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A Study of the Impact of Supervisory Style on Teachers’ Job Satisfaction in the Secondary Schools in Kuwait

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The purpose of this study was to answer the following questions:

1. Do the supervisory styles used in the secondary schools of Kuwait satisfy teachers' lower and higher needs?

2. When using supervisory styles in the secondary schools in Kuwait, do supervisors consider teachers' growth and development?

3. What are the effective supervisory styles used at the secondary school level in Kuwait?

The research population consisted of 400 teachers randomly selected from three educational districts in Kuwait. Two questionnaires, Teachers' Perception of Supervisors Questionnaire (TPSQ) and Teachers' Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (TNSQ), were used to gather data. Of the questionnaires distributed, 93% were returned.

Using one-way analysis of variance, the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and supervisory styles was investigated.

Using t test contrasts, the investigator found that high supportive-high administrative styles of supervision will provide greater motivation for teachers than low supportive-high administrative styles. Also, the investigator found that high supportive-high administrative styles of supervision will provide greater motivation
for teachers than low supportive-low administrative styles. However, the investigator found that there was no significant relationship between high supportive-high administrative styles and high supportive-low administrative styles of supervision as perceived by teachers.

Moreover, using two-way analysis of variance, the investigator found a significant relationship between the job satisfaction of teachers and some of the demographic variables.

Based on these findings, several recommendations were made for further study.
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A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF SUPERVISORY STYLE ON TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KUWAIT

Western Michigan University

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Abdulaziz D-M Al-Duaij
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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Teacher satisfaction is an important aim of educational supervision. It has been known and demonstrated that one major purpose of educational supervision is to achieve better ends in schools, which could indeed be better achieved by satisfied teachers. "Supervision is not merely concerned with ends in an instrumental sense, but is concerned with better ends" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983, p. 175).

One of the major problems in today's schools is lack of cooperation, trust, and understanding between supervisors and teachers. It is expected that new teachers look for advancement, growth, skills, and abilities in doing their job; and supervisors are those qualified people who are supposed to help them improve themselves (Douglass, Bent, & Boardman, 1961). The following was cited in Provence's (1978/1979) dissertation:

Since skill in the activities of teaching cannot be fully developed in the few years of professional education in college, it is evident that further education should be continued in-service. The in-service growth of the teacher is the responsibility of the supervisor, and it is his continued effort which assists teachers in perfecting themselves in their professional duties and responsibilities. (p. 5)

Educational supervision was once called "inspecting," and its function was simply to discover teachers' mistakes and to write
reports about them. But after discovering new necessities and new services for schools, the supervisor's role has been changed to fulfill the new requirements of schools; one of the major requirements is to motivate teachers. Supervisory function became an important one as well as other instructional requirements, such as curricula, budget, resources, and administration (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983). Other functions of supervision in schools are to control, monitor, assist, and satisfy teachers. Furthermore, supervisors are expected to help in matching teachers' and schools' goals (Getzels & Guba, 1957).

In the United States, educational supervision is part of a democratic system. The cooperative system of educational supervision depends on continuous cooperation between supervisors and those who work in instruction. The strongest aspect of democratic supervision is that it awakened professionals to the principle of improving the human relations between individuals involved in a teaching-learning situation, relations known in Islamic societies since the birth of Islam and familiar to many other religions as well.

Moreover, there were other reasons as well for the changes in educational supervision. Among these are the betterment of a cooperative and an interactive educational operation and a climate which encourages feelings of kindness, love, and trust. All of these characteristics are linked to professional behaviors.

In Kuwait and the nations of the Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf (GCC) as a whole, the success of educational supervision depends on cultural circumstances. In other words, the
educational supervision goals of Kuwait are linked to the social situations in that country. As it is seen in a study done by committee members from the Arabian Gulf Center for Educational Researches (AGCER, 1985), the goals of supervision are to help the teacher to recognize educational goals, to encourage him or her to innovate, to allow him or her to grow personally, to improve human relations in the school society, and to share in selection of textbooks and and the development of curricula.

In the study cited above (AGCER, 1985), some other functions of school supervision in Kuwait have been put forward, i.e., to improve human relations between the supervisor and the teacher, to strengthen relations among faculty members, to help in strengthening the relationship between the school and the society, and to deal directly with substance of learning-teaching requirements.

Findings in a research study done by Young and Herchberger (1975) have demonstrated the need of teachers for educational leadership. This researcher believes that the present supervisors in the secondary schools in Kuwait—a nation located in the Arabian Gulf in the Middle East in Asia—do not fulfill their supervisory roles effectively. Therefore, based on the literature, this researcher believes that the effective supervisory style of supervisors is that one which relates to teachers' job satisfaction. Furthermore, the researcher believes that secondary school teachers seriously expect and seek supervised leadership in their schools.

It seems appropriate here to explain the supervision system in Kuwait. The Ministry of Education, which administers education at
all levels, hires professional persons as supervisors in different subject areas depending on their longevity and expertise in these areas. These supervisors visit schools three to five times a year. The supervisor's role is to visit teachers in classrooms, to discuss strengths and weaknesses with teachers individually, and finally to write reports or evaluations, the content of which is not shared with the evaluated teachers.

In the past it was said that supervision was once called inspecting and was characterized by al-Jombolati and al-Tawani (cited in Wahbi, 1983) as this:

Inspecting was considering the number of successful students in classes, observing teachers' work, and telling the administration about shortages involved; surprising teachers by visits to look at students, not books or teachers' papers; using a short time to sit with teachers and discuss matters, neglecting teachers' opinions, and using compulsion in implementing instructional requirements on them. (p. 5)

The researcher's interest in writing about the secondary school level particularly came from his belief that this level is characterized by teachers' advancement and sensitivity which make them in need for support and guidance from their immediate supervisors.

The researcher takes this opportunity to say that from his own experience that when he was a trainee teacher at this level he found that there are many teachers at this level who were not sufficiently qualified in their teaching skills, which makes it impossible for them to provide a good education to their students.
The researcher of this study believes that there is a gap of mistrust between teachers and supervisors which has four reasons. First, for example, Wahbi (1983) has discovered in his study of educational supervision why this gap exists. His study was in the United Arab Emirates, which has similar instructional circumstances to Kuwait.

Supervisors display haughtiness toward teachers and criticizes them in front of students. Secondly, supervisors still depend on authority delegation. Thirdly, supervisors avoid listening to teachers' views which are different from their own ideas. Finally, supervisors are different in their supervision because of the differences in their nationalities. (p. 7)

Second, this researcher also believes that task emphasis by supervisors is one of the reasons for this gap. Third, another reason for the gap between teachers and supervisors may be because supervisors do not work with teachers at all times. Fourth, gaps between teachers and supervisors in the secondary schools in Kuwait arise from their different backgrounds and experiences. Teachers and supervisors are different in their nationalities, cultures, and countries, so their experiences differ, also. This means that they were prepared for their jobs differently. Thus, from this point, supervisors should try to create loyalty among teachers for their schools and should attempt to integrate teachers' experiences, diminish their differences, help them work as a group, and finally, improve the relationship between teachers and school administration. Furthermore, the researcher relates some of supervisors' weaknesses to the lack of leadership skills, misunderstanding of work, weakness in interpersonal involvement, and lack of enthusiasm.
Finally, this study will concern supervision and leadership theories which are appropriate for Kuwait school situations.

Problem Statement

In the first extent, the role of the supervisor is a leadership role. In his or her leadership of teachers, the supervisor provides a great function if he or she is performing effectively. Also, the development of supervision is considered a capstone to the development of the educational system. As other fields such as curriculum, staff, materials, programs, and other activities should be developed, supervision also should be considered for further development (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983).

It is this researcher's belief that supervision should concern teachers' needs, motivations, and differences in achieving better instruction. It is also this researcher's belief that when the relationship between supervisors and teachers is strong and when the teachers are convinced that the supervisors' role is vital and one of assistance, the teachers can then provide better services to the system as a whole, particularly to the students.

Background

As stated earlier in this chapter, it is the belief of the researcher that the present supervision in the secondary schools in Kuwait is inadequate. Supervisors are only required to be in school, to catch teachers' mistakes in surprise visits to classrooms, and to do routine jobs through their visits to schools. Though teachers are
expected to benefit from this type of supervision, more could be accomplished. The supervisors, in their leadership role, should allow teachers to participate in decision-making and problem-solving processes. In addition, supervisors are expected to strengthen teachers' relationships with their peers and school administration. Also, they are supposed to encourage teachers to share in the evaluation process, not just write secret reports about them as is now done. It is the supervisors' role to discover teachers' aspirations, needs, perceptions, and goals and to assist in accomplishing them when appropriate. It is also important to keep in mind that teachers differ in their abilities, personalities, attitudes, and circumstances. Finally, the supervisors should emphasize group or participative work among teachers.

Kuwait, like any developing country, has tried and is still trying to improve itself in all sectors in general, and particularly in education. In the area of education, many things were changed which relate to supervision to match the new functions of the school as an educational organization. Supervisors should thus be well prepared to utilize instruction as a tool for helping teachers.

The Ministry of Education, which administers education in Kuwait, has been concerned about instructional requirements, but supervision at all levels still has the traditional meaning. The Ministry of Education, when trying to keep pace with new trends in supervision, did not prepare supervisors well enough or did not establish professional institutions to teach new systems in supervision to match the new trends. The ministry needs to create
prepared programs which explain those new trends in supervision and leadership. It is important to reiterate that supervisors in Kuwait schools are hired on the basis of their length of time in teaching, and the people who hire them look only to their academic and personal experiences and do not consider their leadership skills. In other ways, supervision in Kuwait is still viewed as an evaluation function to promote teachers or to transfer them to other jobs.

In the study of the Arabian Gulf Center for Educational Research (1985), previously mentioned, the researchers found that supervisors are hired depending on their educational background and their experiences. In that survey, there was no consideration of a supervisor's skill as a leader who can influence others, and there was no test for willpower and/or authority and communication skills (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983).

As an alternative, supervisors could be chosen after being involved in practical situations to see how they solved problems or administered workers. In the study mentioned above (AGCER, 1985), only two countries in the Arabian Gulf area prepared educational supervisors before they started work by assigning them to training sessions for a period of 6 to 12 months.

In the same study (AGCER, 1985), there were two major types of problems encountered by educational supervisors in Kuwait. The first one is the weakness of the supervisory ability of some supervisors. The second one is the weakness of teaching ability of some teachers. Additional problems are related to the shortage of training sessions for supervisors, the high number of responsibilities of supervisors,
the shortage of professional supervisors, the lack of open-minded supervisors, and the many different nationalities represented among supervisors which accounted for their different styles.

Moreover, other problems were found which relate to supervisors' work in the field. Some of these are the existence of confused supervisors, providing directions which are hardly followed, avoidance of teachers' opinions, preference of routine over technical function, absence of trust between supervisors and teachers, confusion of supervisory methods, and the concentration only on subject matter issues. People responsible for educational supervision have presented some suggestions to solve these various problems and difficulties. Suggestions include educating supervisors in modern theories of supervision, providing rewards for teachers, involving both supervisors and teachers in curriculum improvement, and working to improve trust between supervisors and teachers. (See the AGCER, 1985, pp. 28-32, study for further suggestions).

More description for the present educational supervision in Kuwait was presented by al-Mazrooei (1986); he said:

No doubt efforts were made which should not be forgotten. There were plans to improve the supervisor's achievement and to concentrate on making his/her role more effective, by giving the teacher more direct help on the job. But supervision still needs serious investigation, and field studies are necessary to discover the results of this effort and to be assured that it is achieving its goals. In my opinion that educational system has been padded and there are too many supervisors. (p. 8)

Supervisors in Kuwait schools have many additional responsibilities which prevent them from achieving excellence on the job. Sarhan (1978), who lived many years in Kuwait and who had lengthy experience

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with educational matters, explained those responsibilities as follows:

Although supervision was changed from inspecting to supervision in Kuwait schools, it still emphasizes inspecting functions and holds many accountabilities. Supervisors' responsibilities are to visit teachers in their schools a few times a year and share their observations about curriculum, textbooks, materials, and others for the purpose of improvement, evaluate teachers by writing secret reports and give numbered estimations for their efforts, participate in developing proposals and training proposals, and recheck textbooks and other technical and administrative jobs. (p. 3)

In a study done by Wahbi (1983) in the United Arab Emirates, a nation in the GCC, he found that supervisors (78%), teachers (59%), and administrators (57%) still believe that the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher is more one of inspecting than supervision. He also found that the field practice of that relationship, as determined by 32% of the study subjects, was to catch teachers' mistakes and use them as faults against him or her and that supervisors' evaluations of teachers were much affected by the personal relationship and the nationality of the supervisors, which goes against the assumed objectivity of the evaluation.

In Kuwaiti schools, principals should approve or share supervisors' evaluation of teachers in order to improve their skills to the extent required; but in Wahbi's (1983) study, it has been shown that supervisors (75%), teachers (69%), and administrators (55%) said that principals' approval for supervisors' reports does not mean anything except observing and then finding ways to achieve them.

In the enunciation of supervisors' responsibilities by the Ministry's Deputy Office, Ministry of Education, Kuwait (1978),
responsibilities listed include: visiting teachers in schools to help them in their mission and to solve problems, writing technical reports about teachers to the head supervisor in the ministry, evaluating instructional methods in schools, suggesting methods and means to improve technical and instructional levels of teachers, and performing additional tasks as suggested by instructional departments.

Excellent cooperative efforts have been initiated between Kuwait University and the Ministry of Education. The university is providing diplomas for supervisors to encourage their continuing education, yet there are no special courses provided in this unique field. Courses are needed which would contain both older and more current information about leadership and supervision in Kuwait.

