ROLE CONSENSUS AND JOB SATISFACTION IN THE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Education at Massey University

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1971

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this thesis was only possible through the contribution and cooperation of:

Professor Raymond S. Adams, to whom I own my deepest appreciation for his guidance and inspiration.

Messrs Paul Russell and Peter Davis of the Psychology and Sociology Department, University of Canterbury, who greatly assisted with the programming and statistical analyses of the data.

The Canterbury Education Board and the Head Teachers and teachers of Christchurch intermediate schools, who willingly assisted with this project.

My friends and colleagues in the Department of Education, Massey University, and the Department of Psychology and Sociology, University of Canterbury, whose encouragement was always helpful.

My husband, John, whose patience and understanding was invaluable.

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ABSTRACT

A theory of social exchange was used as the framework for investigating role consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff on expectations of teacher and Head Teacher role and relating consensus to teacher job satisfaction. Association between job satisfaction and a number of personal variables was also hypothesised.

The sample consisted of 147 intermediate school teachers in the ten intermediate schools in a New Zealand city. Only one of two central hypotheses proved significant. Role consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour was positively related to job satisfaction, in that the greater the role consensus the greater the job satisfaction. No relationship was found between role consensus on expectations of teacher behaviour and job satisfaction. Only one of the personal variables, sex, proved to be related to job satisfaction, in that female teachers expressed greater job satisfaction than male teachers.

INTRODUCTION

Research into job satisfaction continues to reveal that there is a wide variety of determinants. Over time, these determinants have become polarized into psychological and sociological factors, with the result that studies tend to adopt one orientation or another. The reasons for this polarization are not difficult to find in that job satisfaction as a causal factor can have a considerable effect both on the personal adjustment of the individual as well as on the maintenance of the system within which he works. In adopting a sociological perspective, the present study attempts to consider job satisfaction as being indicative of system cohesion.

This orientation has potential usefulness in as much as job attitudes of teachers presumably effect morale and consequently the holding power of the profession. Furthermore an investigation of teacher job satisfaction is timely in that not only is there a dearth of information on the New Zealand teaching profession, but also an understanding of the nature of teacher job satisfaction may well lead to control over deleterious influences.

However, some practical difficulties are apparent. Although job satisfaction has received much attention within economic organizations, scales have rarely been developed or administered within educational organizations. New scales are required. But for any scale to be of use, its theoretical legitimacy must be made explicit. The present study is an initial attempt to develop such a scale, which on the one hand incorporates a theoretical framework, and on the other hand focuses at the empirical level on the educational organization.

The task requires that a number of issues be dealt with, for example: the cooperation and communication in the organization; the degree of consensus on organizational goals; the possible relationship between job satisfaction and consensus on the roles of various system members. In an effort to deal

with these issues, the present research attempts to measure job satisfaction in the teaching profession and the relationship between the job satisfaction and role consensus of its members.

In the thesis, Chapter I reviews ways of measuring job satisfaction, and elaborates some of the determinants of job satisfaction. Chapter II discusses the development and language of role theory, while Chapter III considers empirical studies completed within the role theory tradition and more specifically those relating to teacher role expectations and role consensus. In Chapter IV a theoretical basis for the investigation is presented and a number of hypotheses listed. The methodology and scope of the study are detailed in Chapter V, along with a description of the sample characteristics. Chapter VI reports role behaviour expectations, role consensus and job satisfaction findings. Chapter VII sets out the results of the hypotheses testing. The final chapter discusses the findings and documents their implications.

CHAPTER I

JOB SATISFACTION

Most of the research completed on job satisfaction has been carried out within industrial organizations or small experimental groups. Comparatively speaking, few studies have been completed in educational institutions, and these have tended to treat job satisfaction as incidental rather than central. It is difficult and possibly dangerous to endeavour to relate industrial findings to the educational situation, but perhaps in this instance some tentative guidelines for educational research can be established.

This chapter is in two sections with the first section describing ways of measuring job satisfaction, and the second section elaborating some of the determinants of job satisfaction.

The Measurement of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been equated with a variety of concepts including morale, and job attitude. For example, Likert and Willits (1940) defined job morale as an individual's,

> 'mental attitude toward all features of his work and toward all of the people with whom he works.'

Alternatively, Vroom (1964) maintained that,

> 'the term job satisfaction ... is the conceptual equivalent of the valence of the job or work role to the person performing it.'

Job satisfaction, job attitudes and morale can all be referred to in a general or specific sense, although most investigators have tended to treat the concepts as a rather complex set of variables. Such an approach gives rise to the problem of what combination of variables can be taken to represent a level of job satisfaction. As early as 1935, Hoppock pointed out the problem of gaining an equitable satisfaction score, by emphasising the difficulty in assigning proper weights to each of the variables involved,

> 'Because of the high probability that these weights differ greatly from one person to another; and the possibility that some single item may for one subject outweigh all of the others, while a different item may be the all-important one for another subject, it

> seems inevitable that any scoring key would be seriously misleading in some cases. We suspect that this may be the reason for the reliability of our own item score, based upon about a hundred items, being only four points higher than the reliability of the satisfaction index, based upon only four responses; and that it may likewise account for the correlation between the two being .67 .... In other words, the mere summation of satisfaction with various aspects of the job, is not equivalent to satisfaction with the job as a whole.'

In multi-variable instruments, because of the relative salience of specific items, one item might provide better predictive power than all the others either singly or together. Against this, it may even be more meaningful to have the employee himself assess his general job satisfaction. This latter procedure allows the employee to give to each aspect of his job a relative weighting, which may be more accurate for him than any objective computation. The disadvantage is that a temporary state of elation or depression may overshadow the subject's estimation, so that his expressed satisfaction is somewhat different from his usual feelings.

Despite this, many job satisfaction scales have taken a number of variables and, in considering them to be of equal importance, have given each equal weighting. The scales have tended to include either a large number of separate items or a series of grouped items. Examples of the former are provided by the Kerr Tear Ballot (Kerr, 1948) and the Brayfield-Rothe Scale (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951), while a scale incorporating a series of grouped items is the instrument of the Survey Research Studies (Katz, Maccoby and Morse, 1950; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor, 1951; Morse, 1953) which gave equal weighting to four dimensions of employee satisfaction (in contrast to Hoppock's 100 single items). These four dimensions were: intrinsic job satisfaction, financial and job status satisfaction, company involvement, and pride in group performance.

A more recent scale and one that has undergone extensive validity and reliability checks is the Job Description Index, compiled by Smith and her associates (Hulin, Smith, Kendall, and Locke, 1963; Macaulay, Smith, Locke, Kendall, and Hulin, 1963; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963; Locke, Smith, Hulin and Kendall, 1963; Smith and Kendall, 1963; Smith, Kendall and Hulin,

1969). Like the Survey Research Centre Studies scale, the J.D.I. includes also dimensionalised items. There are five aspects: type of work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and people on the job.

Aspects of Job Satisfaction - Many investigators have endeavoured to determine the amount of association between job satisfaction measures. By intercorrelations, factor and cluster analysis, the number and nature of the dimensions needed to account for the results have been determined. While the results have invariably shown measures of different aspects of satisfaction, more specific factors which have frequently emerged from such studies have been: attitudes toward the company and its management (Wherry, 1954; Ash, 1954; Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958; Twery, Schmid and Wrigley, 1958; Kahn, 1960; Harrison, 1961), promotional opportunities (Harrison, 1961; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963), the content of the job (Baehr, 1954; Ash, 1954; Roach, 1958; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963), supervision (Baehr, 1954; Ash, 1954; Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958; Twery, Schmid and Wrigley, 1958; Kahn, 1960; Harrison, 1961; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963), financial rewards (Wherry, 1954; Ash, 1954; Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958; Kahn, 1960; Harrison, 1961; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963), working conditions (Wherry, 1954; Dabas, 1958; Harrison, 1961), and co-workers (Roach, 1958; Twery, Schmid and Wrigley, 1958; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963).

Vroom (1963) has suggested that this tendency for different measures of satisfaction to be positively interrelated may arise from the possibility that work situations providing one type of reward may also provide other types of rewards, e.g. he notes that jobs which are highly paid often tend to offer a greater variety of stimulation and higher status. Vroom further suggests that various measures of satisfaction may be associated through being functionally interdependent. Changes in satisfaction with one aspect (e.g. supervision), may result in changes in satisfaction with another aspect (e.g. the content of the work.)

There would be obvious advantages if a scale could be

developed in which all of the above job satisfaction work role variables were included. The Job Description Index is one attempt towards this, but although the scale has been tested among 952 people in seven different organizations, it does not appear particularly suited to professional groups, in that neither the wording nor many of the actual items are entirely applicable. For example, the J.D.I. includes a dimension relating to aspects of job supervision. Most of these items are not appropriate to professional people, for characteristically they enjoy a considerable amount of autonomy and responsibility. Furthermore, terms such as 'smart', 'simple', and 'bad' are seldom used to describe aspects of the professional person's job.

Another limiting factor in the usefulness of the job satisfaction scales is that few, if any, have evolved from a theoretical framework. Most appear to have originated in the comments of workers and to have then undergone empirical validation. This again reduces the usefulness of the scales to the group of workers from whom the comments were drawn. The incorporation of a theoretical framework in the development of job satisfaction scales could well allow greater comparison of job satisfaction between various groups.

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

One of the problems confronting the researcher of any organization is that people differ in the extent to which they report satisfaction. It is often assumed that the explanation of these differences lies in the nature of the task situation. It is argued that individuals express different amounts of job satisfaction because they have different colleagues or different supervisors, or because they have different responsibilities, and so on. Essentially the different degrees of job satisfaction are expressed as a response to the behaviour of the others with whom the individuals work, the conditions in which they work and the rewards they receive.

For the purpose of this present review, it seems appropriate now to consider the literature on job satisfaction according to the various kinds of job or work variables which have been thought to effect job satisfaction. Aspects which

appear to have been substantiated by a considerable body of research, include: influence on decision making, promotional opportunities; supervisory consideration; similarity of attitudes; interaction; size of work group; supervision; goal interdependence; pay. (1) These aspects are now elaborated in anticipation of their incorporation in the current investigation.

(a) influence in decision making - There is a reasonable amount of evidence to show that people who are satisfied with their jobs tend to report that they have greater opportunity to influence decisions which have effects on them. Baumgartell (1956) noted that in a three-fold typology of leadership behaviour (similar to Lewin, Lippitt and White's authoritarian, laissez-faire and democratic leadership types, 1939) those working under participative leadership exhibited significantly more positive attitudes towards their director than those working under directive leadership. Similar evidence has been found among workers in an automobile manufacturing plant (Jacobson, 1951); among 2,680 female skilled workers in 48 sections of a large company (Ross and Zander, 1957); and among white collar workers (Morse, 1953). With the exception of the last, all of the above studies were based on reports of subordinates and thus may have been subject to the tendency to ascribe favourable practices to favoured supervisors. In Morse's experiment (1953), use was made of the supervisor's reports of the white collar workers' behaviour as the basis for distinguishing between those giving close supervision and those giving general supervision. No great difference was detected among the attitudes of the workers under the two types of supervisors, for while those workers under general supervision showed a strong degree of identification with their division and described their supervisors as being effective in personnel matters, they manifested less positive attitudes toward overall company policies than did the employees receiving close supervision.

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(1) The author is indebted to Vroom (1964) whose discussion of the Determinants of Job Satisfaction has been drawn upon for this review.

Three field studies in which the amount of influence was treated as the independent variable and its effects on satisfaction measured, have also produced mixed results (Morse and Reimer, 1956; French, Israel and As, 1960; Kay, French and Meyer, 1962). In Morse and Reimer's study (1956), there was an increase in satisfaction under an autonomy programme, and a decrease under the hierarchially controlled programme. The study of French, Israel and As (1960), yielded a difference in satisfaction between a participative and a control group that was, on the whole, not significant. Similarly Kay, French and Meyer's field study (1962) showed little difference in attitudes among workers in high or low participation groups in an aircraft manufacturing plant.

It would seem that the amount of satisfaction obtained from participation in decision making might vary considerably with the nature of the decisions involved, the expectations of the persons involved, and the nature of the social situation in which the decision is made. It would also appear that job satisfaction is further determined by the expectations that group members hold for the amount of influence they are allowed in decision making. The difference between the expected and actual amount of influence would seem to influence job satisfaction directly.

(b) promotional opportunities - An employees' promotion invariably involves changes in supervisor, co-workers, job content and pay, so that promotional opportunities as a determinant of job satisfaction can rarely be assessed in a systematic manner. Job satisfaction resulting from promotion seems to be largely determined by the amount of promotion expected (if at all) as compared with the amount of promotion gained (if at all). Thus, both Morse (1953) and Sirota (1959) found a positive relationship between individuals' statements of their promotional opportunities, and their satisfaction with promotional opportunities. They also discerned a negative relationship between measures of promotional frustration and measures of attitudes towards the company. Similarly, absenteeism was found to be higher among individuals who, though not promoted, felt that they deserved to have been (Patchen, 1960).

Somewhat conflicting results were reported by Spector (1956) whose laboratory experiment revealed that morale was higher among the subjects who believed they had a low probability of promotion, than among those who believed they had a high probability. Furthermore, those receiving promotion had higher morale than those who did not, regardless of their expectations. Spector concluded that,

> 'personnel managers might be wise to underplay, rather than overplay, the opportunities for advancement in their organizations' (1956).

The discrepancy between Spector's finding of higher morale among those with low promotional expectations and Morse's (1953) and Sirota's (1959) findings of a positive correlation between promotional expectations and satisfactions, can be reconciled by considering the difference in the experimental methods. Morse and Sirota took measures of promotional expectations and job satisfaction concurrently so that the workers were reporting what they believed to be their chances for a promotion before the actual decision concerning promotions was made. As a result there was a positive association between expectation and satisfaction. On the other hand Spector did not measure satisfaction until after the promotions were made, and so found a negative relationship between the earlier expectations and satisfaction. It might be predicted that had Spector gained a measurement of satisfaction before the decision concerning promotion was made, he would have also found a positive relationship between promotional opportunities and job satisfaction.

(c) <u>supervisory consideration</u> - There is considerable evidence that the satisfaction of subordinates is related to the orientation of supervisors to their employees. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Hemphill and Coons, 1957), and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1957), have both identified two major independent dimensions of leader behaviour which have been called respectively, 'Consideration' and 'Initiating Structure'. The former dimension of Consideration includes supervisory behaviour 'indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth' (Halpin and Winer, 1957), while the latter dimension includes behaviour in which

the supervisor organizes and defines group activities and his relation to the group. The L.B.D.Q. was subsequently modified for use in military and educational institutions, by Halpin (1957) and Halpin and Winer (1957).

Results from the use of these instruments have revealed positive associations between the consideration of aircraft commanders and their crews' satisfaction (Halpin and Winer, 1957; Halpin, 1957); between the consideration of school superintendents and the job satisfaction of elementary school teachers (Seeman, 1957); and between the consideration of foremen and the morale of subordinates (Fleishman, Harris and Burtt, 1955). The latter research also showed that the amount of consideration displayed by a supervisor is also negatively related to such behavioural measures as absences, turnover and grievances.

One might conclude from these findings that supervisor consideration of subordinates results in a high level of satisfaction, which is in turn reflected in relatively low turnover rates, grievances and absences. However other possible relationships must also be considered. One such possibility is that the direction of causality may in fact be reversed and that supervisors might display a greater degree of consideration for subordinates whom they perceive to be satisfied. Pelz (1951) further suggested that the effects of supervisor consideration on employee satisfaction depended on the amount of influence exercised by the supervisor on his own superior. He concluded that attempts by influential supervisors to assist their subordinates to achieve their goals will usually succeed and will result in higher employee satisfaction, whereas similar attempts by noninfluential supervisors are less likely to succeed to affect satisfaction.

Most of the research investigating the relationship between supervisory consideration and subordinate satisfaction has involved descriptions of the behaviour of one person by another, a method which tends towards subject bias. Perhaps the association between supervisory consideration and subordinate attitudes merely reflects the assumption that subordinates who like their supervisors will describe them in terms somewhat

different from those used by subordinates who dislike their supervisors. Furthermore, there is mounting evidence to show that subordinates' descriptions of the behaviour of their supervisors are not highly related to such descriptions by respectively: the supervisor himself (Gross, 1956; Vroom, 1960); the supervisor's superior (Besco and Lawshe, 1959; Vroom, 1960); or the supervisor's peers (Vroom, 1960). Nor are they related to observations based on the use of time sampling methods (Gross, 1956). Clearly there is a difference between the expected and actual behaviour of the supervisor, according to the position or biases held by the respondent or observer.

(d) similarity of attitudes - One might expect that where group members have similar attitudes towards an object or where interaction leads to the recognition of similar attitudes, there would be greater job satisfaction and greater attractiveness of the group to its members. The evidence is however somewhat conflicting.

Newcomb hypothesised that,

> 'insofar as communication results in the perception of increased similarity of attitude toward important and relevant objects, it will also be followed by an increase in positive attraction.'

Such a perception is assumed to be rewarding because it permits the 'ready calculability of the other's behaviour' as well as the validation of one's own orientation towards the object (1953). Newcomb (1956, 1961) did in fact find significant correlations between a number of different measures of the amount of similarity in attitudes of pairs of college students and measures of the attraction to one another. Other studies, however, have found little or no relationship between attitude similarity and system cohesiveness. For example, no consistent relationship was found between the similarity of group members in age or education and their cohesiveness (Seashore, 1954; Hoffman, 1958).

The differences among these findings may be due to the varying aspects of interpersonal similarity studied. Furthermore, the effects of similarity of attitudes and attraction may be related to the importance of the attitudes to the individuals

and their relevance to interaction between them.

(e) interaction - Homans indicated the importance of interaction in the development of attitudes between individuals when he hypothesised that,

> 'If the frequency of interaction between two or more persons increases, the degree of their liking for one another will increase, and vice versa.' (1950)

This would suggest that work groups would be attractive to their members to the extent to which the nature of the situations allows or requires interaction. Evidence to support Homans' hypothesis has come from Festinger, Schachter and Back (1950) who found that the frequency of social choices between families was an inverse function of the physical distance between the houses which they occupied. Similarly, propinquity was found to be a major determinant of interpersonal attraction between college students living in the same house (Newcomb, 1956, 1960); to be positively related to sociometric preferences among jury members (Strodtbeck and Hook, 1961); and also to be positively related to the amount of attraction between crew members on Air Force bombers (Kipnis, 1957).

Workers' job satisfaction is also related to their opportunities for interaction with others on the job. Several researchers have found that organizations providing the least opportunity for conversations among workers have lower morale and a higher turnover rate (Kerr, Koppelmeir, and Sullivan, 1951; Sawatsky, 1951; Walker and Guest, 1952; Richards and Dobryns, 1957).

It would seem that those organizations which isolate their employees for part or most of the day from fellow-employees may find a lowering of job satisfaction. Thus interaction with clients or pupils may or may not be a satisfying substitute for the professionals' isolation from his colleagues.

(f) size of work group - A correlation between the size of work groups and members' job satisfaction has been reported in the sense that larger work groups have been shown to have lower cohesiveness or morale (Worthy, 1950; Seashore, 1954; Hemphill, 1956). While it would appear that the total amount of interaction between any two individuals in a large group might be lessened as a consequence of the larger number of interacting

persons available, it not necessarily follows that the total interaction by any group member would be decreased.

In attempting to reconcile these findings with Homans' hypothesis concerning the relationship between the frequency of interaction between two or more persons and the degree of their liking, it would seem more correct to say that 'interaction may lead to the emergence of both positive and negative attitudes' (Vroom, 1964). A fuller explanation has been suggested by Seashore (1954), when he points out that not only is the amount of interaction an important factor, but also its content. Similarly Cartwright and Zander (1960) maintain that,

> 'There is no convincing evidence ... that interaction which is unpleasant will make persons better like one another.'

(g) <u>supervision</u> - Of all the research relating to correlates of job satisfaction, studies of supervision completed in industrial organizations are perhaps the least applicable to educational organizations, for whereas in the former the supervision given is from the position of supervisor to that of subordinate, supervision in an educational institution has overtones of professionalism. Supervision is, on the whole, of a general rather than a specific nature. Furthermore with the considerable autonomy allowed in teaching, supervision does not occur to the extent it does in industrial organizations.

From the research reported it seems that the satisfaction group members express with the leadership they receive is affected to a large extent by attributes of the person providing the leadership. There appear to be two approaches characteristically taken when attempts are made to explain this focus, viz, the 'personality' of the supervisor, and the person's behaviour in the work situation. It is somewhat easier to investigate personality variables than behaviour variables of supervisors in that a test situation can be established and the responses scored, while obtaining a systematic picture of a supervisor's behaviour in situations involving subordinates is a considerably more difficult task. Reviews of the empirical evidence of the role of personality variables in leadership have been undertaken by Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948), and Mann (1959). In general, the correlations between personality

variables, and leadership criterion are shown to be low, with considerable variation in the size and direction of the relationship from study to study. There seems to be little research completed, even in industrial organizations, on the effects of greater or lesser amounts of supervision. Perhaps this is because of the many related factors, such as job level, amount of autonomy, job content, specialisation, etc. It might be that differences in the job content of supervision make it impossible to generalise findings on any specific relationship between supervision and job satisfaction.

(h) goal interdependence - Partially related to the type of supervision provided is the extent to which the goals of the group members overlap. It might be assumed that interactions between two persons would be satisfying to both if interaction enables each person to move towards the attainment of his goals. Deutsch (1940) conceptualised the goals of two persons as being 'promotively interdependent' if entry into the goal region by one person results in entry into the goal region by the other person. Conversely, the goals of two or more persons are 'contriently interdependent' if entry into the goal region by each person precludes entry into the goal region by the other person. In an experiment involving five-person discussion groups, Deutsch (1949) created promotive and contrient interdependence according to the manner in which psychology grades were assigned. He noted that promotively interdependent groups were more productive, and their members exhibited a more favourable evaluation of the group than did the contriently interdependent groups. Jones and Vroom (1964) made a similar finding, also noting that the promotively interdependent persons were more satisfied with their own performance than the contriently interdependent persons.

Research focussing exclusively on goal interdependence in an organization or professional group has yet to be carried out. It would seem that according to the research completed in small group experiments, group goals and incentives invoke higher productivity and satisfaction than individual incentives. It might be predicted that job satisfaction among employees with a considerable amount of autonomy, is less dependent on these

group incentives.

(i) pay - Financial reward has traditionally been considered one of the central concerns of employees. However, many of the findings support the long held contention that satisfaction is dependent on relative rather than absolute wage levels (Helson, 1947; Patchen, 1961). Coupled with this is the view of social scientists that social factors are just as important as economic factors in determining job satisfaction. However, consideration of the correlational information shows a positive relationship between income level and job satisfaction. Several follow-up studies of college graduates (Thompson, 1939; Miller, 1941; Barnett, Handelsman, Stewart, and Super, 1952) provide support for such a relationship, as do: (i) investigations in British factories by Marriott and Denerley (1955) and on a national sample in the United States (Centers and Cantril, 1946); (ii) Terman and Oden's follow-up (1959) of the gifted children whom they had studied thirty-five years earlier: and (iii) Lawler and Porter's (1963) investigation of the level of wages received by almost 2000 managers and the finding that there was a positive relationship between their wages and job satisfaction when managerial level was held constant.

Summary

It would seem that the prevailing assumption guiding investigations of job satisfaction is that the varying degrees of satisfaction reflect differences in the nature of the work situations of individuals. Researchers have thus attempted to establish the effects on job satisfaction of such aspects of work roles as the nature of supervision the individual receives, the amount of interaction that occurs, his chances of promotion, the kind of work group of which he is a member, the amount of his wages, and the similarity of attitudes among the work group. It would seem however that there is a great deal of variance in job satisfaction that remains to be explained not only in the industrial organizations in which most of this research has been carried out, but more especially in other organizations,

such as schools.

