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# The Relationship of Consideration and Structure Leadership Styles to Employee Job Satisfaction in Nonprofit Child Care Organizations

Stephanie L. Brooke

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DISSERTATION

OF

STEPHANIE L. BROOKE

APPROVED:

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Paula E. Peinovich", is written over a horizontal line.

PAULA E. PEINOVICH, PhD

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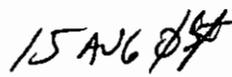
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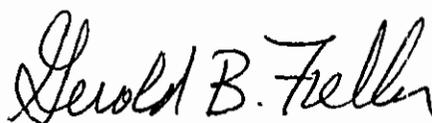
## PSYCHOLOGY

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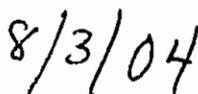
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**ABSTRACT**

**The Relationship of Consideration and Structure Leadership Styles to Employee Job Satisfaction in Nonprofit Child Care Organizations**

by

**Stephanie L. Brooke**

**M.S., North Carolina State University, 1993  
B.A. Moravian College, 1988**

**Dissertation Abstract Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree  
of Doctor of Philosophy  
Psychology**

**Walden University  
August 2004**

## ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between leadership style, as measured by the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, and job satisfaction, global job satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey. Past research suggests that leaders with a considerate style of leadership are associated with greater job satisfaction compared to leaders who initiate structure. Although many studies of leadership style have been conducted in for-profit organizations, the objective of this research was to better understand the relationship of leadership style to job satisfaction in nonprofit child care centers. Eight directors in nonprofit child care centers in Rochester, New York, completed the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, which posits a two-factor construct of leadership. Child care workers ( $N=94$ ) completed the Job Satisfaction Survey. All participating directors were White, college-educated females, and all child care workers were female, with varying educational and cultural backgrounds. Although the relationship between consideration and job satisfaction was not supported, significant relationships were found between a structured leadership orientation and global job satisfaction ( $r = .597, p < .01$ ) as well as satisfaction with supervision ( $r = .207, p < .05$ ). A post hoc analysis revealed a significant difference ( $t = 3.36, df = 8, p < .003$ ) between satisfaction with supervision and leadership structure (LC-HS versus HC-LS). The findings demonstrated that leadership in nonprofit child care organizations does not follow the leadership trends in other for-profit agencies. The findings suggest that child care directors should attend leadership programs that develop a style high in structure to increase child care worker job satisfaction.

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In any given period of history, a culture is to be judged by its dominant philosophy, by the prevalent trend of its intellectual life as expressed in morality, in politics, in economics, in art. Professional intellectuals are the voice of a culture and are, therefore, its leaders, its integrators and its bodyguards. (From *For the New Intellectual* by Ayn Rand, 1961)

I wish to express my deep appreciation and admiration for the chair of my committee, Dr. John Schmidt, who has been my advisor and mentor through this journey. I am also indebted beyond measure to the knowledge, support and encouragement generously provided by my other dissertation committee members, Dr. Hilda Glazer, Dr. Michael Raphael, and the faculty representative, Dr. Gerald Fuller.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	vii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY .....	1
Introduction.....	1
Statement of Problem .....	2
Purpose .....	4
Research Questions .....	4
Rationale .....	5
Theoretical Perspectives.....	7
Significance .....	9
Scope, Assumptions, and Limitations .....	11
Definition of Terms.....	13
Summary and Overview .....	15
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE .....	18
Introduction.....	18
Leadership versus Management.....	18
Leadership Theory.....	22
Situational Theories .....	23
Behavioral Theories.....	32
Interactionist Theories .....	42
Research on Leadership Styles .....	48
Job Characteristics Theory .....	53

Job Satisfaction .....	54
Turnover .....	57
Chapter Summary.....	59
Summary of Methods and Procedures.....	61
<b>CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>63</b>
Introduction.....	63
Purpose .....	64
Research Questions .....	65
Research Methodology .....	66
Participants.....	67
Instruments.....	70
Leadership Opinion Questionnaire .....	70
Job Satisfaction Survey.....	71
Procedures.....	73
Data Analysis.....	77
Summary.....	78
<b>CHAPTER 4: RESULTS.....</b>	<b>80</b>
Sample .....	80
Center Directors.....	80
Child cCare Workers .....	81
Results and Data Analysis .....	82
Descriptive Statistics.....	82

Fisher's Exact Test .....	85
Chi Square Test .....	86
Research Question 1 .....	86
Research Question 2-5 .....	87
Leadership Style and Global Job Satisfaction.....	87
Leadership Style and Satisfaction with Supervision .....	88
One Way ANOVA and Post-Hoc Analyses.....	89
Regression Analyses .....	91
Pearson Product Analysis.....	92
Summary of Results .....	92
<b>CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>95</b>
Introduction.....	95
Problem Statement .....	95
Description of Study Variables.....	96
Population Sample.....	97
Research Questions and Outcomes .....	97
Leadership Consideration and Structure.....	97
Leadership Consideration and Job Satisfaction.....	100
Leadership Structure and Job Satisfaction .....	101
Summary of Discussion.....	103
Recommendations for Future Research.....	104
Implications for Social Change.....	115