Purpose

According to theories of supervision and leadership available in the field, job satisfaction is considered as a major factor to motivate individuals. For this study, supervisory styles used by supervisors are directly linked to teachers' satisfaction. The purpose of this study is to suggest a basis for reorganization of educational supervision with respect to teachers' needs satisfaction in the secondary schools in Kuwait. Other levels of education, due to the similarities between them, could also benefit from such reorganization. Emphasis in this study will be the relationship between supervisory styles and teachers' job satisfaction. Specifically, this study will focus on supervisory styles of secondary school supervisors as perceived by teaching staff and the level of teachers'
need satisfaction as defined by motivator needs of teachers. The results of this study should be logical and effective enough to provide new directions for the improvement of educational supervision, which is an important field of education in any country.

The main effect of this study will be to influence the re-organization of the role of supervisor in the secondary schools in Kuwait. Other effects are to assess the needs and satisfactions of teachers and to make the leadership behavior of supervisors obvious and effective. The focus in this study was to answer these questions:

1. Does the supervision practiced in the secondary schools of Kuwait satisfy teachers' lower and higher needs?

2. Do supervisors consider teachers' growth and development?

3. What are the effective supervisory styles used in the secondary level?

The present always concerns itself with finding and working with new trends in any field. Shortages and errors of implementing issues exist in every profession. Therefore, what is hoped for by doing this study is to discover the shortages, mistakes, and needs of educational supervision, and then to integrate the appropriate supervision and leadership trends, especially those which match the educational situation in Kuwait society. Ideas could be utilized from the United States, where advanced theories of supervision and leadership have long been established.

Another purpose of this study is to research and learn the kind of relationship that exists between supervisors and teachers and then
to suggest ways for improvement, leading to satisfaction of teachers, who are the real base of education. And all this should lead to achieving the school goal, which is considered as the required aim of instruction.

It is hoped that this study, based on field research and analysis, will be accepted by the educational organizations in Kuwait, such as the Ministry of Education, Kuwait University, and educational institutions, to reorganize supervision in the secondary schools in Kuwait.

Significance of This Study

This researcher believes that discovering the relationship between supervisory styles and teachers' job satisfaction in Kuwaiti secondary schools will help in evaluating the present styles of supervisors. Another aim is to discover those satisfaction factors which affect teachers' performance and the improvement of learning-teaching operation.

Moreover, this study will help to determine those means of motivating teachers in order to have better educational outcomes. Such determination will help in getting advancement and achieving success. Rue and Byars (1977) said that "the need of an individual to achieve is an integral part of a person's personality which affects drive and motivation" (p. 338).

Finally, determining teachers' perceptions toward their supervisors in this study will also help in designing and evaluating the supervision being manipulated. This determination may assist
responsible people to adjust issues related to supervision in the secondary school level as well as other similar levels in Kuwaiti schools.

Definition of Terms

Explanation of the basic concepts and terms that will be used in the study will make the study hypotheses more understandable.

Supervisor: The supervisor for this study is a professional person who comes from the Ministry of Education to visit schools several times a year. The supervisor's role is to assist teachers in improving the instructional program. His or her functions are both administrative and supportive.

Supervisory style: A supervisory style is the manner or behavior to which the supervisor appears in influencing teachers.

Supportive function: Supportive functions are those activities which directly relate to the technical aspect of the task. For this study, supportive functions include those activities such as encouraging and facilitating the instructional efforts of teachers, observing classes for the purpose of helping the teacher in the teaching-learning process, helping teachers to develop better methods of instruction, and assuring that teachers have up-to-date lesson plans.

Administrative function: An administrative function is not concerned with instructional aspects of the task. This function includes activities such as discovering teachers' behaviors and teaching methodology which relate to their efforts in schools, conducting department meetings, providing building administration with
reports about teachers, and other administrative functions.

**Motivation:** Motivation is also called drive. It is largely determined by the value of rewards and their contingency on performance. Motivation is linked to the hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954).

**Satisfiers:** Satisfiers are those factors associated with satisfaction, but not dissatisfaction. They also are called motivators because of their ability to stimulate performance. They include recognition, achievement, responsibility, and work itself.

**Job satisfaction:** Job satisfaction is an individual's comfort feeling or attitude about the job. It is largely determined by the comfort offered by the environment and the situation.

**Job dissatisfaction:** Job dissatisfaction refers to those factors which, if are neglected, dissatisfaction occurs and one's performance on the job decreases to a level below the acceptable. Herzberg (1966) called these factors "hygienic."

**Motivator needs:** Motivator needs are those needs such as responsibility, recognition, growth and development, and advancement. These motivator needs are linked to an individual's esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization.

**Hygienic needs:** Hygienic needs are those factors such as policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions which cause dissatisfaction if they are not met. They are those conditions that workers expect in return for a fair day's work.

**Need-satisfaction:** Need satisfaction is the difference between the degree of fulfillment and the degree of expectation with respect
to a given need. Need fulfillment is defined as how much of the characteristic of a given need is presently connected with a given situation. The expectation of a given need should be connected with an identical situation. When no difference exists between the degree of fulfillment and the degree of expectation (i.e., what is and what should be) with respect to a given need, the need is considered satisfied. When there is a difference, the degree of need satisfaction decreases or need deficiency results. The greater the difference between need fulfillment and degree of expectation, the greater the perceived need deficiency; conversely, the lesser the difference, the greater the perceived need satisfaction (Provence, 1978/1979, p. 14).

Summary

This chapter began with an introduction of the history and development of supervision. Ideas of different authors who are close to Kuwaiti culture were presented. This chapter also contained some objectives to be answered by this study. The problem statement was discussed about how supervisors in the secondary level in Kuwait function in their jobs and in how teachers perceive them.

Some literature from Kuwait and other nations around it which have similar circumstances regarding supervision were presented.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The main factors of this study are job satisfaction, perceptions, and supervision. In this chapter, development of supervision, definitions, functions of educational supervision, job satisfaction, evaluation, motivation, and leadership behavior are presented. This chapter also concludes with the rationale and the hypotheses of the study.

Development of Supervision

In the present century, many meanings of educational supervision have been presented by educators interested in this important field of endeavor. Until now many have considered educational supervision as a continuous function of educational administration. There are others who still understand it as inspecting.

After the development of modern systems and the discovery of new trends in education, supervision became a matter of dealing with the teacher and his or her teaching methods. Supervisors became representatives for the administration who sought to transfer trends and achieve goals. As a consequence, educational supervision became a professional field within the teaching-learning operation which cares for educational settings as well as curricula. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983), for example, said:
Educators moving between or within school systems will be required to shift gears and adjust, for example, to different systems of discipline, grading, scheduling, and class grouping. Supervisory personnel, therefore, must develop versatility in their methods of supervision in order to match their methods to the educational setting. (p. 226)

With regard to curricula, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983) added that "educational supervision, of necessity involves the supervisor in educational theory, in regard to both the general purposes of education and the means to achieve these purposes, the curriculum-instructional program" (p. 240).

In addition to the above, the complexity of administrative responsibilities and the improvement of education and instruction which have changed the type of human relationships in schools must also be considered. Changes are reflected in the relationship between the administration and the supervisor on one side and between the supervisor and teachers on the other side.

There are some reasons for change in educational supervision. The first main reason is the necessity of invention. Pupil enrollments, for example, have been increasing for many years. School districts are always faced with the need to improve strategies for improving the quality of educational services. This improvement could be in matters such as smaller budgets, demands for accountability, closing and combining schools, teacher surpluses, and teacher entrenchment as manifested by low mobility and turnover rates (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983).

Changing reflects a need for a set of leadership demands in the school in both an educational and an organizational sense. Teachers

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need identity and commitment to their jobs. Supervisors as leaders help provide them with that identity and commitment.

The problem of staff stability is another reason for change in supervision. Many educational districts have problems with teacher turnover because of missing teachers' stability with work conditions. However, staying on the job is too important for schools. Making teachers remain on the job just for security alone is not enough. "The maintenance and development of job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment in teachers becomes more important. Again the burden increasingly falls on supervisors who are closest to teachers and their work" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983, p. 2).

Finally, staff development is another area for change. Schools are full of new teachers who in time grow professionally. And strong demands fall increasingly on supervisors as catalysts for this development.

Definitions of Supervision

In the 1970s, educational supervision was seen as a continuation of educational administration because of the political and social forces. In the 1980s the meaning of educational supervision has been changed to include new issues such as leadership, educational administration, instructional curriculums, teaching methods, training, and human relations. From these trends, different definitions have evolved.

Supervision as a process is presented by Carter (1973) in his educational dictionary. He said:
[Supervision is an] administrative behavior chosen by persons involved in supervisory responsibilities as they attempt to influence other persons and situations in achievement of major tasks; components of this behavior are directing and controlling, stimulating and initiating, analyzing and appraising, and designing and implementing. (p. 573)

From the definitions of educational supervision which relate to educational administration, Eye, Netzer, and Kery (1971) have agreed that educational supervision is that part of school administration which emphasizes basically appropriate teaching expectations for the educational system. However, there are others such as Mosher and Purpel (1972) who see educational supervision as a leadership and training mission. They believe that supervision teaches teachers ways of job leadership to rebuild general education.

Still others in the field, including K. Wiles (1967) and Marks, Stoops, and Stoops (1978), have said that educational supervision is a mission of experimentation and work to improve teaching programs.

New understandings have appeared in the literature which suggest that educational supervision is an interaction between supervisors and teachers. K. Wiles (1967) and Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) were the first theorists who called for such an understanding of educational supervision.

As a new development in the field, new understanding has recently emerged that supervision relates to all fields and interactions of educational operations and not only to one area. Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1975) presented this definition: "Educational supervision is a behavior which is designed officially by that responsible organization which directly affects teachers' behavior in
such a way to facilitate students' learning and implement the organizational goals" (p. 35).

Practitioners in education have said that supervision is a leadership issue. Therefore, they expect to see an effective leadership which is based on democratic principles to improve schools and their activities. Other purposes are to establish coordinated relationships between faculty members, to encourage teachers' productivity, to improve relationships between the school and society, and to build high ideals between teachers to help them work as an effective and cooperative group to reach their goals and the goals of the educational system (al-Kateeb, al-Kateeb, & al-Ferah, 1984).

Harris (1975) defined supervision as:

What school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching processes employed to promote pupil learning. Supervision is highly instruction-related but not highly pupil-related. Supervision is a major function of the school operation, not a task or a specific job or a set of techniques. Supervision of instruction is directed toward both maintaining and improving the teaching-learning processes of the school. (pp. 10-11)

Wiles (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) viewed "supervision as those activities that are designed to improve instruction at all levels of the school enterprise" (p. 7).

Alfonso et al. (1975) described supervision differently. They said, "Supervision is an instructional behavior system that interacts with the school's counseling, teaching, administrative, and student behavior system" (pp. 35-36).

Finally, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983) defined supervision as "a set of activities and role specifications specifically designed to
influence instruction" (p. 11).

Functions of Educational Supervision

In the view of researchers and professionals, there are many aims, both general and specific, for educational supervision. Many of these people agree that the primary general aim for it is to adorn the operation of the teaching-learning process (Adams & Dickey, 1953), and there are others who consider it as the nurturing of students and then the society (Burton & Brueckner, 1955).

Shalan (1969) determined seven aims of educational supervision. These are: (a) working in such a way as to secure the implementation of social and educational aims; (b) helping teachers to know the best educational methods and to benefit from them in their subjects, telling them about everything new in the area of their interest, finally, encouraging them to experiment and share everything which leads to growth; (c) disclosing teachers' needs, and facilitating human relationships between faculty members to help them work together toward school goals; (d) respecting each teacher's personality and personal abilities, and helping him or her to be able to control himself or herself and analyze and solve his or her problems; (e) helping teachers to know and utilize resources from their culture; (f) working toward the arrangement of instructional programs to improve the educational operation; and (g) helping the teacher to evaluate students' work and to evaluate his or her own work in terms of its strengths and weaknesses.
In addition to Shalan (1969), Saman and Morsy (1975) listed four functions of educational supervision. These were: (a) improving the educational operation through the leadership of school principals and teachers; (b) evaluating educational organizations through the leadership of school principals and teachers; (c) improving teachers' growth and levels of their implementation of teaching methods; and (d) working to improve human resources and use them effectively.

The literature of educational supervision is filled by additional functions which almost all agreed that teachers' needs, motivations, respect, abilities, and personalities should be well secured. Al-Afendi (1981) emphasized teachers' rights as the most important aim of supervision. He said that supervision should protect teachers from job expectations above their abilities, should build a strong respect base for teachers, and unionize them in one incorporated group, and should help new teachers to discover learning difficulties.

One major study of education supervision was conducted in Florida during the late 1960s by Perry (cited in J. Wiles & Bondi, 1980). Subject area supervisors accounted for 24% of all supervisors in the study. Their responsibilities were to collect and disseminate current curriculum materials, hold conferences with individual teachers, and aid classroom teachers in the interpretation of materials. The study also found other functions of supervisors in different areas, such as generalists, special services, subject area, and adult or vocational. These functions were:
performing routine administrative duties, participation in in-service education workshops and programs, planning and arranging in-service workshops and programs, collecting and disseminating current curriculum materials, engaging in public relations, assisting teachers in the selection and interpretation of materials, assisting in the orientation of new and beginning teachers, coordinating instructional programs, participating in the formation of policy, assisting in the evaluation and appraisal of school programs, developing curricular designs and coordinating improvement efforts, assisting in the development of proposals for federal funds, and holding individual conferences with teachers. (p. 14)

Kasim (1979) conducted a study about five districts in Saudi Arabia to select the best functions of supervision that are used from the perceptions of the supervisors themselves. He collected data from 91 supervisors. Ten percent of them were citizens. He found that the majority of supervisors responded that supervision is to help teachers and guide them by transferring experiences and giving good lesson models.