Admittedly, research in economic organizations may have some relevance to the teaching profession. However the possibility that there are many unique aspects of teacher satisfaction cannot be ignored. It is with a view to considering the relationship of role consensus and job satisfaction within the educational organization, that the following chapter discusses the development of role theory and more especially a number of terms relevant to the present investigation.

CHAPTER II

ROLE THEORY

This chapter is concerned with tracing the development of role theory and identifying role concepts relevant to the present study. It also provides a role theory framework into which the present investigation can be fitted. There are four sections in the chapter. The first outlines the historical development of role theory. The second focusses on the language of role theory and gives particular attention to the concepts: role, role expectations, and role consensus. The third section is a discussion of the limitations of the role theory approach, while the final section defines the terms used in the present study.

Development of Role Theory

Role theory is a relatively new field of inquiry, yet its roots are to be found in the early writings of psychologists, social philosophers, sociologists and anthropologists in both America and Europe. Many of the concepts introduced are still used in their original form, or have similar modern counterparts, e.g. Maine's 'status'; James, Baldwin and Cooley's 'self' etc. However it was not until the work of Mead, Moreno and Linton that the term 'role' was first given a technical connotation. Because their influence on the development of role as an area of study has been widely felt, the writings of Mead, Moreno and Linton need to be considered more closely here.

George Herbert Mead (1934), in his conceptualisation of the social self, provided a synthesis of three social ideas, viz, (i) James' idea (1890) of the social self as the product of the mental images of a person conceived by other members of his group; (ii) Baldwin's idea (1891) of the circular response or the 'dialogue of self and others'; and, (iii) Dewey's emphasis (1899) on language as the basic element in the process of social interaction. Mead completed his theoretical framework by proposing the concept of 'role-taking', a symbolic process by which a person puts himself in the position of

another and imaginatively constructs his role in order to predict the other's probable behaviour in a given situation. Mead's idea of symbolically 'taking the role of the other', and his 'generalised other', 'self', 'me' and 'I' formed the nucleus of the school of thinking later to become symbolic interactionism.

Mead also made a distinction between role-taking and role-playing. The former refers to an attitude about what one considers to be one's own appropriate role in a given situation, while the latter refers to the idea of 'playing-at' a role where one plays a familiar role.

Moreno took Mead's idea of role-playing further to include overt behaviour. 'Role-playing is an act, a spontaneous playing; role-taking is a finished product, a role conserve' (Moreno, 1960). Moreno's students have used 'role-playing' or 'role practice' in therapy or for occupational training. In his classic work, 'Who Shall Survive?' (1934) and later writings, Moreno included both the terms 'role' and 'role-playing'. He postulated three kinds of roles: psychosomatic, psychodramatic and social. Moreno saw the gensis of roles going through the two stages of role perception and role-enactment.

Linton (1938) incorporated the ideas of both Mead and Moreno, but moved the emphasis from taking the role of the other to enacting the role prescribed for the self. For Linton, role was a cultural pattern, in that, 'the members of each society perpetuate the culture by training each succeeding generation to its behaviour patterns (roles) and values.'

Linton's major formulation was his classic distinction between status and role. For Linton status meant a 'collection of rights and duties'. Today, what Linton called status, most writers would refer to as 'position'. Linton saw role in relation to status, in that when a person puts into effect the rights and duties associated with his status he is performing a role. Thus Linton confined the definition of role to those behaviours associated with a status, and the definition of status to those persons who exhibit a role.

The development of role theory from the early formulations of Mead, Moreno and Linton, has occurred variously in the three

disciplines that have incorporated its perspective. Many psychologists and anthropologists have adopted Linton's definition of 'role', and use his formulations when they move from the individual to the social structure as the focus of their analysis. Sociologists, however, have not given Linton's ideas such acceptance. There are further differences in the use of role terminology in the different disciplines. In the discussion of the language of role theory that follows, such differences, where relevant, are taken into account.

The Language of Role Theory

Following the writings of Mead, Moreno and Linton, the language of role has grown to include an abundance of terms, many of them only vaguely defined and often overlapping in definition. (1) Nevertheless some terms, in being central to role theory, have become relatively stable in their definition and operationalisation. Those concepts that are central to the purpose of the present study are: role; role expectations; and role consensus. Each is taken in turn below.

Role - Neiman and Hughes (1951) delineated three main groupings of writings concerned with the concept of 'role'. These three groups included:

'(a) definitions which use role to describe the dynamic process of personality development;
(b) definitions in terms of society as a whole;
(c) definitions in terms of specific groups within a society.'

These categories paralleled the development of the use of role concepts in psychology, anthropology and sociology.

An example of the psychological orientation was provided by Cottrell (1942), who defined role as:

> 'an internally consistent series of conditional responses by one member of a social situation which represents the stimulus pattern for a similarly internally consistent series of conditioned responses of the other(s) in that situation.'

Turner (1962) also emphasised the psychological aspect of

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(1) See Biddle and Thomas (1966) for a more detailed discussion of the terms used in role theory.

role in his focus on the process of role taking. He endeavoured to effect a compromise between Mead's conception of role as a set of prescriptions inherent in a position, and Davis' view (1949) of role as the explicit behaviour of the occupant of a status. For Turner, role 'refers to a pattern which can be regarded as the consistent behaviour of a single type of actor.'

Anthropologists have generally shown concern for the structure of role theory and the continuity and coherence of role systems. For example, Nadel (1957) in his formalisation of role theory, suggested that relationships among people are usually consistent as a result of rules which determine the possible 'ways of acting'. These rules also determine the type of individual who can or must act in particular relationships. In other works, Nadel saw that individuals enact roles, and it is these roles (or an Nadel stated, 'relationships in virtue of roles') which make up the structure of society. In realising that the role concept is used not only by social scientists, but also by members of society, Nadel saw the value of recognising the attributes of role used by the social actors as cues to its other role properties.

Banton (1965), like Nadel, also attempted to categorise types of roles, but whereas Nadel's taxonomy was based mainly on the content of roles (i.e. the particular conduct they imply), Banton's classification was according to differentiation of roles:

> 'By role differentiation is meant the extent to which incumbency of one role is independent of incumbency of other roles'.

By this means, Banton distinguished three types of roles: basic roles; general roles; and, independent roles. Banton then proceeded to classify societies according to the independence and dependence of roles.

Other sociologists have applied the term role to specific groups within a society. There has however been some confusion over the delineation of status and role. For example, Young (1946), in the Linton tradition, implied a status oriented conception of role, when he defined it in terms of,

> 'the function or action of a person in a particular group, usually directed to some end, acceptable to other members of the group'.

In sociology, role theorists have invariably placed emphasis on structual rather than behavioural aspects of role. For example, Merton (1957) focussed on social statuses and social roles as the basis of this social structure. Merton's 'social status' involves not one associated role but an array of roles. The social structure is made up of numerous 'role-sets', but the problem facing societies, according to Merton, is to articulate the components of the various role-sets. A similar position was taken by social psychologist Bales (1962) who saw a status made up of a sub-set of roles, which are themselves in turn composed of norms. Thus, Bales defined role as,

> 'a part of a social position consisting of a more or less integrated sub-set of social norms which is distinguishable from other sets of norms forming the same position'.

Like Merton he saw potential conflict in the different structural qualities of roles.

An endeavour to retain the psychological aspect in dealing with the structure of social roles has been made by Parsons and Shils (1951), with whom Bales collaborated. In their terminology, every position consists of a role (denoting its obligations), and a status (refering to its rights). Parsons and Shils categorised the social system according to the content and organization of roles. In this way roles are segregated or fused into instrumental relations, expressive relations or integrative relations. Although Parsons and Shils suggested that consensus over the content of roles might be related to stability and integration of the system, and also to the commitment of individuals to particular roles, they tended to assume consensus.

Role Expectations - Role expectations have been defined as 'a set of systemic specifications for role-appropriate behaviour' (Preiss and Ehrlich, 1966). Preiss and Ehrlich classified the specifications into three categories. Firstly, they noted that some role expectations are concerned with the content, and others with evaluative standards. A similar

dichotomy drew attention to the predictive and evaluative elements of role expectations (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1957). Gross et al. noted that predictive elements have accorded far more attention than evaluative elements, probably because an expectation for role performance is seldom accompanied by an explicit statement of evaluative nature.

Secondly, Preiss and Ehrlich included within role expectations the temporal and spatial location of performance. Thirdly, they recognised that every system makes certain demands for conformity on its actors, although not all expectations need to be fulfilled either wholly or partially.

Role Consensus - Historically, consensus theory and conflict theory have been associated in attempts to explain human cooperation. Consensus theory has been associated with theories of organization, social structure and even equilibrium (Parsons, 1951), while conflict theory has been identified with deviance, social dynamics and disequilibrium. According to Horowitz,

> 'to discuss social structure is by definition not to examine conflict situations, and ... to examine conflict situations is to discuss something extraneous to social structure' (1962).

Consensus has often been assumed by writers, in that in order for social structure to exist with its network of roles, a certain amount of consensus must be present. According to this viewpoint, consensus precedes social structure and social roles. Park and Burgess (1921) even argued that social differentiation and specialisation require consensus, and that interdependence and cooperation are not social unless based on consensual like-mindedness.

After examining the various meanings of consensus, Scheff (1967) recognised two schools within consensus theory: the traditional approach and the interactionist approach. Writers in the traditional approach have included Riley, Riley and Toby (1952), Bales and Slater (1955), Gross, Mason and McEachern (1957), and E. Gross (1956), all of whom have completed empirical studies; while Morris (1956), Blake and Davis (1964), Gibbs (1965), Gross et al. (1957), and Parsons and Shils (1952) have contributed more formal discussions.

Consensus, according to the traditional approach, is taken to mean simply agreement in a group. Thus consensus with respect to statement X is the extent to which individuals state their agreement with X. Consensus in this way has been defined as 'a similarity of members' expectations' (Bales and Slater, 1955); and, 'as an accord between role behaviour and role expectations' (Gross et al., 1957). However such definitions do not define how much agreement is necessary before consensus is considered to be in existence. To this end, an increasing variety of mathematical techniques have been used to determine the actual degree of consensus (Gross et al., 1957; Bible and McComas, 1963; Preiss and Ehrlich, 1966).

According to Scheff (1967) the definition of consensus based on individual agreement has a major drawback in that, if it is postulated that consensus affects behaviour (the usual assumption), there is no scope for perceptions of agreement which may be independent of actual behaviour. Scheff argued that we need a measure of both.

The second approach to consensus theory, the interactionist approach, does in fact incorporate these two measures. Emphasis is given to the co-orientation of group members towards a statement, rather than the individual orientations of the members of a group (Dymond, 1949). The interactionist social psychologists have described communication and consensus as a collective process, rather than as an aggregate of individual processes. Other names have been given to this concept of consensus, e.g. 'mind-reading' (Mead, 1934); 'collective consciousness' (Dewey, 1922); and, 'background understandings' (Garfinkel, 1964). Essentially, consensus to the interactionists is 'nothing more or less than the existence on the part of two or more persons of similar orientations towards something' (Newcomb, 1955, 1959).

Moving away from consensus as the simple perception of the other's feelings, Schelling (1960) suggested higher order of co-orientation. If we call agreement the zero level of co-orientation, Schelling argued, then perception of the other's feelings ("we recognized that they recognized it") is the first-level of co-orientation; and perception of the other's perception

("we recognized that they recognized that we recognized it") is the second-level of co-orientation. This idea was operationalised by Laing, Phillipson and Lee (1966) who devised a shorthand notation for various forms of co-orientation, e.g. 'A' for agreement, 'M' for misunderstanding, etc.

The second approach to consensus poses difficulties, in that it is confined to consensus within small groups of people who perceive each other's orientation. Again there is the problem of measuring agreement with each of the 'others' (a somewhat laborious task) or with the 'generalised other' (where measurement is less accurate). It would seem that, conceptualisation (and operationalisation) of consensus is a topic of continuing debate.

Limitations of Role Theory

The concept 'role' is at present still rather vague, nebulous and non-definitive. Biddle and Thomas (1966) regard it as unfortunate that the field of role has come to be known as 'role theory', a term that implies the incorporation of grand theory complete with structured propositions. In fact findings incorporating role theory appear in three forms: as single hypothese; as sets of logically unrelated hypotheses on the same topic; and, as topically related hypotheses. In the past few years the number of hypotheses and empirical studies involving the concept of role has increased considerably, but compared with the wealth of theorizing on the process of the development of roles, the amount of research is still small.

The area of role theory, in being a relatively new field of inquiry, has yet to be universally recognised as a field of specialisation. However, although confusion is commonplace over the conceptualisation and operationalisation of many terms, there has been a progressive elaboration and refinement of the language.

There is, nevertheless, still the problem of the situational context of role behaviour. It would seem that the study of the role environment, its relationship to behaviour and vice versa has been largely neglected. Furthermore, the problem of 'the place of the person' in role analysis has not been resolved. By endeavouring to attain a level of abstraction capable of wide

application, role theory has often neglected the exclusive elements of particular social systems. Yet unless these various unique elements are included, the scope of role theory must remain at the level of broad generalisations. One means of including the exclusive elements of social systems within role theory has been the proposal to use role theory at both a general and specific level, with increased interest in the latter (Preiss and Ehrlich, 1966). This seems to be occuring in at least one field, that of role theory in relation to teaching, where teacher role behaviour has been researched for specific hypotheses not necessarily applicable to other occupational groups or population aggregates.

Thus, although role theory would seem to provide a unique opportunity for the spanning of several discipline boundaries, its application is currently limited by the ambiguity of its language, and the often elusive generality of its abstractions. For role theory to be acceptable as an area of specialisation there must be a redefining of terms, and also much testing of hypotheses at the specific as well as the general level. It is towards the goal of clarifying certain role concepts and establishing hypotheses with predictive power that this thesis is directed. In recognition of Preiss and Ehrlich's call for specific hypotheses involving the personal as well as the deterministic element, the research relates specifically to the teaching profession.

However, before considering empirical studies related to role theory, it is necessary to define the terms used in the present study.

Definition of Terms

There are certain terms which are basic to the proposed research, viz, expectation, role, role consensus and job satisfaction. In an effort to move towards a consolidation of role concepts, the present writer has chosen to use the terms: expectation, role and role consensus, as defined by Gross, Mason and McEachern (1957). Definitions of the terms are:

An expectation is an evaluative standard applied to an incumbent of a position.

A role is a set of expectations, or in the terms of the above definition of expectations, it is a set of evaluative standards applied to an incumbent of a particular position.

In defining role consensus this study also follows that of Gross et al. by incorporating statistical techniques.

Role consensus is taken as an empirical level of agreement among position incumbents by specific statistical techniques (these techniques are described in the methodology chapter).

Job satisfaction is the orientation of position incumbents to behaviours exchanged in their work role.

The following chapter is an endeavour to draw together some empirical studies related to role theory while being concerned more especially with the role of the teacher.

CHAPTER III

EMPIRICAL STUDIES RELATING TO ROLE THEORY

This chapter is intended to provide a review of role theory findings dealing more specifically with teacher role, and the relationship between consensus on teacher role expectations and job satisfaction. Various techniques for the measurement of teacher role expectations are also considered. By means of this review an endeavour will be made to provide a framework for the later integration of the methodology and findings of the current investigation.

The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section is concerned with teacher role, and a review of the measurement of teacher role expectations precedes a discussion of the findings of various studies. The second section deals with the relationship between consensus on teacher role expectations and job satisfaction.

Teacher Role

A school system may be regarded as a social system involving a set of inter-related roles that serve to organise the activities of members towards common goals (Owens, 1970). Within the system, the teaching and administration subsystems are separately identifiable and stand in a relationship of subordination and superordination respectively. Because both subsystems are in frequent interaction, each holds role expectations for the other. In this way their mutual behaviour is activated or sanctioned.

A consideration of the literature on teacher role reveals two separate orientations in research strategies: those involving teacher role expectations and those concerned with teacher role performance. It would appear that consensus on teacher role expectations could overlay much of the consensus on teacher role performance. Thus it would seem reasonable to suggest that the study of teacher role expectations could not only uncover areas of consensus on role expectations but also point to possible

consensus on role behaviour as well. (1) However, before considering studies investigating teacher role expectations a brief review of the techniques for measuring teacher role expectations is worthwhile.

The Measurement of Teacher Role Expectations - Presumably because of a lack of agreement over the definition of role expectations and the consequent lack of clarity of role concepts, a range of instruments has been used for the measurement of teacher role expectations. Many have been adapted from other fields but most have been developed by the researchers themselves. Items have been preselected variously: from content generalised from interviews of informants; from existing theory; or from observations of teacher behaviour. Often the instruments have involved Likert-type scaling techniques (e.g. Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1957), the semantic differential procedure (e.g. Smith, 1965), or the situational approach. Examples follow.

The now well established Leadership Opinion Questionnaire is an example of Likert-type scaling. It was initially developed for the description of leader behaviour in industry (Fleishman, 1957), and was subsequently used by Arkoff and Shears (1964) in an investigation of 'ideal leadership' among accepted and rejected leadership training candidates. The situational approach was employed by Sorenson, Husek and Yu (1963) in their Teacher Practices Questionnaire (TPQ). Each of the thirty problem situations contained a brief description of a student and his behaviour, and respondents were asked to rate four alternative teacher behaviours according to their judgment of its appropriateness. Other instruments using the situational approach have been those of Cook and Cook (1950) and Bidwell (1955).

An instrument designed to measure cross-cultural educational values, goals and procedures, as well as teacher expectations, was developed by Adams, Biddle, Campbell, Holmes, Green, Fraser et

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(1) For a more general view of the field see Biddle (1969).

al. (1970) in the Missouri Comparative Study of Teacher Role. The questionnaire used a series of Likert-type scales. For the study, teachers in Britain, America, Australia and New Zealand were asked to indicate various aspects of their teacher-role, viz:

(a) emphases given to specified teaching practices.
(b) attitudes toward various kinds of non-teaching educational responsibilities and restrictions.
(c) frequency of involvement in activities with other persons and groups, and relationships with them.
(d) career information.
(e) attitudes towards specified controversial and semi-controversial issues in education.

The Missouri study involved a sample of some 12,000 teachers and Head Teachers.

It would appear that teacher role expectations are currently being investigated not only through a variety of techniques but also by using large samples which can be compared cross-culturally. In fact, a large proportion of the research on teacher role expectations has been concerned with the general teacher, although some workers have investigated specialist roles, for example, guidance counsellors (Dunlop, 1965; Warman, 1960; Watley, 1965) and administrators (Bidwell, 1955; Manwiller, 1958). Characteristically, research has been directed towards expectations held for the teacher role by a variety of position incumbents, including parents, school board members and teachers themselves. There are, however, somewhat different categorisations of teacher role expectations emerging from these research studies. Some of the findings reveal this.

Studies of Teacher Role Expectations - From a study of teacher role perception (Fishburn, 1962), it was concluded that six relatively separate and distinct teacher roles could be identified. These roles were: mediator of the culture; member of the school community; director of learning; guide and counsellor; link between school and community; and member of a profession. Fishburn concluded that although the six roles were perceived by teachers and administrators in the order of importance above, in four of the six roles, teachers and

administrators held significantly different expectations. Fishburn also noted that no single factor explained all the differences in perception of the teacher's role between teachers and administrators.

Similarly Sorenson, Husek and Yu (1963) found that although they could identify the six teacher roles of: advisor, counsellor, disciplinarian, information giver, motivator and referrer, individual teachers differed in their tendency to take one or more roles. The phenomenon of greater agreement upon general roles than upon ways of fulfilling these roles was also reported by Getzels and Guba (1955), Colombotos (1963) and Lacognata (1965).

A further study of teacher role expectations (Adams et al., 1970) recorded respondent's order of preference for specified teaching performances. The mean rank order reported was, an emphasis on: (i) understanding, (ii) subject-matter, (iii) teacher-pupil discussion, (iv) personal relations, (v) prescriptive rules, (vi) control and discipline, (vii) teacher rules, (viii) performance and practice, (ix) free communication, (x) teacher and pupil rules, (xi) facts differentiated work groups, (xii) undifferentiated class, (xiii) teacher lectures, (xiv) rewards, instrinsic motives, (xv) undifferentiated groups, (xvi) proscriptive rules, (xvii) pupil rules, (xviii) punishments, (xix) and permissive rules. Adams summarised the ideal-typical teacher's perception of himself as:

> 'a considerate and socially sensitive person seeing as his prime task the mediating of subject matter to pupils in such a way that they understand it, and doing so under benign and controlled conditions.'

While there would appear to be differences in the emphasis on teacher role expectations held by the teachers themselves, even further diversity is provided by non-teachers. For example, high-school students expected their teachers to be somewhat authoritarian (Brookover, 1943), and a number of non-teacher groups expected high-school teachers to be active, aggressive and socially forceful (Smith, 1965). Several researchers have investigated parental expectations of the teacher role and noted that teachers were expected to be somewhat conservative, conforming and moral (Biddle, Rosencranz

and Rankin, 1961; Musgrove and Taylor, 1966).

Over all however there is a lack of agreement on even a minimal list of teacher role expectations (Adams, 1970). Not only do the teachers hold differing expectations of their role, but so also do various non-teaching groups. No doubt this explains why consensus studies have developed. They represent an attempt to measure the degree of differential expectation. Consensus studies have also attempted to relate consensus on role expectations to such system properties as social integration (Gross, 1956; Monk and Newcomb, 1956; Stryker, 1962), social structure (Bales and Slater, 1955) and job satisfaction (Newcomb, 1956, 1961; Hoffman, 1958). Within the teaching profession, several studies have in fact related role consensus more specifically to teacher job satisfaction. A consideration of these findings is worthwhile for, in obtaining only partial support for any association between role consensus and job satisfaction, the need for further research is indicated.

Teacher Role Consensus and Job Satisfaction

Prediction of teacher behaviour will be undertain when various role defining groups differ over their expectations of teacher role. For example, when the teachers and the administrator differ in their expectations for the teacher's role, the teachers will be unsure of administrator support and the administrator will be unable to predict teacher behaviour accurately. Such a lack of consensus can conceivably lead to expressions of dissatisfaction with the situation for which the expectations are held.

Support has been obtained for the proposition that consensus among system members holding the same position (e.g. teachers) is related to job satisfaction (Bidwell, 1955, 1957; Bible and McComas, 1963), but that there may be little or no relationship between consensus among system members of different positions and their job satisfaction (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1957). While Gross et al. found that the greater the consensus among school board members the greater was their job satisfaction, they did not find any such relationship between consensus between the superintendent and school board members and their job

satisfaction.

It must be noted however that the research of Gross et al. concerned consensus within a school board and between members of a school board and its superintendent. Gross et al. argued that to a certain extent the majority of the board members must agree with one another before the board can implement any plans. The functioning of the board and presumably the board members' job satisfaction, is directly contingent on its members' ability to reach some consensus with one another. This condition (according to Gross et al.) did not exist between the superintendent and the board, for they could continue to disagree with one another while performing their functions independently.

Where two positions are more closely related than those of the school board and the superintendent, there may however be a greater dependence on role consensus between the two groups for the job satisfaction of both. For example, a Head Teacher and the teachers in his school, collectively working towards similar organizational goals, presumably need to attain at least a minimal level of role consensus for the cohesion of the educational system (see also the study of Sorenson, Husek and Yu, 1963, relating teacher and student expectations and job satisfaction). Consensus between a Head Teacher and the teachers on his staff may well allow for a greater degree of job satisfaction.