**Recommendations for Action .....118**

**REFERENCES.....121**

**Appendix A: Research Instruments.....133**

**Appendix B: Research Consent Form.....143**

**Appendix C: Demographic Data Sheet .....145**

**Appendix D: Curriculum Vita .....146**

## List of Tables

Table 1:	Summary of Leadership Theories.....	45
Table 2:	Director Credentials and NAEYC Accreditation Status .....	81
Table 3-A:	Child care Worker Demographic Data by Center.....	81
Table 3-B:	Child care Worker Educational Demographic Data by Center .....	82
Table 4:	Descriptive Statistics of LOQ and JSS Results .....	83
Table 5:	LOQ Scores by Center .....	84
Table 6:	Break-out of Centers on Consideration and Structure Dimensions .....	85
Table 7:	Fisher’s Exact Test of Leadership Style.....	85
Table 8:	Chi Square Analysis of Leadership Style.....	86
Table 9:	Correlation between LOQ Factors and JSS Factors.....	89
Table 10 –A:	ANOVA Results for Global Job Satisfaction.....	89
Table 10-B:	ANOVA Results for Global Job Satisfaction.....	90
Table 11:	Regression Analysis for Consideration and Structure .....	91
Table 12:	Multivariate Regression Analysis for Consideration and Structure .....	92

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### Introduction

Job satisfaction is an extensively researched topic (Allen, Drevs, & Ruhe, 1999; Kleinman, 2004; Robbins, 1998; Spector, 1997; Yukl, 1998). Of particular interest is the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. For the individual, job dissatisfaction can result in feelings of helplessness, burnout, resentment, anger, and fatigue (Knoop, 1987; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). Further, these emotions can lead to the following behaviors: aggression, regression, complaining, fighting, psychological withdrawal, and leaving the agency (Knoop, 1987; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). With these emotions and behaviors, poor physical and mental health may ensue. From a management perspective, these emotions can lead to decreased employee performance; tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, early retirements, and strikes (Ribelin, 2003; Robbins, 1998).

While understanding the reasons for changing employment are critical for organizations, discerning the relationship of leadership style on job satisfaction is of paramount concern. Working with a leader who does not provide support, show consideration, or engages in hostile behaviors can be stressful for employees (Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). Negative leader-employee interactions can result in decreased pleasure with work, questioning one's skill on the job, reacting harshly to the leader, and leaving the agency (Chen & Spector, 1991). The quality of the leader-employee relationship has an impact on the employee's self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; DeCremer, 2003) and job satisfaction (Chen & Spector, 1991). The costs to the agency can be quite

high in terms of worker stress, reduced productivity, increased absenteeism, and turnover (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Ribelin, 2003).

The ability of a leader has tremendous relevance for the effectiveness of any organization. A leader's behavior has a decisive influence on the morale, productivity, and satisfaction of employees (Kleinman, 2004; Yukl, 1998). Having concern for people, or a leadership style based on consideration, has received a great deal of attention in the literature (Singh & Pestonjee, 1974; Spector, 1985; Yukl, 1998). This follows the social school of thought that views job satisfaction as a function of human relationships, an outgrowth of the historical Hawthorn studies (Young, 1982). Considerate leaders, also known as expressive leaders because they show concern for people, have been found to facilitate a group with higher productivity and higher performance (Singh, 1998). In addition, leadership consideration (expressive leadership) is more conducive to job satisfaction (Singh & Pestonjee, 1974; Spector, 1985). On the other side of the coin, task structured leaders, also known as instrumental leaders, show less concern for employees and are high on initiating structure. "Leader behavior characterized as high on initiating structure led to greater rates of grievances, absenteeism, and turnover and lower levels of job satisfaction for workers performing routine tasks" (Robbins, 1998, p. 350).

#### Statement of the Problem

Despite the fact that leadership has been a widely researched topic (Bass, 1990; Fiedler & Chemers, 1982; Field, 2002; Robbins, 1998; Ruvolo, Petersen, & LeBoeuf, 2004; Yukl, 1998; Zaleznick, 1992), very little attention has been directed toward the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction in nonprofit agencies. To date,

research has focused on for-profit industries and the military (Bass, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988; Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1987). The problem this study addresses is leadership style, a consideration (expressive) orientation, and structured (instrumental) orientation, in relation to employee job satisfaction in the nonprofit arena.

With respect to child care organizations, the turnover rate, a reflection of job dissatisfaction, ranges from 30-50% per year (Ramsburg & Montanelli, 1999). This rate is alarmingly high, especially when compared to the annual turnover rate of 7% among elementary school teachers (Whitebook & Bellm, 1999). The consequences of dissatisfied child care workers is that they develop an intent to leave the job. Child care workers turnover at a rate higher than fast food restaurant employees (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003). The consequences are high in terms of the impact on the organization as well as the children and families involved with the center. The evidence is quite extensive indicating that the high turnover rate of child care workers is a threat to quality care of children (Todd & Deery-Schmitt, 1996). For instance, child care centers with high turnover have higher rates of children being more aggressive with peers, more withdrawn, and spending more time unoccupied (Cost, Quality, and Child Outcomes Study Team, 1995; Manlove & Guzell, 1997). On the other hand, children who experience stability in the quality of care they receive demonstrate more secure attachments, higher complexity of play, higher language development, and higher school achievement (Todd & Deery-Schmitt, 1996). Child care worker job satisfaction is more of a concern today, as the recent changes in welfare programs will result in greater numbers of children needing quality child care.