In the area of educational curriculums and subject areas, Kasim (1979) found that improving teaching methods and evaluation means are the first aims of supervision. Also, in the area of helping and orienting teachers, he found that supervisors believe their job is to train new teachers for success.

Job Satisfaction

In reviewing the literature, it has been clear that job satisfaction is considered as a major element to fulfill one's needs. There is evidence that individual characteristics, such as differences in personality, motivation, and expectation, operate to obscure many of the commonly generalized relationships between satisfaction.
and general group attitudes (Carroll, cited in McCaskill, Seifert, & Neely, 1979). For many years, researchers have tested job satisfaction. Theories to explain job satisfaction include fulfillment theory, discrepancy theory, equity theory, and motivation-hygiene theory.

Fulfillment theory (Vroom, 1964), explains the degree of satisfaction experienced by an individual as dependent on the relevance of job performance to the worker's self-concept. Discrepancy theory, on the other hand, relates the level of job satisfaction to the worker's perception of rewards.

Equity theory, proposed by Adams and Rosenbaum (1962), sought to correlate workers' perceptions of their jobs with job satisfaction. The researchers tested their theory in a laboratory experiment which involved 23 college students engaged in a work program. They found that when students were paid an hourly wage, their productivity was greater when the wage was perceived as inequitably large rather than merely equitable, even when amounts were identical.

Researchers have synthesized the definitions of job motivation and job incentives and have related job satisfaction to motivation, attitudes, and perceived organizational incentives in order to define job satisfaction more completely. A mediating variable, that of the individual's primary life interests (i.e., extrinsic factors not related to occupation), was added to enrich the definition further. In an attempt to investigate a positive relationship between job satisfaction level and the congruency between workers' projections of ideal working conditions and the conditions they perceive as
existing, Miskel and Hatley (1975) framed the following hypothesis: "The attitudinal discrepancies between the work motivation factors (extrinsic, intrinsic, and risk propensity) and parallel organization incentive factors, as independent variables, together with primary life interests factors, as an interviewing factor, are significant predictors of educators' job satisfaction" (p. 41). From the hypothesis above, supervisors in the secondary schools in Kuwait should realize the importance of maintaining teachers' extrinsic and intrinsic factors which affect their performance.

Contrary to all of the theories of job satisfaction cited above, the motivation-hygiene theory put forward by Herzberg (1966) is directly related to the purpose of this study, which is to discover the avenues of implementing teachers' needs, and such implementation is, in turn, the responsibility of supervisors. This theory stipulates that people at work have two distinct sets of needs. One set of needs is best met by the motivational factors that are not automatically part of the job but can be built into most jobs. In return for the motivational factors—achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement—one is prepared to make the performance investment and to exceed the limits of the traditional legal work relationship. If motivational factors are neglected, one does not become dissatisfied, but one's performance does not exceed that typically described as a "fair day's work for a fair day's pay."

Another set of needs is best met by hygienic factors. In exchange for these factors—salary, possibility of growth, technical supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions,
interpersonal relations (subordinates, superiors, and peers), personal life, status, and job security—one is prepared to make the participatory investment, i.e., to give a fair day's work. If hygienic factors are neglected, dissatisfaction occurs, and one's performance on the job decreases to a level below the acceptable (see Figure 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hygiene factors (environmental)</th>
<th>Motivator factors (job itself)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policies and administration</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>Challenging work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>Increased responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal life</td>
<td>Advancement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Money, status, security</td>
<td>Personal growth</td>
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Figure 1. Hygiene—Motivator Factors.

The Relationship Between Supervision and Worker Job Satisfaction

From reviewing the literature, it is believed that workers have many needs to be satisfied, and one role of organizations is to satisfy these needs. Among these needs of workers which are considered are physiological, safety, social, and self-fulfillment (Maslow, 1954) (see Figure 2). Dunathan and Saluzzi (1980), in explaining the Maslow needs hierarchy, concluded that administrators can measure the strengths and weaknesses of their own organization
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<tr>
<th>Maslow's need hierarchy theory</th>
<th>Herzberg's motivation-maintenance theory</th>
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<tr>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td>Work itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem or ego</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Possibility of growth</td>
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<td>Safety</td>
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<td>Personal life</td>
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and can work to fulfill those employee needs that the group perceives to be important yet unsatisfied. Supervisors in the secondary school level in Kuwait, when matching teachers' interests with the work tasks, can increase their job satisfaction. In one study done by Hersey and Blanchard (cited in Provence, 1978/1979), for example, workers were asked the question, "What do workers want from their jobs?" Responses indicated that they wanted appreciation for their completed tasks, understanding of personal problems, and information about events in their work environment— incentives apparently related to affiliation and recognition needs.

Research done by Myers (1964) indicated and concluded that supervisors should satisfy both motivation and maintenance needs. Many of Herzberg's (1966) satisfiers and dissatisfiers can be viewed as greatly influenced by the supervisor.

Another way supervisors in the secondary schools in Kuwait can satisfy teachers' needs is to heed the advice of Katz and Kahn (cited in Bredeson, Fruth, & Kasten, 1983), who identified three organizational requirements for members:

- joining and staying in the system, doing dependable work, and occasionally performing innovative acts supportive of the organization's goals. To encourage members to meet these requirements, the organization has three types of incentives: rule enforcement, external rewards, and internalized motivation. (p. 53)

Levitov and Wangberg (1983) mentioned the importance of identifying factors of teacher stress and job dissatisfaction in order to develop programs and policies to help reduce such stress and dissatisfaction. In order to do so, the authors developed the Teacher Reproduced with permission of the copyright owner. Further reproduction prohibited without permission.
Stress Scale and administered it to a random sample of 10% of the K-12 teachers in a large urban system. After analyzing the data, they identified the nine factors of teacher stress and job dissatisfaction. They were as follows: "(1) burnout, dissatisfaction; (2) environment descriptors; (3) work rewards; (4) 'caretaker' personality; (5) 'other' control; (6) physical symptoms; (7) overload; (8) perfection; and (9) health habits" (p. 20). A similar survey and analysis could be carried out by officials in Kuwait.

A study done by Gillo (1982) to examine the relationship between supervisory behavior and subordinate satisfaction as moderated by the design of the task. The study also analyzed the relationship between the dimension of leader consideration and employee satisfaction as a two-sample case for routine versus nonroutine jobs. The results indicated that the proposition of the direct relationship between structure and satisfaction with work being stronger for the nonroutine job than for the routine job. Another finding was that the supervisor who helps reduce the ambiguity of the nonroutine situation by structuring should be regarded as an asset. The researcher of this study thinks that teachers in the secondary school level in Kuwait have problems related to job routine. The responsibility of supervisors, though, is to encourage change in teachers and in the job itself.

Supervisors in organizations should realize that there are important situational variables that must be available for workers to perform well. Broedling (cited in Gillo, 1982) discussed such situational variables as these: (a) the type of rewards administered by
the organization and whether those rewards are contingent on performance; (b) job content, or how much of the job is intrinsically interesting; (c) job autonomy, or satisfaction derived from controlling work; and (d) leadership style, or extent of participative control over work (p. 25).

There is a relationship between job level and workers' satisfaction. Supervisors in the secondary school level in Kuwait should know that low skill level jobs can lead to low motivation, low productivity, and other undesirable behaviors. When higher needs are satisfied and affective, job satisfaction will increase (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Satisfaction with the supervisor is another important variable in the consideration of job satisfaction (Gillo, 1982). House and Mitchell (cited in Gillo, 1982) said, "Leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction" (p. 84). Therefore, responsible people in the Ministry of Education in Kuwait should realize the importance of evaluating supervisors' work for better productivity and also awareness of teachers' views of supervisors.

The Relationship Between Supervisory Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction of Teachers

Letting teachers in the secondary school level in Kuwait show their potentials and independence when dealing with instructional issues will increase their satisfaction. McCaskill et al. (1979),

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for example, found in their study that teacher satisfaction with supervision appears to be affected by the organizational structure of the school. Teachers employed in nongraded classrooms were highly satisfied with the supervision they received. Supervision in self-contained and departmentalized classrooms were perceived by the respondents as minimal.

In analyzing the various descriptors in the supervision subtest, McCaskill et al. (1979) found that classroom teachers were complimentary of the building principal. They believed the principal was knowledgeable, supportive, and well-informed. The only area of concern was that of "not being around when needed" (p. 9). It would appear that the majority of teachers want principals to offer more individual assistance and make themselves available more often.

The type of climate of secondary schools in Kuwait affects teachers' performance and productivity. Litwin and Stringer (1968) did an investigation of leadership behavior and organizational climate in three simulated organizations. They found that a close climate which was characterized by bureaucratic leadership brought about low satisfaction. The second organization style, characterized by human relations leadership, produced very high satisfaction, and the third organization, which was characterized by human resources leadership, produced high satisfaction.

Matching teachers' expectations and work expectations is another important matter for Kuwaiti secondary schools. Bidwell (1955) found that teachers expressed satisfaction with their situation when the expectations they had of the administrator's role was consistent with
their perceptions of his behavior; they expressed dissatisfaction with the teaching situation when there was divergence between their role expectations and their perceptions of the administrator's behavior (p. 42).

As mentioned earlier, the supportive style for this study is that style which is used by supervisors to satisfy teachers' higher needs, such as esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. Sergiovanni (1967) found motivator factors to be associated with work itself—intrinsic. These findings suggest that most of today's teachers will work hardest for rewards to their esteem level and that providing increased security and social rewards will not result in a significant increase or improvement in professional performance. Keeping teachers interested, growing, and highly motivated thus becomes the prime focus of supervision.

It is expected that the type of supervisory style used by supervisors affects teachers' perceptions toward them. A 1969 investigation was conducted by Thompson to determine the effects of subordinates' perceptions of their supervisor's behavior and their own self-perception as determinants of job satisfaction in an administrative setting. To make this more clear, Thompson (1969) used two questionnaires and three general information questions. He found that a supervisory style which subordinates perceive as supportive is associated with higher levels of job satisfaction than a style of supervision perceived as less supportive.

Hall's (1972) Arizona survey of business teachers also linked job satisfaction to supervisory influence. For the purpose of this
study, supervisors in the secondary schools in Kuwait are expected to practice appropriate styles of supervision when influencing teachers. Moreover, a study done by Holt (1975) showed that there was a strong relationship between leadership styles of elementary principals and the degree of fulfillment of teacher motivator needs.

The importance of motivational systems should be realized by supervisors in the secondary schools in Kuwait. Erlandson and Pastor (1981), for example, did a study to determine the relationship between the motivation of teachers and their job satisfaction. They randomly selected 15 teachers from each of 10 high schools which represented the different geographic regions of the United States. They found that higher order need strength is defined as the desire for "participation in decision-making, the use of a variety of valued skills and abilities, freedom and independence, challenge, expression of creativity, and an opportunity for learning" (p. 6). Correspondingly, lower order need strength is defined as the desire for "high pay, fringe benefits, job security, friendly co-workers, and considerate supervision" (p. 6).

Moreover, the results of the above study showed that about two-thirds of the teachers surveyed possessed a predominance of higher order need strengths over lower order need strengths. The former were significantly greater than those of workers in industry. Second, although the teachers surveyed possessed all six higher order need strengths, the freedom to take on responsibility for one's own goals and to independently see these goals through to completion was the most strongly expressed need strength, both in the survey.
questionnaire and in the open-ended interviews. Third, generally schools do a better job of satisfying the lower order needs (e.g., friendly co-workers and fringe benefits) than they do of satisfying higher order needs. Generally, the teachers with the highest order need strengths were the least satisfied. Finally, higher order need strengths are not correlated with age, sex, or seniority.

A study done by Moore and Hanley (1982) to discover needs of elementary school teachers surveyed 600 elementary teachers employed in the public schools of Oklahoma. The results of this study showed that there are six need areas which include:

1. developing effective learners and a mastery of the basic skills;
2. guiding children to set up and achieve realistic goals;
3. locating materials and in-service support for more effective teaching;
4. establishing and maintaining discipline;
5. identifying and understanding readiness factors that affect learning; and
6. motivating children to learn. (p. 143)

Therefore, officials in Kuwait who are responsible for instruction should emphasize doing investigations about the role of supervisors in secondary schools.

Matching the needs of teachers with desired educational outcomes is an important issue in successful staff development programs. Supervisory staff in Kuwaiti secondary schools, therefore, must be constantly looking for avenues to facilitate the matching process. Iwanicki and McEachern (1984) have presented three components to be realized by supervisors. These are: "(a) the types of information which can be collected through the self-assessment process, (b) possible techniques for collecting each type of information, and (c) procedures for using self-assessment information to identify priority
staff development needs" (p. 38). In the area of information types, Iwanicki and McEachern maintained that the challenge to supervisory personnel is to motivate teachers to go beyond the open self, which is information about a teacher's behavior that is known to both the teacher and other professionals in the school environment, including administrative and supervisory personnel. Supervisors should delve further into secret and blind self-categories. The first of these categories deals with information about a teacher's behavior which is known to the teacher but not to other professionals in the school environment; the latter deals with information about a teacher's behavior known to others within the school environment but not recognized by the teacher.

Literature is filled with ideas, thoughts, and studies affirming the fact that without satisfying teachers' needs, administrators and/or educational leaders cannot improve the instructional operation. Supervisors as leaders must emphasize the development of strategies which will respond to teachers' needs. In other words, they must understand the process of staff development.