The following chapter sets out a theoretical model for investigating the relationship between role consensus among incumbents of the positions Head Teacher and teacher and their job satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV

THEORETICAL BASIS

The preceding chapters established role theory and job satisfaction as central foci in the present study. They noted that most of the research on job satisfaction has been completed within industrial organizations, and that generalisations to other behavioural situations may not be well founded. Similarly, with role theory, the links between conceptualisation and operationalisation have not been fully rationalised.

The present chapter attempts to establish the theoretical basis on which the study rests. In particular it defines the problem to be investigated and specifies the theoretical limits within which it operates. It is contended that system cohesion and breakdown can be explained in terms of member satisfaction with the social exchange behaviour manifested within the system. Where a system member expects a particular exchange and receives it, satisfaction is likely to occur. Assuming that this satisfaction is exhibited within the system, then job satisfaction follows, and is in turn followed by system cohesion. Thus, an examination of the relationship between expectations of social exchange and job satisfaction might well allow for predictions concerning system cohesion. Accordingly a discussion of social exchange theories follows.

Social Exchange Theory

Before an attempt is made to adopt social exchange theory as the theoretical framework for job satisfaction, two points about the concept's history and its explanatory scope are worth noting. (1)

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(1) The author is indebted to Halliday and Adams (1971) for part of the following resume of the history of contract and exchange theory.

First, social exchange is a derivative of social contract. Social contract in its turn has a long history in the western intellectual tradition. First appearing in the writings of early political theorists it was aligned with matters of jurisdiction, where the contention was advanced that for their own security and self-interest men entered into a form of contract. Consequently much of the initial argument centred around the right to succeed or withdraw from the contract or specifically the jurisdiction of the governors. For example, feudalism was seen as a contractual relation between the king (or lord) and his vassals. Later, social contract arguments were used in disputes over the authority of the popes and the obligations of the people to the church (e.g. Investitute Contest, the Conciliar debates, the Reformation and Counter-Reformation).

With the onset of the Enlightment, social contract was related to natural law. For example, Rousseau, Hobbes and Locke insisted that when society originated in a contract (explicit or tacit), each individual, in consenting, removed himself from the 'state of nature'. In this way government, with a legal system characterised by impartially administered justice, was established.

A second, and related, point worth noting about social contract theory is that it has been developed not only to explain the behaviour of small groups (the lord and his vassals), but also the establishment of political institutions and international relations. In this way, social contract theory has sought to explain at both the micro and macro sociological levels.

Contemporary Social Exchange Theory

In the last two decades, interest in social exchange has increased, with Homans (1954), and Foa and Foa (1969) using the theory in the social psychological sense, and Blau (1967) and Adams (1971) treating it sociologically. Each of their positions is briefly treated below.

Homans (1954) sees exchange largely in the terms of behavioural psychology and elementary economics. He considers

'interaction between persons as an exchange of goods, material and non-material'. He emphasises the effects of the exchange discussing them in terms of reinforcement and punishment, and notes that 'both may be measured in value and quantity in essentially the same way'. Quantity and value are seen as the main variables of interaction, and several propositions are elaborated to incorporate this:

> '1. If in the past the occurrence of a particular stimulus-situation has been the occasion on which a man's activity has been rewarded, then the more similar the present stimulus-situation is to the past one, the more likely he is to emit the activity, or some similar activity, now.
>
> 2. The more often within a given period of time a man's activity rewards the activity of another, the more often the other will emit the activity.
>
> 3. The more valuable to a man a unit of the activity another gives him, the more often he will emit activity rewarded by the activity of the other.'

From this basis, Homans derives the following two principles of social control and social structure.

> '4. The more often a man has in the recent past received a rewarding activity from another, the less valuable any further unit of that activity becomes to him.
>
> 5. The more to a man's disadvantage the rule of distributive justice fails of realization, the more likely he is to display the emotional behaviour we call anger.'

Blau (1967) employs a variety of definitions of social exchange. The one most typical of his orientation refers to social exchange as,

> 'voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from other.'

In concerning himself more with the structure of social association than the structure of social action, Blau concentrates on the way in which social exchange gives rise to differentiations of power, and the manner in which unreciprocated behaviour is a form of social control. Blau differentiates between extrinsic rewards ('detachable from the source that supplies them') and intrinsic rewards (subjective gratifications), and shows how processes of social attraction (namely social rewards) lead to processes of social

exchange and differentiations of power.

Both Homans and Blau have seen social exchange as distinct from economic exchange, in that, of the two types of exchange, only social exchange entails unspecified obligations, such as gratitude and trust. Nevertheless both writers maintain that the systematic study of social behaviour and the assumptions it makes about the maximisation of rewards, is little different from the approach used by the economist.

By extending the social exchange model of Homans (1954), and incorporating the studies of Blau (1967) and Thibaut and Kelly (1959), Foa and Foa (1969) adopt a social psychological perspective and endeavour to bring together the 'artificial' dichotomies of social and economic exchanges and 'interpret all social behaviour within a unified framework'. At the same time, they attempt to clarify the nature of the resources exchanged and the behaviours dealing with these resources (i.e. the modes of exchange).

Foa initially classified resources under two headings only - love and status (1966). Subsequently Foa and Foa added four others - information, services, material goods, and money. These six classes of resources are ordered on the two dimensions of Parsons (1951): particularism (going from the most personal to the most impersonal or universal), and concreteness ('going from the concrete to the symbolic'). Foa and Foa suggest four possible ways of contributing to an exchange, giving and taking, either to or from self, or to or from other.

An attempt to synthesise the various historical and social psychological forms of social exchange theory, has recently been made at the sociological level by Adams (1971). His model, which purports to explain the incidence of group disintegration, centres on three types of interpersonal exchange - exchange of status, affect and utility. Each of these concepts can be traced to earlier works. Status and affect have been used explicitly by Foa and Foa (1969), and status and (in effect) utility by Homans (1954), while Parsons (1951) has explained the content of roles in terms of a tripartite system of instrumental, expressive and integrative behaviours. However, Adams' focus on the condition of the

group rather than the individual in it, extends the use of the concepts to some extent. It therefore provides a convenient basis for the model developed here.

Theoretical Model

Following Adams, social exchange can be viewed as an exchange of behaviour between two or more persons. The exchange may include status behaviour, affect behaviour and utility behaviour.

Within a social exchange there are several general modes of exchange involving giving and taking away behaviours. A giving mode of exchange is defined as the presenting of a behaviour to self or other; while a taking away mode of exchange is the denying of a behaviour to self or other.

Following Foa, in any social situation at least two social objects are present (self and other), so that there arises the possibility of four classes of exchange behaviours occurring:

1. giving to other;
2. giving to self;
3. taking away from self;
4. taking away from other.

While the giving of status, affect and utility may be selfexplanatory, taking away from other may involve the showing of disrespect (taking away status), the showing of hostility or hatred (taking away affect), or the denying of goods and services (taking away utility). Similarly taking away from self involves self-denigration, self-punishment, or self-denial.

By combining the form of behaviour and the general modes of exchange, we can now classify the types of social exchange behaviour as: (2)

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(2) The following section is an extended paraphrase of an unpublished document by R.S. Adams, Massey University, 1971.

(a) status behaviour is the giving or denying of respect or deference to self or other.

(b) affect behaviour is the giving or denying of emotional support to self or other.

(c) utility behaviour is the giving or denying of goods or services to self or other.

However, according to Adams, these behaviours are subject to situational variation. Among cultures, within organizations and within specific settings, behaviours indicative of status, affect and utility exchange may be substantially different. Furthermore, while one situation may operationalise status behaviour at the verbal level, another may couch it in non-verbal terms. There are in fact many specific modes of exchange that can be identified. For example, at the non-verbal level even proximity may be indicative of statusing behaviour - the seating arrangement of speakers at a conference table has long been a case in point. Similarly facial expressions and gestures may indicate affect. Again, tone of voice may be quite utilitarian, for example, singers and announcers depend on it. Other specific modes of exchange, indicating status, affect and utility behaviour, are evidenced in physical participation, bodily contact, and the use of vocabulary.

As well as taking various modes in specific situations, status, affect and utility behaviour can be discerned in varying degrees. Thus, while in one situation, for example, status may be at a high level and affect and utility practically non-existent, in another, affect may be the dominant behaviour with status and utility behaviour being at a relatively low level. There are eight logical permutations of this high-low distinction. Of these patterns, three, where status, affect and utility dominate respectively, can be regarded as polar types. Each in turn represents conditions where there is:

(a) an exchange of esteem with little or no affect or utility, for example, in an exchange between a superior and subordinate in a political organization;

(b) an exchange of emotion with little or no status or utility, for example, in an 'affair of the heart';

(c) an exchange of goods or services with little or no status

or affect, for example, in an exchange between buyer and seller.

Alternatively some systems may have a (predominantly) dual orientation, in that two of the behaviours are significantly evident with the third being at a minimal level. The royal family has a dual orientation towards status and affect behaviour; while certain women's groups may show a dual orientation towards either affect and utility (homemaking clubs) or towards status and utility (fashion clubs).

Role Expectations - Whatever the orientation of any social system may be, it is nonetheless dependent upon the role behaviours of system members. Role behaviour usually refers to 'what people actually do', or rather, what is observable. Conversely, role expectations can be regarded as anticipations or 'a set of ideas in someone's mind' (Adams, 1970). Adams has endeavoured to further clarify the distinction between role behaviour and role expectation by noting that expectations are held about behaviours, and are held by many people. Thus in any social system, expectations for the behaviour of other system members are held by each member. Position incumbents will, however, often hold varying expectations for the behaviour of others, because expectations are largely dependent upon the positions held by the system members. Thus in an investigation of role expectations it is necessary to specify both the subject population and the object population. It is also necessary to consider the inter-relationship of the position incumbents, for,

> 'no one position has any meaning apart from the other positions to which it is related ' (Newcomb, 1951).

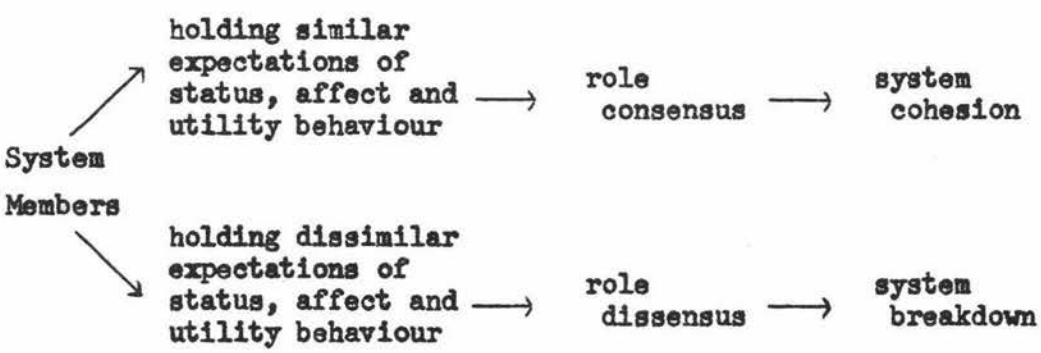
The effect of the inter-relationship of position incumbents in the form of consensus, or lack of consensus, in role expectations may be seen in the level of system cohesion. Where the expectations of the members are similar, system cohesion may be anticipated. Conversely, discrepancy between the expectations of the members of the system may be associated with incipient or actual system disintegration. The greater the discrepancy between what the various members of a social system expect to get in the form of status, affect and utility behaviour (and what they are required to give) and

what they actually get (and what they expected to be required to give) then the greater the likelihood of system disintegration.

Rationalisation of the Model - The preceding discussion advanced status, affect and utility behaviours as social exchange components in social systems, so that the behaviour manifested in any social system is seen in terms of any, or all three, of these forms of social exchange. Because the amount and proportion of status, affect and utility behaviour is assumed to vary, social systems are seen as having orientations towards a predominant pattern of behaviour. The expectations of system members for social exchange are viewed as being instrumental in the survival of the system in that differences in the expectations held by the system members may result in a lack of role consensus and, consequently, system disintegration. Figure 4.1. presents the implied model diagrammatically and illustrates the possible effects within a social system of similar and dissimilar role expectations.

Figure 4.1.

Theoretical Model of Predicted Relationships



Job Satisfaction and System Cohesion - Various criteria have been employed in the measurement of system cohesion. For example, Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) recorded: (i) the number of friendly comments; (ii) statements expressing discontent; and, (iii) group-minded remarks. Other researchers (Dimock, 1937; Festinger, Schacter and Back, 1950) have investigated the comparative number of friendship ties existing among the members within different groups. Others again have measured system cohesion according to the degree to which members share the same norms about how one should behave or what one

should believe (Coch and French, 1948). One attempt was even made to measure system cohesion by means of picture projective tests (Libo, 1953).

System cohesion has also been measured in terms of the attractiveness of the system to its members (French, 1941; Festinger, 1950; Deutscher and Deutscher, 1955; Pepitone and Kleiner, 1957). Two other behavioural indicators used have been absenteeism and turnover (Mann and Baumgartel, 1952).

It would seem that the rewarding of system members is one means of holding members in an organization and maintaining a satisfactory type of role performance, particularly if there is freedom to move in and out of the organization. A social system's cohesion and survival is dependent on the nature and type of provisions made for institutionalising rewards. One possible form of reward can be seen as the credit arising from the status, affect and utility within the system. Because the amount and nature of the credit depend on the expectations held by the system members, either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the exchange may be the result. Where any system member expects a particular status, affect and utility reward and receives it, job satisfaction is likely to occur. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction may thereupon be displaced into the system. Given transference of the dissatisfaction to the situation itself, then job satisfaction follows. In turn system breakdown follows from job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction can thus be taken as an index of system cohesion.

The present study uses job satisfaction as a measure of system cohesion and the degree to which system members share a norm of job satisfaction is taken to be indicative of the level of system cohesion.

The efficiency of any measure of job satisfaction rests on the scope and range of its items in tapping the domain. Therefore criteria need to be established in order to justify the selection of specific items. Reference to other research studies reveals the frequent lack of such criteria (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1957). Some scales have simply listed a large number of items although results have later been dimensionalised through factor analysis. For example, the

Survey Research Center Studies (Katz, Maccoby and Morse, 1950; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor, 1951; Morse, 1953) derived four dimensions in this way. They were: intrinsic job satisfaction, financial and job status satisfaction, company involvement, and pride in group performance. More recently, a Job Description Index compiled by Smith and her associates (Smith, 1963; Hulin, Smith, Kendall and Locke, 1963; Macaulay, Smith, Locke, Kendall and Hulin, 1963; Kendall, Smith, Hulin and Locke, 1963; Locke, Smith, Hulin and Kendall, 1963; Smith and Kendall, 1963; Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969) included the five dimensions of: type of work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and people on the job. Again there were apparently intuitive categories, which were later dimensionalised through factor analysis.

The present study incorporates its conceptualisation of job satisfaction within social exchange theory. In doing so, it attempts to relate the research findings to a wider theoretical framework. Social exchange theory provides dimensions for behaviours over which job satisfaction may or may not be experienced. Job satisfaction is in this way considered to be the attitude of system members to the behaviours occuring within the system. Two components of job satisfaction can be identified; firstly, a valence towards 'something', and secondly, the specification of the content of that 'something'. For example, an employee might express considerable negative valence specifically towards the repetitive nature of his job. A job satisfaction scale, if it is to be relatively comprehensive, must therefore incorporate a measurement of the degree of valence as well as the content of this concern.

The implication of the argument presented so far is that, if system cohesion is dependent upon job satisfaction and if job satisfaction is related to the expectations about the exchange of status, affect and utility, then an investigation that measures job satisfaction and expectations separately should be able to demonstrate the relationship. The present study takes this implication seriously and examines the relationship between measures of job satisfaction and measures of expectations for the exchange of status, affect and utility.

Two major hypotheses are central to the investigation. They are:

Hypothesis 1. - Job satisfaction among teachers is a function of role consensus between the Head Teacher and teachers on expectations of teacher behaviour - the greater the consensus, the greater the job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. - Job satisfaction among teachers is a function of role consensus between the Head Teacher and teachers on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour - the greater the consensus, the greater the job satisfaction.

Personal Variables

Precedent exists for also predicting an association between a number of personal variables and job satisfaction. Such variables are: position held by respondent, his qualifications, years of teaching experience, marital status, age and sex. These variables were considered to be of peripheral interest to the present study and were included only as minor hypotheses. As such, their inclusion was an attempt to allow for subsequent comparison with other research findings. The five minor hypotheses are set out below.

One of the most frequently studied correlations of job satisfaction is job level. A positive relationship between the level or status of the worker's job and his job satisfaction has been reported by a large number of investigators (Uhrbrock, 1934; Hoppock, 1935; Thorndike, 1935; Super, 1939; Miller, 1941; Paterson and Stone, 1942; Heron, 1948; Centers, 1948; Katz, 1949; Mann, 1953; Morse, 1953; Gurin, Veroff and Feld, 1960; Kornhauser, 1964). Gurin, Veroff and Feld, using a national sample, noted substantial differences between the level of satisfaction reported by persons in different occupational categories. Forty-two per cent of persons employed in professional technical occupations reported that they were very satisfied with their jobs as compared with only thirteen per cent of the workers in the unskilled category.

It would seem reasonable to anticipate that similar effects would be discernible in the teaching profession and that the higher the level reached in the profession the greater the job

satisfaction. The following hypothesis is therefore presented:
Hypothesis 3. - Job satisfaction among teachers is a function of the level of position held - the higher the position, the greater the job satisfaction.

It is often asserted that an individual derives satisfaction from jobs which permit him to use his skills and experience. This assertion is backed up by the findings of Burgess and Cottrell (1939), Arsenian (1943), and Herzberg (1957), in that the more experienced people become in their work or the longer they have to 'fit' the job, the higher their job satisfaction. The first hypothesis is also in agreement with Reynold's finding (1951) that unskilled workers change jobs more frequently than semi-skilled workers, who in turn change jobs more frequently than skilled workers. An assumption here was that job turnover can be used as a level of job satisfaction, so that those with the least skill were seen as the most dissatisfied.

It might be anticipated then that teachers with higher qualifications in a profession where they are able to use their abilities, and teachers with the most experience in the teaching profession, and presumably the greatest competence, will be the most job satisfied. The following hypotheses are therefore advanced:

Hypothesis 4. - Job satisfaction among teachers is a function of the level of qualifications held - the higher the qualifications, the greater the job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5. - Job satisfaction among teachers is a function of the length of teaching experience - the greater the length of teaching experience, the greater the job satisfaction.

Some evidence exists to indicate that there is a correlation between the age, marital status and sex of a teacher and his job satisfaction (Colombotos, 1964; Fraser, 1967). Presumably older teachers have in fact remained in the profession because of job satisfaction. The following hypotheses are therefore advanced:

Hypothesis 6. - Job satisfaction among teachers is a function of age - the older the teacher, the greater his job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7. - Married teachers will experience greater job satisfaction than single teachers.

Hypothesis 8. - Female teachers will experience greater job satisfaction than male teachers.

The operationalisation of the theoretical model, the methods of data collection and analysis are detailed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY AND SCOPE

This chapter describes the methods used in the study and its scope. Section I sets out the procedures employed for measuring role consensus, while Section II elaborates the methods used for measuring job satisfaction. Section III discusses the pilot study, and Section IV details several personal variables also to be included in the analysis. In Section V the manner of data collection is detailed. Section VI describes the reliability and validity of the scales, while Section VII details the sample characteristics. Finally, Section VIII sets out the methods of data analysis.

Role Consensus Questionnaire for Teachers (1)

The theoretical basis established that social exchange can be seen in terms of status, affect and utility behaviours. Accordingly, operationalisation of role expectations held for teacher and Head Teacher behaviour incorporates statements relating to expectations of status, affect and utility behaviours held by incumbents of the separate positions. In turn, a measure of consensus can be obtained by matching the expectations that teachers hold for their own behaviour with the expectations that the Head Teacher has for the behaviour of teachers on his staff. The rationale for the inclusion of the Head Teacher's general expectations of his staff's behaviour rather than his expectation of individual teacher's behaviour was based on the assumption that most Head Teachers find it necessary to consider their staff as a group and have few opportunities to relate to individual teachers.

Content of the role consensus questionnaire needed to be: (i) consistent with the theoretical framework; and, (ii) relevant to the respondent's situation. The draft role consensus questionnaire was subjected to the scrutiny of ten

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(1) A copy of the role consensus questionnaire is included in Appendix I.

teachers who represented a cross-section of positions held in the teaching profession. They were asked to comment on the questionnaire's wording and relevance to the teaching profession. Subsequent modifications were made.

The questionnaire included a series of six 'situations' describing episodes which could have occurred at the respondent's school. Essentially, each situation was oriented towards one of the three forms of social exchange: two situations dealt with each of the status, affect and utility behaviours. The situations were concerned with: a new system of school time-tabling, and a new system of examination (status); commending pupil achievement, and modifying staff-pupil relations (affect); and, a new method of teaching, and a new topic introduced into a particular subject area (utility).

All six situations were future oriented in that each involved a proposal being put forward to the staff for possible future implementation. This future orientation was an endeavour to ensure that the respondent would see the situation as likely to occur in his own school and thus make the exercise somewhat more realistic.

The six situations involved conflict which, theoretically, could arise within any school staff. Conflict situations were chosen in order to facilitate as wide a display of behaviour as possible. In all of the situations counter-proposals were put forward by the Head Teacher and a staff member. However, the questionnaire assured the respondent that both proposals seemed equally reasonable. In three of the situations the teacher respondent was described as seeing the staff member's proposal as being more useful to him. In the other three situations the teacher respondent was described as seeing the Head Teacher's proposal as being more useful to the former.

The situations were controlled for status, affect and utility behaviours. Each had a status element: the difference in the position of teacher and Head Teacher implied a difference in status; an element of affect: the respondent, other staff members and the Head Teacher were each described as being in favour of a proposal; and an element of utility: the respondent was described as feeling that one proposal was more useful to

him than the other.

The actual situations were:

(1) 'Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by the Head Teacher to introduce a new system of school timetabling. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the Head Teacher's proposal as being useful to him, the staff's proposal seems more useful to you personally.'

(2) 'Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member to introduce a new system of examination. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but the Head Teacher puts forward a counter proposal. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the staff's proposal as being useful to them, the Head Teacher's proposal seems more useful to you personally.'

(3) 'Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by the Head Teacher for commending pupil achievement. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the Head Teacher's proposal as being useful to him, the staff's proposal seems more useful to you personally.'

(4) 'Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member for modifying staff-pupil relations. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but the Head Teacher puts forward a counter proposal. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the staff's proposal as being useful to them, the Head Teacher's proposal seems more useful to you personally.'

(5) 'Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by the Head Teacher to introduce a new method of teaching into a particular subject area, with which you are concerned. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the Head Teacher's proposal as being useful to him, the staff's proposal seems more useful to you personally.'

(6) 'Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member that a new topic be introduced into a particular subject area, with which you are concerned. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but the Head Teacher puts forward a counter proposal. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the staff's proposal as being useful to them, the Head Teacher's proposal seems more useful to you personally.'

Following the description of each of the six situations, the questionnaire included two sets of six questions: the first set to establish the teacher respondent's expectations for his own behaviour; and the second set to establish the teacher respondent's expectations for the Head Teacher's behaviour. The degree of role consensus was subsequently established by matching the responses of teachers with those of their Head Teacher on the corresponding set of questions.

The six items within each of the two sets of questions were again operationalised according to the social exchange model of status, affect and utility behaviours. Within the status dimension questions were asked as to whether the respondent favoured majority rule or the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school; within the affect dimension questions were asked as to whether the respondent would express sympathy towards the staff or the Head Teacher; and within the utility dimension questions were asked as to whether the respondent would indicate the usefulness of the staff's proposal or the Head Teacher's proposal.