### Purpose

Although the relationship between concern for employees and job satisfaction is not always clear, research in this area generally indicates that consideration is more highly related to satisfaction than a task structured style of leadership (Wilkerson & Wagner, 1993). Given that much of what is known of the impact of leadership style comes from studies of for-profit agencies, the purpose of this research is to focus on the influence of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in one nonprofit arena, the child care industry. Some current issues in the quality of child care services involve the shortage of highly qualified directors and leaders (Borge, Hartman, & Strom, 1996; Whitebook & Sakai, 2003). Thus, leadership style can directly affect not only employee satisfaction and growth, but also the well being of the children and families. Job dissatisfaction and transition issues caused by turnover will lead to poor quality of care and may negatively affect children's growth and development. This research examined the impact of the director's leadership style, consideration orientation, and structure orientation, on child care worker job satisfaction on a global level as well as satisfaction with supervision.

### Research Questions

Based on the literature to date, there is a significant correlation between a leadership style based on consideration and employee job satisfaction (Chen & Spector, 1991). Given that this correlation applies to for-profit agencies, the following questions were raised with respect to the impact of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in nonprofit agencies:

*Research Question #1* – Is there a relationship between a child care director’s leadership style, consideration versus structure, as determined by the LOQ?

*Research Question #2* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director’s leadership consideration (as determined by the LOQ) and child care workers’ level of job satisfaction (as determined by the global score on the JSS)?

*Research Question #3* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director’s leadership consideration (as determined by the LOQ) and child care workers’ level of supervisor job satisfaction (as determined by the supervisor subscale score on the JSS)?

*Research Question #4* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director’s leadership structure (as determined by the LOQ) and child care workers’ level of job satisfaction (as determined by the global score on the JSS)?

*Research Question #5* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director’s leadership structure (as determined by the LOQ) and child care workers’ level of supervisor job satisfaction (as determined by the supervisor subscale score on the JSS)?

#### Rationale

Low job satisfaction has many negative repercussions for organizations, including high turnover and lower productivity (Kleinman, 2004; Ribelin, 2003; Robbins, 1998). Turnover results in lack of continuity of services to clients, lack of trained staff, and extra managerial resources in terms of recruiting, and training new staff (Hatton & Emerson, 1998). Most theories of turnover consider it a result of employee job dissatisfaction (Bissell & Beach, 1996; Bluedorn, 1982; Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Hellman, 1997). Studies have been reliable in demonstrating an inverse correlation between job

satisfaction and turnover (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Hulin, Rozonowski, & Hachiya, 1985). Although this research does not directly investigate turnover, it is important to note the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave the agency.

The objective of this research is to understand the impact of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in an effort to improve leader-employee relations in nonprofit child care settings. In the last ten years, the turnover rate for child care workers ranged from 30-50% (Ramsburg & Montanelli, 1999). Since turnover rates, separation costs, vacancy costs, and training costs are high in child care centers (Vickers, 2002), providing strategies for increasing job satisfaction will lead to a more stable environment for children and their families, promote positive leader member relations, and strengthen the organizational climate. Since leadership style can critically influence employee satisfaction, this study is of significant importance in promoting social change. Specifically, it focuses on a unique industry, nonprofit child care agencies, a little researched area in terms of leadership style.

This research is valuable in terms of providing recommendations for child care leadership training programs, another social change component. Since leadership style in relation to job satisfaction in nonprofit agencies has not received much attention in professional literature, this study adds to the field of organizational psychology by providing research on this unique setting and distinguishes it from studies of leadership style based in for-profit or military organizations. Understanding the relationship between the director's leadership style on child care workers' job satisfaction may lead to a stronger organizational climate, reduce turnover, engender greater trust of children and

their families, promote positive child development, and provide for a stronger fiscal base for the agency.

### Theoretical Perspectives

Using a chronological and evolutionary approach, leadership theory has changed over time, with three major perspectives emerging: situational, behavioral, and interactionist. They are briefly discussed here to provide an overview of the theories used to inform this study.

A common thread of the situational theories was the examination of the constructs of leadership consideration and leadership task structure. Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) situational leadership theory, and Hersey and Blanchard's (1985) leadership theory were the main situational theories considered in Chapter 2. Fiedler's (1967) contingency model stated that leadership effectiveness is dependent on leadership variables as well as the characteristics of the organizational environment. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) developed a situational leadership theory that considered the leader's control over the environment and the type of employees in the organization. Hersey and Blanchard (1985) defined high and low task relationships in terms of telling, selling, participating, and delegating leadership styles. They stated that leadership effectiveness is dependent on the leader's relationship behavior and task behavior. The orientation of the leader was considered in connection with employee situation variables.

