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Perceptions of school principal communication effectiveness and teacher satisfaction on the job

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San Jose State University, 1989

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PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPAl

COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

AND TEACHER SATISFACTION ON THE JOB

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Communication Studies Department

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

By

Kanda W. Whaley

May, 1989

APPROVED FOR THE COMMUNICATION STUDIES DEPARTMENT

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ABSTRACT

PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPAL COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS
AND TEACHER SATISFACTION ON THE JOB

by Kanda W. Whaley

The purpose of this thesis was to determine whether
or not a relationship exists between perceptions of
school principals' communication effectiveness and teacher
satisfaction on the job. Predictor variables in a
canonical correlation analysis included mission, goals,
feedback, rewards, and support. Criterion variables were
identified as group satisfaction and personal satisfaction.

The sample for this study included 133 elementary
school teachers from Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties
in California. Each teacher responded to his/her princi-
pal's communication effectiveness through the use of the
Leadership Survey (Wilson Learning Corporation, 1981).

Results indicate that, for the respondents, there is
a significant correlation between how teachers perceive
their principals' communication and how satisfied they are
on the job. In addition, results suggest that communica-
tion of feedback and rewards are the best predictors of
satisfaction, and mission and goals are the least signifi-
cant predictors.

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Just as I was beginning to think I would never get my data analyzed, Bala Akella and his associates in

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Overview

Over the past decade, the educational community has
centered attention on effective teaching. New requirements
for teacher certification have been imposed, stricter guide-
lines for teacher evaluations have been set, and longer
school days and school years have been mandated in several
states. Critics claim, however, that education in the
United States has failed badly. In recent years, dozens of
reports from national, regional, state and local groups have
reviewed the condition of education. Most draw the same
conclusion: Education has been ineffective from kinder-
garten through the university level. Criticisms have fo-
cused on the quality of curriculum, the quality of teachers
and teacher education programs, low test scores, and under-
educated school graduates.

In addition to concentrating on effective teaching,
experts have recently begun to examine leadership in the
schools as another way of dealing with the education crisis.
For many years, literature in the field of organizational
communication has pointed to leadership as a major concern
in organizations. Research during the past few years has
focused on the importance of leadership among school princi-
pals (Brandt, 1987; Donaldson, 1987; Fairman & Clark, 1985;

Ford, 1987; Leithwood, 1987; Peterson, 1986; Reilly, 1986).
As a result of this research, several steps have been taken
to improve leadership in the schools. Principals' centers
and academies have sprung up throughout the country within
the last six years (Donaldson, 1987). This movement is
frequently led by principals themselves. One such facility
is the Maine Principals Academy which was designed to pro-
vide principals with the information and support needed to
take charge of their own professional development. Another
organization, the California School Leadership Academy
(CSLA) helps school administrators grow to peak levels of
personal and professional performance.

In addition, several measures have been designed to
assess principal effectiveness. The Principal Profile
(Leithwood, 1987) defines principals' growth in effective-
ness along four dimensions, and helps administrators link
appraisal results to school improvement efforts. The
Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger
& Murphy, 1987) is a self-report that can be used to
assess principal instructional leadership behavior. The
Effective Schools Instrument (Brandt, 1987) measures nine
areas, including teachers' perceptions of a positive learn-
ing environment and principals' instructional leadership.
The latter questionnaire was used to gather data from one
hundred schools over a three-year period. This study is
particularly noteworthy because researchers concluded that

in schools with strong instructional leadership, individual student scores go up over time.

One result of the recent interest in school leadership is a concern about administrative attrition. Estimates of administrative turnover by the end of the decade run as high as seventy percent of all administrators (Peterson, 1986). This implies that how administrators are selected and trained over the next few years could have a significant impact on the success or failure of our schools by the turn of the century.

While much attention has been given to leadership in the schools, a second major concern is teacher job satisfaction. In a study by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (Fischer, 1986), researchers found that 96 percent of former teachers are satisfied with their new occupations, while only 47 percent were satisfied with teaching. They also concluded that 58 percent claimed they miss teaching, but 83 percent said it's unlikely they'll ever return.

Thousands of studies have been reported which have sought to link a variety of variables to employee satisfaction. A substantial number of these studies have examined the role of communication in increasing satisfaction. One conclusion that may be drawn from this research is that communication between supervisor and subordinates does have an important impact (Falcione, McCroskey & Daly, 1977; Lashbrook, 1981; Richmond, Wagner & McCroskey, 1983). While

communication within an organization has been shown to be an important element impacting employee satisfaction, no single communication element has proven to be the cause of employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction across situations.

The large amount of research in the area of employee satisfaction suggests that it is of great interest to scholars, possibly because it is presumed to be linked to other concerns of organizations, such as productivity. Employee satisfaction most often is not found to be directly related to productivity, but has been tied to turnover rates and absenteeism which are major financial considerations in organizations (Richmond, Wagner & McCroskey, 1983).

Only one instance of descriptive research was found in which communication variables were studied to determine whether or not a relationship exists between teacher perceptions of principals' leadership and teacher satisfaction on the job (Falcione, McCroskey & Daly, 1977). Generalizations about these factors have been made, but no specific findings have been reported using the same communication variables as in this study.

One approach to organizational leadership has shown that a manager's communication can contribute to employee satisfaction. Underlying this approach is the Performance System Model (PSM) (Lashbrook, 1981). In presenting this model, Lashbrook (1981) suggests the following:

The impact a manager has on the work culture involves

his/her communication behavior (what is talked about
on the job). When that behavior is directed toward
providing answers to five basic questions that em-
ployees have [Where am I going? What happens when
I need help? What's in it for me? How am I doing?
Why am I here?], then the manager is taking his/her
proper role in a performance system. (p. 19)
So for Lashbrook, leadership is communicative effectiveness.
The terms are virtually interchangeable in his model.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the communica-
tion variables used in the PSM to determine whether or not a
relationship exists between a school principal's communica-
tion effectiveness and teacher satisfaction on the job.
This will supplement similar research that was previously
done in other organizations.

This study is an extension of a series of studies con-
ducted by Lashbrook (1984) over a five year period. The
following review of literature includes a detailed report
on the results of those studies.

Review of Literature

Research in organizational communication has focused
for many years on leadership communication and related con-
cerns: innovativeness (Hurt & Teigen, 1977); power (Rich-

mond, McCroskey, Davis & Koontz, 1980); communication style (Richmond & McCroskey, 1979); discretionary and non-discretionary leadership (Hunt & Osborn, 1978); and mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support (Lashbrook, 1981).

A number of viewpoints resulting from this research support human resources approaches to leadership. These approaches focus on employees as being capable, responsible, and creative individuals who desire to contribute to the accomplishment of worthwhile objectives. Key propositions inherent in the human resources movement are as follows:

1. Managers should trust their subordinates to perform jobs responsibly.

2. Managers should permit subordinates to participate in the making of their own jobs.

3. Managers should replace much of the mechanistic structure characteristic of most institutions with an organic approach to organization. (Goldhaber, 1983, p. 96)

Williamson (1986), editor of a book on contemporary business leadership, states in his introduction:

The overriding conclusion of these readings is that the emerging business environment is transforming the essential ordering of the assets of the business. People rather than materials, machines, facilities, or money are becoming the critical asset that must be managed or leveraged in business today. (p. 3)

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y represent differing views of human nature that suggest a preferred management style. The Theory X viewpoint of human nature holds that the average person has an inherent dislike of work, most people are unambitious, motivation occurs only when it relates to one's safety and security, and that people must be coerced and threatened in order to achieve organizational objectives. This style of management is often evident in organizations where people are viewed as an expense rather than an asset. Theory Y claims that work is natural, creativity in solving organizational problems is utilized widely, workers seek responsibility under proper conditions, motivation occurs to help satisfy one's self-esteem and social needs, and people can be self-directed and committed. This type of management is often seen in organizations where people are the asset, and the source of creativity, diversity and adaptability. This is what Bennis (1983) calls a pull style of leadership. While researching a book on leadership, he found that an essential ingredient in organizational leadership is that the leader pulls rather than pushes people along. "A pull style of influence works by attracting and energizing people to enroll in an exciting vision of the future" (Bennis, 1983, p. 89).