All behaviours were operationalised in the 'giving to' mode, with the positions of Head Teacher and staff being the referent. Thus status, affect and utility were described as being <u>given to</u> the Head Teacher and the staff, e.g. teacher respondents were asked as to the likelihood of their indicating sympathy <u>towards</u> the staff or sympathy <u>towards</u> the Head Teacher.

The questions were randomised in relation to status, affect and utility behaviour. The set of questions relating to teacher expectations for their own behaviour was:

'In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning ..., <u>how likely would you be to indicate</u>:

1. sympathy towards the staff's position [affect]
2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher [utility]
3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position [affect]
4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself [utility]
5. your views in favour of majority rule [status]
6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school [status]'

Responses to these questions were given according to a seven point Likert-type scale of: extremely likely; very likely;

likely; neither likely nor unlikely; unlikely; very unlikely; extremely unlikely.

The set of questions relating to teacher expectations of Head Teacher behaviour was:

'Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

1. sympathy towards the staff's position [affect]
2. the usefulness of this own proposal to himself [utility]
3. his personal preference for his own proposal [affect]
4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them [utility]
5. the principle of majority rule [status]
6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school [status] '

Responses to these questions were given according to a seven point Likert-type scale of: extremely appropriate; very appropriate; appropriate; neither appropriate nor inappropriate; inappropriate; very inappropriate; extremely inappropriate.

Role Consensus Questionnaire for Head Teachers (2)

The questions in the Head Teacher questionnaire were modified slightly in view of the different position held by the Head Teacher. The most significant adaptation was that, following the section asking for expectations of their own behaviour, the Head Teacher respondents were asked for their expectations of staff members' behaviour. The referent of the expected behaviour in each of the questions was adjusted accordingly.

The questions asked in the Head Teacher questionnaire were:

'In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning ... how likely would you be to indicate:

1. sympathy towards the staff [affect]
2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself [utility]
3. a personal preference for your own proposal [affect]
4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them [utility]
5. the principle of majority rule [status]
6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school [status]

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

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(2) A copy of the role consensus questionnaire is included in Appendix I.

1. sympathy towards the staff [affect]
2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself [utility]
3. sympathy towards you [affect]
4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them [utility]
5. the principle of majority rule [status]
6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school [status] '

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire for Teachers (3)

Given the theoretical inadequacy of existing scales, the initial task was to construct a job satisfaction scale that operationalised the theoretical model. Job satisfaction was taken to be, 'the orientation of position incumbents to behaviours exchanged in their work role'. Three forms of behaviour exchange were conceptualised: status, affect and utility. They were respectively, the giving or denying of respect or deference (to self or other); the giving or denying of emotional support (to self or other); and, the giving or denying of goods or services (to self or other).

Content of the items in the job satisfaction questionnaire was generated with reference to the status, affect and utility exchanged within the educational system. Thus, teacher respondents were asked about their level of job satisfaction with specified status, affect and utility behaviours given to them by members of their work role set. Each item made reference to one of the following: pupils, parents, the general public, the Education Board, advisory services, colleagues, senior staff, ancillary staff, related organizations and training organizations. Equal weighting was given to status, affect and utility behaviours, so that in the scale of thirty items, there were ten items for each dimension. Each item carried equal weighting, and was selected on the basis of: (i) its consistency with the theoretical framework; and, (ii) its relevance to the respondent's situation.

Subsequent to the initial generation of items, attempts were made to eliminate any inherent ambiguities and possible sources of confusion. As with the role consensus questionnaire

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(3) A copy of the job satisfaction questionnaire is included in Appendix I.

the draft job satisfaction questionnaire was given to ten teachers, and as a result of interviews in which responses to each question were discussed, subsequent modifications were made.

The resulting thirty items were considered to be representative of the status, affect and utility behaviours occurring within the educational system, and respondents were asked about their level of satisfaction with each item. Thus in the questions relating to the status dimension, teachers were asked about their job satisfaction in relation to the respect and responsibility given to them. The items measuring status job satisfaction were:

'How would you rate your usual level of satisfactions with these aspects of your present job:

1. prospects for promotion
2. amount of responsibility you are given
3. respect you are given by the pupils
4. respect you are given by colleagues
5. status you are given by the general public
6. respect you are given by people who benefit indirectly from your work (e.g. parents)
7. the freedom you are given within your school to choose <u>what</u> you will teach
8. the freedom you are given within your school to choose <u>how</u> you will teach
9. opportunities you are given to participate in making decisions on the running of the school
10. opportunities you have to participate in the affairs of the teaching profession.'

Questions concerning affect behaviour endeavoured to determine teacher satisfaction with their personal relations with various members of the role set. The items measuring affect job satisfaction were:

'How would you rate your usual level of satisfactions with these aspects of your present job:

1. your personal relations with the pupils in your class
2. your personal relations with the people who benefit indirectly from your work (e.g. parents)
3. your personal relations with colleagues
4. your personal relations with ancillary staff (e.g. secretary, caretaker)
5. your personal relations with the general public in your role as a teacher
6. your personal relations with school administrators (e.g. Head Teacher, First Assistant)
7. your personal relations with 'system' administrators (Education Board, Inspectorate)

8. your personal relations with personnel in other service organizations (e.g. Child Welfare, Psychological Service)
9. your personal relations with personnel in training organizations that serve your occupation (e.g. Teachers' College)
10. your personal relations with personnel in similar organizations (e.g. primary schools, secondary schools) '

In relation to utility behaviours exchanged within the educational system, questions were asked as to the behaviours exchanged in the form of facilities or remuneration. It would seem that while status and affect behaviours have essentially intangible aspects, utility behaviours are, on the whole, tangible and measureable, e.g. the provision of equipment. The utility exchange of information or the cooperation of fellow-teachers is however as abstract as a status or affect exchange. The items measuring utility job satisfaction were:

'How would you rate your usual level of satisfactions with these aspects of your present job:

1. salary
2. superannuation
3. physical conditions (e.g. general environment, facilities, etc.)
4. provision of equipment
5. provision of ancillary staff (secretaries and aides)
6. cooperation given you by colleagues
7. in-service training
8. the supervision and guidance given you by more senior staff
9. holidays
10 assistance given by advisory services (e.g. reading advisors, etc.) '

It will be noted that teacher job satisfaction was recognised as a response to behaviours shown towards a teacher. Each of the questions relating to the status, affect and utility behaviours exhibited was in terms of investigating teacher satisfaction with behaviours given to him by other members of the educational organization. The job satisfaction scale was concerned with the attitude of the teacher towards the 'respect you (the teacher) are given by ...' and the 'assistance given by ...'

It was presumed that many less experienced teachers would have taught only in their present school and have no comparative basis on which to make an assessment of teaching as a profession.

In view of this, teachers were asked to make their judgements 'on the basis of their most recent experience', and to assume their 'usual level of satisfactions with these aspects of your present job'. Thus the job satisfaction scale served to assess satisfaction with the current teaching position held by teachers and not teaching as a profession.

Respondents were asked to make their response according to a five point Likert-type scale, measuring the level of satisfaction in the gradations of: very satisfactory; satisfactory; neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory; unsatisfactory; very unsatisfactory.

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire for Head Teachers (4)

In recognition of the slightly different role set of the Head Teacher, a modified form of the questionnaire was designed for these respondents. In the status job satisfaction scale, the questions concerning the Head Teacher's leadership position were modified. Thus:

'the freedom you are given within your school to choose what you will teach',
'the freedom you are given within your school to choose how you will teach', and
'opportunities you are given to participate in making decisions on the running of the school',

became,

'the freedom you are given to choose what will be taught in your school',
'the freedom you are given to choose teaching methods used in your school', and
'the freedom you are given in the administration of your school'.

In the affect job satisfaction scale, questions relating to:

'your personal relations with pupils in your class',
'your personal relations with colleagues', and
'your personal relations with school administrators',

became,

'your personal relations with the pupils at your school',
'your personal relations with your teaching staff', and
'your personal relations with the school's senior staff'.

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(4) A copy of the job satisfaction questionnaire for Head Teachers is included in Appendix I.

In the utility job satisfaction scale, the question relating to:

'the supervision and guidance given you by more senior staff',

became,

'cooperation you are given by the staff'.

Pilot Study

Both the role consensus and job satisfaction questionnaires were given to 23 staff members of one intermediate school in a small city. An examination of responses revealed several small ambiguities. For example, it was found that the Likert-type scales for categorising expectations of teacher behaviour held by the Head Teacher and by the teachers themselves did not exactly correspond in their gradations. While both scales had positive and negative categories only one scale had a neutral category. They were amended so that both scales, although worded differently, had similar categories.

Personal Variables

In addition to the questions designed to test the major hypotheses, a number of supplementary questions was included to provide independent data. Respondents were asked to state their: (i) teaching position; (ii) level of qualifications; (iii) age; (iv) sex; (v) marital status; and (vi) years of teaching experience.

Data Collection

Because it constituted a finite population of manageable size, all the intermediate schools in a New Zealand city were selected as the sample. The Education Board's approval was obtained and permission to distribute copies of the questionnaire to members of their staff was given by all ten Head Teachers.

Towards the end of the first school term of 1971, the author visited the schools and explained to the staff the purpose and format of the questionnaire. In general, the teachers showed considerable interest in the research project, and a lively discussion on teacher job satisfaction often followed. 220 questionnaires were distributed to be returned

by mail. The questionnaires could be identified by school, but respondent anonymity was assured. Respondents were also asked to complete a postcard to the effect that they had returned the questionnaire. By matching these postcards with a check-list of teachers at each school, the researcher was able to identify non-respondents and contact them again.

182 questionnaires were returned, giving an 82.72% response rate. Two of the ten Head Teachers did not return the questionnaire. As can be seen in Table 5.1., there was some variation in response rate among the schools. One school showed a 100% return and four others returned all but one or two questionnaires. Four schools had a response rate below 70%.

TABLE 5.1.

QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN RATES

School	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Returned	Percentage Return Rate
0	19	18	94.73
1	27	25	92.59
2	16	9	56.25
3	27	26	96.29
4	20	11	55
5	27	27	100
6	20	17	85
7	23	16	69.56
8	18	17	94.44
9	23	16	69.56
Total	220	182	82.72%

Reliability

For reasons of economy, it was considered inadviseable to check the reliability of the instruments using another sample of teachers or a retest of the drawn sample. Alternatively, the responses of the sample were used to estimate the odd-even internal consistencies for the three job satisfaction scales and the total job satisfaction scale. These correlations, as well as the corrected estimates according to the Spearman-Brown formula, the means and the standard deviation, are shown in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2.

ODD-EVEN RELIABILITY OF JOB SATISFACTION SCALES

Job Satisfaction Scale		$\bar{X}$	S	r	Spearman-Brown Reliability
Status	odds	17.7891	2.8144	.6602	.7953
	evens	18.5782	2.6866		
Affect	odds	20.4217	2.3141	.6920	.8179
	evens	18.9319	2.4901		
Utility	odds	17.0680	2.6526	.3982	.5696
	evens	17.5782	2.3288		
Total	odds	55.2925	5.8919	.7748	.8731
	evens	55.1360	5.8574		

It was not possible to estimate the internal consistency of the role consensus questionnaire as no two situations were alike.

Validity

The reliability estimates of the job satisfaction scale compared favourably with the internal consistency of the older and more established Job Description Indices. (5)

It would seem that, at least in this context, validity considerations are spurious. While the questionnaire set out to establish levels of teacher job satisfaction and teacher expectations of teacher and Head Teacher behaviour, it is an unanswered question as to whether the instrument actually investigated this. The only claim that can be made is that as far as was humanly possible, the instrument was an operationalisation of the theoretical model put forward.

The ultimate form of validation is, nevertheless, in the predictive power of the instrument. An instrument is judged on its predictive power in that unless a measure is able to demonstrate relationships its utility remains unestablished. The predictive power of both the role consensus and job satisfaction questionnaire is fully discussed in the chapter relating to the hypotheses findings.

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(5) J.D.I. Spearman-Brown reliability estimates: Work .83; Pay .80; Promotions .86; Supervision .87; co-Workers .88.

Sample Characteristics

A description of the sample population according to: position held, qualifications, age, sex, marital status, and teaching experience follows. Table 5.3. summarises the characteristics.

Position held - Of the 182 respondents, 21.4% (39 teachers) held higher positions, 4.4% (8 respondents) held Head Teachers positions, and 74.2% (135 teachers) were assistant masters/ mistresses.

Qualifications - The distribution of the qualifications held by teachers in the sample showed that: 64.3% (117 teachers) held the minimum qualification (Trained Teacher's Certificate); 9.9% (18 teachers) held a Diploma in Teaching; 12.1% (22 teachers) a Bachelor's degree; 9.9% (18 teachers) specialist qualifications; and 3.8% (7 teachers) a post-graduate degree or diploma, or the papers of a Master's degree.

Age - The age categories used were: 20-25 years, 26-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, and 61+. Of the teachers 41.5% were between 20-30 years, with 22.7% between 20-25, and 18.8% between 26-30. A steady decrease in numbers was noticeable beyond the age of 30, with only 26.5% of the teachers being between 31-40 (as opposed to 41.5% between 20-30), and 22.7% between 41-50 years. Only 17 teachers (9.4%) were 51 years or older.

Sex - There were almost twice as many male teachers as female teachers: 62.6% males (114 teachers) to 37.4% females (68 teachers).

Marital Status - The sample included 74.2% married teachers (135 teachers) and 25.8% single teachers (47 teachers).

Teaching experience - The following categories were used: under 1 year of teaching experience, 1-3 years, 4-6 years, 7-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 21-25 years, 26-30 years, 31 years. Within the sample, 6% (11 teachers) had less than 1 year's experience. In most cases this was only a term's teaching. A further 12.1% (22 teachers) had between 1-3 years experience, 17.6% (32 teachers) between 4-6 years experience, and 21.4% (39 teachers) between 7-10 years experience. This meant that 57.1% of the teachers had less than 11 years of teaching experience. Among the more experienced teachers,

14.8% (27 teachers) had between 11-15 years experience, 17.6% (32 teachers) between 16-20 years experience, 5.5% (10 teachers) between 21-25 years experience, 3.3% (6 teachers) between 26-30 years experience, and 1.6% (3 teachers) between 31-40 years experience. The respondents were equally divided between those with less than 11 years teaching experience and those with from 11-40 years experience.

The overall picture of the sample is one of considerable homogeneity. Most schools had almost half of their staff under the age of thirty years, and more than half of the teachers with less than eleven years teaching experience. The approximate ratio of male to female teachers was 2:1, with almost three-quarters of the respondents being married. While there was a range of qualifications from the minimum, Trained Teacher's Certificate, to a post-graduate degree or diploma, almost two-thirds of the teachers held only a Trained Teacher's Certificate. However it was not possible to deduce from the data the proportion of teachers who were still adding to their qualifications.

TABLE 5.3.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

N = 182 (in %)

(a) Position held

Asst master/mistress	Higher position	Head Teacher
74.2 (135)	21.4 (39)	4.4 (8)

(b) Qualifications

Teacher's Cert.	Dip. Teaching	B.A.	Specialist	Post-Graduate
64.3 (117)	9.9 (18)	12.1 (22)	9.9 (18)	3.8 (7)

(c) Age

20-25	26-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	60
22.7(41)	18.8(34)	26.5(48)	22.7(41)	8.8(16)	.6(1)

(d) Sex

Male	Female
62.6 (114)	37.4 (68)

(e) Marital Status

Married	Single
74.2 (135)	25.8 (47)

(f) Teaching Experience (in years)

1yr	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31
6(11)	12.1(22)	17.6(32)	21.4(39)	14.8(27)	17.6(32)	5.5(10)	3.3(6)	1.6(3)

Data Analysis

Role Consensus - The questionnaire required the respondent to state his expectations for his own behaviour and the behaviour of a significant other, the Head Teacher, or the staff. Responses were measured on a Likert-type scale. The categories were assumed to be equidistant and the ordinal responses were weighted accordingly, viz, extremely likely (7); very likely (6); likely (5); neither likely nor unlikely (4); unlikely (3); very unlikely (2); extremely unlikely (1). For subsequent treatment, the scores on the role expectations scale were also considered to be interval data.

Expectations about the staff's behaviour and of the Head Teacher's behaviour as perceived by the Head Teacher and individual teachers respectively, were measured on a scale similar to that measuring expectations for their own behaviour. Again, the categories were assumed to be equidistant, and the ordinal responses were weighted accordingly, viz, extremely appropriate (7); very appropriate (6); appropriate (5); neither appropriate nor inappropriate (4); inappropriate (3); very inappropriate (2); extremely inappropriate(1).

Expected role behaviour scores were computed for each teacher for the thirty-six items on expectations of teacher behaviour, and for the thirty-six items on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour. The mean scores were then taken as the expected role behaviour scores.

Consensus scores for each teacher were established by computing the difference between the response of the Head Teacher and each member of his staff on each of the thirty-six items on expectations of teacher behaviour, and on each of the thirty-six items on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour. The mean score of the summed differences was then taken as the consensus score. Thus, for each teacher there was a consensus score on expected teacher behaviour, and a consensus score on expected Head Teacher behaviour.

In using the difference between the individual teacher response and the response of the Head Teacher, rather than the difference between the Head Teacher's response and the mean response of the teachers (see Bible and McComas, 1963),

considerable flexibility with regard to the combination of item scores was ensured. A teacher consensus score could be obtained, and with the summing of the teacher scores, the mean score represented the measure of consensus for the school. Furthermore, it was possible to consider the degree of consensus on various aspects of role expectations: the expectations of status, affect and utility behaviours. Thus a status consensus score, affect consensus score, and utility consensus score could be obtained on expected teacher behaviour and expected Head Teacher behaviour.

Job Satisfaction - The responses on the five point Likert-type job satisfaction scale were assumed to be equidistant and were weighted accordingly, viz, very satisfactory (5); satisfactory (4); neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory (3); unsatisfactory (2); very unsatisfactory (1).

Further treatment of the responses as ordinal data was thought inadviseable, as precedent exists for the treatment of ordinal variables as if they conform to interval scales (Labovitz, 1967, 1970). Although some small error may accompany the treatment of ordinal variables as interval data, the greater versatility in statistical manipulation brings substantial advantages. In the present study, then, responses were subsequently considered to be interval data. By summing the responses, separate status, affect, and utility job satisfaction scores were obtained, as well as a total job satisfaction score.

Statistical Procedures - Frequency distributions, means and standard deviations were computed on the expected role behaviour, role consensus and job satisfaction scores through the use of a cross tabulation programme compiled by P.N. Russell (1968). The significance of the difference between the various role behaviour means, and the role consensus means was calculated using the t test. (6) The analysis was carried out on a programmable Remington Rand Cassio. A two-tailed test was

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(6) For a discussion of this statistic and its application, see Hays, W.L. (1963) Statistics for Psychologists, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, p301f.

selected, and all significant differences beyond the .05 level were reported.

Pearsons' product moment correlation was used for the preliminary testing of the hypotheses on the assumption that the variables were normally distributed and the relationship between them was linear. Subsequent to the correlational procedures, the prediction variables were entered into a stepwise multiple regression analysis, using an adaptation of a standard IBM 360/44 programme. (7) The multiple regression technique seeks to predict performance on a single-criterion variable from the data on several known predictor variables. Essentially the method of multiple regression is to derive weights $\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots\ldots \beta_n$ for the variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots\ldots X_n$, and an additive constant $\propto$. The resulting weighted composite $\hat{X}_o$, or the predicted estimate, which is defined by the multiple regression equation

$$\hat{X}_o = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \ldots\ldots + \beta_n X_n + \propto$$

predicts a specified criterion variable X_o with a minimum sum of squared errors. In this way, $\hat{X}_o$ correlates maximally with X_o.

The n multiple regression weights $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \ldots\ldots, \beta_n$ are found by solving a set of n simultaneous linear equations in which these weights are the unknowns. (8) After the βs are found the additive $\propto$ is chosen so as to make the mean of the scores on $\hat{X}_o$ equal to the mean of the scores on X_o. The multiple correlation coefficient, $\bar{R}$, can then be found in any of several ways, of which the simplest conceptually (though not computationally) is to compute each persons' score on $\hat{X}_o$, and then to correlate these scores with X_o.

In analysis of variance designs, the complete independence of all the independent variables is assured by the requirement

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(7) For a discussion of this statistic and its application, see Dallington, R.B., 'Multiple regression in psychological research and practice', Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 69, 1968, 161-182; Cohen, J., 'Multiple regression as a general data-analytic system', Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 70, 1968, 426-443.

(8) See McNemar, 1962, for a full discussion of the computations of the normal equations of regression theory.

of equal or proportional cell frequencies or by the inclusion of statistical adjustments. In multiple regression, however there is no assumption that predictor variables be uncorrelated, thus giving regression analysis a substantial element of flexibility lacking in analysis of variance.

Nevertheless, when all or some variables are intercorrelated the manner of reporting the 'contribution to variance' can become ambiguous. It is possible, for instance, for the different measures of the importance of predictor variables to rank-order the (intercorrelated) variables in a regression equation in a different way. In the present investigation, discussion of the importance of the variables is limited to the results produced from three of the measures of importance: the squared validity of a variable, X_j; the absolute value of a beta weight, β'_j or β'^2_j; and the usefulness of X_j. (Dallington (1968) also discusses two further measures: independent contribution to variance, and Engelhart's Measure; but when the variables are intercorrelated both of these measures have considerably less value than the others.)

In the present investigation the stepwise form of multiple regression analysis was used. This technique selects variables for the regression equation one at a time. It first selects the most valid predictor variable, and then the variable which adds the most to the multiple correlation in conjunction with the first variable. The extent to which the multiple correlation would be increased by a variable is determined by computing the validity of the orthogonal component or some mathematically equivalent statistic. The stepwise technique then selects further variables, one at a time, by the same criterion.

The following chapters present the findings arising from these statistical procedures.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS: ROLE BEHAVIOUR EXPECTATIONS, ROLE CONSENSUS AND JOB SATISFACTION

The findings are presented in two chapters. The present chapter reports the role expectation, role consensus and job satisfaction findings separately. The following chapter examines their interrelationships and reports on the tests of the hypotheses.

Teacher and Head Teacher Expectations of Teacher Role Behaviour

For the study, role behaviour was conceptualised within a social exchange framework as incorporating status, affect and utility behaviours. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked how they thought they would react in specified situations, and were provided with the alternatives of giving status, affect or utility to the staff or to the Head Teacher. Respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they would display a particular behaviour. Responses were recorded on a Likert-type scale.

The following discussion describes the role behaviour expectations of the teacher and Head Teacher respondents. The six sections discuss the expectations of the teachers and Head Teachers for: teacher status behaviour; Head Teacher status behaviour; teacher affect behaviour; Head Teacher affect behaviour; teacher utility behaviour; and, Head Teacher utility behaviour. Frequency distributions, means, standard deviations and correlations were computed on each form of role behaviour, thus making it possible to test the significance of the difference between means by t tests.

Expectations of the Teachers and Head Teachers for:

(a) Teacher Status Behaviour - In the questionnaire, status was operationalised as: favouring 'majority rule'; and, favouring 'the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school'.

According to Table 6.1.1. over half of the teachers (55.6%) expected to give status, and in five of the six situations the

teachers expected to give more status to the Head Teacher than to the staff ($p < .05$). (1) Thus the teachers expected the Head Teacher to control the decision making process rather than accept a decision according to majority rule. There appeared to be no difference in the amount of status given according to whether the teachers found the Head Teacher or the staff's proposal more useful to them. However, in all situations, approximately one-quarter of the teachers indicated uncertainty as to whether they would give status to the staff, while 11-18% indicated uncertainty as to whether they would give status to the Head Teacher.