A review of the literature reveals that many workers' needs have been presented and must be fulfilled step by step in order to bring about job satisfaction. Maslow (1954) discovered that the hierarchy of needs contains basic (physiological) and higher needs (self-actualization). Porter (1963) added autonomy needs and placed them in the second highest place in the hierarchy. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1967) and Hinrichs (1974) found that lower needs of workers are directly linked to dissatisfaction on the job.
A recently completed research project (Kreis, 1982) centering on teacher job satisfaction and using Maslow and later theorists as its theoretical foundation indicates that teacher fulfillment issues do not necessarily follow the hierarchical arrangement presently predominant in the literature. Kreis and Milstein (1985) discovered implications in their study about teachers' needs satisfaction that satisfying teachers needs is complex and they refer this task to educational leaders. They added:

Most necessary are diagnostic efforts to establish the needs of teachers as individuals at specific school sites. These needs will differ according to factors such as school environment, leadership behavior for learning and school level, and the particular needs that the individual teacher brings to the job. Such diagnostic efforts will be time consuming, but will produce outcomes significantly better than if a "canned" approach to needs satisfaction were taken. (p. 77)

The Relationship Between Supervisors' Evaluation of Teachers and Teachers' Attitudes and Satisfaction Toward This Evaluation

Interviews have been done by Kauchak, Peterson, and Driscoll (1984) with elementary and secondary school teachers in Florida and Utah to learn teachers' attitudes toward the effectiveness of the evaluation always done by principals. Four methods were used to evaluate teachers, which are principal's visits, student evaluations, achievement tests, and peer evaluations. Teachers responded in different ways when they were asked about the effectiveness of the evaluations that were used. For example, some teachers said that principal's visits were seen for the most part as perfunctory, designed more to maintain the status quo than to improve instruction or
evaluation. Several quotes illustrate this. One teacher, when asked why the principal came into her classroom responded, "Because she has to fill out her forms for her immediate supervisor" (p. 3). Thus, supervisors in this study should avoid those means which weaken the evaluation process.

In the evaluation process, evaluators need to know the extent or degree to which the target population achieves its stated instructional objectives. "Evaluation implies both qualitative and quantitative measures of learner behavior as well as value judgments relating to the desirability of the specified behavior" (Marks, Stoops, & Stoops, 1985, p. 118). Supervisors for this study, for example, can improve their skills when realizing the function of evaluation as Marks et al. present it. They presented two major purposes for evaluation: (a) to determine if the learner (staff member or student) did achieve the criterion measure stated in the instructional objective, and (b) to determine the validity of the instructional strategy and its components, that is, to ascertain the extent to which the strategy accomplished what it was designed to accomplish—to improve learning and/or performance.

Others have defined evaluation in different ways. Deyab (1963), for example, defined it as an operation which determines the depth of instructional program effectiveness and the ability of people who work in it, such as teachers and technical supervisors, to meet students' and society needs. So, from Deyab's definition, supervisors and teachers of this study should be involved in more cooperative matters.
Al-Afendi (1972) defined educational evaluation as those systematic efforts which are undertaken to insure success in implementing those goals which are determined by the educational supervision program. One of the purposes of the supporting style in this study is to provide a successful evaluation.

Al-Kateeb et al., (1984) represented the importance of planning in the evaluation process. They declared that supervision depends on clear and appropriate goals to be achieved and on a clear plan which coordinates with those goals. Therefore, goal evaluation is a basic operation in the evaluation process. This makes answers to the following questions very important: Are there goals for the educational supervision operation? Is there a clear understanding of them? Are goals to be determined by the extent to which success can be measured? Do these goals satisfy the needs of education and instruction and depend on a clear and practical plan? Are these goals coordinated with the general goals of education and instruction? Do these goals consider all requirements of the educational operation? Do these goals complement each other and work together? Are these goals ranked in the order of their importance and priorities? Planning in the evaluation process could be done when the supervisors in Kuwaiti secondary schools address these concerns with teachers. Supervisors can also involve teachers and principals in designing appropriate evaluational programs.

As the operation of instruction becomes more complex, and as problems of instruction increase, professional people in supervision always try to improve techniques and make these walk side by side
with new requirements and difficulties. So the idea of clinical supervision depends on a number of assumptions different from those of traditional rating and evaluating and prescribes a pattern of action that departs substantially from present practice. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983) described it as:

The school curriculum is, in reality, what teachers do day by day, that changes in curriculum and in teaching formats require changes in how teachers behave in classrooms, that supervisors are not teachers of teachers, that supervisors are not teachers of teachers, that supervision is a process for which both supervisors and teachers are responsible, that the focus of supervision is on teacher strengths, that given the right conditions teachers are willing and able to improve, that teachers have large reservoirs of talent, often unused, and that teachers derive satisfaction from challenging work. (p. 299)

The presentation above, therefore, reflects the importance of participation between supervisors and teachers for the benefit of both. Supervisors when using a supportive style can emphasize participation.

Fowler-Finn (1980/1981) reported that there is a complementary relationship between healthy school climate and the implementation of a high-quality clinical supervision model. Teachers selecting clinical supervision over the "traditional evaluation" in one school district were reported by Winn (1982) to be more flexible, more tolerant, and more achievement-via-independence oriented as determined by the California Psychological Inventory. O. Myers (1975) divided 32 teachers in eight schools into an experimental group which received clinical supervision, while the principals utilized their "usual general supervisory approach" for control group teachers. Teachers in both groups had similar self-concepts, but the

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Another way supervisors in Kuwaiti secondary schools can provide effective supportive services for teachers is by doing what Cogan (1973) presented. He identified eight phases in the cycle of supervision. These are: (a) establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship, (b) intensive planning of lessons and units with the teacher, (c) planning of the classroom observation strategy by teacher and supervisor, (d) observation of class instruction by the supervisor, (e) careful analysis of the teaching-learning process, (f) planning the conference strategy and the conference, and (g) the resumption of planning.

It can be seen in these eight phases that the operation of evaluation depends on cooperation between supervisor and teachers, which in turn depends on several important elements such as trust, planning, and interaction.

Moreover, making changes in teachers is a critical point in the process of clinical supervision. Change will not be implemented unless teachers are ready to change. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983, p. 308) mentioned the importance of providing support system needs for teachers. Part of this support system will be psychological, and the other part is technical, depending on availability of teaching and professional practice alternatives to the teacher.

Evaluation process of teachers should care about improving teachers' weak skills. Wahbi (1983) presented suggestions for this process. These are: to visit the teacher more than one time in one day; to make the evaluation report clear and determined and allow
teachers to share in it; to encourage teachers to attend training programs, seminars, and educational meetings; and finally, to let teachers know that their opinions are respected and that the supervisor will work with them after studying the details which utilize the public needs. In conducting department meetings to explain the evaluation process for teachers, supervisors provide administrative service which is one element of this study.

Motivation

One way that managers in organizations can assess their employees' efforts is by using motivational systems. There are different systems that could be used by managers to do this, such as drives, needs, rewards, and so on.

Motivation is a major concept in this study where supervisors in secondary schools of Kuwait motivate the teachers for better job satisfaction. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983) proposed as the basic principle in motivation theory that people invest themselves in work in order to obtain desired returns or rewards. They added that some examples of that investment are time, physical energy, mental energy, creativity, knowledge, skill, enthusiasm, and effort. They categorized expressions of investment in work as being of two types: first, a participation investment and, second, a performance investment.

Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy and Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory are the most related theories to motivation concept. They are also very essential for the purpose of this study. Herzberg's theory
has been discussed on page 27 and now Maslow's theory will be discussed. Maslow's need hierarchy consists of five basic needs common to all humans: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization. Each of the human needs that the theory comprises is examined in relation to others, and they are classified and arranged into a hierarchy of prepotency. Thus, before safety needs are to be satisfied, one must satisfy physiological needs and so on. Maslow (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983), in describing his hierarchy, said:

Human needs arrange themselves in hierarchies of prepotency. That is to say, the appearance of one need usually rests on the prior satisfaction of another, more prepotent need. Man is a perpetually wanting animal. Also no need or drive can be treated as if it were isolated or discrete; every drive is related to the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of other drives. (p. 124)

As it was mentioned above that Maslow's (1954) hierarchy consists of five different human needs, physiological need is the basic human need to sustain life itself—food, clothing, and/or shelter. Safety or security need is essentially the need to be free of the fear of physical danger and deprivation of the basic physiological needs. Social or affiliation need, on the other hand, is the feeling of acceptance by various groups. Next, esteem or recognition need is the feeling of a high evaluation that is firmly based in reality—recognition and respect from others. Finally, self-actualization need is the need to maximize one's potential, whatever it may be, the desire to become what one is capable of becoming.

Autonomy is an element of job satisfaction of teachers in this study. Porter (1962) eliminated physiological needs from Maslow's
His idea was that this category lacks the prepotency to motivate behavior for most people. Therefore, he substituted "autonomy" instead of physiological needs. Porter's idea for autonomy was that a worker's expression is based on the principle of self-government, self-control, and self-determination. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983), for example, said, "Teachers, in particular, display formidable credentials in terms of professional expertness as justification for expression of this need" (p. 126). For a comparison between Herzberg's (1966) theory and Maslow's (1954) theory see Figure 2.

Vroom (1964), in his expectancy theory, described motivation as a response in a person's needs to a specific goal that person seeks. Performance on the job, in his view, is a means by which the person can achieve a personal goal. Since personal goals for individuals are likely to vary, no one set of motivational factors is identified. The basic components of expectancy theory are illustrated in Figure 3. Therefore, the expectancy theory could be an effective source for supervisors in Kuwaiti secondary schools in how they use teachers' motivation for better performance on the job.

Job enrichment is a new way of thinking which has been formalized and developed in recent years. Hackman and Oldham (1976) have identified three psychological states they believe are critical in determining a person's motivation for and satisfaction with a job. These three are: (a) experienced meaningfulness, (b) experienced responsibility, and (c) knowledge of results. Hackman and Oldham maintained that when these three states are present in an individual, he or she feels good and performs well on the job. Moreover, job
enrichment theory has something to do with supervisors themselves, for the theory suggests that virtually every decision supervisors make about school and classroom organization, curriculum development and implementation, materials selection, and teaching itself has implications for building the motivation and commitment of teachers.

There are three essential motivational requirements for personnel in organizations, according to Katz (1964). First, capable people need to be attracted and kept; second, dependable performance must be secured from them; and third, behavior beyond the minimum role specifications is necessary or there will be a failure when unanticipated demands or problems arise. Supervisors when using their supportive style should realize those three essential motivational requirements presented by Katz.
The Relationship Between Leadership Behavior and Supervisory Effectiveness

Leadership refers to the supervisor's ability to influence an individual or group toward the achievement of goals (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983, p. 70). Knowing aspects of leadership, the social and management skills, concepts, and theories that help improve leadership skill is very important to understand the essential role of supervisors in schools today.

In reviewing the literature, many concepts and theories have been found. Among those is Theory X and Y by McGregor (1960), infancy management assumptions by Argyris (1957), the two ideal types of leadership—defensive and participatory—which were presented by Gibb (1967), the managerial grid by Blake and Mouton (1964), and Reddin's (1970) 3-D theory of leadership.

The main theme of all the above mentioned theories is that leadership is of particular importance to effective supervision. When compared with other conditions that influence the mediating variables (organizational structure and function), leadership is more directly accessible to supervision. Yet supervisors need influence to accomplish certain ends in schools. For example, directions are given, actions coordinated, suggestions made, activities assigned, meetings held, standards set, programs adapted, performances appraised, resources distributed, and plans developed within an organized structure in a systematic attempt to effect the schools' purposes (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983, p. 104). Authority and power are two means of influencing others.
Supervisors are different in their styles when working with teachers. The reason for this differentiation can be traced to different social backgrounds they had which determine the base of power, and each supervisor's behavior is a reflection of his or her type of power. It was mentioned in the introduction of this study (p. 7) that teachers in Kuwaiti schools also differ in their nationalities. Thus, the role of supervisors is to improve their loyalty and commitment to the school. Supervisory communication with teachers reflects that behavior as either democratic or dictatorial. Boles and Davenport (1975) said power cannot appear unless someone interacts with others. Simons (cited in Bass, 1981) referred to power as one aspect of a relationship between people.

Supervisors, like all leaders, depend on their authority to help them do their jobs. But emphasizing authority delegation will cause dissatisfaction of workers (Selznick, cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983). Supervisors, if they wish to be successful in their jobs, should use their personal authority to make it reinforce their position authority (Plachy, 1973).

K. Wiles and John (1975) presented four models of supervisory styles in their jobs. The first one is the dictatorial supervisor who thinks that all decisions are in his or her hands and that he or she can say to teachers what they should do and how, then inspect to see that these direct instructions were carried out. The second type of supervision is when the supervisor searches out teachers' problems, listens to them, directs their thoughts, and knows when to be involved and when not to be involved to gain the group's acceptance.
This style is called a diplomatic style. The third style is the negative one. Here the supervisor does not become involved much in teachers' problems. Finally, the fourth style is cooperative, which depends on an effective leadership and a democratic base. In this style, the supervisor believes that his job is to help others to determine what they are going to do and then think through with them ways to implement that work. The cooperative supervisor believes that he or she should link faculty members in unanimous decisions by providing an effective working climate.

Weber (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) distinguishes three types of authority: traditional, where the authority base is legitimized by the belief in the sanctity of tradition; charismatic, where the base of authority is a profession of faith; and legal, where the base is norms and laws.

French and Raven (cited in Cartwright & Zander, 1968) presented five bases of power. These are reward, expert, legitimate, referent, and coercive.

Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) did an investigation to examine the bases of supervisory power in five organizational settings. Some measurements in the study were obtained for worker satisfaction, and researchers found that supervisors using legitimate power and expert power had the highest satisfaction of workers.