This literature review concentrates on the communication of mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support, and their relationship to personal and group satisfactions and

the work culture. Each leadership factor is conceptual-
ized separately in the following review of literature.
Additionally, the PSM will be explained in detail.

<u>Leadership</u>

The concept of leadership has been defined in more
than one hundred different ways. Among these definitions,
though, there is some consensus. Essays by Fisher (1988)
and Scheidel (1987) suggest that leadership can be con-
ceptualized as communication behavior. In an article dis-
cussing the Maine Principals' Academy, Donaldson (1987)
states that the academy emphasizes communication, decision-
making, and conflict management skills as those necessary
to carry out leadership functions. Additionally, after
three years of research, designers of the Effective Schools
Questionnaire listed four categories as dimensions of in-
structional leadership: resource provider, instructional
resource, communicator, and visible presence (Brandt, 1987,
p. 14).

One reason for placing so much importance on leadership
in the schools is that effective leaders have been linked
to effective schools. Research has confirmed what many
claimed to already know; that leadership is a major contri-
buting factor in high achieving schools (Fairman & Clark,
1985). In conducting research for the development of the
Principal Profile measure, Leithwood (1987) claims, "Effec-

tive principals are, in a sense, the glue that holds together the many different parts of the school" (p. 65).

Although there are many different methods used for training principals to become leaders, there seems to be some consensus regarding the characteristics of effective principals who run quality schools. Ford (1987) states that school leaders must "maintain positive, open communication among all concerned parties, and accept greater input from classroom teachers" (p. 218). Hallinger and Murphy (1987), authors of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale, claim that principals can shape the learning climate by "maintaining high visibility in order to communicate priorities and model expectations, and creating a reward system that reinforces academic achievement and productive effort" (p. 58). Furthermore, the California School Leadership Academy has developed a model for leadership. Four continuous functions outlined in the model include "analyzing behavior, feelings and values; problem solving; decision-making; and communicating" (MacAdam, 1986, p. 44). Again, communication behavior appears to be a central element.

Recent research has identified a number of properties of principals' work (Manasse, 1985; Peterson, 1982; Pitner, 1982). It has been compared to that of other managers, being composed of an enormous number of very short tasks (Mintzberg, 1973). These studies show that most of a prin-

cipals' work occurs in face-to-face, oral interactions with others, particularly subordinates.

Manasse (1984), in a study on characteristics of effective principals who run quality schools, came to the following conclusion:

> Effective principals have vision, a sense or image of the schools they wish to run. . . . They establish goals and strategies and apply their time to activities which will achieve their goals.
>
> Effective principals communicate high expectations for their students as well as their staff. They demand and support quality in everything that goes on in the school. . . . [They know] how to provide clear, accurate, and useful feedback to teachers. . . . They help promote and sustain traditions, rituals, and ceremonies which foster a common culture and set of beliefs within the school. (pp. 153-154)

In nearly all the research examined on leadership, both in educational organizations and other organizations, communication variables were cited as being among the most important factors.

Performance System Model. The underlying rationale for the PSM is based upon several assumptions that have been tested by researchers regarding individual, group, and organizational performance.

1. Organizational performance depends upon the

performance of individual work units.

2. Long-term work unit performance and, consequently, organizational performance depends upon work unit satisfaction.

3. Work unit satisfaction and performance are influenced by leadership performance.

4. Work unit satisfaction and performance influence leadership performance.

5. Leadership performance is the key to long-term change. (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985, pp. 2-3)

The PSM (see Figure 1) makes the following claims. First, organizations depend upon their work units to accomplish work at a performance level that will allow them to achieve their potential. If even one unit is performing poorly, other units may be affected in a way that hinders them from reaching their full potential.

Next, high performance is often a reaction to such factors as incentives, a change in management, pressure, or a chance for promotion. While these are temporary, the PSM assumes that work unit satisfaction is one key to sustaining high performance.

Finally, leadership performance influences worker satisfaction when leaders make sure certain needs are met. These needs involve communication of five factors: mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support. In addition, leadership performance is influenced by the level of satisfaction

PERFORMANCE SYSTEM MODEL
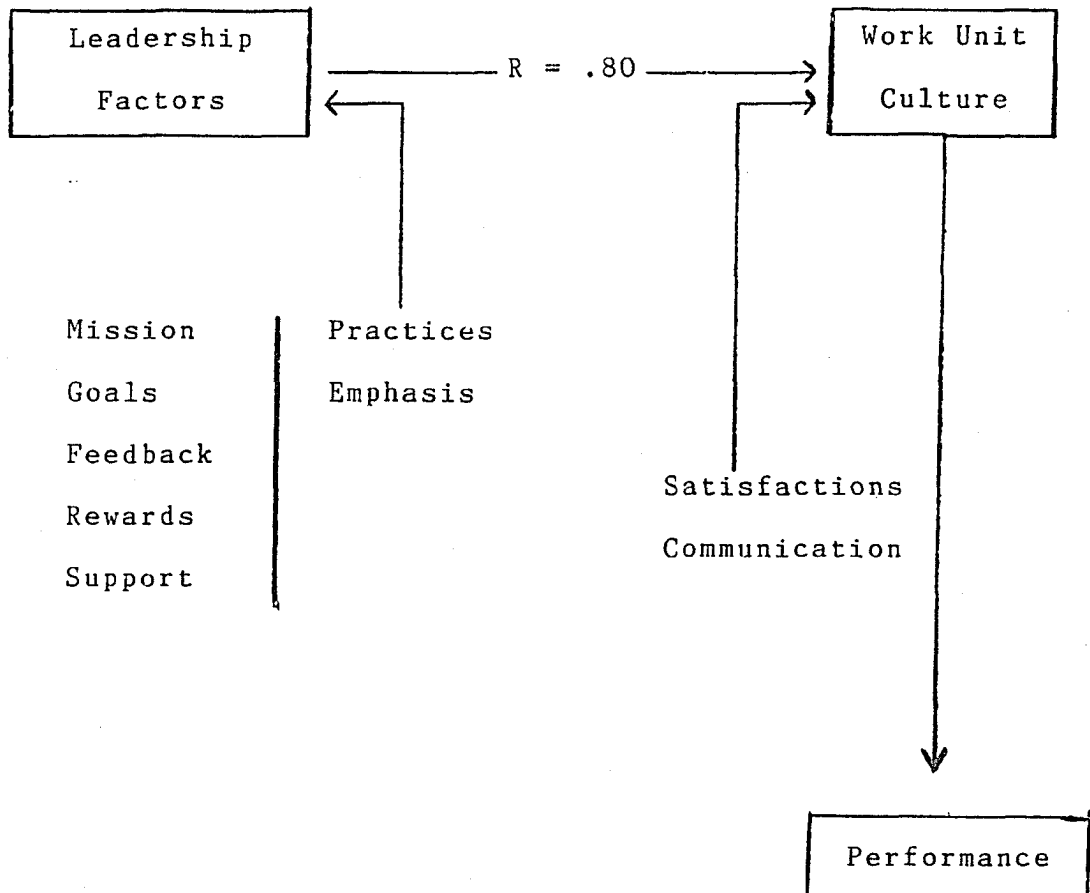
Lashbrook, W.B. (1984). Management as a performance system.
In J.N. Williamson (Ed.), The leader-manager (p. 134).
Eden Prairie, MN: Wilson Learning Corporation.

FIGURE 1

of a work unit. If a work unit is performing well and is
satisfied, the leader can assume that he/she is also per-
forming well. Likert (1985) claims, "The only way to affect
either employee attitudes or organizational success is to
work on managerial behavior. It is a waste of effort to
attack either the intervening or end-result variables di-
rectly. Until management behavior changes, nothing changes"
(p. 3). Even though many might accept that managers have an
influence on employee behavior, it may be an overstatement
to suggest that the only road to organizational success is
through managerial behavior.

Between 1981 and mid-1985, researchers used the Leader-
ship Survey to test some of the assumptions of the PSM on
over 12,000 work units from more than 400 organizations.
Although it's difficult to make a causal connection, the
results clearly showed that leadership performance and work
unit satisfaction are strongly and positively related in
the fifteen industries surveyed. As leadership performance
improves, so does work unit satisfaction.