According to Table 6.2.1. over two-thirds of the Head Teachers (70.7%) indicated that they would expect to give status. However up to three of the eight Head Teachers were undecided as to whether they expected the teachers to give status to the staff. In status situations, the Head Teachers expected the teachers to give more status to other staff members than to the Head Teacher ($p < .05$).

(b) Head Teacher Status Behaviour - In the questionnaire, Head Teacher status was operationalised in a similar manner to that of teacher status: by indicating the Head Teacher's right to control decision making; and by favouring majority rule.

According to Table 6.3.1., 62.2% of the teachers expected the Head Teacher to give status, and in all of the six situations to give status to himself rather than to the staff ($p < .01$), regardless of whether the staff considered its proposal, or that of the Head Teacher, to be the more useful. Thus the teachers expected the Head Teacher to indicate his right to control decision making in his school rather than to emphasise the principle of majority rule.

Table 6.4.1. indicates that 60.3% of the Head Teachers expected to give status, although in specific situations up to four of the eight Head Teachers were uncertain as to their

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(1) Tables setting out significant differences between means are included in Appendix II. Table 6.1.2. in the Appendix corresponds with Table 6.1.1.; Table 6.2.2. with Table 6.2.1.; and so on.

TABLE 6.1.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 147 (in %)

Situation*	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Status to:	Likelihood of giving status							M	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 29,30)	staff	staff	6.8(10)	18.4(27)	25.2(37)	25.2(37)	16.3(24)	4.8(7)	3.4(5)	4.46	1.43
		H. Teacher	17.7(26)	18.4(27)	29.9(44)	17.0(25)	10.9(16)	4.8(7)	1.4(2)	4.95	1.46
new system of examination (Q 53,54)	H. Teacher	staff	2.7(4)	16.3(24)	25.2(37)	26.5(39)	23.1(34)	1.4(2)	4.8(7)	4.25	1.34
		H. Teacher	17.0(25)	18.4(27)	34.7(51)	12.2(18)	12.9(19)	2.7(4)	2.0(3)	4.97	1.44
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 17,18)	staff	staff	6.8(10)	15.0(22)	26.5(39)	23.1(34)	19.0(28)	4.1(6)	5.4(8)	4.33	1.49
		H. Teacher	15.6(23)	17.0(25)	27.9(41)	18.4(27)	14.3(21)	3.4(5)	3.4(5)	4.77	1.53
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 41,42)	H. Teacher	staff	4.8(7)	15.0(22)	29.3(43)	24.5(36)	16.3(24)	4.8(7)	5.4(8)	4.31	1.44
		H. Teacher	17.7(26)	17.7(26)	32.0(47)	11.6(17)	15.6(23)	3.4(5)	2.0(3)	4.91	1.50
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 5, 6)	staff	staff	10.2(15)	18.4(27)	21.8(32)	20.4(30)	19.0(28)	4.8(7)	5.4(8)	4.44	1.60
		H. Teacher	12.9(19)	22.4(33)	22.4(33)	16.3(24)	15.6(23)	7.5(11)	2.7(4)	4.67	1.59
new topic (Q 65,66)	H. Teacher	staff	3.4(5)	11.6(17)	25.9(38)	24.5(36)	27.2(40)	2.7(4)	4.8(7)	4.12	1.35
		H. Teacher	13.6(20)	18.4(27)	32.7(48)	17.7(26)	12.2(18)	2.7(4)	2.7(4)	4.84	1.43
TOTAL:			10.7%(190)	17.2%(304)	27.7%(490)	19.7%(349)	16.8%(298)	3.9%(69)	3.6%(64)	4.59	.28

* The precise wording of each question is included in Appendix I.

TABLE 6.2.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 8 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Status to:	Likelihood of giving status							M	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 35, 36)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.25	1.03
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	62.5(5)	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.75	.88
new system of examination (Q 59,60)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.37	1.18
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	50.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.75	.88
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 23, 24)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.62	.91
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	50.0(4)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.91
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 47, 48)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	1.12
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	62.5(5)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	.64
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 11, 12)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.37	1.18
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.62	.91
new topic (Q 71,72)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.62	.91
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	50.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.62	.74
TOTAL:			6.2%(6)	29.1%(28)	35.4%(34)	19.7%(19)	9.3%(9)	0.0%(0)	0.0%(0)	5.03	.55

TABLE 6.3.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 147 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Head Teacher gives Status to:	Likelihood of giving status							$\bar{x}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
				(a)	In Status Situations						
new system of school timetabling (Q 35, 36)	staff	staff	5.4(8)	15.6(23)	33.3(49)	23.8(35)	15.0(22)	2.7(4)	4.1(6)	4.48	1.36
		H. Teacher	18.4(27)	24.5(36)	34.7(51)	8.8(13)	10.2(15)	2.0(3)	1.4(2)	5.20	1.35
new system of examination (Q 59, 60)	H. Teacher	staff	6.1(9)	12.9(19)	22.9(44)	27.2(40)	17.7(26)	2.7(4)	3.4(5)	4.40	1.34
		H. Teacher	17.7(26)	23.4(33)	35.4(52)	8.8(13)	9.5(14)	3.4(5)	2.7(4)	5.08	1.46
				(b)	In Affect Situations						
commending pupil achievement (Q 23, 24)	staff	staff	4.8(7)	16.3(24)	33.3(49)	20.4(30)	17.7(26)	2.7(4)	4.8(7)	4.42	1.39
		H. Teacher	15.6(23)	24.5(36)	32.7(48)	8.2(12)	12.2(18)	4.1(6)	2.7(4)	5.00	1.50
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 47, 48)	H. Teacher	staff	4.8(7)	16.3(24)	29.9(44)	25.9(38)	16.3(24)	4.1(6)	2.7(4)	4.44	1.32
		H. Teacher	15.0(22)	19.0(28)	34.7(51)	10.2(15)	16.3(24)	2.0(3)	2.7(4)	4.89	1.47
				(c)	In Utility Situations						
new method of teaching (Q 11, 12)	staff	staff	8.2(12)	14.3(21)	34.0(50)	23.1(34)	13.6(20)	3.4(5)	3.4(5)	4.56	1.38
		H. Teacher	18.4(27)	23.8(35)	26.5(39)	14.3(21)	12.2(18)	3.4(5)	1.4(2)	5.06	1.46
new topic (Q 71, 72)	H. Teacher	staff	4.8(7)	17.8(26)	28.1(41)	23.3(34)	19.2(28)	3.4(5)	3.4(5)	4.38	1.42
		H. Teacher	15.6(23)	20.4(30)	32.0(47)	11.6(17)	12.9(19)	4.8(7)	2.7(4)	4.89	1.52
TOTAL:			11.2%(198)	19.0%(335)	32.0%(565)	17.1%(302)	14.4%(254)	3.2%(57)	2.9%(52)	4.72	.28

TABLE 6.4.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 8 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Head Teacher gives Status to:	Likelihood of giving status							$\bar{x}$	S
			extremely unlikely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
				(a)	In Status Situations						
new system of school timetabling (Q 29, 30)	staff	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	3.75	1.48
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	62.5(5)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	6.12	.64
new system of examination (Q 53,54)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	4.12	1.55
		H. Teacher	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.75	1.28
				(b)	In Affect Situations						
commending pupil achievement (Q 17, 18)	staff	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	50.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	4.12	1.45
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	1.40
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 41, 42)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	4.62	1.60
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	1.45
				(c)	In Utility Situations						
new method of teaching (Q 5, 6)	staff	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	4.12	1.55
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.62	1.18
new topic (Q 65,66)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	.92
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	1.30
TOTAL:			13.5%(13)	23.9%(23)	22.9%(22)	21.8%(21)	8.3%(8)	0.0%(0)	5.2%(5)	4.89	.74

likelihood of giving any status. Only in status situations did the Head Teachers expect to give more status to themselves than to the staff ($p < .01$; $p < .02$).

(c) Teacher Affect Behaviour - In the questionnaire, affect was operationalised as: giving 'sympathy towards the staff's position'; and, giving 'sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position'.

Table 6.5.1. indicates that 80% of the teachers expected to give affect while only 10.3% indicated that they would be unlikely to give affect. There was some variation in the amount of affect given to the staff and to the Head Teacher according to the situation. In status situations more affect was given to the staff than to the Head Teacher when the preferred proposal was that of the staff ($p < .01$). In the affect situations, when the preferred proposal was that of the staff, more affect was given to the staff than to the Head Teacher ($p < .001$), but when the preferred proposal was that of the Head Teacher more affect was given to the Head Teacher than to the staff ($p < .001$). Similarly, in utility situations, when the staff's proposal was the one preferred, more affect was given to the staff than to the Head Teacher ($p < .001$).

According to Table 6.6.1., while only 9.3% of the Head Teachers were unlikely to give affect, over 23% were uncertain whether they would give affect. Only in two situations: introducing a new system of examinations (status) and introducing a new topic (utility) did the Head Teachers expect the teachers to give more affect to the staff ($p < .05$; and $p < .05$ respectively).

(d) Head Teacher Affect Behaviour - Head Teacher affect was operationalised in a similar manner to that of teacher affect: giving 'sympathy towards the staff's position'; and, giving 'sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position'.

According to Table 6.7.1. over four-fifths (84.3%) of the teachers expected the Head Teacher to give affect. In all six situations, and regardless of the origin of the preferred proposal, the teachers expected the Head Teacher to give more affect to the staff than to himself ($p < .05$).

From Table 6.8.1. it can be seen that all the Head Teachers

TABLE 6.5.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 147 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Affect to:	Likelihood of giving affect							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 25, 27)	staff	staff	19.0(28)	36.1(53)	32.0(47)	6.1(9)	6.8(10)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.54	1.08
		H. Teacher	10.2(15)	24.5(36)	42.2(62)	12.2(18)	8.2(12)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	5.06	1.20
new system of examination (Q 49, 51)	H. Teacher	staff	6.8(10)	23.1(34)	47.6(70)	8.2(12)	13.6(20)	0.0(0)	7.0(1)	4.98	1.11
		H. Teacher	15.0(22)	29.3(43)	38.8(57)	7.5(11)	8.2(12)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	5.31	1.15
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 13, 15)	staff	staff	18.4(27)	32.7(48)	36.1(53)	6.1(9)	6.8(10)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.49	1.07
		H. Teacher	10.2(15)	23.8(35)	39.5(58)	12.9(19)	11.6(17)	0.0(0)	2.0(3)	5.00	1.25
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 37,39)	H. Teacher	staff	8.2(12)	23.8(35)	44.2(65)	10.9(16)	12.2(18)	0.0(0)	7.0(1)	5.02	1.13
		H. Teacher	18.4(27)	25.9(38)	38.8(57)	10.9(16)	6.1(9)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.39	1.09
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 1, 3)	staff	staff	20.4(30)	36.7(54)	31.3(45)	8.2(12)	2.7(4)	7.0(1)	0.0(0)	5.61	1.02
		H. Teacher	10.2(15)	19.0(28)	42.9(63)	13.6(30)	11.6(17)	7.0(1)	2.0(3)	4.92	1.26
new topic (Q 61,63)	H. Teacher	staff	3.4(5)	23.3(34)	49.3(72)	8.2(12)	13.7(20)	1.4(2)	7.0(1)	4.84	1.17
		H. Teacher	13.6(20)	21.8(32)	46.3(68)	7.5(11)	8.8(13)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	5.17	1.16
TOTAL:			12.8%(226)	26.6%(470)	40.6%(717)	9.35%(165)	9.1%(162)	.6%(11)	.6%(11)	5.19	.25

TABLE 6.6.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 8 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Affect to:	Likelihood of giving affect							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 31,33)	staff	staff	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	1.12
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	62.5(5)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	.75
new system of examination (Q 55, 57)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	62.5(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	.75
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	.92
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 19, 21)	staff	staff	0.0(0)	50.0(4)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	1.12
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	.92
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 43, 45)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.62	.91
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	1.06
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 7, 9)	staff	staff	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	1.24
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.37	1.06
new topic (Q 67- 69)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	50.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.62	.74
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	.92
TOTAL:			5.2%(5)	23.9%(23)	37.5%(36)	23.9%(23)	9.3%(9)	0.0%(0)	0.0%(0)	4.91	.46

TABLE 6.7.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 147 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Head Teacher gives Affect to:	Likelihood of giving affect							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 31,33)	staff	staff	20.4(30)	32.7(48)	40.1(59)	4.8(7)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.64	.92
		H. Teacher	12.2(18)	27.9(41)	36.7(54)	9.5(14)	10.9(16)	0.0(0)	2.7(4)	5.10	1.31
new system of examination (Q 55, 57)	H. Teacher	staff	17.0(25)	25.2(37)	49.0(72)	5.4(8)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	7.0(1)	5.45	1.0
		H. Teacher	13.6(20)	26.5(39)	36.7(54)	10.2(15)	10.2(15)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	5.13	1.28
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 19, 21)	staff	staff	17.7(26)	32.0(47)	43.5(64)	4.8(7)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.58	.90
		H. Teacher	8.8(13)	25.9(38)	42.2(62)	8.2(12)	10.9(16)	2.0(3)	2.0(3)	4.99	1.28
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 43, 45)	H. Teacher	staff	19.0(28)	27.9(41)	49.9(69)	4.8(7)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	.7(1)	5.57	.95
		H. Teacher	14.3(21)	26.5(39)	36.1(53)	7.5(11)	10.9(16)	3.4(5)	1.4(2)	5.10	1.36
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 7, 9)	staff	staff	29.3(43)	33.3(49)	34.7(51)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.89	.86
		H. Teacher	9.5(14)	25.2(37)	38.1(56)	11.6(17)	9.5(14)	2.7(4)	3.4(5)	4.91	1.38
new topic (Q 67, 69)	H. Teacher	staff	16.3(24)	25.2(37)	50.3(74)	4.8(7)	3.4(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.46	.93
		H. Teacher	12.2(18)	24.5(36)	36.1(53)	12.9(19)	10.9(16)	.7(1)	2.7(4)	5.01	1.34
TOTAL:			15.8%(280)	27.7%(489)	40.8%(721)	7.2%(128)	6.7%(109)	.8%(15)	1.2%(22)	5.32	.30

TABLE 6.8.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 8 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Head Teacher gives Affect to:	Likelihood of giving Affect							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 25, 27)	staff	staff	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	.92
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	50.0(4)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.25	.70
new system of examination (Q 49, 51)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	50.0(4)	50.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	.53
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	.99
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achivement (Q 13, 15)	staff	staff	25.0(2)	25.0(2)	50.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.75	.88
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	62.5(5)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	.64
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 37, 39)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	62.5(5)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.87	.64
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	62.5(5)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	1.24
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 1, 3)	staff	staff	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.87	.83
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.75	.70
new topic (Q 61, 63)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	.92
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	62.5(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.51
TOTAL:			8.3%(8)	32.2%(31)	47.9%(46)	11.4%(11)	0.0%(0)	0.0%(0)	0.0%(0)	5.37	.34

either expected to give affect to themselves (88.4%) or were uncertain as to their likelihood of giving affect (11.4%). (2) Only in the utility situations did the Head Teachers expect to give more affect to the staff than to themselves, regardless of the origin of the preferred proposal ($p < .05$; $p < .05$ respectively).

(e) Teacher Utility Behaviour - In the questionnaire, utility behaviour was operationalised as: indicating 'the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them'; and, indicating the usefulness of the Head Teacher's proposal to himself.

As shown in Table 6.9.1., 74.4% of the teachers expected to give utility. In the status situations more utility was given to the Head Teacher than to the staff when the staff's proposal was preferred ($p < .05$), while more utility was given to the staff than to the Head Teacher when the Head Teacher's proposal was preferred ($p < .02$). Similarly in affect and utility situations, more utility was given to the Head Teacher when the staff's proposal was the one preferred ($p < .01$; and $p < .001$ respectively). In all situations the most utility given to the Head Teacher was when the staff's proposal was the one preferred ($p < .001$).

Table 6.10.1. indicates that 85.8% of the Head Teachers expected the teachers to give utility. There were no significant differences between the utility the Head Teachers expected the teachers to give to other staff members and to their Head Teacher.

(f) Head Teacher Utility Behaviour - Head Teacher utility was operationalised in a similar way to that of teacher utility: indicating 'the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them'; and, indicating 'the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher'.

As shown in Table 6.11.1., 82.4% of the teachers expected the Head Teachers to give utility. Only 9.3% were uncertain whether they expected the Head Teacher to give utility. There was no significant difference between the utility the teachers expected the Head Teacher to give to the staff and to himself.

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(2) A rounding error is responsible for the remaining .2%.

TABLE 6.9.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 147 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Utility to:	Likelihood of giving Utility							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 28, 26)	staff	staff	16.3(24)	34.7(51)	34.7(51)	10.2(15)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	5.13	1.23
		H. Teacher	11.6(17)	29.9(44)	33.3(49)	14.3(21)	8.8(13)	.7(1)	1.4(2)	5.48	1.03
new system of examination (Q 52, 50)	H. Teacher	staff	3.4(5)	25.2(37)	34.7(51)	19.7(29)	15.6(23)	.7(1)	.7(1)	5.11	1.11
		H. Teacher	8.8(13)	29.3(43)	36.7(54)	17.0(25)	6.8(10)	.7(1)	.7(1)	4.76	1.15
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 16, 14)	staff	staff	16.3(24)	33.3(49)	34.7(51)	10.9(16)	4.8(7)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.00	1.11
		H. Teacher	8.8(13)	21.1(31)	43.5(64)	17.0(25)	8.2(12)	.7(1)	.7(1)	5.45	1.04
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 40, 38)	H. Teacher	staff	9.5(14)	21.8(32)	33.3(49)	16.3(24)	16.3(24)	2.0(3)	.7(1)	5.08	1.10
		H. Teacher	10.9(16)	22.4(33)	40.8(60)	15.6(23)	10.2(15)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.82	1.30
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 4, 2)	staff	staff	17.0(25)	37.4(55)	33.3(49)	8.8(13)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	.7(1)	4.86	1.21
		H. Teacher	4.8(7)	25.2(37)	41.5(61)	14.0(22)	9.5(14)	2.0(3)	2.0(3)	5.54	1.03
new topic (Q 64, 62)	H. Teacher	staff	5.4(8)	19.7(29)	43.5(64)	13.6(20)	15.6(23)	.7(1)	1.4(2)	4.92	1.25
		H. Teacher	9.5(14)	21.8(32)	38.8(57)	5.6(23)	11.6(17)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	4.78	1.19
TOTAL:			10.2%(180)	26.8%(473)	37.4%(660)	14.5%(256)	9.4%(167)	.7%(14)	.7%(14)	5.08	.26

TABLE 6.10.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER UTILITY

N = 8 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Utility to:	Likelihood of giving Utility							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling (Q 34, 32)	staff	staff	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	75.0(6)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	.92
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	75.0(6)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	.83
new system of examination (Q 58, 56)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.51
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	50.0(4)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	.99
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement (Q 22, 20)	staff	staff	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	62.5(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.51
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.75	1.03
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 46, 44)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	37.5(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.75	.70
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	75.0(6)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	.83
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching (Q 10, 8)	staff	staff	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	62.5(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.51
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	62.5(5)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.5	.75
new topic (Q 70, 68)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	50.0(4)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	1.05
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	62.5(5)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	.64
TOTAL:			4.6%(4)	22.9%(22)	58.3%(56)	10.4%(10)	4.6%(4)	0.0%(0)	0.0%(0)	5.12	.36

TABLE 6.11.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 147 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Head Teacher gives Utility to:	Likelihood of giving Utility							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
					(a) In Status Situations						
new system of school timetabling (Q 34, 32)	staff	staff	12.2(18)	27.2(40)	46.3(68)	11.6(17)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.17	1.23
		H. Teacher	11.6(17)	32.0(47)	34.0(50)	10.2(15)	10.9(16)	0.0(0)	1.4(2)	5.34	.93
new system of examination (Q 58, 56)	H. Teacher	staff	10.2(15)	24.5(36)	51.0(75)	11.6(17)	27.0(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.18	1.19
		H. Teacher	10.2(15)	32.0(47)	38.0(56)	9.5(14)	7.5(11)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	5.27	.89
					(b) In Affect Situations						
commending pupil achievement (Q 22, 20)	staff	staff	11.6(17)	28.6(42)	48.3(71)	8.2(12)	3.4(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.16	1.24
		H. Teacher	11.6(17)	29.9(44)	38.8(57)	6.8(10)	10.2(15)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	5.36	.91
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 46, 44)	H. Teacher	staff	10.9(16)	31.3(46)	45.6(67)	8.2(12)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	5.21	1.25
		H. Teacher	13.6(20)	29.3(43)	36.7(54)	9.5(14)	8.2(12)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	5.36	.95
					(c) In Utility Situations						
new method of teaching (Q 10, 8)	staff	staff	15.0(22)	30.6(45)	4.22(62)	8.8(13)	2.7(4)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	5.12	1.41
		H. Teacher	15.6(23)	25.9(38)	36.1(53)	7.5(11)	10.9(16)	.7(1)	3.4(5)	5.44	.98
new topic (Q 70, 68)	H. Teacher	staff	9.6(14)	25.3(37)	47.9(70)	11.6(17)	5.5(8)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.08	1.25
		H. Teacher	10.9(16)	26.5(39)	40.1(59)	8.8(13)	10.9(16)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	5.18	1.05
TOTAL:			11.9%(210)	28.5%(504)	42.0%(742)	9.3%(165)	6.5%(116)	.5%(10)	.8%(15)	5.24	.11

TABLE 6.12.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 8 (in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Head Teacher gives Utility to:	Likelihood of giving Utility							$\bar{X}$	S
			extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely		
					(a) In Status Situations						
new system of school timetabling (Q 28, 26)	staff	staff	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.12	1.24
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	50.0(4)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.0	1.19
new system of examination (Q 52, 50)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	50.0(4)	37.5(3)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.74
		H. Teacher	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	1.18
					(b) In Affect Situations						
commending pupil achievement (Q 16, 14)	staff	staff	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	75.0(6)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.37	.74
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.75	1.28
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 46, 44)	H. Teacher	staff	12.5(1)	75.0(6)	0.0(0)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.87	.83
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	12.5(1)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.87	1.24
					(c) In Utility Situations						
new method of teaching (Q 4, 2)	staff	staff	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.75	1.03
		H. Teacher	0.0(0)	25.0(2)	37.5(3)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	4.75	1.03
new topic (Q 64, 62)	H. Teacher	staff	0.0(0)	62.5(5)	25.0(2)	12.5(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	.75
		H. Teacher	12.5(1)	50.0(4)	12.5(1)	25.0(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	5.5	1.06
TOTAL:			9.3%(9)	35.4%(34)	30.2%(29)	16.6%(16)	6.2%(6)	0.0%(0)	0.0%(0)	5.27	.35

Table 6.12.1. indicates that almost three-quarters (74.9%) of the Head Teachers expected to give utility. Only 6.2% expected not to give utility. There was no significant difference between the utility the Head Teachers expected to give to the staff and to themselves.

Summary - Table 6.13.1. shows that, in a comparison of the status, affect and utility teachers expected to give, less status was expected that either affect or utility ($p < .001$; and $p < .01$ respectively). The amount of affect and utility expected did not differ significantly. Similarly, according to Table 6.14.1., the teachers expected significantly less status to be given by the Head Teachers than either affect or utility ($p < .001$; and $p < .001$ respectively). The amount of affect and utility expected did not differ significantly.

From Tables 6.15.1. and 6.16.1. it can be seen that the amount of status, affect and utility the Head Teachers expected to give and expected the teachers to give did not vary significantly.