In summary, all of the concepts of leadership mentioned above explain how supervisors when using high supportive style can increase their teachers' satisfaction.
Teachers' Perceptions Toward Supervisors' Role

It is very useful to know teachers' perceptions toward the supervisory role because from these perceptions one can determine and then evaluate the effectiveness of the relationship between supervisor and teachers. It is also important to know the extent of teachers' acceptance or rejection of the supervisory style of the supervisor, which affects the instructional operation as a whole. Hollander (1978) said that the relationship between leader and follower is a transactional one which involves a social exchange between the leader and followers. Social exchange involves a trading of benefits where the leader gives something and receives something in return.

An investigation was done by Ngugi (1984/1985) into the relationship between Mississippi public senior high school principals' perceptions of their actual supervisory behaviors, teachers' perceptions of actual supervisory behaviors, and teachers' preferences for principals' supervisory behaviors. The researcher found that the teachers perceived their principals as less directive, less collaborative, and more nondirective. The researcher also found that teachers preferred that the principals be more collaborative in curriculum development, providing materials and facilities, staff development, and evaluation of instruction; they preferred the principals to be more directive in all the supervisory task areas than principals perceived themselves to be.
Blackbourn (1983/1984) did another investigation concerning the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principals' supervisory behaviors in the area of evaluating instruction and teacher perceptions of a post-evaluative conference. The researcher found that teachers who had more positive attitudes toward the post-evaluative conference were those who perceived their principal's behavior as more collaborative and less nondirective. Additionally, it was found that elementary teachers had a more positive perception of the conference than did secondary teachers.

LeCrone (1983) studied the relationship of teachers' and supervisors' competitive/cooperative attitudes and principal ratings of successful supervision. The research concluded that slight differences in cooperativeness may be associated with school district or grade level differences. The preponderance of cooperative scores has meaning for school climate and appropriate supervisory behaviors.

Phares (1981/1982) did a study to determine teachers' perceptions of the supervisory conference as measured by the Post-Evaluative Conference Rating Scale (PECRS) when the variables of principal's race, sex, degree level, age, and years of administrative experience are considered. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between the variables mentioned above and teachers' total scores on the PECRS.

Provence (1978/1979) investigated the relationship between the supervisory styles of secondary school supervisors as perceived by teaching staff and level of teachers' need satisfaction as defined by motivator needs. He found that the job satisfaction of teachers who
perceived their supervisors as high supportive and high contributory was significantly higher ($p < .05$) than the job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive/high contributory and low supportive/low contributory, respectively. Moreover, he found that there was no significant difference between supervisors perceived as high supportive/high contributory and those perceived as high supportive/low contributory. Finally, he found that there was a significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and individual schools and individual subject area, respectively.

Frisbie (1969) did a study to ascertain the nominal standard of the functions of supervision as subscribed to by educators, to determine the perception of these functions by the principals and teachers of the public schools in the state of Missouri, and to determine if the functions of supervision within secondary attendance centers had an effect on teacher morale. The researchers found that the teachers tended to rank curriculum development as the supervisory activity functioning at the highest level, and communication of supervisory visitation and intercooperation on the development of supervisory criteria as not being performed or being performed on a limited basis by the principal.

Walden (1967/1968), in a study to determine the perceptions of teachers and principals concerning supervision in large high schools in Colorado, found that improvement of supervision must be based on common understanding between the principal and his or her teachers; that principals should encourage cooperative planning and decision
making to increase teacher acceptance of the supervisory program; that schools included in this study should seriously consider re-structuring their supervisory programs to increase the effectiveness; that both principals and department heads should devote more time to classroom observation; that teachers should know what areas of their teaching are being evaluated and should be actively engaged in improving the evaluation process; and finally, that the leadership of the principal is a factor in determining the attitude of teachers toward supervision.

Lincoln (1967) did an investigation to find out whether high school teachers in Indiana perceived supervisory activity as being planned, organized, implemented, and evaluated cooperatively by the supervisor and the classroom teacher. The research found that a classroom teacher's perception of a supervisory activity seemed to depend on the supervisory activity and that classroom teachers perceived individual conferences and workshops as being supervisor-teacher centered.

Scholl (1966/1967) did an investigation to determine secondary student teachers' perceptions of effective and ineffective supervisory behavior of the college supervisor of student teaching. The researcher found that student teachers desire specific suggestions for improvement of their teaching skills. They expect the supervisor to be prescriptive in his or her evaluations. Student teachers also expect the supervisor to be positive in the manner of presenting evaluations through comments of praise, compliments, and encouragement. Another student teacher expectation is that the supervisor
will portray positive personal characteristics.

Mattes (1983) did a study to compare the effects of clinical and traditional supervision on teachers' perceptions of teacher development of performance and supervisory practices. Conclusions drawn from the study indicated that clinical supervision enhances teachers' perceptions of supervision on the existing scale, teachers perceive smaller differences between the existing and the desired scales in clinical supervision than in traditional supervision, and that teachers rate clinical supervision higher than they do traditional supervision.

Rationale and Hypotheses

Almost all research findings and theories of supervision agree that the role of the supervisor is to provide conditions of motivation and needs satisfaction to workers. It is believed that a highly administrative supervisor will provide for hygienic needs (Herzberg's hygienic motivation theory). The role of supervisor was to influence interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, and administrative practices. The supervisor was to prevent dissatisfaction by ordering texts and supplies, properly assign teachers' duties and keep teachers aware of them, conduct department meetings, and be a link in the administrative chain of command, thereby preventing teacher dissatisfaction in terms of security or social needs.

For teachers, the motivation to work depends upon the satisfaction of maintenance (or hygienic) needs and the fulfillment of motivator needs. It is believed that a highly supportive supervisor will
provide conditions for the satisfaction of motivator needs. A supportive supervisor will provide a work environment characterized by opportunities for recognition, responsibility, sense of achievement, and work-itself satisfaction.

This study seeks to discover if a relationship exists between secondary school supervisors and teacher job satisfaction. This study is similar to the one conducted by Provence (1978/1979); therefore, Provence's hypotheses have been used except for changing contributory supervisory style to administrative as independent variable (see Figure 4). The following hypotheses are proposed:

**Hypothesis 1:** A supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is low supportive and high administrative.

Low supportive and high administrative supervisors will succeed in providing maintenance needs of teachers but will not satisfy teachers' higher-order needs, which are recognition, responsibility, and advancement, and which are essential for motivation. As was mentioned in the definition of terms, the supportive style is that which concerns instructional problems. Administrative style, on the other hand, is more related to administrative issues.

**Hypothesis 2:** A supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is high supportive and low administrative.
If highest level of job satisfaction teachers falls here . . . .

Teachers will be more interested by a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative than any other type of supervisory styles found in Quadrants 2, 3, and 4.

High supportive supervisors will provide for a teacher's motivator needs only if lower-order needs (i.e., hygienic needs) are satisfied. Supervisors must emphasize administrative needs in order to be rated high administrative.

Hypothesis 3: A supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is low supportive and low administrative.

Supervisors who are rated as both low supportive and low administrative are the least effective in satisfying teachers' motivator needs. In other words, ignoring technical issues of instruction and administrative aspects by supervisors will cause low job satisfaction of teachers. Teachers who perceive a supervisory style as low supportive/low administrative will probably have the greatest needs deficiency scores and, thus, will be the least satisfied.

Summary

This chapter reviewed different dimensions of job satisfaction, perception, and supervision. The concept of job satisfaction was to explain how workers in general and teachers in schools particularly perform their jobs when their needs are satisfied. The literature illustrated the strong relationship between the two elements. Motivation also was discussed in this chapter. It could be seen how people invest themselves in work in order to obtain desired returns or rewards. Some theories of motivation were presented, such as expectancy theory, Maslow's (1954) theory of job enrichment theory,
and the theory of psychological states by Hackman and Oldham (1976). This chapter also consisted of some of the leadership theories and explained how these relate to supervisory effectiveness. Finally, a part of this chapter explained some actual studies related to teachers' perceptions toward supervisors. Many different supervisory styles were presented in different settings in that part with discussing the results obtained from doing those studies.

Following this chapter, Chapter III examines the procedures used to select the sample and the research instruments and procedures for collecting and analyzing the data.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the method used in this study will be described. The purpose of the study was to discover the impact of supervisory styles on teachers' job satisfaction in Kuwait in the present learning year, 1985-1986. In general, this identification comes to reorganize educational supervision in the light of modern trends available with regard to job satisfaction of teachers.

The method involved in this study was categorized as follows: (a) subjects, (b) research instrument, (c) data collection, and (d) data treatment and data analysis procedures.

Subjects

One hundred of 109 secondary schools in Kuwait participated in the study. Teachers from the participating schools represented three districts (Alasemah, Aljahrah, and Alahmadi). There were two types of secondary schools—public schools and schools which work by the course system. Four teachers from each school were asked to participate in the study. The choice of secondary schools was based on the assumption that there should be variability in terms of perceived role of supervisory functions and the job satisfaction of teachers. Data were collected from 372 teachers. The actual number of teachers who received the questionnaires was 400, so a return of 93% of the
teachers surveyed was obtained. Subjects represented a total number of a population of 7,629 teachers. Subjects were selected at random from different subject areas' departments (see randomization method, p. 61). The characteristics in the sample are described in Appendix A.

Research Instrument

Two questionnaires, Teachers' Perception of Supervisors Questionnaire and Teachers' Need Satisfaction Questionnaire, were used to identify a respondent's perception of his or her supervisor's role and his or her need satisfaction.

Teachers' Perception of Supervisors Questionnaire

The Teachers' Perception of Supervisors Questionnaire (TPSQ) was designed by Provence (1978/1979) from the State University of New Jersey for his dissertation. The TPSQ consists of 20 items. Three new items (Numbers 4, 19, and 20) have been designed and added to the instrument by the present researcher to match more accurately the purposes of this study. This questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic by the present investigator after checking its translation validity.

Demographic data, such as size of school and department, name of department, years of teaching experience, and respondent's sex and age, were also examined. The questionnaire measures the independent variables, supportive and administrative styles of supervision (TPSQ is in Appendix B).
The Teachers' Need Satisfaction Questionnaire was used to measure the dependent variable, the degree of motivator needs as determined by a scale which measures the degree of job satisfaction of teachers. The questionnaire was adapted from Porter's (1961) Needs Satisfaction Questionnaire (PNSQ) for managerial personnel. The questionnaire as adapted from the PNSQ consists of eight items designed to measure a teacher's needs satisfaction in three areas: esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. For each item, teachers were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale their responses to three questions: (a) "How much of the characteristic is there now connected with your teaching position?" (b) "How much of the characteristic do you think should be connected with your teaching position?" (c) "How important is this position characteristic to you?"

Fulfillment will be defined as the response to the first question, "How much of the characteristic is there now connected with your teaching position?" Need satisfaction will be measured by subtracting the response to the first question, "How much of the characteristic is there now connected with your teaching position?" from the response to the second question, "How much of the characteristic do you think should be connected with your teaching position?" The response to the third question, "How important is this position characteristic to you?" was examined simply to obtain a rating of needs. [As defined in Chapter I, page 16, need satisfaction is the difference between degree of expectations and degree of fulfillment with respect to a given need.] The greater the difference, the greater the perceived need deficiency. A total satisfaction score will be obtained by adding the score of each need category. (Provence, 1978/1979, p. 53).

Scores for each individual respondent for each need category will be obtained by averaging his or her responses to all of the items in a given category. For example, in the esteem need category, there are two items: prestige outside the school and feeling of self-esteem. Responses in this category will be summed and divided by 2 in this case to obtain an individual's esteem score. This will facilitate comparison across categories although a different number
of items will be used in each category (TNSQ is in Appendix B).

The PNSQ has been widely used in studies ranging across the fields of business, military personnel, civilian employees, and educators (Provence, 1978/1979, p. 55). The instrument is designed to measure employees' need satisfaction, in relation to Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, in terms of magnitude, importance, and degree. Porter (cited in Provence, 1978/1979, p. 55) used the PNSQ to investigate need satisfaction in management jobs. He examined the perception of need fulfillment deficiencies and the need importance of bottom- and middle-management jobs and concluded that in both bottom and middle management, higher-order psychological needs receive the least relative satisfaction and that self-actualization, the highest-order need, is the most critical area in both in terms of perceived deficiency and of perceived importance to the individual.

Data Collection

The two questionnaires, TPSQ and TNSQ, were mailed to 400 male and female teachers who represent 100 secondary schools in three districts (Alasemah—capital area, Aljahrah, and Alahmadi) in Kuwait. The questionnaires were mailed during the first week of May 1986. The heads of secondary education departments in the three districts mailed the questionnaires to school principals. The principals also received instruction letters from the researcher and were asked to choose four teachers from different subject area departments at random to respond to the questionnaire. All questionnaires were accompanied by a cover letter which explained the purpose of the
study. Anonymity was assured to all respondents by asking them not to write their names on the questionnaire, and assurance was given that only the overall response was important and that no individual responses would be singled out (letters to principals and teachers are in Appendix C).

All the responses were completed and returned in 3 weeks. Of the 400 distributed questionnaires, 372 (93%) were returned to the researcher. The number of questionnaires distributed and returned for the different groups is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No. of questionnaires distributed</th>
<th>No. of questionnaires returned</th>
<th>Percent returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Treatment and Data Analysis Procedures

Data collected for this study were taken by the researcher to Western Michigan University's (WMU) Academic Computer Center, where the data were keytaped and verified. From there, data were entered onto disc and were analyzed using the SPSS statistical software package on a DEC System-10.

Each item on the TPSQ was scored as follows: always = 4, often = 3, sometimes = 2, rarely = 1, and never = 0. Frequencies were used to determine the median score of both the administrative
and supportive scales. The administrative and supportive scores for each supervisor were calculated and determined to be above or below the median on both scales. The median score was then used to place each supervisor in one of the following categories: high administrative and high supportive, high administrative and low supportive, low administrative and high supportive, or low administrative and low supportive.

The scores to the responses to the TNSQ were averaged within each of the categories of esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. A total score for the three categories was computed.