Work Culture

The term 'culture' has been linked to the study of
organizations for over two decades (Herzberg, 1966, 1974;
Lincoln, Hanada & Olson, 1981; Lashbrook, 1981). It has
been used in reference to entire organizations as well as
individual work units. In studying individual work units,

or work cultures, a relationship has been found to exist between a manager's communication effectiveness and employee satisfaction (Lashbrook, 1984).

Work culture consists of common norms regarding the organization or work groups against which behavior can be judged. The concept of work culture is closely related to the concepts of communication environment and climate. For example, Borden (1977) defines environment as the context in which communication takes place, and notes that the cultural aspect of this context is concerned with one's attitudinal frame of reference.

For the purpose of this thesis, the term 'culture' applies to the individual elementary school faculties within a school district. Prior research involved asking employees which unit within their organization most influences their productivity (Lashbrook, 1979, 1980). The most common unit mentioned was composed of "themselves, their job, their co-workers, their manager, and their manager's manager." However, subsequent studies led researchers to drop the manager's manager as a work unit parameter due to infrequent interaction between that person and the subordinates of a given manager.

Two categories of perceptions are related to work unit culture. The first category is "levels of satisfaction," the second is "what is talked about on the job" (Lashbrook, 1984). Lashbrook (1981) states, "A positive work culture,

then, is characterized by members of a work unit perceiving themselves to be satisfied with themselves, their job, their co-workers, and the way they are managed with respect to communication about mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support" (p. 6).

Work Unit Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction with work has been defined as a general positive affective orientation toward an employing organization and one's roles and relationship within it (Lincoln, Hanada & Olson, 1981). Factors developed to represent satisfaction include such items as pay, promotion, supervisor, job, self, and co-workers (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969).

Locke (1976) estimates that more than 3,300 studies on job satisfaction have been published. These studies include such variables as communication apprehension (Falcione, McCroskey & Daly, 1977), self-esteem (Wylie, 1961), permitting employees to communicate in the decision-making process (Falcione, 1974), mission and goals (Lashbrook, 1981), feedback (Herzberg, 1966; Lawler, 1974; Kerr, 1975; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1983), and support (Barnes, 1981; Kanter, 1983). Furthermore, research has found that employees who have positive perceptions of the communication of their supervisors are significantly more satisfied. Falcione, McCroskey and Daly (1977) report substantial correlations

between employee satisfaction and employee's perceptions of their supervisor's listening ability, the level of understanding the supervisor shows, and the general quality of the supervisor's communication.

Only one study was found in which communication variables were used to determine the relationship between perceptions of a principals' leadership effectiveness and teacher satisfaction on the job. In that study, Falcione et al. (1977) administered nine separate measures to 189 elementary and secondary school teachers. Included were measures for communication quality and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was operationalized with the use of the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). The researchers concluded that a teacher's satisfaction with his/her supervisor appears to be most closely associated with the teacher's perceptions of the supervisor's communication behavior (perceived listening, understanding, and quality) (p. 373). That study yielded data of considerable value for understanding and predicting subordinate satisfaction in organizations because it showed that both subordinate perceptions of their supervisors and subordinate's own self concepts are related to satisfaction. This study adds additional information to the research by Falcione et al. (1977) by looking at whether or not we can predict teacher satisfaction as a result of studying five other communication variables not included in their research.

In a separate study, use of the Management Communication Style Scale resulted in the findings that employees who perceive their supervisors as using a more employee-centered management communication style are more satisfied than employees who perceive their bosses as using a more boss-centered management communication style (Richmond, McCroskey, Davis & Koontz, 1980). Similarly, use of the Leadership Survey (Wilson Learning Corporation, 1981) indicates that employees who perceive their supervisors as using the appropriate application and amount of time in communicating mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support, perceive themselves as being more satisfied with themselves, their job, their co-workers, and the ways they are managed. Thus, employee perceptions of their supervisors play a major role in their level of satisfaction.

In this study, work unit satisfaction is conceptualized as the personal and perceived group satisfaction that members of a work unit experience. "The perceived level of personal satisfaction of work unit members includes their level of comfort with themselves on the job, the job itself, their co-workers, and the ways they are managed" (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985, p. 9). The perceived level of group satisfaction is the extent to which an individual believes that the others in the work unit are likely to describe their work unit and organization in a positive manner. "Specific factors include mission (Why am I here?),

goals (Where am I going?), feedback (How am I doing?),
rewards (What's in it for me?), and support (What happens
when I need help?)" (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985, p. 9).

Results of the research by Wilson Learning Corpora-
tion as of 1984 showed that, for the work units under in-
vestigation, the best predictor of work unit satisfaction
was manager feedback, followed respectively by rewards,
support, mission, and goals.

Mission

According to Lashbrook and colleagues' work, the first
of five communication content areas that are important is
"mission." Feeling a sense of mission on the job is im-
portant because it provides a context for understanding
one's role and making sense of the tasks one is required
to perform (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985). Peters and Water-
man (1982) found in their study of excellent companies
that each had a chief executive officer who had articulated
a mission that used only a few words to summarize what was
unique and special about the company; what the company
stood for. For example, AT&T has as it's motto "Universal
service." Hewlett Packard's is "Innovative people at all
levels." General Electric follows the theme "Progress is
our most important product." IBM holds a statement of
"Customer service," and Du Pont's belief is "Better things
for better living through chemistry."

One major purpose of a clearly communicated mission is
that it can be a vehicle for change. Bradford and Cohen
(1984) did a case study of a major bank that was experi-
encing low morale and lower productivity than had been
forecast. As a result of that study they concluded, "If
the manager can articulate and gain member commitment to
a vision of the future, the mission then serves as an im-
portant stimulus for change toward excellence" (p. 297).

Here, mission is conceptualized as "a work unit's
perception of the degree to which the work unit has a sense
of purpose or reason for being" (Wilson Learning Corp.,
1985, p. 14). It also includes the degree to which a work
unit feels it is making a significant contribution to both
the work unit and the organization's success. A work unit's
understanding of the needs of its clients is also indicated
by mission. The PSM is based on the assumption that it is
critical for individuals to have an effectively communi-
cated vision of what the organization is trying to accom-
plish, and to understand how their particular job contri-
butes to that mission.

The concept of mission has special significance in the
field of education. Because those making the critical
decisions that affect education's future are often not ed-
ucators, the field is at the mercy of every new fad and
shifting societal emphasis.

The first of three dimensions of instructional leader-

ship on the Principal Instructional Leadership Rating Scale (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987) is "defining the school mission." Research conducted by Hallinger and Murphy (1987) in preparation for designing the measures suggests that, "Instructional leaders have a clear vision of what the school is trying to accomplish. Defining the mission entails leading the staff in developing schoolwide goals and communicating them to the entire school community" (p. 57).

No study was found in which the effect of communication on mission had been tested in educational organizations. However, there is evidence that a mission statement makes a difference in other industries. The value of employees knowing an organization's mission and their relationship to it has been positively related to employee satisfaction. Keller (1975) has shown that lower satisfaction among employees can result when they receive conflicting or vague messages regarding why the organization is in existence and what it is trying to accomplish.

Phillips and Kennedy (1980) developed the theory of Shared Values as a result of extensive research in successful organizations such as IBM, Du Pont, AT&T, and Dana. They claim that a company's mission, or shared values, defines the fundamental character of the organization. The shared values create a special sense of identity for employees, giving meaning to work as something more than earning a living.

A mission statement seeks to answer the question "why am I here." When employees have a clear understanding of that, they can begin to concentrate on their work unit's goals.

Goals

Not long ago, an organization's goals were simple and few. The problem of managing goals was a matter of their specification, their communication, and the resources to achieve them (Williamson, 1984). Today, goals are often used to help resolve conflict and in decision-making situations (Likert & Likert, 1976).

Goals refers to "the clarity about the results toward which efforts are directed" (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985, p. 16). The question "where am I going" is often asked by employees who seek to determine the degree of understanding they have for the goals of their work unit.

Ultimately, the purpose of goal setting is to gain commitment to individual and work unit objectives. "For commitment to occur, goals must be clear and understandable, specific and measurable, realistic and attainable, and relevant and meaningful" (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985, p. 16).