Given that situational theories were somewhat limited in their view of leadership style, the following behavioral theories emerged in the literature: Ohio State University

Studies (Robbins, 1998), Likert's (1961) behavioral leadership theory, McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y, and Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid. In the mid 1940s, the Ohio State University Studies examined the dimensions of leadership behavior (Robbins, 1998). The work that emerged from these studies led to the development of the LOQ and was the primary work used to inform the present research. Specifically, it evolved into a two-dimensional model of leadership (consideration versus structure). The Ohio State Studies showed that leadership consideration produced higher levels of employee job satisfaction (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Robbins, 1998). Likert (1961) led the University of Michigan studies, which examined four types of leadership styles: exploitive, benevolent, consultative, and participative. Likert stressed that for an organization to run efficiently, positive leader-employee relationships must be in place. McGregor (1960) developed a behavioral theory known as Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X leaders used controlling and punitive approaches as the leader operated from the view that employees innately dislike work and will avoid responsibility. On the other hand, Theory Y leaders perceived employees as being capable of self-direction, creativity, and self-motivation; therefore, they were less inclined to use punitive and controlling methods. The managerial grid, proposed by Blake and Mouton (1964), categorized leadership styles based on consideration orientation versus task orientation. The managerial grid was based on the concept that leaders vary in their concern for people and their concern for completing tasks.

Information and research with trait and behavioral views of leadership led to the most recent approach that focuses on transactional and transformational leadership, an

interactionist style of leadership. According to Burns (1970), transactional leadership involves an exchange relationship with employees. In other words, employees and leaders can motivate each other to high levels of success and morality. Transactional behavior focuses on the accomplishment of tasks and positive employee relationships in exchange for desirable rewards (Robbins, 1998). On the other hand, transformational leaders focus on employee relations by making individualized considerations, intellectual stimulation, and provide the charisma to move people to buy into their vision of the organization (Robbins, 1998). There is a current trend examining the effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles on job satisfaction (Catalano, 2003).

Taken together, these theories suggest that leadership style does have an impact on job satisfaction (Robbins, 1998). A theme present in these studies is one of leadership style based on consideration and initiating structure. Thus, the traits and behaviors related to leadership consideration and structure may be pivotal in understanding the influence of leadership style on child care worker job satisfaction in nonprofit, child care settings.

#### Significance

Generally speaking, why should organizations be concerned with job satisfaction? Employees deserve to be treated fairly and job satisfaction is often a reflection of fair treatment. Spector (1997) noted that job satisfaction can influence employee behavior, which, in turn, influences organizational functioning. Similarly, Bissell and Beach (1996) examined the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. They found decreased job satisfaction for those employees that had a discrepancy between ideal supervision and what they actually experienced from their supervisors on the job. This implied that in

order to increase employee job satisfaction, leaders may have to reevaluate their approach in order to match their employees' expectations. Additionally, Bissell and Beach (1996) found that when leaders changed their definitions of leadership, turnover decreased to near zero, absenteeism went down, morale increased dramatically, trust of management increased, and both the quantity and quality of customer service improved.

Low job satisfaction leads to intent to leave the agency. Turnover results in lack of continuity of services to clients, lack of trained staff, and extra managerial resources in terms of recruiting and time required to train new staff (Hatton & Emerson, 1998). Most theories of turnover consider it a result of low employee job satisfaction (Bissell & Beach, 1996; Bluedorn, 1982; Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Hellman, 1997). Studies have been fairly consistent in demonstrating an inverse correlation between job satisfaction and turnover (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Hulin, Rozonowski, & Hachiya, 1985). Spector (1997) went as far as to say that this is a casual relationship: Job dissatisfaction leads to turnover. If the job satisfaction level is low, the person will develop a behavioral intention to quit the job and inevitably, the position turns over. Although this research does not examine turnover directly, it does consider it as a possible result of job dissatisfaction. If job dissatisfaction is low, turnover may be prevented.

Generalizing the augmentation effect to nonprofit organizations and volunteer agencies would significantly contribute to our understanding of the construct of leadership. Surveys with the employees of nonprofit child care centers may indicate how leadership is interpreted, which may be different than the for-profit and military organizations discussed in the professional literature. These differences may add to our

understanding of the relationship of leadership and employee satisfaction in this unique organizational setting. This study may promote social change by providing information instrumental to leadership training programs for directors of child care centers.

Specifically, understanding those aspects of leadership directly related to increased job satisfaction is a proactive approach to preventing the 30-50% national turnover rate for child care workers (Ramsburg & Montanelli, 1999). More important, if child care workers are satisfied with the quality of leadership, they will not leave the agency, thus promoting a continuity of services to children and their families.

#### Scope, Assumptions, and Limitations

The present study focuses on nonprofit child care organizations in upstate New York, where there is more job opportunity. Rochester, New York, is not a large metropolitan area; the city has a population of approximately 1,099,600 (Monroe County Economic Development Task Force, 2002). The average household size is 2.61. Approximately, 277,392 families inhabit the city. Children 0-5 years comprise 7.7% of the population of Rochester (Monroe County Economic Development Task Force, 2002). Private, nonprofit wage and salary workers comprise 7.7% of the population (Monroe County Economic Development Task Force, 2002).