Analysis of variance techniques were used to test the hypotheses. Supervisory styles were divided into four quadrants: high administrative/high supportive (Q. 1), high administrative/low supportive (Q. 2), low administrative/low supportive (Q. 3), and low administrative/high supportive (Q. 4). The mean needs satisfaction scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as having one of the four styles of supervision was placed in the appropriate quadrant. Using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), each quadrant was then compared to the other quadrants. The relationships between the demographic variables were also examined through the use of two-way analysis of variance. Finally, Figure 4 in Chapter II (p. 55) graphically represents the hypotheses by quadrants.

Summary

In Chapter III the sample has been presented and the research instruments (TPSQ and TNSQ) and their validity and reliability have

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been discussed. The distribution of questionnaires and the procedures for collecting data and their analyses also were discussed. The analyses of the data and the results of empirical tests will be reported in Chapter IV.
CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Two questionnaires, the Teacher's Perception of Supervisor Questionnaire (TPSQ) and the Teacher's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (TNSQ), were used in this study as data-gathering instruments in order to test the hypotheses. Three hundred and seventy-two teachers were randomly selected from 100 secondary schools in three districts in Kuwait to respond to the questionnaires.

In addition to the testing of the basic hypotheses, this chapter also examines the relationships between selected demographic variables and teacher job satisfaction.

Testing the Hypotheses

The alternative mean to test the research hypothesis was the null hypothesis. "The null hypothesis is a statistical proposition which states essentially, that there is no relation between the variables (of the problem)" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 202).

The null hypotheses of this study are as follows:

**Null Hypothesis 1:** A supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to an equal degree as a supervisory style which is low supportive and high administrative. This null hypothesis states that the supervisory style which is characterized by high emphasis in instructional
matters and high emphasis in solving administrative problems by the supervisor will provide the same motivation for teachers as low emphasis in instructional problems and high emphasis in administrative issues.

Null Hypothesis 2: A supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to an equal degree as a supervisory style which is high supportive and low administrative. This null hypothesis states that high instructional and high administrative emphasis by the supervisor will provide the same degree of motivation for teachers as high instructional and low administrative emphasis.

Null Hypothesis 3: A supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to an equal degree as a supervisory style which is low supportive and low administrative. According to this null hypothesis, high emphasis of instructional tasks and high emphasis of administrative tasks by the supervisor will provide the same effect for teacher motivation as low instructional and low administrative tasks.

One-way analysis of variance techniques were used as the primary methods of analysis to test the study hypotheses.

The supportive and administrative scores on the TPSQ were each dichotomized. Supervisory styles which were rated by the teachers as being above the median on each of the dimensions were considered to be perceived as high or strong on those dimensions, while those supervisory styles which were rated by the teachers as being below the median on each of the dimensions were considered low or weak on
the dimensions. The median score on the supportive style was 3.000, and the median score on the administrative style was 2.000. The mean score on the supportive style was 2.848. The mean score on the administrative style was 2.085.

For self-esteem, the data reflected that of 400 teachers, 364 teachers responded and 151 teachers perceived their immediate supervisors as being high supportive and high administrative. The mean needs deficiency scores on the TNSQ for these teachers was 2.9470 with a standard deviation of 3.2224. (As mentioned in Chapter III, page 58, the needs deficiency score measures the degree of job satisfaction. In other words, the needs deficiency score measures job satisfaction indirectly, which means the lower the mean needs deficiency score, the greater the degree of job satisfaction and vice versa.) Fifty-two teachers perceived their immediate supervisors as being low supportive and high administrative. The mean deficiency score of this group was 2.9423. The standard deviation was 3.4946. One hundred and twenty-one teachers assessed their immediate supervisors as being low supportive and low administrative. The mean needs deficiency score for this group of teachers was 3.5455 with a standard deviation of 3.4857. Forty-two teachers who perceived their immediate supervisors as being high supportive and low administrative had a mean needs deficiency score of 2.7000 and a standard deviation of 2.9106. This information is shown in Quadrants 1, 2, 3, and 4 of Table 2.

The data in Table 2 also show that supervisory styles are different in their rates or strengths. As is shown, only 10.9% of the
supervisors were perceived by teachers as high supportive and low administrative; 14.2% of the supervisors were perceived as low supportive and high administrative; 33.2% of the supervisors were seen as low supportive and low administrative; and 41.4% of the supervisors were seen as high supportive and high administrative.

Table 2

Descriptive Data by Quadrants of the Needs Deficiency Scores for Self-Esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low Supportive</th>
<th>High Supportive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 52</td>
<td>N = 151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 2.9423</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 2.9470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD = 3.4946</td>
<td>SD = 3.2224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.2%</td>
<td>Low Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-S, +A) Q. 2</td>
<td>(+S, +A) Q. 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 121</td>
<td>N = 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 3.4857</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 2.7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD = 3.4857</td>
<td>SD = 2.9106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.8%</td>
<td>Low Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-S, -A) Q. 3</td>
<td>(+S, -A) Q. 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 364</td>
<td>N = 173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.3%</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For autonomy needs, the data showed that of 400 teachers, again 364 teachers responded and there were 8 missing cases. From those
respondents there were 152 teachers who perceived their immediate supervisors as being high supportive and high administrative (41.7%). These people had a mean needs deficiency score of 5.3026 with a standard deviation of 4.0820. Fifty-one teachers perceived their supervisors as being low supportive and high administrative (14.0%). This group had a mean needs deficiency score of 7.3725 with a standard deviation of 4.1279. One hundred and twenty-seven teachers perceived their supervisors as being low supportive and low administrative (33.2%). These teachers had a mean need deficiency score of 7.0165 with a standard deviation of 4.4702. Forty teachers perceived their supervisors as being high supportive and low administrative (10.9%). This group had a mean need deficiency score of 5.8500 with a standard deviation of 4.0099. This information is shown in Q. 1, Q. 2, Q. 3, and Q. 4 of Table 3.

The self-actualization category also showed reflection from the teachers. The data showed that 362 of 400 teachers responded. Ten cases were missing. One hundred and fifty-one of them perceived their supervisors as being high supportive and high administrative (41.7%). These teachers had a mean need deficiency of 3.1987 with a standard deviation of 3.3646. Fifty-one teachers perceived their supervisors as low supportive-high administrative (41.7%). This group had a mean needs deficiency of 4.4118 with a standard deviation of 3.6670. One hundred and twenty teachers perceived their supervisors as being low supportive-low administrative (14.0%). The mean need deficiency score of these teachers was 4.7667 with a standard deviation of 3.9080. And only 40 teachers perceived their
Table 3
Descriptive Data by Quadrants of the Needs Deficiency Scores for Autonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quadrant</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Median score</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 51</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>203</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 7.3725</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 5.3026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD = 4.1229</td>
<td>SD = 4.0820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-S, +A) Q. 2</td>
<td>(+S, +A) Q. 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 7.0165</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 5.8500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD = 4.4702</td>
<td>SD = 4.0099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-S, -A) Q. 3</td>
<td>(+S, -A) Q. 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 121</td>
<td>N = 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

supervisors as being high supportive and low administrative (11.0%). The mean needs deficiency score was 3.6750 with a standard deviation of 3.6401. This information is shown in Q. 1, Q. 2, Q. 3, and Q. 4 of Table 4.

The overall needs deficiency scores for the three categories—esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization—are also presented. The data revealed that of the 400 teachers, only 366 teachers responded, and there were 8 missing cases. One hundred and fifty-two teachers perceived their immediate supervisors as being high supportive and...
Table 4
Descriptive Data by Quadrants of the Needs Deficiency Scores for Self-Actualization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low Supportive</th>
<th>Median score</th>
<th>High Supportive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 51</td>
<td></td>
<td>N = 151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 4.4118</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 3.1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD = 3.6670</td>
<td></td>
<td>SD = 3.3646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-S, +A) Q. 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>(+S, +A) Q. 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 120</td>
<td>N = 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 4.7667</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 3.6750</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD = 3.9080</td>
<td>SD = 3.6401</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>362</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

High administrative. The mean needs deficiency score on the TNSQ for these teachers was 3.8147 with a standard deviation of 2.8486 (41.5%). This information is recorded in Quadrant 1 (Q. 1) of Table 5. Fifty-three teachers perceived their supervisors as being low supportive and high administrative. The mean needs deficiency score for this group was 4.7642 with a standard deviation of 3.1703 (14.4%). This information is presented in Quadrant 2 (Q. 2) of Table 5. One hundred and twenty teachers perceived their supervisors as being low supportive and low administrative. The mean needs deficiency score
deficiency score for these teachers was 5.1267 with a standard deviation of 3.2646 (33.0%). This information is shown in Quadrant 3 (Q. 3) of Table 5. Quadrant 4 (Q. 4) in Table 5 consists of the remaining 40 teachers who perceived their supervisors as being high supportive and low administrative. The mean need deficiency score for this group was 4.0750 with a standard deviation of 2.9473 (10.9%).

Table 5

Descriptive Data by Quadrants of the Overall Needs Deficiency Scores for 366 Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Median score</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 53</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 4.7642</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD = 3.1703</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-S, +A) Q. 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 121</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 5.1267</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD = 3.2646</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 40</td>
<td>Mean needs deficiency = 4.0750</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD = 2.9473</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By using analysis of variance, the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and perceived supervisory styles of supervision was
established. Teacher job satisfaction was measured by the TNSQ and perceived supervisory style by the TPSQ. A computation of the one-way analysis of variance for supportive and administrative styles showed an $F$ ratio of 4.7456 which is significant at the .0029 level. The data are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6
One-Way Analysis of Variance for Unequal Sizes: The Relationship Between Teacher Need Deficiency Scores and Perceived Supervisory Styles ($N = 359$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.3416</td>
<td>4.7456</td>
<td>.0029$^a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>458.6393</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>476.9809</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Significant.

In order to determine if there are significant differences between teachers' job satisfaction with respect to self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization, a comparison between Quadrant 1 and Quadrants 2, 3, and 4 was done.

Hypothesis 1 stated that a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is low supportive and high administrative. To test the hypothesis, a comparison was made between job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their immediate supervisor as high supportive–high administrative-
tive and teachers who perceived their supervisor as low supportive-high administrative. A one-tailed probability of $t$ was significant at the .016 level; therefore, the first hypothesis was accepted.

Figure 5 shows the significant relationship between Quadrant 1 (Q. 1) with Quadrant 2 (Q. 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quadrant 1 (Q. 1)</th>
<th>Quadrant 2 (Q. 2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean needs</td>
<td>Mean needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deficiency = 4.7642</td>
<td>deficiency = 3.8147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **2**: The difference between Q. 1 and Q. 2 was significant at .05 level.
- **3**: The difference between Q. 1 and Q. 3 was significant at .05 level.
- **4**: The difference between Q. 1 and Q. 4 was not significant at .05 level.

Figure 5. Summary of Significant and Nonsignificant Relationships With Regard to Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3.
As it has been presented in Chapter III (p. 60), teacher satisfaction was measured by averaging and then totaling the scores in the three need categories—esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. In order to determine teacher needs satisfaction in these categories, each category was analyzed separately in relation to perceived supervisory styles by means of a priori contrasts. Referring to Hypothesis 1, there was a significant relationship at the .05 level between teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive and high administrative and those who perceived them as low supportive-high administrative with regard to self-esteem. However, autonomy and self-actualization did not reflect a significant relationship in this group of teachers.

The results of the analysis of Hypothesis 1 show that teachers in the secondary schools in Kuwait are affected by supervisory styles used either high supportive or high administrative better than low supportive-high administrative. As a consequence of this analysis, one might suggest that the supervisors in this level should emphasize high concern for instructional tasks as well as administrative aspects to satisfy teachers' needs.

Hypothesis 2 stated that a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is high supportive and low administrative. To test this hypothesis, a comparison was made between job satisfaction of teachers in Quadrants 1 and 4. As shown in Figure 5, Quadrant 1 (Q. 1) represents teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high
Quadrant 4 (Q. 4) represents teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-low administrative. In this comparison, there was no significant relationship at the .05 level; therefore, the second hypothesis was rejected. This information is shown in Quadrants 1 and 4 of Figure 5.

The analysis of the data which were related to Hypothesis 2 indicated that a teacher is not significantly more satisfied by his or her immediate supervisor who emphasizes instructional tasks and administrative tasks than his or her supervisor who emphasizes higher instructional tasks but lower administrative tasks.

None of the job satisfaction categories—esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization—appeared to be important to teachers who perceived their immediate supervisors as high supportive-high administrative over those who perceived them as high supportive-low administrative. The relationship was not significant.

Hypothesis 3 stated that a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is low supportive and low administrative. To test this hypothesis, a comparison was made between job satisfaction of teachers in Quadrants 1 and 3. Quadrant 1 represents teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative. Quadrant 3 represents teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-low administrative. The results of the data reflected a significant relationship between these groups at the .001 level; therefore, Hypothesis 3 is accepted. This information can be seen between Quadrants 1 and 3.
of Figure 5.

The results of the data for Hypothesis 3 mean that a teacher is significantly more satisfied by whether his or her supervisor emphasizes both high supportive-high administrative than if the supervisor emphasizes both low supportive-low administrative. In other words, supervisors who are perceived by their teachers as helpful in the teaching-learning aspects and effective in administrative tasks satisfy teachers more than if they are not perceived as effective in these areas.

The data further indicated that self-esteem showed a significant relationship at the .05 level between teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative and teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-low administrative. However, autonomy and self-actualization did not show any significant relationship between these same two groups.

An additional analysis of a high supportive-low administrative style of supervisor was made by contrasting Quadrant 4 (Q. 4) with Quadrant 2 (Q. 2) and Quadrant 3 (Q. 3), respectively. The data showed that there was no significant differences in teacher job satisfaction between teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-low administrative and teachers who perceived their supervisors as (a) low supportive-high administrative (Quadrant 2) and (b) low supportive-low administrative (Quadrant 3). (See Figure 6.)