In a study on goal-setting attributes and their relationship to job satisfaction (Arvey & DeWhirst, 1976), goal clarity and planning was found to lead to increased employee satisfaction. Furthermore, Steers (1976) studied

factors affecting job attitude in goal-setting environments and determined that participation in goal-setting leads to increased employee satisfaction as well. The PSM also assumes a relationship between communication of goals and employee satisfaction, and points to the need for leaders clearly to communicate goals and provide an environment in which commonly held goals can be met. When this is established, communication and action regarding feedback, rewards, and support can begin.

Feedback

Simply stated, feedback is information about progress toward the accomplishment of goals. A considerable amount of research exists that establishes a positive relationship between feedback and employee satisfaction (Greene, 1977; Pedalino & Gamboa, 1974; Sims & Szilagyi, 1975; Timbers, 1974). While studying leader reward behavior and employee satisfaction, Sims and Szilagyi (1975) found that employees are more satisfied and report being more productive when they receive information based upon objective evaluations of their performance. Additionally, the way in which supervisors provide feedback has also been related to employee satisfaction (Arvey & DeWhirst, 1976).

Feedback seeks to answer the question "how am I doing." The PSM makes the following assumptions about feedback:

1. The value of feedback depends upon its usefulness,

accuracy, relevance, and the credibility of its
giver.

2. Feedback is related to goals because it enhances
the effectiveness of goal setting by providing
information needed to modify behavior in order to
achieve those goals.

3. Feedback is related to rewards in that it is an
indication about how close one is to receiving
reinforcement.

4. Employees desire frequent feedback to know they
are making progress.

5. When employees are performing well, they want to
know that others recognize their progress.
(Lashbrook, 1981, pp. 13-14)

In an empirical examination of perceived differences
and similarities between managers and subordinates concern-
ing job satisfaction, Habegger and Lashbrook (1981) found
that a problem can occur in organizations when a supervisor
fails to give feedback. They concluded that when a subordi-
nate does not receive feedback about how he/she is doing on
the job, it will be invented. They also claim that in-
vented feedback will often be unrealistic and distorted.
Therefore, a leader needs to provide feedback in sufficient
quantities so it will not be made up by his/her employee.
Michael (1976), whose research has been undertaken mostly
in the public sector, states, "It is through information

feedback that a system evaluates where it is in terms of where it intends to go" (p. 385).

Rewards

Rewards are consequences that maintain or improve performance. The question "what's in it for me" seeks to determine what an employee finds to be rewarding.

Research shows that when there is communication between a manager and an employee, the result is often an increase in employee satisfaction (Greene, 1977; Herzberg, 1968; Scanlan, 1976; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1983). Herzberg (1968) surveyed 1,685 employees from a variety of public and private-sector organizations to determine factors that are involved in causing job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Results showed that of all the factors contributing to job satisfaction, 81 percent were motivators such as achievement, recognition, and advancement. In another study (Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1983), workers were asked what features would improve their jobs. They mentioned "recognition for good work" 70 percent of the time, and "a good chance for advancement" 65 percent of the time.

After conducting research on rewards in a manufacturing organization and an insurance firm, Kerr (1975) claims there is a tendency in organizations to profess a desire to accomplish certain objectives while structuring and sustaining a reward system that pays off behavior that is

directed somewhere else. As a result, some experts (e.g.,
Herzberg, 1968; Lawler, 1974; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1983)
have begun to point toward a new direction in the theory
of managing rewards — one that places less emphasis on the
reinforcement qualities of extrinsic rewards and more on
the inherent motivational qualities that the content of
the work itself can provide.

Another aspect of rewards is equity. An examination
of manager and subordinate perceptions regarding job sat-
isfaction (Habegger & Lashbrook, 1981) led to the finding
that most subordinates cannot tolerate a disproportionate
use of rewards. As a result, the researchers suggest that
managers and subordinates need to communicate about what
is perceived as being fair and consistent reinforcement.

The PSM assumes that rewards, to be effective, should
be immediate, linked to performance, and adapted to indi-
vidual needs. Effective rewards are highly individualized.
To discover what an individual finds rewarding, a manager
needs to ask, try different approaches, and observe what
works (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985). A manager needs to
provide an environment (a positive work culture) in which
people can reinforce each other for doing good work.

Support

In the past, managers could assume that providing
direct help to their subordinates satisfied their responsi-

bilities regarding support. Today, the changing context of businesses requires a reexamination of support as a vital management function (Williamson, 1984).

The meaning of the question "What happens when I need help?" has taken on important new dimensions. This question seeks to determine both the knowledge level and the amount of trust that exists within a work unit. Employees need to know that when something goes wrong on the job, they can legitimately seek help from someone else (Scanlan, 1976). The source of help today is no longer solely the manager, it is wherever it happens to be.

Support is closely related to trust. Driscoll (1973) completed a study in which he sought to determine whether or not trust was a predictor of job satisfaction. His study suggests that employee satisfaction in organizations is determined more by the degree of trust present than by levels of participation in decision-making. According to Barnes (1981), the manager is the key factor in determining a work unit's pattern of behavior related to trust.

Management support has been linked to both employee performance and satisfaction (Hunt & Hill, 1977; Scanlan, 1976; Seashore & Bowers, 1977). Specifically, supportive supervisory characteristics (Scanlan, 1976), have been positively related to increased employee satisfaction. Supportive behavior implies an openness in communication channels and availability of managers for interpersonal

communication (Koehler, Anatol & Applbaum, 1976).

The PSM assumes that support often takes the form of advice or education. It is the help individuals receive in overcoming performance obstacles. Occasionally, support is required from other parts of an organization. Without support, a person may be unable to improve performance. Support also demonstrates that a manager cares and is committed to helping his/her subordinates succeed.

Practices and Emphasis

The Leadership Survey (LS) measures the five leadership factors: mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support, in terms of practices and emphasis. "Practices" refers to a work unit's perception of the appropriateness of the way in which each factor is applied or implemented in the work unit. "Emphasis" is a measure of the perceived appropriateness of the time a manager spends on each factor. "Generally, the more time managers spend on a factor, the more effective they will be" (Wilson Learning Corp., 1985, p. 13).

A relationship between practices and emphasis for the 432 organizations surveyed has been determined. For mission and goals, increased emphasis improves practices only slightly. Spending more time on these two factors may help, but it is probably more important to focus on how the time is spent. For feedback, rewards, and support, increased

emphasis appears to improve practices dramatically. While it is useful to examine how time is spent on these three factors, spending sufficient time is critical.

Statement of the Research Questions

Again, this study is an attempt to determine whether or not a relationship exists between a school principal's communication effectiveness and teacher satisfaction on the job. Careful consideration of the model constituted the development of the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between a school principal's communication of mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support as perceived by teachers, and work unit culture (a combination of personal and group satisfactions)?

2. Are there differences among the various teacher demographic groups (county, age, sex, number of years as a teacher) in their perceptions of school principal's communication and/or job satisfaction?

3. Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction and/or school principals' communication in Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties in comparison to the average perceptions of managers of other organizations in the data base?

Rationale

This study makes several unique contributions that advance one's understanding of the theories of organizational communication by addressing practical and theoretical concerns.

The first contribution of this study is that it allows educational organizations to make use of a predictive model for employee satisfaction. It is important to reiterate that only one other study was found in which communication variables were used to determine the relationship between perceptions of a principal's leadership effectiveness and teacher satisfaction on the job (Falcione et al., 1977). The authors of that study concluded that subordinate satisfaction in organizations can be predicted by studying subordinate perceptions of their supervisor's communication behavior. It is clear that more empirical studies of this type need to be done in educational organizations in order to see how they might differ from other types of organizations.

The second contribution of this study is that it begins the process of establishing norms for educational organizations for the PSM. The predictive efficacy of the PSM has been shown in other organizations. As previously stated, researchers used the Leadership Survey to study PSM variables on over 12,000 work units. However, no teachers were included in the survey and no education norms

have been established to date for the PSM.

Establishing norms for educational organizations is helpful because these norms allow comparisons with norms of fifteen other types of organizations. Norms are also useful in making comparisons between local school systems in Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties. They can help principals increase their understanding as to how their communication behavior is perceived by teachers.