Thus it would seem that, as well as being given in somewhat different circumstances, status, affect and utility behaviours differed in their frequency. The significant findings concerning expectations of teacher and Head Teacher role behaviour are set out in tabulated form below:

Within the educational organization:

1. Teachers expected to give less status than affect or utility.
2. Teachers expected the Head Teacher to give less status than affect or utility.
3. Teachers expected to give more status to the Head Teacher than to other staff members.
4. Head Teachers expected teachers to give more status to other staff members than to the Head Teacher.
5. Teachers expected the Head Teacher to give more status to himself than to the staff.
6. Teachers expected to give more affect to other staff members than to the Head Teacher when the staff's proposal was the one preferred.
7. Teachers expected the Head Teacher to give more affect to the staff than to himself.

TABLE 6.13.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role Behaviour	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	4.5903	.28827
Affect	5.1989	.25436
Utility	5.0822	.26551
TOTAL:	4.9571	.26457

Status/Affect $p < .001$; Affect/Utility p = NS; Utility/Status $p < .01$

TABLE 6.15.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role Behaviour	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	5.0312	.5546
Affect	4.9166	.4686
Utility	5.125	.36084
TOTAL:	5.0242	.052

Status/Affect p = NS; Affect/Utility p = NS; Utility/Status p = NS

TABLE 6.14.1.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role Behaviour	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	4.7291	.28722
Affect	5.3231	.30182
Utility	5.2431	.1100
TOTAL:	5.0984	.2638

Status/Affect $p < .001$; Affect/Utility p = NS; Utility/Status $< .001$

TABLE 6.16.1.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role Behaviour	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	4.8958	.7497
Affect	5.3750	.3498
Utility	5.2708	.3566
TOTAL:	5.1805	.2057

Status/Affect p = NS; Affect/Utility p = NS; Utility/Status p = NS

8. Teachers expected to give more utility to the Head Teacher than to other staff members when their own proposal was the more useful to them.

Consensus on Expectations of Role Behaviour

Consensus scores for each teacher were established by computing the difference between the response of the Head Teacher and each member of his staff on each of the thirty-six items on expectations of teacher behaviour, and on each of the thirty-six items on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour. The mean score of the summed differences was then taken as the consensus score. Thus, for each teacher there was a consensus score on expected teacher behaviour, and a consensus score on expected Head Teacher behaviour. It should be noted that the smaller the difference between the expectations held by the teacher and the Head Teacher, the greater the consensus.

The following discussion details the frequency distributions of the consensus scores (shown in Tables 6.17.1. to 6.22.1.), and elaborates significant differences between the means. (3) The tables and discussion of consensus are dealt with in three sections: teacher and Head Teacher status behaviour; teacher and Head Teacher affect behaviour; and teacher and Head Teacher utility behaviour.

Role Consensus between the Teachers and Head Teacher on Expectations for:

(a) Teacher Status Behaviour - Table 6.17.1. indicates that there was consensus on 22.1% of the expectations held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff for teacher status behaviour. In the six situations there were no significant differences between the consensus on status given to the staff and to the Head Teacher.

(b) Head Teacher Status Behaviour - Table 6.18.1. shows that there was consensus on 19.3% of the expectations held by the

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(3) Tables setting out significant differences between means are included in Appendix II. Table 6.17.2. in the Appendix corresponds with Table 6.17.1.; Table 6.18.2. with Table 6.18.1.; and so on.

TABLE 6.17.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Status to	Deviation between Teacher and Head Teacher Expectation							$\bar{X}$	S
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6		
				(a) In Status Situations							
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	17.7(26)	46.3(68)	22.4(33)	11.6(17)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.34	.96
		H. Teacher	21.1.(31)	44.2(65)	19.0(28)	9.5(14)	4.8(7)	.7(1)	.7(1)	1.37	1.16
new system of examinations	H. Teacher	staff	22.4(33)	41.5(61)	19.7(29)	15.6(23)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.30	1.01
		H. Teacher	21.8(32)	32.0(47)	33.3(49)	8.8(13)	2.0(3)	1.4(2)	.7(1)	1.44	1.13
				(b) In Affect Situations							
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	23.1(34)	39.5(58)	26.5(39)	6.8(10)	4.1(6)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.29	1.02
		H. Teacher	25.2(37)	33.3(49)	28.6(42)	6.1(9)	5.4(8)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	1.37	1.16
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	17.7(26)	44.9(66)	19.0(28)	14.3(21)	1.4(2)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	1.44	1.14
		H. Teacher	23.1(34)	36.7(54)	29.9(44)	8.2(12)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.29	.98
				(c) In Utility Situations							
new method of teaching	staff	staff	17.7(26)	37.4(55)	23.8(35)	19.0(28)	1.4(2)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.51	1.07
		H. Teacher	20.4(30)	32.7(48)	27.2(40)	11.6(17)	6.8(10)	.7(1)	.7(1)	1.56	1.23
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	27.9(41)	35.4(52)	26.5(39)	8.2(12)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.21	1.00
		H. Teacher	22.4(44)	36.1(53)	26.5(39)	10.2(15)	4.1(6)	0.0(0)	.7(1)	1.40	1.13
TOTAL:			22.1%(394)	38.0%(676)	25.0%(445)	10.7%(191)	3.0%(54)	.61%(11)	.22%(4)	1.37	.09

TABLE 6.18.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Status to	Deviation between Teacher and Head Teacher Expectation							$\bar{X}$	S
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6		
				(a) In Status Situations							
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	21.1(31)	34.0(50)	25.9(38)	10.2(15)	4.1(6)	4.1(6)	.7(1)	1.57	1.32
		H. Teacher	19.7(29)	49.7(73)	17.0(25)	8.8(13)	2.7(4)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	1.31	1.09
new system of examinations	H. Teacher	staff	21.8(32)	44.2(65)	18.4(27)	8.8(13)	2.7(4)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	1.39	1.25
		H. Teacher	18.4(27)	40.8(60)	22.4(33)	12.9(19)	2.0(4)	2.7(4)	.7(1)	1.50	1.21
				(b) In Affect Situations							
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	19.0(28)	43.5(64)	21.8(32)	6.8(10)	4.8(7)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	1.47	1.26
		H. Teacher	16.3(24)	34.7(51)	27.2(40)	10.9(16)	9.5(14)	.7(1)	.7(1)	1.67	1.25
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	20.4(30)	42.9(63)	16.3(24)	10.9(16)	5.4(8)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	1.51	1.32
		H. Teacher	17.0(25)	30.6(45)	33.3(49)	10.2(15)	6.8(10)	1.4(2)	.7(1)	1.65	1.21
				(c) In Utility Situations							
new method of teaching	staff	staff	21.8(32)	33.3(49)	27.9(41)	8.2(12)	5.4(8)	1.4(2)	2.0(3)	1.54	1.32
		H. Teacher	16.3(24)	44.9(66)	22.4(33)	10.2(15)	3.4(5)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	1.47	1.14
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	25.2(37)	40.1(59)	24.5(36)	7.5(11)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.22	.99
		H. Teacher	15.0(22)	30.6(45)	29.3(43)	15.0(22)	8.2(12)	.7(1)	1.4(2)	1.78	1.27
TOTAL:			19.3%(341)	39.1%(690)	23.8%(421)	10.0%(177)	4.8%(85)	2.1%(38)	.6%(12)	1.51	.14

Head Teachers and members of their staff for Head Teacher status behaviour. In the status situation relating to a new system of timetabling, when the staff's proposal was the one preferred by the teachers, there was more consensus on the amount of status given to the Head Teacher than to the staff ($p < .05$). In both utility situations there was more consensus on giving status to the staff when the teachers preferred the Head Teacher's proposal than when they preferred the staff's proposal ($p < .001$). However, when the teachers preferred the staff's proposal in the utility situations, there was more consensus on the status given to the Head Teacher than to other staff members ($p < .05$).

(c) Teacher Affect Behaviour - Table 6.19.1. indicates that there was consensus on a quarter of the expectations (25.3%) held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff for teacher affect behaviour. There was only one instance of dissensus beyond category 4, i.e. the deviation between the expectations of the Head Teacher and the members of his staff was never greater than four (out of a possible six points). In status, affect and utility situations, when the teachers preferred the Head Teacher's proposal, there was greater consensus on the affect the teachers gave to the staff than to the Head Teacher ($p < .01$; $p < .001$; and, $p < .001$ respectively).

(d) Head Teacher Affect Behaviour - Table 6.20.1. shows that there was consensus on 30.9% of the expectations held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff for Head Teacher affect. It can also be seen that 75.4% of the expectations held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff were within only one point of deviation from each other. In the status and affect situations, where the teachers preferred the Head Teacher's proposal, there was greater consensus on the affect given to the staff than to the Head Teacher ($p < .001$; and $p < .001$ respectively).

(e) Teacher Utility Behaviour - Table 6.21.1. indicates that there was consensus on 30.6% of the expectations held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff for teacher utility. It can also be seen that 73.6% of the expectations held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff were within only one point of deviation from each other. In the six situations

TABLE 6.19.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

(in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Affect to	Deviation between Teacher and Head Teacher Expectation							$\bar{X}$	S
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6		
				(a) In Status Situations							
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	24.5(36)	42.2(62)	21.8(32)	10.9(16)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.21	.95
		H. Teacher	27.2(40)	38.1(56)	25.9(38)	4.8(7)	4.1(6)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.20	1.02
new system of examinations	H. Teacher	staff	36.1(53)	39.5(58)	18.4(27)	4.8(7)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.95	.92
		H. Teacher	23.8(35)	37.4(55)	27.2(40)	8.8(13)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.29	1.01
				(b) In Affect Situations							
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	29.9(44)	44.9(66)	15.0(22)	8.2(12)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.07	.97
		H. Teacher	26.5(39)	36.7(54)	21.8(32)	12.2(18)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.27	1.07
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	23.1(34)	50.3(74)	17.7(26)	8.8(13)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.12	.86
		H. Teacher	3.6(20)	42.2(62)	26.5(39)	14.3(21)	3.4(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.51	1.0
				(c) In Utility Situations							
new method of teaching	staff	staff	25.9(38)	44.9(66)	17.7(26)	7.5(11)	4.1(6)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.19	1.03
		H. Teacher	23.8(35)	39.5(58)	23.1(34)	11.6(17)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.28	1.02
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	34.7(51)	42.2(62)	4.3(21)	6.8(10)	1.4(2)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.0	1.0
		H. Teacher	5.6(23)	42.9(63)	29.9(44)	8.8(13)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.40	.94
TOTAL:			25.3%(448)	41.7%(736)	21.5%(381)	8.9%(158)	2.2%(40)	0.0%(1)	0.0%(0)	1.21	.15

TABLE 6.20.1

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

(in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Affect to	Deviation between Teacher and Head Teacher Expectation							$\bar{X}$	S
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6		
				(a) In Status Situations							
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	29.3(43)	46.3(68)	19.7(29)	4.1(6)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.0	.84
		H. Teacher	35.4(52)	36.1(53)	20.4(30)	5.4(8)	.7(1)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	1.06	1.08
new system of examinations	H. Teacher	staff	36.7(54)	48.3(71)	12.9(19)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	.81	.79
		H. Teacher	23.8(35)	38.8(57)	24.5(36)	10.9(16)	.7(1)	.7(1)	.7(1)	1.30	1.08
				(b) In Affect Situations							
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	34.0(50)	44.2(65)	19.0(28)	2.0(3)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.91	.81
		H. Teacher	32.0(47)	42.2(62)	15.6(23)	8.2(12)	1.4(2)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.06	1.01
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	26.5(39)	63.3(93)	9.5(14)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.7(1)	.86	.71
		H. Teacher	23.8(35)	40.8(60)	25.2(37)	8.8(13)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.23	.95
				(c) In Utility Situations							
new method of teaching	staff	staff	34.7(51)	46.9(69)	18.4(27)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.83	.71
		H. Teacher	25.2(37)	40.1(59)	25.2(37)	6.1(9)	2.7(4)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.23	1.02
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	33.3(49)	49.0(72)	13.6(20)	4.1(6)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.88	.78
		H. Teacher	27.9(41)	44.9(66)	21.8(32)	2.7(4)	1.4(2)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	1.08	.97
TOTAL:			30.9%(553)	44.5%(795)	18.6%(332)	4.4%(79)	.7%(14)	.5%(9)	.1%(2)	1.02	.16

TABLE 6.21.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

(in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Utility to	Deviation between Teacher and Head Teacher Expectation 0	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\bar{X}$	S
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	32.0(47)	44.2(65)	20.4(30)	2.7(4)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.12	.90
		H. Teacher	25.9(38)	42.9(63)	25.2(37)	4.8(7)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.95	.83
new system of examinations	H. Teacher	staff	27.2(40)	46.3(68)	17.7(26)	7.5(11)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.06	.96
		H. Teacher	32.7(48)	38.1(56)	19.7(29)	8.8(13)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.09	.93
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	32.7(48)	48.3(71)	18.4(27)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.06	.89
		H. Teacher	27.9(41)	45.6(67)	20.4(30)	4.8(7)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.87	.72
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	26.5(39)	39.5(58)	18.4(27)	10.2(15)	5.4(8)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.00	.90
		H. Teacher	32.7(48)	40.8(60)	22.4(33)	2.0(3)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.28	1.12
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching	staff	staff	42.2(62)	38.1(56)	17.7(26)	1.4(2)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.06	.94
		H. Teacher	28.6(42)	46.9(69)	17.0(25)	4.8(7)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.80	.82
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	29.3(43)	45.6(67)	12.2(18)	10.9(16)	2.0(3)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.04	.90
		H. Teacher	30.6(45)	40.8(60)	23.8(35)	4.1(6)	0.0(0)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.10	1.01
TOTAL:			30.6%(541)	43.0%(760)	19.4%(343)	5.2%(92)	1.5%(27)	0.0%(1)	0.0%(0)	1.04	.11

TABLE 6.22.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

(in %)

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Utility to	Deviation between Teacher and Head Teacher Expectation 0	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\bar{X}$	S
			(a) In Status Situations								
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	28.6(42)	36.7(54)	24.5(36)	6.1(9)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.45	1.08
		H. Teacher	19.0(29)	37.4(55)	27.2(40)	12.9(19)	2.0(3)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	1.21	1.07
new system of examinations	H. Teacher	staff	30.6(45)	51.0(75)	14.3(21)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	1.20	1.03
		H. Teacher	26.5(39)	39.5(50)	25.9(38)	4.1(6)	3.4(5)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	.94	.88
			(b) In Affect Situations								
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	38.1(56)	34.7(51)	25.2(37)	.7(1)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.46	1.05
		H. Teacher	19.0(28)	36.7(54)	25.9(38)	15.6(23)	2.7(4)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	.92	.88
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	25.9(38)	56.5(83)	11.6(17)	4.8(7)	.7(1)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	1.44	1.02
		H. Teacher	19.0(28)	34.7(51)	32.0(47)	10.9(16)	3.4(5)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.0	.86
			(c) In Utility Situations								
new method of teaching	staff	staff	26.5(39)	43.5(64)	25.2(37)	3.4(5)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.51	1.09
		H. Teacher	15.0(22)	41.5(61)	27.9(41)	9.5(14)	4.8(7)	1.4(2)	0.0(0)	1.09	.87
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	26.5(39)	55.8(82)	11.6(17)	6.1(9)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	0.0(0)	1.34	.99
		H. Teacher	17.7(26)	46.9(69)	22.4(33)	10.2(15)	2.0(3)	.7(1)	0.0(0)	.97	.79
TOTAL:			24.3%(430)	42.9%(757)	22.7%(402)	7.2%(128)	2.0%(37)	.5%(10)	0.0%(0)	1.21	.21

there were no significant differences in the consensus on utility given to the staff and to the Head Teacher.

(f) Head Teacher Utility Behaviour - Table 6.22.1. indicates that there was consensus on 24.3% of the expectations held by the Head Teachers and members of their staff for Head Teacher utility behaviour. In the affect and utility situations there was greater consensus on the utility given to the Head Teacher than to the staff ($p < .001$ for all four situations). Only the status situation relating to a new system of timetabling yielded a similar finding ($p < .05$).

Summary - From Table 6.23.1. it can be seen that, in a comparison of the consensus scores on expectations of teacher role behaviour, consensus on utility was higher than on either affect or status ($p < .05$; and $p < .001$ respectively). In turn, consensus on affect was significantly higher than on status ($p < .02$). (4)

Consensus on expectations of Head Teacher role behaviour shows a somewhat different pattern (see Table 6.24.1.). While consensus on affect and utility was significantly higher than on status ($p < .001$; and $p < .01$ respectively), there was no difference between the degree of affect and utility consensus.

TABLE 6.23.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role Behaviour	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	1.3797	.0962
Affect	1.2114	.1531
Utility	1.0402	.1193
TOTAL:	1.2104	.1386

Status/Affect $p < .02$; Affect/Utility $p < .05$; Utility/Status $p < .001$

TABLE 6.24.1.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role Behaviour	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	1.5107	.1484
Affect	1.0254	.1605
Utility	1.2147	.2154
TOTAL:	1.2502	.1997

Status/Affect $p < .001$; Affect/Utility p=NS: Utility/Status $p < .01$

(4) Attention is again drawn to the fact that the smaller the difference between the expectations held by the Head Teacher and the teacher, the greater the consensus.

A summary of the statistically significant findings concerning consensus on expectations of teacher and Head Teacher role behaviour is set out in tabulated form below:

Within the educational organization:

1. More consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff occurred on expectations of teacher utility than on either affect or status.
2. More consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff occurred on expectations of teacher affect than on teacher status.
3. More consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff occurred on expectations of Head Teacher affect than on status.
4. More consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff occurred on expectations of Head Teacher utility than on status.
5. When the Head Teacher's proposal was the one preferred by the individual staff member, more consensus between the Head Teacher and his staff occurred on expectations of affect given to the staff than that given to the Head Teacher.

Job Satisfaction

The questionnaire measured three forms of job satisfaction: status, affect and utility. Three separate indices of satisfaction were obtained. These are discussed below.

Status Job Satisfaction - Respondents were questioned as to their perception of the status exhibited within the educational organization by specified members of their role set, e.g. parents, members of the Education Board, etc. The respondents gave their response according to how they rated their satisfaction with various aspects of their present job.

The frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation for each of the ten items, as well as for the total status job satisfaction, are given in Table 6.25.1.

TABLE 6.25.1.

STATUS JOB SATISFACTION

N = 182 (in %)

Item	Degree of Satisfaction						
	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory	$\bar{X}$	S
Prospects for promotion	2.2 (4)	32.4 (59)	32.4 (59)	25.3 (46)	7.7 (14)	2.93	.99
Amount of responsibility given	11 (20)	58.8 (107)	15.9 (29)	10.4 (19)	3.8 (7)	3.60	.94
Respect given by pupils	25.3 (46)	61.5 (112)	8.5 (15)	4.9 (9)	0 (0)	4.04	.72
Respect given by colleagues	30.2 (55)	57.1 (104)	10.4 (19)	2.2 (4)	0 (0)	4.13	.68
Status given by general public	4.4 (8)	44 (80)	27.5 (50)	21.4 (39)	2.7 (5)	3.24	.94
Respect given by parents	15.9 (29)	53.3 (97)	17.6 (32)	12.1 (22)	1.1 (2)	3.68	.92
Freedom given as to <u>what</u> to teach	19.2 (35)	54.4 (99)	16.5 (30)	8.2 (15)	1.6 (3)	3.82	.90
Freedom given as to <u>how</u> to teach	36.8 (67)	53.3 (97)	6.6 (12)	3.3 (6)	0 (0)	4.24	.72
Opportunities to participate in running of school	8.6 (15)	41.4 (72)	21.8 (38)	22.4 (39)	5.7 (10)	3.24	1.07
Opportunities to participate in affairs of the profession	8.2 (15)	50 (91)	29.1 (53)	11 (20)	1.6 (3)	3.50	.86
Total	16.22% (294)	50.66% (918)	18.50% (337)	12.08% (219)	2.42% (44)	3.64	.49

From Table 6.25.1., it can be seen that almost two thirds (66.8%) of the teacher respondents indicated some degree of status job satisfaction, while 14.5% showed some degree of dissatisfaction. The greatest status job satisfaction was exhibited in relation to pupils and colleagues, and the freedom given to choose the methods of teaching. In all three instances the mean score was higher than 4.04 with a standard deviation of less than .72. About a quarter of the teachers indicated some degree of dissatisfaction with: their prospects for promotion (33%); the opportunities to participate in the running of the school (28.1%); and the status given by the general public (24.1%).

<u>Affect Job Satisfaction</u> - The ten items in the questionnaire designed to measure affect satisfaction dealt with the interpersonal relationships listed in Table 6.26.1. The table also records the degree of affect job satisfaction reported by respondents.

TABLE 6.26.1.

AFFECT JOB SATISFACTION

N = 182

(In %)

Item	Degree of Satisfaction						
	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory	$\bar{X}$	S
Relations with pupils	47.7 (83)	44.3 (77)	7.5 (13)	.6 (1)	0 (0)	4.39	.65
Relations with parents	22 (40)	54.4 (99)	18.1 (33)	5.5 (10)	0 (0)	3.91	.78
Relations with colleagues	39.6 (72)	55.5 (101)	4.4 (8)	0 (0)	.5 (1)	4.32	.61
Relations with ancillary staff	46.7 (85)	48.4 (88)	4.9 (9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4.40	.58
Relations with general public	15.9 (29)	52.7 (96)	25.8 (47)	5.5 (10)	0 (0)	3.77	.77
Relations with school adminis.	37.9 (69)	49.5 (90)	7.1 (13)	4.4 (8)	1.1 (2)	4.17	.83
Relations with system adminis.	11 (20)	46.2 (84)	34.1 (62)	7.7 (14)	1.1 (2)	3.55	.80
Relations with service organis.	14.3 (26)	40.1 (73)	41.2 (75)	3.8 (7)	.5 (1)	3.61	.78
Relations with training organis.	14.3 (26)	47.3 (86)	34.1 (62)	3.3 (6)	1.1 (2)	3.68	.79
Relations with similar organis.	13.2 (24)	49.5 (90)	31.9 (58)	4.9 (9)	.5 (1)	3.64	.75
Total	26.15%(474)	48.78%(884)	20.97%(380)	3.58%(65)	.40%(9)	3.94	.44

Table 6.26.1. shows that almost three-quarters (74%) of the teacher respondents indicated some degree of affect job satisfaction. Only 3.9% of the teachers expressed any dissatisfaction, while 20.9% were undecided as to the level of their satisfaction. This latter response was more specifically in relation to the respondent's personal relations with such role-set members as: the general public, system administrators, and personnel in service organizations, training organizations and other educational institutions.

Personal relations with members of the teacher's role set within the school were the source of the greatest affect job satisfaction. The least affect satisfaction was expressed with regard to personal relations with system administrators and with personnel in outside organizations, e.g. with members of training organizations, service organizations and other educational institutions.

TABLE 6.27.1.

