  
☐ 0-5      ☐ 6-10      ☐ 11-15      ☐ over 15
4. Highest academic degree attained:  
☐ B.A./B.S.      ☐ M.A./M.S.      ☐ M.A. + 15      ☐ Doctorate
5. Type of classroom:  
☐ preschool (age 0-5)      ☐ elementary (age 6-12)      ☐ secondary (age 12 and over)      ☐ other (specify)
6. Number of students in classroom:  
☐ 0-5      ☐ 5-10      ☐ over 10
7. Type of setting:  
☐ regular education building      ☐ separate facility
8. Number of other TMI teachers in your building:  
☐ 0-1      ☐ 2-5      ☐ over 5
9. Does your immediate supervisor take an active and supportive role in helping you deal with one-the-job stress?  
☐ yes      ☐ no
10. Do your peers take an active and supportive role in helping you deal with on-the-job stress?  
☐ yes      ☐ no

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**These consist of pages:**

**Appendix D 99-101**

**U·M·I**

## Appendix E

### Follow-up Postcard to Subjects

Dear Special Educator:

During the last month you have been asked to respond to two (2) surveys as part of my dissertation research. As of this date (March 17) I have not received your completed surveys. Please do so as soon as possible. Your cooperation is very important to the final project.

Thank you again for your assistance.

Sincerely,

John Woods, Doctoral Candidate  
Western Michigan University

## Appendix F

### Scoring Guides--LEAD Other and TJSQ

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## Appendix G

### Human Subjects Review Board Exempt Status



*Human Subjects  
Institutional Review Board*

TO: John Woods

FROM: Ellen Page-Robin, Chair <sup>28-2</sup>

RE: Research Protocol

DATE: February 12, 1988

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research protocol, "The Effects of Leadership Style and Work Setting on the Job Satisfaction of Special Education Teachers" has been approved as exempt by the HSIRB.

If you have any questions, please contact me at 383-4917.

## Appendix H

### Raw Data

Raw Data  
Integrated Group

Subject No.	LEAD Other	Sat. Super.	Sat. Coll.	Sat. Work	Sat. Cond.
115	17	41	33	43	25
112	15	42	36	38	25
108	8	60	43	35	31
113	11	51	38	32	26
134	10	57	36	39	30
107 <sup>a</sup>					
169	-5	14	29	39	13
141 <sup>a</sup>					
129	7	48	35	39	23
170	9	59	45	39	30
123	7	51	33	32	19
164	3	53	39	37	16
346	-9	39	28	36	20
175	7	43	44	33	24
406 <sup>a</sup>					
173 <sup>a</sup>					
408 <sup>a</sup>					
161	10	51	37	37	27
160	10	58	38	36	26
156	10	47	36	40	27
163	-8	17	41	35	11
122	13	43	31	34	30
130	4	48	32	33	24
128	2	44	39	39	27
162	-2	37	37	28	7
165	7	47	36	28	18
159	-4	33	27	38	25
121	8	45	37	45	29
157	7	46	38	44	26
132	1	48	40	36	25
111	15	66	44	45	31
124 <sup>a</sup>					
119	0	45	36	43	29

<sup>a</sup>Insufficient data for scoring.

## Segregated Group

Subject No.	LEAD Other	Sat. Super.	Sat. Coll.	Sat. Work	Sat. Cond.
365 <sup>a</sup>					
371	10	39	32	29	20
354	-4	47	33	36	19
382	2	40	37	42	26
368	9	66	42	35	33
334	3	54	36	34	27
428	20	63	40	37	30
390 <sup>a</sup>					
413	-3	42	32	31	21
414	16	59	45	39	27
383	1	43	38	36	20
357	12	55	43	39	31
355	6	59	46	38	29
341	3	51	30	29	22
416	0	38	36	35	25
409 <sup>a</sup>					
415	-4	40	41	36	24
395	5	37	42	36	25
398	11	52	45	42	26
396	4	48	48	43	28
393	13	41	39	27	24
397	0	45	43	38	28
399	8	45	35	33	19
323	10	54	43	41	32
335	14	63	41	40	23
366	17	70	46	43	33
394	-3	32	42	36	23
307	8	50	45	43	33
367	56	39	35	26	
429	10	55	45	36	26
303	12	60	39	41	28
302	4	50	47	39	23
301	15	60	45	41	29
310	10	56	33	31	21
327	7	36	28	37	24
320	10	49	42	40	32
324	10	55	40	38	28
304	13	61	46	42	31
306	3	61	43	30	31
321	-5	42	33	41	27
322	6	48	30	34	28
305 <sup>a</sup>					
318	7	63	42	42	30
351	-4	28	31	24	11
434	11	37	34	31	16

## Segregated Group--Continued

Subject No.	LEAD Other	Sat. Super.	Sat. Coll.	Sat. Work	Sat. Cond.
331	-5	41	38	38	22
349	-4	30	39	23	17
350	6	54	34	42	25
424	-1	40	45	41	19
333	9	53	40	42	24
345	-4	37	40	28	20
430	12	51	37	38	25
317	10	57	38	41	28
338	-5	27	46	33	23
337	17	44	36	34	22
378 <sup>a</sup>					
387	-1	38	45	41	17
342	11	63	44	40	27
363 <sup>a</sup>					
391	12	56	41	42	27
375 <sup>a</sup>					
392	7	40	35	35	26
328	14	48	47	38	29
326	0	35	46	40	23
332 <sup>a</sup>					
339	9	53	37	36	27
348	-4	41	42	32	24
417	7	53	33	31	30
336	4	56	35	32	22
431	9	56	37	40	25
344	-5	52	40	35	27
343	13	53	38	44	24
330	-4	34	34	35	15
359	7	49	39	40	29
361	-4	36	31	29	15
386	5	57	39	37	29
432	-8	35	29	34	18
369	3	67	37	35	26
433	3	44	29	31	26
364	7	62	33	41	28
311	13	46	33	28	18
325	-1	53	38	38	26
356	11	59	39	31	27
340	18	58	40	38	22
347	8	39	36	32	27
412	12	43	32	34	26

<sup>a</sup>Insufficient data for scoring.

## Clustered Group

Subject No.	LEAD Other	Sat. Super.	Sat. Coll.	Sat. Work	Sat. Cond.
423	9	48	36	28	22
145	7	55	46	39	28
388	10	56	44	33	28
421	17	55	36	36	24
136	7	44	38	36	16
137	-8	24	37	32	18
139	-13	30	26	42	15
100	-3	44	42	33	24
117	10	66	47	39	34
422	4	68	45	39	32
168	-7	32	41	36	20
300	9	65	45	39	29
171	10	53	37	33	31
146	12	49	41	36	32
384	6	56	38	37	29
405 <sup>a</sup>					
420 <sup>a</sup>					
106	8	56	41	34	23
167	7	43	30	38	22
118	-7	41	38	35	25
103	-1	53	40	42	30
104	15	62	50	39	33
102	15	57	45	35	27
143 <sup>a</sup>					
131	2	32	33	38	19
114	10	54	42	36	23
105	13	47	43	36	27
135	16	34	40	34	20
149	-7	24	39	35	18

<sup>a</sup>Insufficient data for scoring.

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