The third contribution of this study is that it supports the claim of many researchers that leadership is a communication concern. An extensive review of both education and communication literature suggests that communication variables are among the most important characteristics of leadership. This is precisely why the PSM was the model chosen to be studied in this thesis. It defines leadership as a communication concern, with five communication variables (mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support) as its leadership factors.

Finally, the   contribution of this study is that it addresses an important area of organizational communication theory: job satisfaction. Communication within an organization has been shown to be an important element impacting employee satisfaction (Richmond, Wagner & McCroskey, 1983).

This concern is particularly evident in educational organizations because of the growing dissatisfaction among

teachers. During the past two years, researchers have been exploring the area of teacher satisfaction on the job and a connection between school leadership and job satisfaction has been assumed to exist (Fischer, 1987; Heyns, 1988). Poor working conditions, which included supervision, was the reason 60 percent of former teachers gave for leaving the profession in a 1986 study by Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. In an exhaustive study by Heyns (1988) on teacher attrition, teacher shortages were found to occur in the same sorts of schools that report fairly high levels of teacher dissatisfaction. She states that, "Professional working conditions are widely viewed as the single most important reason for high rates of teacher attrition" (p. 29). However, the connection between principals' communication behavior and job satisfaction in the schools hasn't been adequately examined. It may be that teachers are autonomous enough in their work that communication factors have little influence on satisfaction. It also may be that teachers communicate more often with their peers than with their principals. Perhaps the constant communication between student/teacher and parent/teacher has a greater influence on satisfaction. Studying PSM variables in the educational setting provides concrete data on which to base such assumptions.

CHAPTER II

Methods

This chapter describes the methods that were employed
to evaluate the relationship between a school principal's
communication effectiveness and work unit culture. In
general, this study was a survey of teacher perceptions
regarding leadership communication and personal and group
satisfaction. Specifically, the following subjects are
discussed: the survey instrument, the respondents, the
procedure, and the methods of data analysis.

The Survey Instrument

The measuring instrument used in this study was devel-
oped in 1981 by Wilson Learning Corporation. First known
as the Management Performance Inventory, it is now the
Leadership Survey (see Appendix A). It asks respondents
to rate their immediate supervisor's effectiveness in commun-
icating five factors: mission, goals, feedback, rewards,
and support. Respondents are also asked to supply ratings
of group and personal satisfaction on the job. Together,
these satisfaction ratings represent a rating of "work unit
culture."

For this study, the following words were changed on
the LS to make it more appropriate for use by teachers:
"manager/supervisor" to "principal," "organization" to

"school," "work unit" to "faculty," and "upper management"
to "other administrators in the district."

Two emphasis questions and four practice questions
are included for each of the five communication variables
(see Appendix B). Six group satisfaction and four personal
satisfaction questions are also included. Employee satis-
faction items ask respondents for satisfaction ratings re-
garding themselves, their job, their co-workers, and the
way in which they are managed. All questions are presented
on an eleven-point scale. Responses are end-point anchored
with descriptive phrases. Forty questions are included in
the instrument.

By August, 1985, over 75,000 individuals had completed
the LS for Wilson Learning Corporation (1985). These people
represented 12,433 work units and 432 organizations. Tables
1 and 2, taken from Wilson Learning Corporation's Leadership
Growth Opportunities (1985, pp. 26-27), show comparative
information for each of the thirteen measures provided by
the survey for fifteen different industries. Although ed-
ucation norms could possibly be included in the service
industry category, a telephone interview with Lashbrook
verified that no schools were included in the survey norms.

The LS has been found to be statistically adequate for
testing the Performance System Model (Lashbrook, 1981) (see
Table 3). The various indices used to measure a subordi-
nate's perceptions of a manager's use of mission, goals,

Table 1   LEADERSHIP SURVEY NORMS

Factors	All Work Units	Aerospace	Automotive	Banking	Government	High Tech	Insurance	Manufacturing
Work Unit Satisfaction	64	61	64	66	60	66	68	63
Personal Satisfaction	75	73	76	76	72	74	75	75
Group Satisfaction	54	49	51	55	49	58	61	51
Mission								
Practices	78	76	79	79	75	78	79	79
Emphasis	89	89	85	89	89	90	90	87
Goals								
Practices	87	85	88	89	85	87	88	86
Emphasis	88	86	86	88	86	89	91	86
Feedback								
Practices	65	61	62	67	61	64	68	62
Emphasis	86	85	84	84	84	86	89	84
Rewards								
Practices	62	58	61	62	56	64	68	59
Emphasis	81	80	78	81	80	81	84	80
Support								
Practices	73	73	72	76	72	73	74	72
Emphasis	90	91	88	91	90	90	92	88
Number of Work Units	12,433	830	1457	942	110	667	1231	660
Number of Organizations	432	5	7	26	6	14	16	15

Table 2   LEADERSHIP SURVEY NORMS

Factors	Petroleum	Pharma-ceutical	Publishing	Retail Sales	Service	Telecommuni-cations	Trans-portation	Utilities
Work Unit Satisfaction	64	62	67	70	68	62	57	61
Personal Satisfaction	74	73	75	77	76	72	72	75
Group Satisfaction	53	51	59	64	59	52	42	48
Mission								
Practices	75	77	79	77	80	78	75	78
Emphasis	91	89	91	93	90	89	84	89
Goals								
Practices	85	87	89	84	88	88	85	86
Emphasis	88	89	90	93	90	90	84	85
Feedback								
Practices	64	67	69	71	68	64	59	61
Emphasis	86	86	89	90	88	84	83	87
Rewards								
Practices	61	59	66	69	65	59	50	56
Emphasis	83	80	84	87	82	82	79	82
Support								
Practices	73	74	76	76	75	72	69	70
Emphasis	83	80	84	87	82	82	79	82
Number of Work Units	115	112	120	73	852	1540	107	104
Number of Organizations	3	3	3	3	17	7	3	4

Table 3

Reliability estimates for the Leadership Survey Measures -
June 1, 1981

MEASURES	ALPHA	SPLIT-HALF	GUTTMAN	INTRACLASS(5)
Mission	.79	.71	.70	.78
Goals	.78	.71	.71	.78
Feedback	.83	.72	.71	.75
Rewards	.89	.88	.88	.80
Support	.81	.78	.78	.72
Satisfactions	.76	.71	.71	.81

feedback, rewards, and support have alpha reliabilities ranging from .78 to .89 from a total data base that exceeded 2,500, and a standard error of measurement less than 1.0. The measure of perceptions of the work culture by subordinates has an alpha reliability of .84 and a standard error of less than 1.0. A canonical correlation of .80 was found to exist among the measures of managerial effectiveness and subordinate perceptions of the work culture.

The LS appears to be a superior measure of job satisfaction compared to the alternatives. The Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969), a measure used often by communication researchers, has reliabilities ranging from .80 to .92 However, these reliabilities only hold true when fourteen items with item-total correlation and face-validity problems are deleted from the 72 item measure. The LS, on the other hand, has maintained highly stable reliabilities as well as standard errors of measurement.

The reliability estimates for the LS also correlate with other well-known measures of communication and job satisfaction, which gives us some indication of construct validity. First, the LS has face validity, or appears to measure what it is intended to measure as "supported by the informed judgments of people trained in management theory" (Wilson Learning Corp., 1981b, p.87). Secondly, the scale contained on the LS was selected from empirical research done on managerial appropriateness, job satisfaction, and

work climate. Thirdly, as of 1981, the LS had undergone
three revisions, each based on pilot tests aimed at refining
the scales in the instrument. Fourth, the validation of
the PSM gives us an indication of the construct validity
of the survey itself. In all instances, the pilot data
supported the basic model upon which the LS is based. The
data consistently upheld an $R_c = .80+$ relationship between
the five leadership factors (mission, goals, feedback, re-
wards, and support) and work culture (a combination of
personal and group satisfaction scores.)

In addition to the LS, demographic information was
collected from the respondents. This included age, sex,
number of years as a teacher, and number of years serving
under the principal being evaluated.