The following assumptions were recognized as essential to this study:

1. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) were administered according to established protocol. The LOQ is a useful tool in examining the relationship between leadership style and the resulting impact on employee satisfaction.

2. The study pool was obtained via volunteer sample of child care workers and directors.
3. The measured behaviors represent honest and accurate responses of employees in the child care setting.

The study examined only one nonprofit arena, namely child care organizations. Other social work settings and nonprofit agencies may require different types of leadership skill, which in turn will influence employee satisfaction. In addition, this study did not focus on volunteers or interns, thereby leaving unclear the impact of leadership style on these types of workers. Another limitation centers on the fact that all participants were from the same area in Western New York. Therefore, it is unclear if retention and satisfaction issues may differ in other parts of the country. Since the participants volunteered for this study, the results are limited when generalizing to the larger population of child care settings.

Despite these limitations, understanding the relationship between leadership style and employee satisfaction contributes to the dearth of literature on nonprofit agencies. Additionally, the information is useful to centers interested in employee retention and increased job satisfaction. The methods utilized in this study yielded results that are immediately usable and beneficial to the field of child care. Further, the information obtained can promote positive change in leadership and management of these nonprofit agencies.

## Definition of Terms

*For-profit agencies* - the compensation accruing to entrepreneurs for the assumption of risk in business enterprise as distinguished from wages or rent (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2002).

*Job satisfaction* - A general attitude toward a person's job. The differences between the amount of reinforcement employees receive and the amount they feel they should receive because of their endeavors (Hellman, 1997; Hossain, 1995-96; Lagace, 1988; Robbins, 1998; Singh & Pestonjee, 1974). Job satisfaction was measured using Spector's (1985; 1994) Job Satisfaction Survey.

*Leader* - oriented toward innovation; focused on getting employees to agree on what should be accomplished; concerned on what the tasks mean to people (Yukl, 1998).

*Leading* - A function that includes motivating subordinates, directing others, selecting the most effective communication channels, and resolving conflicts (Robbins, 1998).

*Leadership* - is about articulating vision, employing values, and developing the organization environment in which tasks can be accomplished (Richards & Engle, 1986). Further, leadership is the process of making sense of what employees are doing together so that people can comprehend goals and be committed to them (Drath & Palus, 1994). In addition, leadership involves motivating and influencing employees (Burns, 1970). Style of leadership was measured using Fleishman's (1996) Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.

*Management* - a process involving planning, organizing, leading, and controlling employees people (Buhler, 1995; Fagiano, 1997; McConkey, 1989; Robbins, 1998).

*Manager* – oriented toward stability; focused on employee efficiency; concerned with the process of completing tasks (Yukl, 1998).

*Managing* – the process of achieving goals through other people (Robbins, 1998).

*Nonprofit agencies* - not conducted or maintained for the purpose of making a profit (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2002).

*Relationship behavior (a.k.a., Leadership Consideration)* – refers to how leaders maintain personal relationships between themselves and their employees. Here the leader shows concern for employees (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Robbins, 1998). Relationship behavior refers to consideration which Fleishman (1996) defines as the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationships with subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, concern for their feelings, and a certain warmth between leaders and employees. Consideration was measured using the LOQ. A high score on consideration revealed good rapport and two-way communication with employees. A low score revealed the leader is likely to be more impersonal with employees.

*Supervising* - to have or exercise the charge and oversight of direct employees (Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online, 2004).

*Supervisor* - an administrative officer in charge of a business, government, or school unit or operation (Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online, 2004).

*Task structured behavior (a.k.a., Instrumental Leadership)* – refers to how leaders organize their role within the organization. Here the leader initiates structure (Hersey &

Blanchard, 1993; Robbins, 1998). Task behavior also refers to structure defined by Fleishman (1996) as the extent to which a person is likely to define and structure his or her own role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment. This was measured using the LOQ (Fleishman, 1996). A high score on structure depicted leaders who are actively directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, and criticizing. A low score characterized leaders who are inactively giving direction in planning, communicating information, scheduling, and criticizing.

*Transformational leaders* - are responsible for performance beyond ordinary expectations as they transmit a sense of mission, stimulate learning experiences, and stimulate novel ways of thinking (Hater & Bass, 1988).

*Transactional leaders* - achieve performance as required by the use of negative feedback and contingent rewards (Hater & Bass, 1988).

*Turnover* - is a voluntary or involuntary permanent withdrawal of an employee from an organization (Bluedorn, 1982; Dalessio, 1982; Robbins, 1998; Russ & McNeilly, 1995).

### Summary and Overview

Child care is a field that is subject to a high degree of turnover and employee dissatisfaction (Vickers, 2002). The annual turnover rate was 27% among child care workers in 1997, whereas the average turnover rate for public school teachers during the same period was 6.6 % (Almanac of Policy Issues, 2002). Given that these organizations work with children, stability and consistency in the environment are critical to the optimal growth and development of the children participating in the center's programs.