Two-way analysis of variance was done to support the previous analysis regarding the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction scores and each of the two independent variables, supportive and
2 = The difference between Q. 4 and Q. 2 is not significant at the .05 level.
3 = The difference between Q. 4 and Q. 3 is not significant at the .05 level.

Figure 6. Summary of the Significant Relationships With Regard to a High Supportive-Low Administrative Style of Supervision and Teacher Job Satisfaction.

administrative styles of supervision. The results indicated the following:

1. There is a significant relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the supportive style of supervision. The relevant data are provided in Table 7.

2. There is no significant relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the administrative style of supervision. These data are summarized in Table 7.
Table 7
Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Unequal Cell Sizes: The Relationship Between Supportive and Administrative Styles of Supervision and Job Satisfaction (N = 372)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Partial SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>120.162</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.924</td>
<td>.000a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>6.813</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>.393b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive-administrative</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>.890b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aSignificant. bNot significant.

3. There is no significant relationship between overall teacher job satisfaction and supervisory styles which are both supportive and administrative. This information may be seen in Table 7.

4. There is no significant relationship between self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization separately and supervisory styles which are supportive and administrative. These data are shown in Table 8.

From Table 9 it may be seen that self-esteem has no relationship with autonomy and self-actualization (p = .000), but it correlated to both administrative (p = .112) or supportive supervisory style (p = .063). This means that teachers' self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization are independent and do not correlate to each other; however, there was a correlation between teachers' self-esteem and how they perceive their immediate supervisors.
Table 8

Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Unequal Cell Sizes: The Relationship Between Supportive and Administrative Styles of Supervision and Each of Self-Esteem, Autonomy, and Self-Actualization (N = 372)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Partial SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>12.226</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.109</td>
<td>.293^b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>13.727</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td>.380^b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>.891^b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aSignificant.  ^bNot significant.

Autonomy and self-actualization are not correlated with supervisory styles, both administrative and supportive. The correlation is (p = .001) between autonomy and administrative and (p = .000) between autonomy and supportive. Thus the supportive and administrative scales are not independent. The supportive scale relates more strongly to autonomy than the administrative scale. Also there was the same correlation between self-actualization and administrative style (p = .001), and between self-actualization and supportive style (p = .000).

Also, it has been found that self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization of teachers were not correlated with each other (p = .000).

The ordinal (high/low) measures of association of administrative and supportive styles of supervision were significant as perceived by teachers (p = .000) which means that teachers perceive the
Table 9
Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Job Satisfaction Categories and Supervisory Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Self-actualization</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Supportive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.4220</td>
<td>0.4598</td>
<td>-0.0640</td>
<td>-0.0805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(362)</td>
<td>(361)</td>
<td>(364)</td>
<td>(364)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p = )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>0.4220</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.5997</td>
<td>-0.1567</td>
<td>-0.2121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(362)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(361)</td>
<td>(364)</td>
<td>(364)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p = .000* )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td>0.4598</td>
<td>0.5997</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>-0.1633</td>
<td>-0.2096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(361)</td>
<td>(361)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(362)</td>
<td>(362)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p = .000* )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>-0.0650</td>
<td>-0.1567</td>
<td>-0.1633</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.6315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(364)</td>
<td>(364)</td>
<td>(362)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(372)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p = .112 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-0.0805</td>
<td>-0.2121</td>
<td>-0.2096</td>
<td>0.6315</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(364)</td>
<td>(364)</td>
<td>(362)</td>
<td>(372)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p = .063 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*\( p = .05. \)
supervisory styles of their supervisors differently. Table 9 shows the Pearson correlation coefficients.

Teacher Job Satisfaction and Demographic Characteristics

More analysis was done to discover the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and demographic variables. Demographic variables were analyzed with respect to three areas: the school, the departments (or subject areas), and the teachers.

Two-way analysis of variance indicated that the overall interaction between job satisfaction and size or kind of school was not significant ($p = .253$ and $p = .482$, respectively). (See Table 10.) The numbers of teachers in schools ranged from 30 teachers for the size of school between 90 to 109 teachers to 114 teachers for the size of school between 70 to 89 teachers. There were 343 teachers in general education and there were 24 teachers in the courses system education. Also, there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and number of teachers in a department or the kind of department ($p = .139$ and $p = .206$, respectively). (See Table 11.) The number of teachers in a department ranged from 61 who were in a department of 7-8 teachers to 116 who were in a department of 9-11. The number of teachers in a subject area ranged from 1 teacher in libraries and research department and 1 teacher in practical studies department to 74 teachers who were in the English department. Regarding the third area, teachers themselves, the interaction reflected a significant relationship between job satisfaction and sex, teaching experience, and nationality ($p = .000$, $p = .002$, and
\( p = .022, \) respectively. What is interesting, however, is that there was no significant relationship found between job satisfaction and teacher's age \( (p = .396). \) This information is shown in Table 12.

The number of male teachers was 182, and the number of female teachers was 189. In this category, one case was missing. The number of teachers in a particular age group ranged from 12 for those teachers under 25 years old to 145 teachers between the ages of 35 and 44.

Teaching experience of respondents ranged from 16 teachers for 2 or less years to 150 teachers with 11-15 years of experience. Finally, as regards nationality of teachers, there were two teachers each from the countries of Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Lebanon, and Tunisia and 147 teachers from Egypt.
Table 10

Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and the Variables Representing the Schools: Size of School and Kind of School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Partial SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size (# teachers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 40</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>6.957</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.344</td>
<td>.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-69</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-89</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-109</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110 or more</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kind of school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.641</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>.482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General education</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses system</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aSignificant.  bNot significant.*
Table 11

Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and the Variables Representing the Departments: Number of Teachers in a Department and Subject Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Partial SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of teachers in a department</td>
<td>7.022</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.842</td>
<td>.139b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 or less teachers</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>7.022</td>
<td>.139b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16. A</td>
<td>.139b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-11</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>.139b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 or more</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>.139b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>.139b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department subject area</td>
<td>18.601</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.331</td>
<td>.206b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>.206b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>.206b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>.206b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>.206b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Partial SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Islamic</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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*aSignificant.  bNot significant.*
Table 12

Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and the Variables Representing the Teachers: Sex, Age, Years of Teaching, and Nationalities

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<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
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<td>25-29</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>14.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>82</td>
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<td>35-44</td>
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<td>49</td>
<td>13.2</td>
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<td>Palestine</td>
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<td>11.0</td>
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<td>Tunisia</td>
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Table 12—Continued

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<td>Sudan</td>
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<td>Iraq</td>
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<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
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aSignificant. bNot significant.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to discover the relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and supervisory styles of those teachers' immediate supervisors. Several theories were presented, such as Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's (1966) motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, and Porter's (1963) view of autonomy. In many areas of this study, the role of supervisors in educational organizations was presented and discussed.

In previous chapters, major elements of the study were presented; introduction, statement of the problem, purpose, significance of the study, and definitions of terms were presented in Chapter I. Chapter II reviewed the literature relating to job satisfaction as well as supervisory styles and rationale and hypotheses which guided the research. Chapter III included a description of the procedures and methodology of data collection and analysis followed. Finally, the results of the study were provided in Chapter IV. The purpose of this final chapter is to summarize and discuss those results as well as to propose directions and recommendations for further research.
Summary of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore possible directions for reorganization of educational supervision in Kuwait with regard to teachers' job satisfaction and supervisory styles. Specifically, the study analyzed the relationship between the job satisfaction of teachers as measured by TNSQ and supervisory styles (supportive and administrative) as measured by the TPSQ. The study also analyzed the dependent variable, job satisfaction, with respect to three categories—self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. The overall results of the study were clear and substantiate the general tenets of the study. Three hypotheses were developed as the framework for the empirical phase of the study. The first hypothesis is that a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is low supportive and high administrative. The second hypothesis is that a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is high supportive and low administrative. And Hypothesis 3 indicates that a supervisory style which is high supportive and high administrative will provide for a teacher's motivator needs to a greater degree than a supervisory style which is low supportive and low administrative. Two of the three hypotheses were accepted. These are Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3 at the .05 level. Hypothesis 2, however, was rejected at the .05 level. The results of the tests of
the hypotheses are summarized as follows:

1. Summary of Table 2 (p. 68) indicates that needs deficiency scores of self-esteem of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative were higher than needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-high administrative and also higher than needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-low administrative (p > .05). However, Table 2 indicates also that needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative were significantly lower than the mean needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-low administrative (p < .05).

2. Summary of Table 3 (p. 70) indicates that needs deficiency scores of autonomy for teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative were significantly lower than needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisor as low supportive-high administrative, high supportive-low administrative, and low supportive-low administrative, respectively (p < .05).

3. Summary of Table 4 (p. 71) indicates that needs deficiency scores of self-actualization for teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative were also lower than needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as either low supportive-high administrative, high supportive-low administrative, or low supportive-low administrative, respectively (p < .05).
4. Summary of Table 5 (p. 72) indicates that the overall needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative were significantly lower than needs deficiency scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as either low supportive-high administrative, high supportive-low administrative, or low supportive-low administrative, respectively (p < .05). This indicates that supervisors who were perceived by teachers as very effective in controlling technical aspects of instruction as well as very serious in making administrative requirements available to staff members will provide more satisfaction of motivator needs than other supervisors.

5. Summary of Table 6 (p. 73) indicates that there is a significant relationship between teacher job satisfaction (as expressed by teacher needs deficiency scores) and teacher perception of the supervisory style of the immediate supervisor (p < .05).

6. Summary of Figure 5 (p. 74) indicates that the supervisor whose style is high supportive-high administrative will provide more satisfaction than supervisors whose styles are low supportive-high administrative or low supportive-low administrative (p < .05). However, Figure 5 indicates no relationship between job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high administrative and job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-low administrative (p > .05).

7. Summary of Figure 6 (p. 78) indicates that there were no significant differences between job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-low administrative and
teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-high admin­ 
istrative and low supportive-low administrative, respectively ($p > .05$).

8. Summary of Table 7 (p. 79) indicates that by using two-way 
analysis of variance, a significant relationship was found between 
supportive style and job satisfaction ($p < .05$), and Table 7 also 
indicates that there was no significant relationship between adminis­ 
trative style and job satisfaction ($p > .05$). This table shows no 
significant relationship between supportive and administrative styles 
and job satisfaction ($p > .05$).

9. Summary of Table 8 (p. 80) indicates that by using two-way 
analysis of variance, no significant relationships appeared among the 
categories of self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization ($p > .05$).

10. Summary of Table 9 (p. 81) indicates a significant correla­ 
tion between supportive style and administrative style as perceived 
by teachers ($p = .000$). There was also a significant overlap between 
the two styles in the three categories of esteem, autonomy, and self­
actualization.

11. Summary of Table 10 (p. 84) indicates no significant rela­
tionships between the mean needs deficiency scores of teachers and 
the following demographic variables: size of school and kind of school. Summary of Table 11 (p. 85) indicates there was no rela­
tionship between mean needs deficiency scores and the following vari­
ables: number of teachers in a department and department subject area. However, summary of Table 12 (p. 87) indicates that a
significant relationship was found between the mean needs deficiency scores of teachers and each of the three variables: sex, experience (number of years teaching), and nationality of teacher. Teacher age was the only variable which was not significantly related to job satisfaction.

In addition to all the summaries mentioned, this researcher found after conversations by phone between him and some teachers from secondary schools in Kuwait that teachers criticized their immediate supervisors by saying that: (a) Many supervisors evaluate teachers too quickly and without subjectiveness. (b) Many supervisors do not share with teachers their weaknesses and do not try to improve their skills. (c) Supervisors' visits are just two or three times a year, and teachers think that this is not enough; some teachers would also prefer to have supervisors who work full time in schools. (d) Teachers believe that supervisors do not listen carefully to the evaluation of department chairpersons regarding teachers' performances. (e) A lot of supervisors always try to correct teachers in front of students. The researcher of this study recommends that further studies done with regard to these problems mentioned by teachers.

Discussion

In general, the findings of this study showed a relationship between the high degree of teachers' job satisfaction and the two supervisory styles which are characterized as high supportive and high administrative. From the previous literature review, one will note that a high degree of job satisfaction is very important to
Results of Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3 indicated a significant relationship between job satisfaction and high supportive-high administrative styles. This significance appeared when these styles were compared with supervisory styles perceived as: (a) low supportive and high administrative and (b) low supportive and low administrative. However, the results of Hypothesis 2 indicated no significant difference when a high supportive-high administrative style was contrasted with a high supportive and low administrative style. No significant relationships were found between a supervisory style perceived as high supportive and low administrative and a supervisory style perceived as low supportive and high administrative and low supportive and low administrative, respectively. As a consequence of this contrast, one concludes that both supportive style and administrative style were significant factors in providing for teachers' job satisfaction.

The results of the three hypotheses of this study are consistent with Provence's (1978/1979) study which was similar to the present study. In his investigation, and by using the same statistical procedure, Provence found also that high supportive-high contributory supervisory styles relate more significantly to teachers' job satisfaction than low supportive-high administrative and low supportive-low contributory styles. Also his findings showed that there was no significant relationship between high supportive-high contributory and high supportive-low contributory styles.
The difference between the results of this study and Provence's (1978/1979) findings is that the investigator of this study found that there was no relationship between job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive and low administrative and teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-high administrative and low supportive-low administrative, respectively. However, regarding this contrast, Provence found that there was a significant relationship at the .001 level, and relationships significant at the .05 level were found between the esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization scores of teachers who perceived their supervisors as high supportive-high contributory and teachers who perceived their supervisors as low supportive-low contributory.