The Respondents

The respondents for this study were teachers from pub-
lic elementary schools within Santa Cruz and Santa Clara
Counties. Two-hundred-fifty-seven teachers were randomly
chosen and asked to respond to the LS. A total of 133
usable surveys were returned and constitute the data base
for this study. Each teacher represented a different school
and reacted to the communication effectiveness of a different
principal. The purpose, of course, was not to report the
evaluations by a teacher of individual principals, but to
pool these evaluations to get a sense of the larger picture.

All participants had the LS mailed to them at their school sites. Envelopes were addressed to Second Grade Teacher, Fifth Grade Teacher, and so on. The grade specified was randomly assigned for each school.

The Procedure

The LS was administered to participating teachers during October of 1988. The name of the grade level to which each respondent was currently assigned, along with the name of his/her school, was listed and given a unique number. Corresponding numbers were placed on the questionnaires. Such a system allowed the respondents to remain anonymous and enabled the researcher to keep track of which schools had a participant complete and return the forms.

Questionnaires, including a cover letter (see Appendix A), were individually mailed to each participating teacher at his/her school site. The procedure involved each teacher completing the questionnaire at his/her convenience and then mailing the form directly to the researcher in the envelope provided. The envelopes were pre-addressed and stamped.

Forms were immediately scored as they were returned to the researcher. Two weeks after the questionnaires were mailed, a second mailing was directed to respondents who had not returned the forms. Six weeks after the initial mailing, all data were entered into a computer with 52

percent of the forms having been returned.

As stated previously, two emphasis questions and four practice questions are included in the LS for each of the five predictor variables. For the purpose of this study, however, emphasis questions were eliminated from analysis because the researcher was examining perceptions of communication, not perceptions of time. Therefore, only practice questions were included in the statistical analysis for the predictor variables.

The Methods of Data Analysis

In order to answer the first research question (Is there a relationship between a school principal's communication of mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support as perceived by teachers, and work unit culture?), a canonical correlation analysis was used. The predictor variables were identified as mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support. Criterion variables were personal satisfaction and group satisfaction (the combination of which constituted work unit culture). A canonical correlation allowed the researcher to determine the relationship of the combination of predictor variables with the combination of criterion variables. This answers the research question and indicates whether or not the Lashbrook model is applicable to the educational organizations being studied. Descriptive statistics were also calculated for all variables.

The second question (Are there differences among the various teacher demographic groups in their perceptions of school principals' communication and/or job satisfaction?) was answered through the use of two separate procedures. The first procedure involved t-tests for independent samples whereby tests of mean differences between Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties, and males and females, were performed for both predictor and criterion variables. The second procedure involved a one-way analysis of variance for culture by age.

The third question (Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction and/or school principals' communication in Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties in comparison to the average perceptions of managers of other organizations in the data base?) was answered through the use of a t-test for independent samples.

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) on the CYBER computer system at San Jose State University.

CHAPTER III

Results

The previous chapter described the methods for statistical analysis used in this study. This chapter reports the results of the statistical analysis on data collected by administration of the LS to teachers from Santa Cruz and Santa Clara County schools. Results of the analysis are organized into two sections: preliminary analysis and primary analysis. The purpose of the preliminary analysis is to describe the respondent pool. The primary analysis reports findings regarding the relationship between predictor variables (mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support), and criterion variables (personal and group satisfaction). Also included are comparisons of education findings described in this study to findings from other types of organizations previously reported from Lashbrook's (1984) studies.

Preliminary Analysis

A total of 133 elementary school teachers were included in the respondent pool, representing thirty-three school districts. Demographic data for the respondents are listed in Table 4. The difference in the number of respondents between Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties is simply a reflection of the population of each county,

Table 4

Demographic Data for Respondent Pool

Category	Number of Teachers
County	
Santa Cruz	21
Santa Clara	112
Age	
21 - 30	12
31 - 40	29
41 - 50	63
51 - 63	29
Sex	
Female	113
Male	20
Years of Experience	
1 - 5	21
6 - 15	28
16 - 25	58
26 - 42	26

not the degree of willingness among teachers to participate in the study. Specifically, 60 percent of teachers in Santa Cruz County who were asked to respond to the survey did so, as did approximately 44 percent from Santa Clara County. Total rate of return was approximately 52 percent. The demographic data also show 56 percent of the respondents to be between the ages of 41-50, and 51 percent to have taught school for 16-25 years.

Descriptive data for both predictor and criterion variables are displayed in Table 5. As noted in Chapter II, LS emphasis questions (measures of the perceived appropriateness of the time a manager spends on each factor) were eliminated from the analysis and only practice questions (measures of the perceived effectiveness in communicating each factor) were included in the statistical analysis for the predictor variables. Possible points on the LS totaled 40 for each predictor variable, 60 for group satisfaction, and 40 for personal satisfaction. Group and personal satisfaction scores were changed to percentages so they could be weighted equally to arrive at a score for culture.

In general, teachers rated their principals highest on their communication of mission and goals, and lowest on their communication of feedback and rewards. Additionally, preliminary analysis indicates that teachers perceive their work groups as being less satisfied than they are

Table 5

Leadership Survey Descriptive Data

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Range
Mission	32.053	5.614	10 to 40
Goals	32.774	5.534	11 to 40
Feedback	25.376	11.358	0 to 40
Rewards	24.316	9.552	1 to 40
Support	29.759	8.510	6 to 40
Group Sat	60.842	25.349	5 to 100
Personal Sat	79.173	14.974	33 to 100
Culture	140.015	37.974	41 to 200

with themselves personally.

Primary Analysis

In order to examine the first research question,
which asks if there is a relationship between a principal's
communication effectiveness and teacher satisfaction on the
job, a canonical correlation analysis was employed. Re-
sults of the analysis are shown in Tables 6 and 7.

A single significant canonical correlation was pro-
duced between the predictor set of variables and the cri-
terion set of variables (R_c =.86, p <.001). The eigenvalue
(R_c^2) indicates that these two sets of variables have 74
percent shared variance.

According to Table 6, feedback appears to be the best
predictor of culture, accounting for 67 percent of the
variance in culture with a correlation of .82. Feedback
also correlates significantly with support, again having
a shared variance of 67 percent. Correlation coefficients
for support (.76) and rewards (.73) suggest that these
two variables are the second and third best predictors of
culture. Mission and goals appear to be the least likely
predictors of culture among teachers in the respondent pool.
Canonical coefficients displayed in Table 7 also suggest
that feedback is the best predictor of culture, while goals
appears to be the least likely predictor.

The second research question, which asks if there

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients

	Mission	Goals	Feedback	Rewards	Support	Group Sat	Per Sat	Culture
Mission	1.00000							
Goals	.44364	1.00000						
Feedback	.42776	.46597	1.00000					
Rewards	.38225	.40019	.71735	1.00000				
Support	.43233	.51498	.81670	.65612	1.00000			
Group Sat	.45083	.46970	.80978	.69677	.75031	1.00000		
Per Sat	.46847	.39299	.71611	.66397	.65103	.75776	1.00000	
Culture	.48547	.46851	.82293	.72693	.75757	.96633	.90015	1.00000

Table 7

Canonical Correlation Analysis

Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilk's Lambda	Chi-Square	df	p
.74242	.86164	.24967	177.56837	10	p<.05

Canonical Coefficients

Predictor Set		Criterion Set	
Mission	.13075	Group Sat	.71664
Goals	.03051	Personal Sat	.34089
Feedback	.53174		
Rewards	.26769		
Support	.19946		

are differences among the various teacher demographic groups
(county, age, sex) in their perceptions of school princi-
pal's communication and/or job satisfaction, was examined
through the use of t-tests for independent samples and a
one-way analysis of variance. Tables 8 and 9 report the
results of t-tests of mean differences between Santa Cruz
and Santa Clara Counties, and females and males, for both
predictor and criterion variables.

Results of the t-tests for county indicate that there
is no significant difference between teachers in Santa Cruz
and Santa Clara Counties in their perceptions of principal
communication effectiveness or job satisfaction (no p-values
exceeded .05). Additionally, no significant differences
were found between sexes for any of the predictor or cri-
terion variables.

Table 10 reports the results of a one-way analysis
of variance for culture by age. This test did not indicate
significant differences between any two groups at the .05
level.