UTILITY JOB SATISFACTION

N = 182 (in %)

Item	Degree of Satisfaction						
	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory	$\bar{X}$	S
Salary	4.9 (9)	49.5 (90)	15.9 (29)	24.2 (44)	5.5 (10)	3.21	1.05
Superannuation	3.8 (7)	59.3 (108)	24.7 (45)	11.5 (21)	.5 (1)	3.53	.77
Physical conditions	9.3 (17)	39 (71)	23.1 (42)	20.9 (38)	7.7 (14)	3.18	1.12
Provision of equipment	3.8 (7)	26.9 (49)	19.8 (36)	41.2 (75)	8.2 (15)	2.77	1.07
Provision of ancillary staff	7.1 (13)	35.7 (65)	14.8 (27)	33 (60)	9.3 (17)	3.00	1.17
Cooperation given by colleagues	35.2 (64)	51.1 (93)	11 (20)	2.7 (5)	0 (0)	4.16	.73
In-service training	5.5 (10)	44.5 (81)	29.7 (54)	17 (31)	3.3 (6)	3.29	.94
Supervision by senior staff	15.4 (28)	51.1 (93)	21.4 (39)	11 (20)	1.1 (2)	3.65	.90
Holidays	41.8 (76)	51.1 (93)	6.6 (12)	.5 (1)	0 (0)	4.33	.62
Assistance by related organis.	7.1 (13)	42.9 (78)	34.6 (63)	12.6 (23)	2.7 (5)	3.39	.89
Total	13.4%(244)	45.1%(821)	20.16%(367)	17.47%(318)	3.84%(70)	3.44	.44

Utility Job Satisfaction - The ten items in the utility job satisfaction questionnaire are listed in Table 6.27.1. The degree of utility job satisfaction with each of these items is also reported. From this table it can be seen that over half (58.5%) of the teacher respondents indicated some degree of utility job satisfaction. The most utility job satisfaction was expressed with holidays and the cooperation given by colleagues, while almost half of the teachers (49.4%) expressed dissatisfaction with the physical conditions.

Summary

By comparing the status, affect and utility job satisfaction expressed by the teacher respondents Table 6.28.1. shows that more affect job satisfaction was expressed than either status or utility job satisfaction ($p < .001$; and $p < .001$ respectively), and, in turn, that more status job satisfaction was expressed than utility job satisfaction ($p < .001$). The variation in response among items in the three scales was similar.

TABLE 6.28.1.

SUMMARY OF JOB SATISFACTION

Scale	Degree of Satisfaction (in %)						
	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory	$\bar{X}$	S
Status	16.22	50.66	18.59	12.08	2.42	3.64	.49
Affect	26.15	48.78	20.97	3.58	.40	3.94	.44
Utility	13.4	45.1	20.16	17.47	3.84	3.44	.44
Status/Affect $p < .001$; Affect/Utility $p < .001$; Utility/Status $p < .001$							

Table 6.28.1. also shows that only 3.9% of the teacher respondents expressed any degree of affect dissatisfaction. Within all three scales, the most job satisfaction was expressed with the status, affect and utility exchanged with members of the teacher's role set within the school (e.g. colleagues, pupils). The least status, affect and utility job satisfaction was expressed with the social exchange of role set members outside the school (e.g. personnel in training organizations, service organizations, etc.).

CHAPTER VII

FINDINGS: HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses presented in Chapter IV had three aspects: (a) role consensus; (b) job satisfaction; and (c) personal variables. Relationships among these components were specified, viz, between (a) role consensus and job satisfaction; and (b) the personal variables and job satisfaction.

The previous two chapters have detailed expectations for status, affect and utility behaviour in various situations, along with the role consensus between the Head Teacher and teachers on the expected behaviours of the Head Teacher and teachers. The discussion also detailed job satisfaction of the teacher respondents and discussed the variation among the status, affect and utility job satisfaction scales.

With this basis of description, the following chapter investigates the relationships between: role consensus and job satisfaction; and, the personal variables and job satisfaction. The implications of these findings are considered in the final chapter.

Role Consensus and Job Satisfaction

It was hypothesised that job satisfaction among teachers is a function of role consensus between the Head Teacher and staff on expectations of teacher and Head Teacher behaviour - the greater the consensus, the greater the job satisfaction. Initially, product moment correlations were computed on all possible relationships between status, affect, utility and total role consensus, and status, affect, utility and total job satisfaction. The correlations between role consensus on expectations of teacher behaviour and job satisfaction are reported in Table 7.1., and the correlations between role consensus on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour and job satisfaction in Table 7.2. It should be noted that, since the higher the satisfaction score the greater the teacher's expressed job satisfaction, and the lower the consensus score the greater the degree of consensus on role definition, relationships in the hypothesised direction are indicated by

a negative (-) coefficient of r.

TABLE 7.1.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STATUS, AFFECT, UTILITY AND TOTAL ROLE CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER BEHAVIOUR AND STATUS, AFFECT, UTILITY AND TOTAL JOB SATISFACTION

Consensus	Job Satisfaction											
	Status	p	squared validity	Affect	p	s.v.	Utility	p	s.v.	Total	p	s.v.
Status	.2356	.01	5.55%	.0768			-.1061			.1505		
Affect	.1617			.0513			-.1077			.1221		
Utility	.1149			.0044			-.0294			-.0777		
Total	.2081	.05	4.33%	.0542			-.0965			-.1412		

From Table 7.1. it can be seen that all correlations were very low, and the hypothesised relationship between total role consensus on expectations of teacher behaviour and total job satisfaction was not significant. There were however two significant relationships involving status job satisfaction: viz, the lesser the status role consensus, the greater the status job satisfaction ($p < .01$); and, the lesser the total role consensus, the greater the status job satisfaction ($p < .05$). These relationships accounted for 5.55% and 4.33% respectively of the variation in job satisfaction.

TABLE 7.2.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STATUS, AFFECT, UTILITY AND TOTAL ROLE CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER BEHAVIOUR AND STATUS, AFFECT, UTILITY AND TOTAL JOB SATISFACTION

Consensus	Job Satisfaction											
	Status	p	squared validity	Affect	p	s.v. %	Utility	p	s.v. %	Total	p	s.v. %
Status	-.1919	.05	3.68%	-.2764	.01	7.64	-.1815	.05	3.29	-.2881	.01	8.3
Affect	-.0709			-.5653			-.0401			-.1160		
Utility	-.0174			-.1042			-.0973			-.0979		
Total	-.1159			-.2226	.05	4.95	-.1361			-.2093	.05	4.38

Again, in Table 7.2. it can be seen that all correlations were very low. The hypothesised relationship between total role consensus and total job satisfaction proved significant ($p < .05$), accounting for 4.38% of the variation in job satisfaction. There were several other significant relationships. An increase in status role consensus was related to an increase in: (i) status job satisfaction ($p < .05$); (ii) affect job satisfaction ($p < .01$); (iii) utility job satisfaction ($p < .05$); and, (iv) total job satisfaction ($p < .01$). These correlations accounted for 3.68%, 7.64%, 3.29% and 8.30% respectively of the variation in job satisfaction. There was also a significant correlation between total role consensus and affect job satisfaction ($p < .05$), accounting for 4.95% of the variation in job satisfaction.

Personal Variables and Job Satisfaction

Correlations and the squared validity were also computed on the relationships between the personal variables and job satisfaction. These are reported in Table 7.3.

TABLE 7.3.

CORRELATIONS AND SQUARED VALIDITY OF PERSONAL VARIABLES

Personal variables	r	p	squared validity
Position	.1419		
Qualifications	-.0010		
Age	.1408		
Sex	.1298		
Marital status	-.0836		
Teaching experience	.1801	.05	3.24%

Table 7.3. indicates that the only significant correlation was that between teaching experience and job satisfaction ($p < .05$), accounting for 3.24% of the variation in job satisfaction.

It must be noted that the value of the squared validity measure is partially refuted when variables are intercorrelated. For example, while the variable 'teaching experience' was found

to be significantly correlated with job satisfaction, it was also intercorrelated with position and age (.496 and .780 respectively). Similarly, although only total role consensus on Head Teacher behaviour was found to be significantly correlated with job satisfaction, the two total role consensus scores showed an intercorrelation of .54 (see Appendix III for other variable intercorrelations).

In an attempt to take all possible intercorrelations into account, as well as assessing the relative importance of the predictor variables, further analysis used multiple regression techniques.

Role Consensus, Personal Variables and Job Satisfaction

Using a stepwise programme, multiple regression was carried out with the eight predictor variables: role consensus on expectations of teacher behaviour; role consensus on Head Teacher behaviour; position; qualifications; age; sex; marital status; and teaching experience; and with job satisfaction as the criterion.

Estimates of the true validity of a sample regression equation can be expressed either as a correlation coefficient or as the mean square error, the latter being the mean of the squared difference between each person's true criterion score and the prediction of that score made by the regression equation. Taking all the predictors into account, the multiple correlation coefficient was .353 ($p < .05$). Thus the eight predictors explained 12.46% of the variation in job satisfaction. The sample mean square error (Dallington's formula, 1969) was 1113.844, with an estimated cross validity mean square error of 129.223. The standard error of the predicted scores was 11.012, which was similar to the standard deviation of the criterion scores (11.445).

The literature on multiple regression suggests five measures for considering the relative importance of predictor variables. All of these measures are affected by the inclusion of variables which are intercorrelated, but three measures: the squared validity, beta weights and usefulness of each variable would seem to be of most value (Dallington, 1969).

Having already considered the squared validity of the variables, the results of the multiple regression analysis according to the beta weights and usefulness of each variable are detailed below.

(a) Beta weights - Essentially the multiple regression method computes beta weights which result in the best prediction of the dependent variable. These beta weights are determined solely by the characteristics of the orthogonal component of the variable under consideration. Thus, they have little relation to validity and are influenced by the nature of the other variables in the regression equation. Table 7.4. reports the beta weights of the eight variables entered in the analysis.

TABLE 7.4.

BETA WEIGHTS OF PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor variable	Beta weight
Role consensus (teacher)	-0.8284
Role consensus (Head Teacher)	-5.6078
Position	1.6037
Qualifications	0.0086
Age	0.2129
Sex	4.7332
Marital status	0.9342
Teaching experience	0.3206

Table 7.4. indicates that the variable role consensus on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour had the highest beta weight, with the variables, sex, and position, being next in order of importance.

(b) Usefulness of each variable - This can be defined as the amount the squared multiple correlation would drop if a variable were removed from the regression equation and the weights of the remaining predictor variables were then recalculated. The parametric test of this is the F or t test. Table 7.5. sets out the t-values for each variable and, where appropriate, the level of significance of each variable's

contribution to the correlation. The variables are also rank-ordered according to their usefulness.

TABLE 7.5.

t-VALUES FOR PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Variables	t-values	p	rank-order
Role consensus (teacher)	0.624		4
Role consensus (Head Teacher)	0.011		8
Position	0.171		7
Qualifications	2.352	.02	1
Age	-0.406		5
Sex	1.492		3
Marital status	-0.265		6
Teaching experience	-2.082	.05	2

Table 7.5. indicates that only the variables 'role consensus on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour' and 'sex' were significantly related to job satisfaction. Teaching experience, which according to the squared validity explained the greatest amount of variation, decreased in usefulness through a partialling out of its variance contribution to the other variables, presumably, age and position.

Care must be taken in interpreting these statistics, for the 'unique' contribution of any variable is lessened by the addition of more variables into the analysis. In the present analysis, only eight predictors were entered and with every step in the analysis the contribution of each variable was reduced. With any subsequent inclusion of further inter-correlated variables into this analysis, each contribution would again be reduced, thus rendering any current statement of uniqueness invalid.

A statement of the rank-ordering of the usefulness of the predictor variables (as in Table 7.5) is perhaps the least exaggerated form of presenting the results. Thus according to the rank-ordering of the eight variables, sex was the best predictor of job satisfaction, with role consensus on Head

Teacher behaviour being second in importance. None of the other predictors were significantly related to job satisfaction.

Summary

When the eight predictors: total role consensus on teacher behaviour, total role consensus on Head Teacher behaviour, position, qualifications, age, sex, marital status, and teaching experience; and the criterion, job satisfaction, were entered into multiple regression analysis, only two of the predicted hypotheses gave a significant result. Sex was the most important predictor of job satisfaction, with role consensus on Head Teacher behaviour being the next most important predictor. All other variables failed to give a significant result when the intercorrelations of the variables were taken into account.

CHAPTER VIII

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The central concern of this research was the investigation of the relationship between role consensus and system cohesion, with job satisfaction serving as an index of system cohesion. Accordingly, in the report, initial discussion dealt with role theory and its treatment of role consensus. There, the suggestion was made that, while role theory provides a unique opportunity for spanning many discipline boundaries, the links between conceptualisation and operationalisation have, in many cases, not been fully rationalised. In other words, theoretical bases have been clearly established only infrequently.

Similarly, the review of measures of job satisfaction revealed that many scales failed to embrace any theoretical framework and were rather a collection of specific job satisfaction items compiled principally from the comments of workers. As a result, generalisations extending to other behavioural situations were at best difficult, and at worst impossible.

In view of these limitations in studies of role consensus and job satisfaction, deciding on an inclusive theoretical basis for the present investigation became a matter of prime concern. The decision to use Adams' (1971) view of behaviour as social exchange was taken on the basis of its apparent relevance and its theoretical inclusiveness. The theory was, at the time, without operational corroboration and its appeal lay principally in its plausibility and applicability to the present problem. Adams' theory advanced 'status', 'affect' and 'utility' behaviours as the components of social exchange, so that behaviour manifested in any social system was seen in terms of any, or all three, of these forms of social exchange. Because members of a social system hold expectations for the amount and form of the various social exchanges, role consensus on expectations could also be conceptualised within this model. Thus, an examination of role expectations for the exchange of

status, affect and utility can indicate the extent of role consensus. In turn, its relationship to system cohesion can also be examined.

System cohesion has been measured elsewhere in a variety of ways. However, the present study contended: (i) that the cohesion of a social system is dependent on the nature and type of the provisions for institutionalising rewards; and, (ii) that status, affect and utility may be seen as one possible form of reward. Under these circumstances the amount and nature of such rewards depends on the exchange expectations held by system members. Consequently, satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the system can be seen as dependent on the nature of the exchange as well as on the expectations for the exchange. Given satisfaction, system cohesion results. Given dissatisfaction, system breakdown eventually results. It is this line of reasoning that permits job satisfaction to be taken as an index of system cohesion.

Assuming that system cohesion is dependent upon job satisfaction and that job satisfaction is related to the expectations for the exchange of status, affect and utility within the system, separate measurement of job satisfaction and role expectations is necessary if the relationship between them is to be demonstrated.

For the present study this theoretical framework was applied to a specific system: the educational organization; and to the specific roles: teacher and Head Teacher.

The operationalization of role expectations involved: (i) the specification of a series of situations which could have occurred in a school; (ii) the provision of alternative response statements about the 'situations', which indicated the status, affect and utility behaviour that the respondent (teacher or Head Teacher) would expect to give; and, (iii) the provision of similar response alternatives about the 'situations' which indicated the expected behaviour of a significant other (Head Teacher or teacher). By matching the expectations of teachers with those of their Head Teacher (for their own and each other's behaviour), a measure of consensus on expectations could be obtained.

The content of the job satisfaction scale, consistent with the broader theoretical framework, was specified in terms of the status, affect and utility exchanged within the educational system. The thirty items in the scale were selected to represent potential sources of status, affect and utility satisfaction.

Information was also sought on the selected variables: position held, qualifications, age, sex, marital status, and teaching experience. These variables were included because they are traditionally seen to be related to job satisfaction.

Significant Findings

The following paragraphs examine the empirical findings in relation to the theoretical foundation of the investigation. The findings are briefly presented and are followed by a short discussion of their significance.

Social Exchange in the Educational Organization - Within the educational organization the teachers expected status behaviour to feature the least prominently of the three forms of social exchange. Head Teachers did not expect any difference in the amount of status given. This lack of status expectation may be indicative of either egalitarianism within the profession or a relative lack of concern for status rewards. Either way, if teachers themselves expect to exhibit comparatively little status behaviour, this may account in part for the low status of the teaching profession at large. The egalitarian argument however, would seem to be the weaker one because 'status' attracted the greatest dissensus. This finding may also carry implications for the low status of teaching, in that controversy between the teachers and Head Teachers over status behaviour may negate the possibility of receiving status from outside sources. This implication was further borne out by the finding that status job satisfaction, while exhibited more often than utility job satisfaction, was less frequently expressed than affect job satisfaction. It could be inferred that, because little status behaviour was expected, the infrequent status behaviour that was exhibited within the teacher's role set, approximated the expectations held, with the result that considerable status job satisfaction followed.

Teachers expected to give, and expected the Head Teacher to give, significantly more affect than status. They also expected to give more affect to the staff than to the Head Teacher. It could be inferred that, even beyond their relationship with pupils, teachers saw their role as an affective one. That the exchange of affect in the educational organization was widely accepted was further indicated by the occurrence of greater consensus on affect than on status.

It is noteworthy too that affect job satisfaction was more frequently expressed than either status or utility job satisfaction. Furthermore, frequent affect behaviour was expected, implying that the social component is particularly salient for members of the profession, a feature that no doubt is found desirable but which may also contribute to some of the difficulties society has in taking teaching 'seriously'.

However, to counteract such a thesis, it must be acknowleged that teachers expected to give, and expected the Head Teacher to give, more utility than status. While consensus on both teacher utility and Head Teacher utility was higher than on status, consensus on teacher utility was even greater than on affect. Thus utilitarian exchanges in the educational organization were not only relatively frequent but gave rise to considerable congruency among staff members.

Nevertheless, utility job satisfaction was expressed the least of the three forms of job satisfaction. It seems that, while considerable utility behaviour was anticipated by the teachers and Head Teachers and utility job satisfaction was expressed with this behaviour, there was a lack of job satisfaction with the utility given, especially by members of the teacher's role set beyond the school. However, different kinds of utility may have been involved, for within the educational organization utility is essentially professional utility, while utility from outside the school role set is also manifested in physical terms.

Hypothesised Relationships - The central hypotheses were concerned with the relationship between job satisfaction and role consensus on teacher and Head Teacher behaviour. Only one of the hypothesised relationships was shown to be statistically

significant - the greater the role consensus on Head Teacher behaviour, the greater the job satisfaction. The amount of job satisfaction accounted for by this relationship was very small.

Relationships were also predicted between job satisfaction and the personal variables: position held, qualifications, age, sex, marital status, and teaching experience. Only one of these relationships, namely sex, proved statistically significant. Initially, an increase in teaching experience appeared to be related to greater job satisfaction, but this relationship was partialled out when intercorrelations with other variables were taken into account. Instead, sex was shown to be a more statistically significant predictor, in that female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers.

The fact that few of the hypothesised relationships were found to be statistically significant raises a number of questions, in particular about: (i) the adequacy of the instruments; (ii) the complexity of the relationships; (iii) the theoretical basis of the present study; and (iv) the feasibility of role consensus studies in general.

Adequacy of the Instruments

The use of the situational approach in the measurement of role expectations has been well established (Cook and Cook, 1950; Bidwell, 1955, 1957). In the present instrument the described situations and statements were rigidly controlled according to the theoretical basis, and the resultant role expectations and consensus findings could be explained satisfactorily within this same theoretical framework. Furthermore, although comparison with other instruments was not possible, the present instrument displayed considerable sensitivity in being able to discriminate between teacher and Head Teacher role behaviour.

Similarly the job satisfaction scale proved sensitive to the varying degrees of status, affect and utility expressed by the respondents. The apparent reliability and validity of the index was also evidenced in the test of its internal consistency and comparison with the established Job Description Index (see pp 54-55).

Complexity of the Relationships

Because only one of the six personal variables was found to be related to job satisfaction, the difficulty of describing a typical, job satisfied, teacher is obvious. Given the adequacy of all other aspects of the study the only conclusions that can be drawn are that, either, (i) irrelevant personal variables were selected; or, (ii) the relationship between consensus and job satisfaction is tenuous; or, (iii) job satisfaction and consensus themselves and their interrelationship are more complex than anticipated.

It is the last of these alternatives that would seem most likely. Furthermore, there is support available elsewhere. The research of Gross, Mason and McEachern (1957) demonstrated that job satisfaction and role consensus are related within an interacting group of incumbents of the same position, but not between a group and an incumbent of a counter position. One of the explanations given for the difference in their findings, was that, while incumbents of the same position must, to a certain extent, agree with one another before the job of the group as a whole can be carried out, incumbents of separate positions could continue to disagree with one another while still performing their functions in their own way. However, this argument was partly undermined by the present research. One of the findings was that consensus on expectations of Head Teacher behaviour was associated with a degree of job satisfaction. Despite this, the low correlations exhibited between all the variables and job satisfaction and the small amount of total job satisfaction variance consequently explained, indicates that an array of antecedents of job satisfaction adequate to provide explanatory power was not revealed, and that complex relationships among these antecedents need to be taken into account.

The Theoretical Basis

The failure to confirm all of the hypotheses also raises questions about the theoretical basis of the research. It could be argued that Adams' theory of social exchange (1971) in conceptualising all behaviour in terms of status, affect and utility exchange is too gross for the kind of measurement being

attempted. Furthermore, the high correlation between status and affect behaviours could be taken to imply that these behaviours may not be mutually exclusive. On the other hand criticism may be directed at the possible inadequacies of operationalisation. Nevertheless, the theoretical framework in its present operationalisation did discriminate among the various behaviours in the educational organization and was able to account for a little of the variance in job satisfaction.

Feasibility of Role Consensus Studies

A considerable number of writings have accumulated on role consensus. Some have investigated various methods of measuring role consensus, while others have studied the determinants of role consensus or the factors influenced by role consensus. The paucity of findings in the present research suggests that role consensus is far more subtle than much of the research has indicated. For instance, the fact that consensus on teacher behaviour was not found to be related to job satisfaction while consensus on Head Teacher behaviour was, implies that consensus on the superordinate's behaviour is more important than consensus on the subordinate's behaviour. It could be, however, that teacher role invisibility limits the accuracy of measurements of teacher role behaviour. Presumably it is easier for the teacher to observe the single incumbent of the Head Teacher position, than for the Head Teacher to observe the many incumbents of the teacher position and make a general assessment of their expectations.

The variety of techniques employed in the measurement of role consensus is indeed an indication of its subtlety. Many investigations, including the present one, have focussed on attributed role consensus, where consensus is derived from the comparison of scores, rather than from measures of respondents' awareness of consensus or dissensus. It seems possible that 'perceived consensus' might lend support to the original hypotheses, where 'inferred consensus' did not.

Even allowing for the fact that most consensus studies have incorporated derived consensus, respondents have usually been asked for their expectations of role behaviour. This

practice has some inherent problems, for the possibility of difference between expectations of role behaviour and role behaviour itself is well established. In fact, consensus determined by measuring two or more respondents' role expectations may in fact be completely independent of the actual behaviour generated in a situation. Yet it is often taken for granted that the findings of research investigating expectations of role behaviour are applicable to the performance of the same role behaviour. Greater predictive power may be derived through the use of direct behavioural observation.

The present investigation then would imply that continued measurement of role consensus according to traditional techniques should be undertaken with caution for three reasons: firstly, role consensus would appear to be a complex phenomenon; secondly, role behaviour and expectations of role behaviour may be completely independent of each other and generalisations from one to the other may be questionable; and thirdly, indices of role expectations derived from pencil and paper tests may prove to be less powerful predictors than direct observational studies.

APPENDIX I

(i) TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

School Number _____

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

It has been established in the teaching profession that effective service to children is at least partially dependent on the extent to which teachers feel satisfied with their vocation. Because satisfaction may vary from person to person, and may be influenced by different aspects of the job, precise knowledge about teacher satisfaction is lacking. It is the purpose of this present investigation to try to provide more accurate information.

In the pages that follow, there are a number of questions, general and specific, about aspects of your job that could give you cause for satisfaction. There is also a section that seeks your opinion on how some hypothetical problem situations might be satisfactorily resolved.

Your replies will be regarded as strictly confidential. There is therefore no need to put your name on the questionnaire. The number at the top of the page allows us to identify the school for administrative purposes only.

When you have completed your questionnaire, would you be kind enough to place it in the stamped envelope provided and post it to us. Would you also please write your name on the enclosed post card and post it too. This latter procedure does not in any way associate respondents with their completed questionnaire, but does enable us to check on those who may need a subsequent reminder.

May we ask you to complete and return the questionnaire as soon as possible --- within three days would be a very acceptable response.

Thank you,

Peggy G. Koopman

Peggy G. Koopman,
Sociology Department,
University of Canterbury.