Additionally, stability in the environment is critical in parental confidence regarding their children's welfare and the number of new people their children are exposed to in a program. Much of the research to date on employee satisfaction and leadership style has focused on for-profit or military agencies (Bass, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988; Waldman et al., 1987). There is a need to understand the relationship between leadership consideration and leadership structure on employees in nonprofit centers, specifically as it influences employee satisfaction. This study helps promote social change in the nonprofit industry of child care by focusing on the aspects of leadership style that influence employee job satisfaction. Further, this information can be used for leadership training programs for administrators of child care centers.

Chapter 2 covers the theoretical perspectives that informed the study and research on the impact of leadership style on employee job satisfaction. This chapter distinguishes between the terms leadership and management. Further, it covers historical theories of leadership style including situational theories, behavioral theories, and interactionist approaches. Job characteristics theory is discussed. Research studies on job satisfaction and leadership style are also examined.

Chapter 3 discusses the purpose of the study and delineates the research questions. Further, the chapter lists the methods utilized to collect the data for examining the relationship of leadership style on employee satisfaction in non-for-profit child care centers in Rochester, New York. The LOQ determined the leadership style of child care directors while the JSS measured job satisfaction of the child care workers employed in the centers. Reliability and validity information for both these instruments are presented.

Last, the chapter discusses possible limitations as well as the potential to generalize the findings of this research.

Chapter 4 presents the statistical analysis of the results. The chapter outlines the multivariate and bivariate correlational analyses conducted. Additionally, the post hoc analyses used to examine the data are presented.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the results examining the demographic characteristics of the sample and the implications of the results obtained. Further, the chapter discusses the practical applications of this research. Recommendations for future research directions are presented.

## CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### Introduction

In the following pages, a review of the literature on the topic of leadership and job satisfaction is presented. The search was conducted using library resources from Walden University, Indiana University, and Nazareth College. Additionally, information was obtained using the following search engines: America Online (AOL), Google, First Search, and Dogpile. Specifically, the following key words were searched: leadership, leadership styles, leadership theory, job satisfaction, employee satisfaction, turnover, job turnover, and intent to quit. Additionally, the following databases were consulted: ERIC, PSYCInfo, and PSYCArticles.

The review begins with a distinction between the terms *leadership* and *management*. Using a chronological and evolutionary approach, leadership theory is discussed. The chapter presents empirical research on leadership theory. Under the umbrella concept of job characteristics theory, job satisfaction is explained. Although this research does not examine turnover directly, turnover research is briefly discussed at the end of the chapter as a possible consequence of job dissatisfaction.

### Leadership versus Management

In reviewing the literature, there are numerous definitions of leadership among many writers publishing on the topic (Bass, 1990; Fiedler & Chemers, 1987; Field, 2002; Kleinman, 2004; Robbins, 1998; Yukl, 1998; Zaelznik, 1992). Although leadership entails management skills, leadership is not management. Not all managers are able to effectively lead. The opposite also holds true: Not all leaders are effective managers.

When comparing the definitions of leadership and management, this discrepancy becomes less vague.

Field (2002) examined the differences between leadership and management. He compared 187 leadership images from the web to 186 management images. As opposed to reinforcing the status quo and reliance on hierarchy, Field suggested that the thrust of leadership is to communicate values and take action within the context of the leader employee relationship. Similar to Field, Robbins (1998) defined leadership as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals and objectives. Leaders bring energy to the work environment (Zaleznick, 1992), consequently motivating the workers to further the achievement of the organization's goals (Winter & Sarros, 2002).

According to Yukl (1998), leadership entails the intentional influence exerted over other people in order to guide, structure, and facilitate tasks and relationships in an organization. Leaders are seen as having vision, providing inspiration, developing purpose, extending boundaries, creating change, innovating through others by coaching, and building relationships (Bennis & Naus, 1985; Field, 2002). Similarly, Maccoby (2000) describes leadership in relationship terms involving trust, motivation, as well as coaching.

Formal leaders are appointed and are part of the structure of the organization. Sometimes, leaders can emerge within a group without being formally appointed. It may be that personality traits are what help leaders, formal or informal, materialize within an organization. According to trait theories, leaders possess charisma, enthusiasm, and courage (Robbins, 1998). Leaders develop a vision for the organization and are able to

guide employees in fulfilling that vision (Buhler, 1995; Fagiano, 1997; McConnell, 1994). In essence, leaders are innovators (Sharma, 1997). Under leadership, employees are empowered since leaders provide the optimal conditions for workers to manage themselves (Kerfoot, 2004; McConkey, 1989). Leaders create change and ensure that employees buy into the change. According to Sanborn (1996), leaders guide their employees from one situation to another.

Whereas leaders energize the system, Zaleznik (1992) asserts that managers strive to provide a stable work environment. Essentially, managers are conformers (Sharma, 1997). In addition, managers are concerned with how to accomplish tasks whereas leaders are focused on what the task means to people. Maccoby (2000) defines management in functional terms: planning, budgeting, evaluating, and facilitating. Managers seek control, follow the rules, set objectives, plan, budget, and get work done through others. Under managers, employees are less empowered, as managers tend to control them as well as their work conditions (McConkey, 1989). Also, managers value stability and the use of legitimate power to do the regular work of the organization (Zaleznik, 1992). In order to provide a stable work environment, managers rely on legitimate power (Buhler, 1995). Given that they focus on the status quo and managing the environment, change only occurs when it is necessary (Sanborn, 1996).