After analyzing all the data obtained for the educ-
tional organizations included in this study, further analy-
sis was performed to compare those results with data ob-
tained for thirteen other types of organizations from
previous studies by Lashbrook (1984). These comparisons
were done in order to answer the third research question
(Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of job

Table 8

T-Tests for County

Variable	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Mission					
Santa Cruz Co	32.14	5.77	.08	27.55	.938
Santa Clara Co	32.04	5.61			
Goals					
Santa Cruz Co	33.10	5.44	.29	28.45	.771
Santa Clara Co	32.71	5.57			
Feedback					
Santa Cruz Co	25.14	11.77	-.10	27.41	.922
Santa Clara Co	25.42	11.33			
Rewards					
Santa Cruz Co	24.33	7.99	.01	32.54	.992
Santa Clara Co	24.31	9.85			
Support					
Santa Cruz Co	29.48	8.78	-.16	27.49	.873
Santa Clara Co	29.81	8.50			
Group Satisfaction					
Santa Cruz Co	67.24	23.23	1.35	29.91	.187
Santa Clara Co	59.64	25.65			
Personal Satisfaction					
Santa Cruz Co	80.14	16.97	.29	25.89	.773
Santa Clara Co	78.99	14.65			
Culture					
Santa Cruz Co	147.38	36.96	.99	28.59	.330
Santa Clara Co	138.63	38.17			

Table 9

T-Tests for Sex

Variable	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Mission					
Female	31.95	5.56	-.49	25.05	.631
Male	32.65	6.03			
Goals					
Female	32.79	5.60	.07	27.05	.947
Male	32.70	5.30			
Feedback					
Female	25.12	11.41	-.64	26.47	.530
Male	26.85	11.20			
Rewards					
Female	24.32	9.91	.01	32.43	.992
Male	24.30	7.40			
Support					
Female	29.42	8.62	-1.16	27.93	.256
Male	31.65	7.78			
Group Sat					
Female	60.29	26.07	-.69	30.24	.497
Male	63.95	21.13			
Personal Sat					
Female	78.47	15.57	-1.70	36.06	.097
Male	83.15	10.41			
Culture					
Female	138.76	39.46	-1.15	34.11	.259
Male	147.10	27.90			

Table 10

Analysis of Variance for Culture by Age

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F	p
Between Groups	3	5253.6783	1751.2261	1.220	.3050
Within Groups	129	185098.2916	1434.8705		
Total	132	190351.9699			

Group	Number in Group	Mean	SD
Age 21 – 30	12	137.58	32.88
Age 31 – 40	29	133.03	46.21
Age 41 – 50	63	138.54	36.25
Age 51 – 63	29	151.21	33.77
Total	133	140.02	

satisfaction and/or school principals' communication in
Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties in comparison to the
average perceptions of managers of other organizations in
the data base?) and were completed through the use of a
t-test for independent samples. The results of the t-tests
are reported in Table 11.

Significant differences between the education or-
ganizations in the two counties surveyed and other organ-
izations in the Lashbrook data base were obtained for
mission (t=4.32, p<.05). goals (t=10.44, p<.05). group
satisfaction (t=3.09, p<.05), and personal satisfaction
(t=3.19, p<.05). Scores in the educational organization
sample were higher for mission, group satisfaction, and
personal satisfaction, and lower for goals. Thus the
answer to the third research question appears to be that
there are differences in teachers' perceptions in these
counties of both job satisfaction and principals' commun-
ication as compared to perceptions of managers in other
types of organizations in the data base.

Two disclaimers for this last set of comparisons
should be noted here. First, t-values cannot be calculated
from these data. The t-values are an estimate based on the
following equation for degrees of freedom:

$$df = \frac{[(S_1{}^2/N_1) + (S_2{}^2/N_2)]^2}{[(S_1{}^2/N_1)^2/N_1-1)] = [(S_2{}^2/N^2)^2/(N_2-1)]}$$

Table 11

T-Tests for Organizations

Variable	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Mission					
Other[a]	78.00	7.30	4.32[c]	132.05	p<.05
Education[b]	80.13	5.61			
Goals					
Other	87.00	6.30	10.44[c]	132.04	p<.05
Education	81.94	5.53			
Feedback					
Other	65.00	14.40	1.56	132.05	p>.05
Education	63.44	11.36			
Rewards					
Other	62.00	15.70	1.44	132.08	p>.05
Education	60.79	9.55			
Support					
Other	73.00	11.90	1.87	132.06	p>.05
Education	74.40	8.51			
Group Sat					
Other	54.00	16.20	3.09[c]	132.01	p<.05
Education	60.84	25.35			
Personal Sat					
Other	75.00	9.80	3.19[c]	132.01	p<.05
Education	79.17	14.97			

Note. Other refers to the thirteen other types of organizations previously included in the LS data base.

[a] $\underline{N}$ = 12,433. [b] $\underline{N}$ = 133. [c] $\underline{t}_{crit}$ = 1.98 for df = 120.

(Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975, p. 270).

Secondly, this, of course, is not an experimental comparison because no independent variables were manipulated. Further, the methods used to survey the participants in this study varied from the ways in which Lashbrook's subjects were surveyed.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

The previous chapter described the results of data
analysis regarding the relationship between the pre-
dictor variables (mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and
support) and the criterion variables (group and personal
satisfaction). This chapter considers the theoretical
implications of the results and discusses conclusions
that can be drawn from the study, limitations of the
study, and recommendations for further research.

Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to determine whether
or not a relationship exists between perceptions of a
principals' communication effectiveness and teacher sat-
isfaction on the job. A review of literature integrating
both communication and education research was used as a
basis for generating the research questions and established
the predictive efficacy of the PSM for thirteen types of
organizations.

The results of this study indicate that, for teachers
in Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties, there is a signi-
ficant relationship between how they perceive their prin-
cipals' communication and how satisfied they are on the
job as determined by the canonical correlation of .86.

These results also appear to support the PSM. Leadership factors in the PSM appear to be predictors of culture (the combination of group and personal satisfaction) across educational organizations within the two participating counties. In addition, results suggest that a principals' communication of feedback is the best predictor of culture.

Teachers who rated their principals as strong in the area of feedback responded to index items indicating that their principal helps them understand how well they are performing their job, is a source of accurate information about their job performance, gives useful feedback, and gives constructive feedback. In other words, these teachers feel informed about their job performance. Such principals monitor their employees' performance and know how to initiate change when necessary.

Support and rewards appear to be the second and third best predictors of culture among teachers in the two counties with correlation coefficients of .76 and .73, respectively. Supportiveness is defined here by index items indicating the ability and desire to help faculty members solve their job-related problems. Support is also closely associated with feedback, sharing a correlation coefficient of .82. This indicates that a principal's knowledge and understanding of a teacher's job performance is related to the ability and desire to help.

Communication of rewards is defined here by index
items indicating principals who tie rewards to work qual-
ity, publicly recognize good work, and are perceived as
being fair. As was the case with support, rewards also
appear to be associated with feedback, though the relation-
ship is not as strong ($\underline{r}$=.72). This suggests that some
feedback may also be perceived as a reward by teachers.

It is important to point out that, in addition to
feedback, support, and rewards indicating the strongest
relationship to work culture, these variables also have
the lowest mean scores overall (feedback = 64, support =
74, rewards = 61). These findings are consistent with the
rest of the data base (feedback = 65, support = 73, and
rewards = 62). This suggests that teachers in the re-
spondent pool feel their principals could improve their
communication of these three variables and, in doing so,
might positively affect teacher satisfaction on the job.

In comparing demographic data between various re-
spondent groups, no significant differences were obtained
for county, sex, or age. These findings are consistent
with previous research in that no correlation has been
obtained between job satisfaction and demographic variables
(Trombetta & Rogers, 1988). Caution needs to be taken,
however, in reporting such results as the insignificant
differences should in no way suggest generalizable con-
clusions across all educational organizations. These

results simply indicate that among the teachers surveyed, there are similar perceptions of principals' communication effectiveness as well as degrees of job satisfaction.