SECTION I

The questions on this, and the following page, deal with the satisfactions that teachers obtain from teaching. Please answer each item by placing a tick in one of the spaces opposite that item. Would you please make your judgements on the basis of your most recent experiences.

How would you rate your usual level of satisfactions with these aspects of your present job:

	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory
1. salary					
2. superannuation					
3. physical conditions (e.g. general environment, facilities, etc.)					
4. provision of equipment					
5. provision of ancillary staff (secretaries and aides)					
6. cooperation given you by colleagues					
7. in-service training					
8. the supervision and guidance given you by more senior staff					
9. holidays					
10. assistance given by related organizations (e.g. Child Welfare, Psychological Service)					
11. prospects for promotion					
12. amount of responsibility you are given					
13. respect you are given by the pupils					
14. respect you are given by colleagues					
15. status you are given by the general public					
16. respect you are given by people who benefit indirectly from your work (e.g. parents)					

	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory
17. the freedom you are given within your school to choose <u>what</u> you will teach					
18. the freedom you are given within your school to choose <u>how</u> you will teach					
19. opportunities you are given to participate in making decisions on the running of the school					
20. opportunities you have to participate in the affairs of the teaching profession					
21. your personal relations with the pupils in your class					
22. your personal relations with the people who benefit indirectly from your work (e.g. parents)					
23. your personal relations with colleagues					
24. your personal relations with ancillary staff (e.g. secretary, caretaker)					
25. your personal relations with the general public in your role as a teacher					
26. your personal relations with school administrators (e.g. Head Teacher, First Assistant)					
27. your personal relations with 'system' administrators (Education Board, Inspectorate)					
28. your personal relations with personnel in other service organizations (e.g. Child Welfare, Psychological Service)					
29. your personal relations with personnel in training organizations that serve your occupation (e.g. Teachers' College)					
30. your personal relations with personnel in similar organizations (e.g. primary schools, secondary schools)					

SECTION II

In the next section a number of situations that might occur in any school are described. They are hypothetical and pose a 'problem', in that the Head Teacher and the Staff view the situation differently. We would like you to indicate how you imagine you would probably act under such circumstances, and how you think others should act. We recognise that the situations described are over-simplified and that in 'real-life' you might have more information. However, would you please indicate the kind of response that you would, generally speaking, be most likely to make.

Problem One. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by the Head Teacher to introduce a new method of teaching into a particular subject area, with which you are concerned. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the Head Teacher's proposal as being useful to him, the staff's proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions for a new method of teaching, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[1] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[2] 2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher							
[3] 3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position							
[4] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself							
[5] 5. your views in favour of majority rule							
[6] 6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school							

Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[7] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[8] 2. the usefulness of his own proposal to himself							
[9] 3. his personal preference for his own proposal							
[10] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[11] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[12] 6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school							

Problem Two. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by the Head Teacher for commending pupil achievement. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the Head Teacher's proposal as being useful to him, the staff's proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning pupil commendation, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[13] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[14] 2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher							
[15] 3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position							
[16] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself							
[17] 5. your views in favour of majority rule							
[18] 6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school							

Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[19] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[20] 2. the usefulness of his own proposal to himself							
[21] 3. his personal preference for his own proposal							
[22] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[23] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[24] 6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school							

Problem Three. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by the Head Teacher to introduce a new system of school timetabling. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the Head Teacher's proposal as being useful to him, the staff's proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning timetabling, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[25] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[26] 2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher							
[27] 3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position							
[28] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself							
[29] 5. your views in favour of majority rule							
[30] 6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school							

Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[31] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[32] 2. the usefulness of his own proposal to himself							
[33] 3. his personal preference for his own proposal							
[34] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[35] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[36] 6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school							

Problem Four. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member for modifying staff-pupil relations. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but the Head Teacher puts forward a counter proposal. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the staff's proposal as being useful to them, the Head Teacher's proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions to modify staff-pupil relations, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[37] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[38] 2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher							
[39] 3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position							
[40] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself							
[41] 5. your views in favour of majority rule							
[42] 6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school							

Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[43] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[44] 2. the usefulness of his own proposal to himself							
[45] 3. his personal preference for his own proposal							
[46] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[47] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[48] 6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school							

Problem Five. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member to introduce a new system of examination. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but the Head Teacher puts forward a counter proposal. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the staff's proposal as being useful to them, the Head Teacher's proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning a new system of examination, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[49] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[50] 2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher							
[51] 3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position							
[52] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself							
[53] 5. your views in favour of majority rule							
[54] 6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school							

Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[55] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[56] 2. the usefulness of his own proposal to himself							
[57] 3. his personal preference for his own proposal							
[58] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[59] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[60] 6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school							

Problem Six. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member that a new topic be introduced into a particular subject area, with which you are concerned. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but the Head Teacher puts forward a counter proposal. While both proposals seem equally reasonable, and while you see the staff's proposal as being useful to them, the Head Teacher's proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning a new topic, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[61] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[62] 2. the usefulness of his proposal to the Head Teacher							
[63] 3. sympathy towards the Head Teacher's position							
[64] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to yourself							
[65] 5. your views in favour of majority rule							
[66] 6. your views in favour of the Head Teacher's right to control decision making in his own school							

Under such circumstances a Head Teacher is faced with a problem too. To resolve it to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for him to indicate:

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[67] 1. sympathy towards the staff's position							
[68] 2. the usefulness of his own proposal to himself							
[69] 3. his personal preference for his own proposal							
[70] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[71] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[72] 6. his right (and responsibility) to control decision making in his own school							

SECTION III

Would you also be kind enough to provide us with some information about yourself. Your replies will of course be kept both anonymous and confidential.

1. What position do you hold at your school?

   Assistant Master/Mistress ☐ Higher position ☐

2. List all the academic degrees and/or other teaching qualifications you hold. (Teachers' Certificate, Dip. Teaching, B.A., M.A., etc.)

   _____

3. What is your age? 20-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐
   51-60 ☐ 61plus ☐

4. What is your sex? Male ☐ Female ☐

5. What is your marital status? _____

6. Including this year, how many years of teaching experience have you had? _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

(ii) HEAD TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

School Number _____

HEAD TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

It has been established in the teaching profession that effective service to children is at least partially dependent on the extent to which teachers feel satisfied with their vocation. Because satisfaction may vary from person to person, and may be influenced by different aspects of the job, precise knowledge about teacher satisfaction is lacking. It is the purpose of this present investigation to try to provide more accurate information.

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SECTION I

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How would you rate your usual level of satisfactions with these aspects of your present job:

	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory
1. salary					
2. superannuation					
3. physical conditions (e.g. general environment, facilities, etc.)					
4. provision of equipment					
5. provision of ancillary staff (secretaries and aides)					
6. cooperation you are given by colleagues (fellow Head Teachers)					
7. in-service training					
8. cooperation you are given by the staff					
9. holidays					
10. assistance given by related organisations (e.g. Child Welfare, Psychological Service)					
11. prospects for promotion					
12. amount of responsibility you are given					
13. respect you are given by the pupils					
14. respect you are given by colleagues					
15. status you are given by the general public					
16. respect you are given by people who benefit indirectly from your work (e.g. parents)					

	very satisfactory	satisfactory	neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	unsatisfactory	very unsatisfactory
17. the freedom you are given to choose what will be taught in your school					
18. the freedom you are given to choose teaching methods used in your school					
19. the freedom you are given in the administration of your school					
20. opportunities you have to participate in the affairs of the teaching profession					
21. your personal relations with the pupils at your school					
22. your personal relations with the people who benefit indirectly from your work (e.g. parents)					
23. your personal relations with your teaching staff					
24. your personal relations with ancillary staff (e.g. secretary, caretaker)					
25. your personal relations with the general public in your role as a teacher					
26. your personal relations with the school's senior staff					
27. your personal relations with 'system' administrators (Education Board, Inspectorate)					
28. your personal relations with personnel in other service organizations (e.g. Child Welfare, Psychological Service)					
29. your personal relations with personnel in training organizations that serve your occupation (e.g. Teachers' College)					
30. your personal relations with personnel in similar organizations (e.g. primary schools, secondary schools)					

SECTION II

In the next section a number of situations that might occur in any school are described. They are hypothetical and pose a 'problem', in that the Head Teacher and the Staff view the situation differently. We would like you to indicate how you imagine you would probably act under such circumstances, and how you think others should act. We recognise that the situations described are over-simplified and that in 'real-life' you might have more information. However, would you please indicate the kind of response that you would, generally speaking, be <u>most likely</u> to make.

Problem One. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion you have made to introduce a new method of teaching into a particular subject area. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals appear equally reasonable, and while the staff's proposal would seem to be the more useful to them, your own proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions for a new method of teaching, how likely would you be to indicate

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[1] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[2] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[3] 3. a personal preference for your own proposal							
[4] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[5] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[6] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school							

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[7] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[8] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[9] 3. sympathy towards you							
[10] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[11] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[12] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school							

Problem Two. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion you have made for commending pupil achievement. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals appear equally reasonable, and while the staff's proposal would seem to be the more useful to them, your own proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning pupil commendation, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[13] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[14] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[15] 3. a personal preference for your own proposal							
[16] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[17] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[18] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school							

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[19] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[20] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[21] 3. sympathy towards you							
[22] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[23] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[24] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school							

Problem Three. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion you have made to introduce a new system of school timetabling. A staff member puts forward a counter proposal, which the other staff members generally favour. While both proposals appear equally reasonable, and while the staff's proposal would seem to be the more useful to them, your own proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning timetabling, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[25] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[26] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[27] 3. a personal preference for your own proposal							
[28] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[29] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[30] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school							

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[31] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[32] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[33] 3. sympathy towards you							
[34] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[35] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[36] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school							

Problem Four. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member for modifying staff-pupil relations. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but you put forward a counter proposal. While both proposals appear equally reasonable, and while the staff's proposal would seem to be the more useful to them, your own proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions to modify staff-pupil relations, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[37] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[38] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[39] 3. a personal preference for your own proposal							
[40] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[41] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[42] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school							

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[43] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[44] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[45] 3. sympathy towards you							
[46] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[47] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[48] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school							

Problem Five. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member to introduce a new system of examination. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but you put forward a counter proposal. While both proposals appear equally reasonable, and while the staff's proposal would seem to be the more useful to them, your own proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning a new system of examination, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[49] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[50] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[51] 3. a personal preference for your own proposal							
[52] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[53] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[54] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school							

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[55] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[56] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[57] 3. sympathy towards you							
[58] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[59] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[60] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school							

Problem Six. Within a staff, consideration is being given to a suggestion made by a staff member that a new topic be introduced into a particular subject area. The other staff members are generally in favour of the suggestion, but you put forward a counter proposal. While both proposals appear equally reasonable, and while the staff's proposal would seem to be the more useful to them, your own proposal seems more useful to you personally.

In your own consideration of the two suggestions concerning a new topic, how likely would you be to indicate:

	extremely likely	very likely	likely	neither likely nor unlikely	unlikely	very unlikely	extremely unlikely
[61] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[62] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[63] 3. a personal preference for your own proposal							
[64] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[65] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[66] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your own school							

Under these circumstances the staff is faced with a problem too. To resolve it, to what extent do you think it would be appropriate for the staff to indicate:

	extremely appropriate	very appropriate	appropriate	neither appropriate nor inappropriate	inappropriate	very inappropriate	extremely inappropriate
[67] 1. sympathy towards the staff							
[68] 2. the usefulness of your proposal to yourself							
[69] 3. sympathy towards you							
[70] 4. the usefulness of the staff's proposal to them							
[71] 5. the principle of majority rule							
[72] 6. your right (and responsibility) to control decision making in your school							

SECTION III

Would you also be kind enough to provide us with some information about yourself. Your replies will of course be kept both anonymous and confidential.

1. List all the academic degrees and/or other teaching qualifications you hold. (Teachers' Certificate, Dip. Teaching, B.A., M.A., etc.)

   _____

2. What is your age? 20-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐
   51-60 ☐ 61plus ☐

3. What is your marital status? _____

4. Including this year, how many years of teaching experience have you had?

   _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX II

(i) ROLE EXPECTATIONS

(These tables are to be read in conjunction with Tables 6.1.1. to 6.12.1. in Chapter Six, e.g. Table 6.1.1. in Chapter Six corresponds with Table 6.1.2. in this appendix.)

TABLE 6.1.2.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 147

Situation*	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Status to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 29, 30)	staff	staff	4.46	1.43	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	4.95	1.46		
new system of examination (Q 53, 54)	H. Teacher	staff	4.25	1.34	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	4.97	1.44		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 17, 18)	staff	staff	4.33	1.49	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	4.77	1.53		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 41, 42)	H. Teacher	staff	4.31	1.44	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	4.91	1.50		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 5, 6)	staff	staff	4.44	1.60	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.67	1.59		
new topic (Q 65, 66)	H. Teacher	staff	4.12	1.35	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	4.84	1.43		

* The precise wording of each question is included in Appendix I.

TABLE 6.2.2.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 8

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Status to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 35, 36)	staff	staff	4.25	1.03	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.75	.88		
new system of examination (Q 59, 60)	H. Teacher	staff	4.37	1.18	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.75	.88		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 23, 24)	staff	staff	4.62	.91	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.37	.91		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 47, 48)	H. Teacher	staff	4.87	1.12	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.12	.64		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 11,12)	staff	staff	4.37	1.18	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.62	.91		
new topic (Q 71, 72)	H. Teacher	staff	4.62	.91	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.62	.74		

TABLE 6.3.2.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 147

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	H.Teacher gives Status to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 35, 36)	staff	staff	4.48	1.36	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	5.20	1.35		
new system of examination (Q 59, 60)	H. Teacher	staff	4.40	1.34	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	5.08	1.46		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 23, 24)	staff	staff	4.42	1.39	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	5.00	1.50		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 47, 48)	H. Teacher	staff	4.44	1.32	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	4.89	1.47		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 11, 12)	staff	staff	4.56	1.38	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	5.06	1.46		
new topic (Q 71, 72)	H. Teacher	staff	4.38	1.42	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	4.89	1.52		

TABLE 6.4.2.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

N = 8

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	H.Teacher gives Status to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 29, 30)	staff	staff	3.75	1.48	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	6.12	.64		
new system of examination (Q 53, 54)	H. Teacher	Staff	4.12	1.55	.02	NS
		H. Teacher	5.75	1.28		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 17, 18)	staff	staff	4.12	1.45	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.37	1.40		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 41, 42)	H. Teacher	staff	4.62	1.68	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.12	1.45		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 5, 6)	staff	staff	4.12	1.55	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.62	1.18		
new topic (Q 65, 66)	H. Teacher	staff	4.5	.92	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.5	1.30		

TABLE 6.5.2.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N= 147

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Affect to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 25, 27)	staff	staff	5.54	1.08	.01	.001
		H. Teacher	5.06	1.20		
new system of examination (Q 49, 51)	H. Teacher	staff	4.98	1.11	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.31	1.15		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 13, 15)	staff	staff	5.49	1.07	.001	.01
		H. Teacher	5.00	1.25		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 37, 39)	H. Teacher	staff	5.02	1.13	.01	.05
		H. Teacher	5.39	1.09		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 1, 3)	staff	staff	5.61	1.02	.001	.001
		H. Teacher	4.92	1.26		
new topic (Q 61, 63)	H. Teacher	staff	4.84	1.17	.02	NS
		H. Teacher	5.17	1.16		

TABLE 6.6.2.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 8

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Affect to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 31, 33)	staff	staff	5.12	1.12	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.5	.75		
new system of examinations (Q 55, 57)	H. Teacher	staff	5.5	.75	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	4.5	.92		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 19, 21)	staff	staff	5.12	1.12	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.5	.92		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 43, 45)	H. Teacher	staff	5.62	.91	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.5	1.06		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 7, 9)	staff	staff	5.12	1.24	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.37	1.06		
new topic (Q 67, 69)	H. Teacher	staff	5.62	.74	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	4.5	.92		

TABLE 6.7.2.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 147

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	H. Teacher gives Affect to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 31, 33)	staff	staff	5.64	.92	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	5.10	1.31		
new system of examinations (Q 55, 57)	H. Teacher	staff	5.45	1.00	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.13	1.28		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 19, 21)	staff	staff	5.58	.90	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	4.99	1.28		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 43, 45)	H. Teacher	staff	5.57	.95	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	5.10	1.36		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 7, 9)	staff	staff	5.89	.86	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	4.91	1.38		
new topic (Q 67, 69)	H. Teacher	staff	5.46	.93	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	5.01	1.34		

TABLE 6.8.2.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

N = 8

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	H. Teacher gives Affect to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 25, 27)	staff	staff	5.5	.92	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.25	.70		
new system of examinations (Q 49, 51)	H. Teacher	staff	5.5	.53	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.12	.99		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 13, 15)	staff	staff	5.75	.88	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.12	.64		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 37, 39)	H. Teacher	staff	5.87	.64	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.87	1.24		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 1, 3)	staff	staff	5.87	.83	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	4.75	.70		
new topic (Q 61, 63)	H. Teacher	staff	5.5	.92	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.37	.51		

TABLE 6.9.2.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 147

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Utility to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 28, 26)	staff	staff	5.13	1.23	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.48	1.03		
new system of examinations (Q 52, 50)	H. Teacher	staff	5.11	1.11	.02	.001
		H. Teacher	4.76	1.15		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 16, 14)	staff	staff	5.00	1.11	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	5.45	1.04		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 40, 38)	H. Teacher	staff	5.08	1.10	NS	.001
		H. Teacher	4.82	1.30		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 4, 2)	staff	staff	4.86	1.21	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	5.54	1.03		
new topic (Q 64, 62)	H. Teacher	staff	4.92	1.25	NS	.001
		H. Teacher	4.78	1.19		

TABLE 6.10.2.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 8

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teacher gives Utility to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 34, 32)	staff	staff	5.5	.92	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.87	.83		
new system of examinations (Q 58, 56)	H. Teacher	staff	5.37	.51	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.87	.99		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 22, 20)	staff	staff	5.37	.51	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.75	1.03		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 46, 44)	H. Teacher	staff	5.75	.70	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.87	.83		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 10, 8)	staff	staff	5.37	.51	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	4.5	.75		
new topic (Q 70, 68)	H. Teacher	staff	5.37	.74	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.87	.64		

TABLE 6.11.2.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 147

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	H. Teacher gives Utility to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 34, 32)	staff	staff	5.17	1.23	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.34	.93		
new system of examinations (Q 58, 56)	H. Teacher	staff	5.18	1.19	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.27	.89		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 22, 20)	staff	staff	5.16	1.24	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.36	.91		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 46, 44)	H. Teacher	staff	5.21	1.25	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.36	.95		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 10, 8)	staff	staff	5.12	1.41	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	5.44	.98		
new topic (Q 70, 68)	H. Teacher	staff	5.08	1.25	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.18	1.05		

TABLE 6.12.2.

HEAD TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

N = 8

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	H. Teacher gives Utility to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling (Q 28, 26)	staff	staff	5.12	1.24	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.00	1.19		
new system of examinations (Q 52, 50)	H. Teacher	staff	5.37	.74	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.37	1.18		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement (Q 16, 14)	staff	staff	5.37	.74	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.75	1.28		
modifying staff-pupil relations (Q 40, 38)	H. Teacher	staff	5.87	.83	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.87	1.24		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching (Q 4, 2)	staff	staff	5.75	1.03	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	4.75	1.03		
new topic (Q 64, 62)	H. Teacher	staff	5.5	.75	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	5.5	1.06		

(ii) ROLE CONSENSUS

(These tables are to be read in conjunction with Tables 6.17.1. to 6.22.1. in Chapter Six, e.g. Table 6.17.1. in Chapter Six corresponds with Table 6.17.2. in this appendix.)

TABLE 6.17.2.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers gives Status to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	1.34	.96	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.37	1.16		
new system of examination	H. Teacher	staff	1.30	1.01	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.44	1.13		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	1.29	1.02	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.37	1.16		
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	1.44	1.14	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.29	.98		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching	staff	staff	1.51	1.07	NS	.05
		H. Teacher	1.56	1.23		
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	1.21	1.00	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.40	1.13		

TABLE 6.18.2.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER STATUS BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers gives Status to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	1.57	1.32	.05	NS
		H. Teacher	1.31	1.09		
new system of examination	H. Teacher	staff	1.39	1.25	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.50	1.21		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	1.47	1.26	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.67	1.25		
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	1.51	1.32	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.65	1.21		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching	staff	staff	1.54	1.32	NS	.05
		H. Teacher	1.47	1.14		
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	1.22	.99	.001	.05
		H. Teacher	1.78	1.27		

TABLE 6.19.2.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Affect to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	1.21	.95	NS	.05
		H. Teacher	1.20	1.02		
new system of examination	H. Teacher	staff	.95	.92	.01	NS
		H. Teacher	1.29	1.01		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	1.07	.97	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.27	1.07		
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	1.12	.86	.001	.01
		H. Teacher	1.51	1.00		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching	staff	staff	1.19	1.03	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.28	1.02		
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	1.00	1.00	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	1.40	.94		

TABLE 6.20.2.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER AFFECT BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Affect to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	1.00	.84	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.06	1.08		
new system of examination	H. Teacher	staff	.81	.79	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	1.30	1.08		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	.91	.81	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.06	1.01		
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	.86	.71	.001	.02
		H. Teacher	1.23	.95		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching	staff	staff	.83	.71	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.23	1.02		
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	.88	.78	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.08	.97		

TABLE 6.21.2.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Utility to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
system of school timetabling	staff	staff	1.12	.90	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	.95	.83		
new system of examination	H. Teacher	staff	1.06	.96	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.09	.93		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	1.06	.89	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	.87	.72		
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	1.00	.90	.001	.01
		H. Teacher	1.28	1.12		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching	staff	staff	1.06	.94	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	.80	.82		
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	1.04	.90	NS	.01
		H. Teacher	1.10	1.01		

TABLE 6.22.2.

CONSENSUS ON EXPECTATIONS OF HEAD TEACHER UTILITY BEHAVIOUR

Situation	Origin of Preferred Proposal	Teachers give Utility to:	$\bar{X}$	S	p	p
		(a) In Status Situations				
new system of school timetabling	staff	staff	1.45	1.08	NS	NS
		H. Teacher	1.21	1.07		
new system of examination	H. Teacher	staff	1.20	1.03	.05	.05
		H. Teacher	.94	.88		
		(b) In Affect Situations				
commending pupil achievement	staff	staff	1.46	1.05	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	.92	.88		
modifying staff-pupil relations	H. Teacher	staff	1.44	1.02	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	1.00	.86		
		(c) In Utility Situations				
new method of teaching	staff	staff	1.51	1.09	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	1.09	.87		
new topic	H. Teacher	staff	1.34	.99	.001	NS
		H. Teacher	.97	.79		

APPENDIX III

CORRELATION MATRIX OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

CORRELATION MATRIX OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

	Consensus on Teacher Behaviour	Consensus on H.Teacher Behaviour	Position	Qualifi-cations	Age	Sex	Marital status	Teaching experience
Consensus on Teacher Behaviour	1.000	0.544	-0.087	0.107	-0.024	0.047	0.076	-0.030
Consensus on H. Teacher Behaviour		1.000	-0.057	0.020	0.023	0.013	0.170	0.063
Position			1.000	-0.028	0.366	-0.196	0.085	0.496
Qualifications				1.000	.094	-0.086	0.056	0.114
Age					1.000	-0.261	0.298	0.780
Sex						1.000	-0.277	-0.294
Marital Status							1.000	0.157
Teaching Experience								1.000
Job Satisfaction	-0.141	-0.209	0.141	-0.001	0.140	0.129	-0.083	0.180

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