According to Yukl (1998), the following behaviors are required for managing work: planning, problem solving, clarifying roles and objectives, informing, and monitoring operations. The behaviors for managing relationships include supporting, developing, recognizing, rewarding, and managing conflict (Robbins, 1998).

Instrumental leaders are highly effective in managing work. In other words, they are task orientated. Due to their intense focus on completing a task, they sometimes cause friction within the organization (Yukl, 1998). Hence, there is a need for expressive leadership or a consideration style of leadership that serves to build moral. Ideally, it would be helpful to have a leader high on both leadership orientations or a leadership team that includes both styles. According to Yukl, the behaviors for managing work and managing relationships are similar with respect to problem solving abilities, informing, and clarifying. The behaviors will conflict if there is too much focus on the task to the point that employees' feelings and needs are not satisfied. On the other hand, too much focus on managing the behavior of employees takes energy from the task at hand and could end up costing the company money, time, and customer satisfaction (Robbins, 1998). Equal attention to managing work and managing relationships is critical for maintaining organizational homeostasis.

Given that managers are more task oriented, they can be viewed as the hands of the organization. Since leaders move the organization and individuals according to the vision they hold, leaders, metaphorically speaking, are the feet of a company. Generally, leaders promote vision, provide motivation, purpose, and direction. A leader is someone who has commanding authority or influence. In other words, the leader is the principal performer of a group. Leadership includes actions and influences based on reason and logic as well those based on inspiration and desire. Leadership also requires working within the social context shared among all members of a group (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1998). Being able to manage requires understanding the aspects of a particular task or mission.

A leader must motivate employees to the completion of the mission. Simply stated, management sets the stage and directs whereas leadership motivates employees so that the vision is realized. As can be seen from these definitions, both need support from each process in order to achieve organizational goals.

### Leadership Theory

The current section focuses on examining leadership style from various theoretical viewpoints. Using a chronological and evolutionary approach, leadership theory has changed over time, with three major perspectives emerging: situational theories, behavioral theories, and interactionist leadership theories. Specifically, Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) model, and Hersey and Blanchard's (1985) leadership theory were main situational theories associated with leadership style. With the limitations of situational theories, the following behavioral theories emerged in the literature: Ohio State University Studies (Robbins, 1998), Likert's (1961) behavioral leadership theory, McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y, and Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid. The most recent view of leadership style focuses on transactional and transformational leadership, which is an interactionist view of leadership. These leadership theories suggest that leadership style does have an impact on job satisfaction. The traits and behaviors related to leadership consideration and leadership structure may be pivotal in understanding the impact of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in nonprofit, child care settings

### Situational Theories

One of the primary purposes of leadership is to create an organizational climate where employees are empowered and inspired by the agency's mission and goals (Glisson, 1989; Kerfoot, 2004). Administrative leadership concerns distinct patterns of behavior intended to influence employees along a predetermined path toward outlined goals and objectives (Berg, 1980). One of the most popular situational theories of leadership style is the Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness espoused by Fiedler (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). It is also one of the most widely researched leadership theories (Bass, 1990; Whippy, 2001).

The contingency model of leadership effectiveness holds that one's ability to have an impact on employees hinges on two critical areas: leadership variables and environmental variables (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). The first factor is the degree to which the leadership situation gives the leader control and influence over the group process and performance. Leadership effectiveness depends on the personal attributes of the leader (Robbins, 1998). This concerns the leader's primary goal: task performance or interpersonal relations. The model centers on leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). Group performance is a direct result of the interaction of leadership control and situation or environmental control (Robbins, 1998).

Leadership style is the consistent system of interaction that takes place between a leader and a team. Fiedler felt that leadership style was fixed as it is based upon the individual's personality (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) According to Fiedler and Garcia, the

effectiveness of a leader is dependent upon the situation and whether the leader was relationship oriented or task oriented.

In order to classify leadership styles, Fiedler developed an index called the Least-Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale, which purports to measure the degree to which a person is task or relationship oriented (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). The responses to these scales are summed and averaged with a high LPC score suggesting that a person has a human relations orientation, while a low LPC score indicates a task orientation. According to this thought process, people who rate their least preferred coworker in relatively favorable light on these scales gains satisfaction from interpersonal relationships (Gray & Starke, 1988). High LPC leaders are said to be relationship-orientated. These leaders see positive interpersonal relations as a requirement for task accomplishment (Gray & Starke, 1988).

On the other hand, those who rate coworkers in a relatively unfavorable light get satisfaction out of successful task performance (Gray & Starke, 1988). Leaders who describe their least preferred coworker in unfavorable terms, in other words, having a low LPC score, derive major satisfaction by successfully completing a task. These leaders are described as task-orientated. According to Gray and Starke, they are more concerned with successful task accomplishment and treat interpersonal relationships as secondary.