In comparing data obtained for the education organizations included in this study with data obtained for thirteen other types of organizations from previous studies (see Tables 1 and 2), statistically significant differences were found for mission, goals, group satisfaction, and personal satisfaction ($\underline{p}<.05$). While these differences may be statistically significant, they may not be meaningful for mission and personal satisfaction. Mean scores for educational organizations and other organizations are fairly close: mission = 80, 78; personal satisfaction = 79, 75. Teachers' perceptions of group satisfaction resulted in a higher mean score than that for other organizations in the data base ($\underline{M}=61,54$). Generalizations cannot be drawn from these findings because of the difference in sampling procedures and sample size between educational organizations and other organizations ($\underline{N}=133$; $\underline{N}=12,433$). Although findings suggest that teachers in the respondent pool perceive themselves as being more satisfied than other employees in the data base, this study cannot provide answers as to why that is the case. Many factors could be involved, such as location, number of working days per year, more freedom on the job, a greater satisfaction with the work itself, opportunity for professional growth,

or again, sampling procedures. Further research would
be needed to see whether these differences hold with other
samples.

Table 12 shows a comparison of teachers' perceptions
of principals' communication effectiveness with perceptions
of managers in the data base. Here, predictor variables
are listed beginning with the lowest mean score and ending
with the highest. Table 13 presents a comparison of best
predictors of culture to least significant predictors of
culture according to the canonical coefficients displayed
in Table 7. These tables indicate that, although certain
statistically significant differences were noted, teachers
in Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties perceive their
principal's communication effectiveness similarly to em-
ployees from other organizations in terms of variance
accounted for by the different predictor variables in the
model.

One comparison is that both groups appear to per-
ceive themselves as being more satisfied with their jobs
than their work groups are as a whole. In addition, lists
for both groups in Table 13 are ordered in the same way,
supporting Lashbrook's (1984) findings that feedback and
rewards are the best predictors of culture, and mission
and goals are the least significant predictors of culture.

It is important to point out that goals, the pre-
dictor variable receiving the highest score for communi-

Table 12

Comparison of Perceptions of Communication Effectiveness

and Job Satisfaction

Educational Organizations		Other Organizations	
Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean
Rewards	61	Rewards	62
Feedback	64	Feedback	65
Support	74	Support	73
Mission	80	Mission	78
Goals	82	Goals	87
Group Sat	61	Group Sat	54
Personal Sat	79	Personal Sat	75

Note. Other organizations refers to the thirteen other

types of organizations previously included in the LS data

base (Lashbrook, 1984).

Table 13

Comparison of Predictors of Culture

Educational Organizations		Other Organizations	
Best Predictor	Feedback	Best Predictor	Feedback
	Rewards		Rewards
	Support		Support
	Mission		Mission
Least Significant Predictor	Goals	Least Significant Predictor	Goals

Note. Other organizations refers to the thirteen other types of organizations previously included in the LS data base (Lashbrook, 1984).

cation effectiveness, turned out to be the least significant predictor of culture. On the other hand, feedback, the predictor variable receiving one of the lowest scores for communication effectiveness, was found to be the best predictor of culture. This suggests that, for both groups, improvement in a manager's communication of feedback could result in increased satisfaction on the job for employees.

Limitations of the Study

When drawing conclusions from a study it is necessary to point out any limitations involved in the methods used. While it would be impossible to account for all the conditions that might have had some bearing on who was chosen to respond to the survey and how each person chose to respond, it is possible to discuss the more obvious limitations that might have had some influence on the findings.

One limitation of this study relates to the fact that surveys were mailed to each participating school and placed in teachers' mailboxes according to grade level. This may have resulted in some teachers participating who were new to the school and had spent a limited amount of time with the principal before responding to the survey. Additionally, it is most likely that some teachers who were not new to a school were responding to a principal who was new, posing a possible problem with accuracy of

responses.

Another limitation of this study involves the differ-
ence in sample size between the two participating counties.
Santa Cruz County's sample size was 21, in comparison to
112 for Santa Clara County. This difference should not
affect the canonical correlation or ANOVA analyses, but
may have had some bearing on t-test results because of
possible nonhomogeneity of variance.

The next limitation of this study has to do with the
terminology used in the survey questions. A few teachers
commented on the questionnaire that they had trouble
understanding the meaning of "objectives of your faculty"
in items seven, nine, and ten (see Appendix A). Academic
objectives are often developed by district curriculum
committees rather than by individual faculties, so the
wording may have been confusing to respondents.

Another term that some teachers indicated confusion
about was "reward" (items 19-24). Comments included,
"The word acknowledgment would be a better choice," "It's
not the principal's place to reward," "The principal has
no control over our salaries," and "The word reward is
unclear." Others simply underlined the word reward and
added a question mark.

A further limitation of this study is that only one
teacher responded to each principal's communication
effectiveness. This was done in order to allow all

elementary schools in both counties to be included in the study, rather than involve more teachers from just a few schools. Although these evaluations give a sense of the larger picture, allowing entire faculties from participating schools to respond to the LS would provide a more accurate assessment of a principal's communication and would permit comparisons to be made between individual schools.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study has provided an empirical examination of communication effectiveness and job satisfaction in educational organizations within two counties. The purpose of this study, which was to determine whether or not a relationship exists between these two organizational concerns, was fulfilled for Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties. A significant correlation of .86 was found, but caution must be exercised before making any generalizations beyond the scope of this research. The process of establishing norms for educational organizations, which was begun by this study, needs to be continued in order to draw further conclusions.

Future research in this area should include possible modification of LS measures to make it more appropriate for educational organizations. It would be preferable to involve educators in this process who are familiar with

educational jargon and the meanings that might be applied to certain terms by those in the field. This would require new tests to be conducted for instrument reliability.

A much more involved process would be to develop a new instrument altogether. As stated in Chapter I, there are reliable instruments that exist specifically to evalu-ate a principal's leadership, but none was found that in-cluded job satisfaction questions. Several instruments are self-reports for principals, rather than ones that would provide feedback from teachers. A new instrument could allow analysis of the same variables, but be tailored to the unique needs of educational organizations.

Finally, further research could include larger sample sizes whereby entire faculties from participating schools could be asked to respond to their principals' communica-tion effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, this might allow a more accurate assessment, as well as provide interested principals with reliable feedback as to how they are per-ceived by faculty members.

This study lends support to the explanatory efficacy of the PSM for educational organizations. This is an im-portant finding because it's contradictory to the beliefs of popular culture that service organizations and other types of organizations are different with respect to how they can and should be managed, and that public sector managers don't know how to manage. The main claim of the

PSM is that leadership performance, which involves communication of mission, goals, feedback, rewards, and support, is strongly and positively related to work unit satisfaction. As the model predicted, teachers in this study were more satisfied on the job if they perceived their principals as being effective communicators in those five areas. Dissemination of this information might positively influence the approach principals take to the leadership of their schools.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

The Survey Instrument

Dear Fellow Teacher:

Enclosed you will find a survey on principal leadership and
teacher satisfaction. One teacher from each elementary
school in Santa Cruz and Santa Clara Counties has been
chosen to participate and you're the representative from
your school who has been selected. Your responses are
completely anonymous. The survey takes ten-fifteen minutes
to complete, and a return envelope has been provided for
your convenience.

This study is important because it has never been attempted
in school systems before and can provide vital informaiton
to anyone associated with the field of education. For
these reasons, your participation in this study is greatly
appreciated.

If you have any questions, or would like further information,
please call Kanda Whaley at 924-5370, or Dr. Tim Hegstrom
at 924-5372.

Thank you for your help!

Sincerely,

Kanda W. Whaley
San Jose State University
Communication Studies Department

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These consist of pages:

78-82: Leadership Survey

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APPENDIX B

Leadership Survey Questions

Pertaining to Each Variable

VARIABLE	EMPHASIS QUESTIONS*	PRACTICE QUESTIONS*
Mission	1, 2	3, 4, 5, 6
Goals	7, 8	9, 10, 11, 12
Feedback	25. 26	27, 28, 29, 30
Rewards	19, 20	21, 22, 23, 24
Support	13. 14	15, 16, 17, 18

VARIABLE	QUESTIONS*
Group Satisfaction	31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36
Personal Satisfaction	37, 38, 39, 40

*For complete questions see the Leadership Survey

(Appendix A)