Another similarity between the overall findings of the present study and Provence's (1978/1979) study is that in the present one it was found that supportive style is considered very important to teachers' job satisfaction like in Provence's study, who also found that supportive style was a major factor (p. 88).

The investigator of this study believes that the importance of both styles to the teachers in the secondary schools in Kuwait may relate to the difficulty in distinguishing between supervisory styles by teachers. From this researcher's experience as a teacher for years, many teachers misunderstand the supervisory roles which deal with either instructional aspects or administrative aspects.

In the literature review in Chapter II, it was found that humans in general have lower (or basic) needs and higher needs. Maslow's (1954) theory consisted of arranging these needs in a hierarchy of
satisfaction. By comparing Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's (1966) motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, and Porter's (1963) view of autonomy, one may conclude that teachers as human beings need professional supervisors to satisfy their higher needs, such as advancement, recognition, and responsibility for performance maintenance. To put the point more strongly, administrative tasks may fulfill lower order needs and prevent job dissatisfaction but may not address advanced motivator needs which lead to job satisfaction.

Although a two-way analysis indicated that the overall interaction revealed no significant difference between supervisory styles defined as supportive and administrative and job satisfaction, both supportive and administrative styles were seen as essential for job satisfaction of the teachers sampled in the one-way contrasts. It was hypothesized that both high supportive and high administrative styles would be needed to gain a high degree of job satisfaction, and the results of this study match this hypothesis proposed because the correlation between them was significant ($p = .000$).

From these research findings, one understands that secondary school teachers in Kuwait are in need of supervisors to help them satisfy their self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs. These duties could be like what Dunathan and Saluzzi (1980) listed as follows:

First, self-esteem: The supervisor should satisfy teachers' self-esteem by:
1. Telling the teacher that his/her teaching position is important.

2. Showing the teacher that his/her position is regarded as important.

3. Helping the teacher gain recognition from colleagues for the importance of his/her work.

4. Working to gain prestige for the teaching profession. (p. 18)

Second, autonomy: The supervisor can satisfy teachers' autonomy by:

1. Making him/her free from supervision.

2. Giving him/her the opportunity to develop independent solutions to problems connected with the teaching situation.

3. Giving him/her freedom to express his/her position and suggestions to superiors.

4. Giving him/her freedom to exercise personal judgment on the job.

5. Giving the teacher freedom to make decisions about his/her work. (p. 18)

Third, self-actualization: The supervisor can provide opportunities to satisfy a teacher's self-actualization needs by:

1. Giving the teacher the opportunity to develop his/her full potential in his/her position.

2. Giving him/her the opportunity for personal growth and development in his/her position.

3. Giving him/her the opportunity for getting as far ahead as his/her abilities will allow.

4. Giving him/her the opportunity to advance professionally as much as he/she wants in his/her present work situation. (p. 18)

The literature supports the findings of this study that supervisors as leaders should provide leadership which motivates teachers...
to successful performance. This performance could be implemented by satisfying teachers' motivator needs. Herzberg (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) classified the motivation and hygiene factors of Herzberg's theory. He considered achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement as motivator factors and supervision, working conditions, personal life, company policy and administration, and job security as hygiene factors. For this study the motivator factors are associated with supportive duties of supervisors and hygienic factors are associated with administrative duties of supervisors.

The findings of this study reflected the need of job satisfaction levels—esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. Secondary school teachers of this study are most lacking in autonomy. (The mean deficiency scores for each of the motivator needs are presented in Table 13.) This finding differs from Provence's (1978/1979) finding that secondary school teachers in Monmouth County, New Jersey, were lacking in esteem.

Implications

The intention of this study was to determine the type of relationship between teachers' job satisfaction in the secondary schools of Kuwait and their perceptions toward supervisory styles used by immediate supervisors in the educational year of 1985-1986. In Chapter I, background of supervision in the world generally and in Kuwait in particular was discussed. Some definitions, functions, and development of supervision were also presented. The literature
dealing with leadership and supervision theories was reviewed in Chapter II. Also presented were some studies and research on job satisfaction and supervisory styles.

Table 13
Perceived Need Deficiencies of Secondary School Teachers Expressed in Need Deficiency Scores

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<tr>
<th>Esteem</th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Self-actualization</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0-</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low deficiency

As it was mentioned above, it was the intention of this study to discover if there is a relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and supervisory styles of supervisors as they are perceived by teachers. As discussed earlier, a significant relationship does exist between job satisfaction of teachers and the supervisory styles as defined by supportive and administrative styles of supervisors. The implications of these findings for educators are:

2. Vroom's (1973) contingency theory is a feasible source for educators interested in the leadership focus of supervision. For example, Vroom identified different styles of leadership, dedicated and separated styles, which tend not to emphasize participation. Related and integrated styles, on the other hand, tend to emphasize participation. Therefore, supervisors should use their leadership behavior in such a way as to encourage participation of teachers in decision making.

3. Administrators and supervisors should take care to explore avenues where they can influence teachers' satisfaction. One way to do so is to give teachers opportunities to achieve well, to share in decisions, to share in the evaluation process, to hold responsibilities, and to share in development of methods of instruction.

4. Administrators and supervisors should build teachers' esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization by showing teachers respect, permitting innovation, and providing opportunities for recognition.

5. Both administrative help and supportive help are necessary for teachers, but supportive style is the most needed factor for them.

6. From the conversations with teachers, one thinks that there are still supervisors in the secondary school level in Kuwait who are characterized as inspectors in which they ignore teachers'
improvement. Those supervisors, in showing that ignorance, are practicing the defensive style of leadership (Gibb, 1967) which was mentioned earlier.

7. The Ministry of Education in Kuwait in particular and all responsible organizations in general should realize the important role of supervision in providing satisfaction for teachers. More studies could be done in Kuwaiti secondary schools and other similar educational levels to determine those appropriate styles of supervision as well as other means for achieving teachers' job satisfaction.

8. The University of Kuwait as well as other educational organizations or institutions should realize that teachers need help in understanding supervisory functions and how to benefit from them. On the other hand, special care should be provided to supervisors by those organizations to help them improve their leadership and supervisory styles to appropriate methods.

Recommendations

Some additional directions are offered for further research:

1. What are other major factors besides supervisory styles which may affect teachers' job satisfaction?

2. What are other major conditions besides supervisory styles which could improve the learning-teaching process in general?

3. Teachers' job satisfaction in other levels, such as intermediate or elementary levels, needs to be investigated.
4. What are appropriate supervisory styles which should be provided to teachers by administrators?

In summary, the improvement of instruction could be implemented by answering the above questions as well as other questions which were not addressed by the present researcher.
Appendix A

Characteristics of Schools in the Sample
### Characteristics of Schools in the Sample

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<th>District</th>
<th>Types of schools</th>
<th>Schools used in study</th>
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<td>Courses system</td>
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<td>991</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aljahrah</td>
<td>General education</td>
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<td>1,063</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Courses system</td>
<td>--</td>
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<td>Alahaadi</td>
<td>General education</td>
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<td>Courses system</td>
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Appendix B

Operational Measure
General Directions

The questionnaire has three parts. Part I requires that you provide information about yourself and your school. Part II requires that you indicate your perception of the role of your immediate supervisor. Part III asks you to indicate your job satisfaction. Do not place your name on the questionnaire.

Part I: General Information

Part I consists of eight numbered items. Items 1-6 have several response categories. The response categories are coded with the letters A, B, C, D, and E. For each numbered item, select the letter of the response category that describes you or your situation and circle the letter of the response row to the right of the numbered item. Items 7 and 8 are write-in.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Row</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A B C D E</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. Size of school
   (A) Under 40 teachers
   (B) 40-69 teachers
   (C) 70-89 teachers
   (D) 90-109 teachers
   (E) 110 or more teachers

2. Kind of secondary school
   (A) Grades 7-12
   (B) Grades 9-12
   (C) Grades 10-12
   (D) Other

3. Number of teachers in your department or subject area
   (A) 6 teachers or less
   (B) 7-8 teachers
   (C) 9-11 teachers
   (D) 12 or more teachers

4. Sex
   (A) Male
   (B) Female

5. Your age
   (A) Under 25
   (B) 25-29
   (C) 30-34
   (D) 35-44
   (E) 45 or older
6. Your years of teaching experience, including this year
   (A) 2 or less
   (B) 3-5
   (C) 6-10
   (D) 11-15
   (E) 16 or more

7. Name of department

8. Nationality

Part II: Your Perception of the Role of Your Immediate Supervisor

Directions: Please respond to Items 1-20 in the questionnaire using five categories of responses as answers to:

   What duties do you perceive your immediate supervisor performing?

The categories of responses in the response row are as follows:

   A = Always, O = Often, S = Sometimes, R = Rarely, and N = Never or not observed.

Read each numbered item carefully.

Decide which letter (A, O, S, R, or N) describes your response to that item.

Circle the letter of the response row to the right of the numbered item.

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS, AND YOU SHOULD RESPOND ACCORDING TO THE WAY YOU PERCEIVE YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR PERFORMING THE FOLLOWING DUTIES:

   Response Row

1. Organizes and conducts department meetings.           A O S R N

2. Observes classes to help teachers improve the teaching-learning process.   A O S R N

3. Helps teachers improve their teaching techniques.    A O S R N

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<td>4.</td>
<td>Tells and shares with teachers the results of his/her evaluation of them.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Assures that teachers have up-to-date lesson plans.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Manages teachers in the performance of their duties and obligations.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Collects and/or distributes forms and other paper work for administrative purposes.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Prepares periodic reports on the activities of the department for the administration.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Displays instructional interest in teachers' innovative ideas.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Schedules department meetings.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Attempts to keep teachers abreast of new materials and/or developments.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Is a link between the department and the administration.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Provides an atmosphere that is conducive for teachers to develop their potential.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Observes classes solely to rate teachers.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Confers with individual teachers on instructional problems.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Encourages and facilitates the instructional efforts initiated by teachers.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Is a catalyst in producing change amongst teachers.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Works with teachers in solving instructional problems.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Cares in discovering and solving teachers' problems and needs outside classrooms which do not relate to the instructional process and which may affect it.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Is serious in helping teachers improve their weaknesses practically.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>R</td>
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Part III: Teacher's Need Satisfaction

Please respond to Items 1-8 in the questionnaire using the seven categories of responses as answers to:

How satisfied are you in terms of what you expect from your teaching position?

Directions:

1. Read each numbered item carefully.

2. In Part III several characteristics or qualities connected with teaching positions will be listed. For each characteristic, you will be asked to give three ratings:
   a. How much of the characteristic is there now connected with your teaching position?
   b. How much of the characteristic do you think should be connected with your teaching position?
   c. How important is this position characteristic to you?

3. For each of the eight items, you are to answer the above three questions by circling a number on a rating scale from 1 to 7, where low numbers represent a low or minimum satisfaction and high numbers represent high or maximum satisfaction.

4. Respond to the three questions listed below each item.

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS, AND YOU SHOULD RESPOND ACCORDING TO YOUR DEGREE OF SATISFACTION.

1. The feeling of self-esteem a person gets from being in my teaching position:
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

2. The opportunity, in my teaching position, for participation in the determination of methods and procedures:
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
3. The opportunity for personal growth and development in my teaching position:
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

4. The prestige of my teaching position outside the school (that is, the regard from others not in the teaching profession):
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

5. The opportunity for independent thought and action in my teaching profession:
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in my teaching position:
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

7. The feeling of self-fulfillment a person gets from being in my teaching position (that is, the feeling of being able to use one's own capabilities, realizing one's potential):
   a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
   c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
8. The opportunity, in my teaching position, for participation in the setting of goals:

a. How much is there now? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

b. How much should there be? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)

c. How important is this to me? (min) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (max)
Appendix C

Letter to Principals and Cover Letter to Teachers
May 1986

Dear (Principal):

I am a doctoral student at Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, Michigan, seeking data from teachers in secondary schools in Kuwait for my dissertation research. I need to collect the data from four teachers in different department and subject areas in your school. Your cooperation in selecting these four teachers at random will be greatly appreciated. Anonymity and confidentiality of teachers and names of departments will be preserved.

Description of the study: The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the satisfaction of teachers' needs and the way those teachers perceive the role of their immediate supervisor. The focus will simply measure managerial and/or technical duties of supervisors and will not contain any judgment, good or bad, of the supervisor's job performance. The questionnaire of teachers' needs satisfaction will reflect the degree to which those needs are fulfilled. The questionnaire can be completed in 10 to 20 minutes.

Please mail teachers' responses in the enclosed envelopes. My phone number is available to you if you wish further explanation of the questionnaires' elements.

Thank you for your cooperation and support. It is my hope that this study will help to improve educational supervision in particular and the instructional operation in the secondary level generally.

Abdulaziz Al-Duaij
Western Michigan University
Phone No. 815276
832528

Note. Again, please be sure that the teachers are selected at random and from different department and subject areas to insure data validity.
Dear (Teacher):

I am presently collecting data for my doctoral dissertation in the area of educational supervision and administration at Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, Michigan, in the United States of America. Your name has been selected at random to participate in this study after your principal gave permission.

I will appreciate your assistance in completing the attached questionnaire which will take about 15 minutes of your time. Your responses will be secured and anonymity will be assured.

Please respond to all items in the questionnaire and return all paper to your principal's office in the attached envelope within 3 days.

Finally, my dear teacher, I would say that the success of this study depends in a great degree on Allah "the God" and then on your effort. Thank you much for your care.

Abdulaziz Al-Duaij
Western Michigan University


Litwin, G., & Stringer, R. (1968). *Motivation and organizational climate*. Boston: Harvard University, Graduate School of Business Administration, Division of Research.


Ministry of Education, Department of Research and Central Libraries, General Administration of Educational Planning.


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