The second major factor in Fiedler's theory is known as situational favorableness - environmental variables. Situational control includes the following three dimensions: (a) the leader's relationship with employees; (b) the degree to which the employee's task is structured; and (c) the organization's backing of the leader in terms of rules, rewards, and

sanctions available (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). Another component of situational control is *boss stress*, which refers to the relationship of the employee to his or her immediate supervisor (Borden, 1980). High boss stress will cause uncertainty about the supervisor's support and the leader's performance. Although situational control and boss stress tend to influence the leader's behavior and performance, control and stress have a moderate, significant correlation (Chemers & Ayman, 1993). "Stressful relations with subordinates by definition imply relatively poor leader-member relations, but boss stress may, of course, exist in groups in which the leader has good relations with subordinates" (Chemers & Ayman, 1993, pp. 3-4). And in turn, stress is a factor that affects employee retention (Ribelin, 2003).

For leader-member relations, Fiedler maintains that the leader will have more influence if they maintain good relationships with employees who like, respect, and trust them than if they do not (Fiedler & Chemers, 1982). According to Fiedler and Chemers, task structure is the second most important factor in determining structural favorableness. Highly structured tasks, detailing how a job is to be completed, provide a leader with more influence over employees' actions than do unstructured tasks. Regarding position power, leaders who have the power to hire and fire, discipline and reward, have more power than those who do not have such abilities in an organization.

With respect to contingency theory, the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the leader should not be the focus point. Rather, Fiedler asserts that there are only leaders who perform better in some situations, but not all situations (Fiedler & Chemers, 1982). Effectiveness depends on matching one's style of leadership to the situation. Further, the

effectiveness of a leader can be improved by designing the job to fit the leader. For instance, by increasing or decreasing a leader's position power, changing the structure of a task, or influencing the leader-employee relationship in an organization can modify a situation to better fit a leader's style (Robbins, 1998).

In conclusion, Fiedler's work is not without problems or criticisms. Evidence suggests that other situational variables, like training and experience, influence a leader's effectiveness (Bass, 1990). There are also some uncertainties about Fiedler's measurement of different variables. For example, there is some doubt whether the LPC is a true measure of leadership style (Bass, 1990; Bedeian & Gleuck, 1983). Much of the validity information obtained on the LPC is based on concurrent measurements, leader-member relations, and group performance (Bass, 1990). Replication of the validity studies has not provided support for the LPC (Bass, 1990). "Despite these and other criticisms, Fiedler's contingency theory represents an important addition to our understanding of effective leadership" (Bedeian, & Gleuck, 1983, p. 508). Contingency theory has made important contributions in researching the topic of leadership, particularly with illustrating the concepts of consideration and task structure.

Another situational leadership theory stems from the work of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973). According to this theory, efficient leadership depends on the source of the leader's power and the types of employees within the organization. Using a continuum, leadership styles range from complete autonomy for employees, the democratic style, to complete control by leaders, the autocratic style (Bass, 1990). This

typology of leadership styles centers on the issue of who has decision power, the leader or the employee (Bass, 1990).

In order to select the most appropriate style, the leader must consider forces affecting self, employee, situation, and time constraints. Forces affecting the leader entail the belief in employee participation as well as confidence in capabilities of the employee. Staff who are independent, tolerant of ambiguity, competent, and identify with organizational goals must also be considered (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). When evaluating the situation, the leader should focus on the values, traditions, and essential knowledge that will make employees work together effectively. Last, the need for immediate decision making under time pressure will mitigate against participation that assists in determining which style might be most effective in a given situation.

With participatory leadership, the leader defines the problem for employees and gathers their thoughts, prior to making a decision. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) would suggest that the less employees support the goals of the organization, the more the democratic style of leadership is required. The more important the decision is to those affected by the decision, the more the leader should consider the styles that are more autocratic. This model poses that leaders may choose an abdication style where they delegate not only tasks for completion but also the power and control as well (Schein, 1992). It is the leader's responsibility to assess the factors and decide which style might be most appropriate to the situation. Given that the demands of work situations vary, one solution will not work consistently for different problems.

There are several advantages to this theory. This theory gives leaders a choice for involvement. Additionally, it presents criteria for participation and delegation while forcing decision making on important criteria such as organizational forces and time (Schein, 1992). Further, the theory emphasizes employee development and empowerment (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). On the other hand, this theory involves only the initial stage of assigning the task to an employee. This process does not determine effectiveness. According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt, it assumes that the leader has all relevant information to determine disposition to self or the team. Also, it does not consider the larger social forces or politics that may envelop the environment. Last, the theory is two-dimensional; therefore, simplifying complex decisions.

Another well known leadership theory is based on the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1974). They define leadership as “a process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward accomplishing goals in a given situation” (p. 22). Leadership effectiveness is based on the flexibility of the leader to adapt to the situation and is dependent on the job and psychological maturity of the employees (Bass, 1990).

Here, leadership style depends on the employee’s ability and willingness to follow, a premise not considered by the previous theories of leadership. Telling, selling, participating, and delegating are the four styles outlined by Hersey and Blanchard (1993). With the telling (high task-low relationship) style, the leader defines roles and directs people on what, how, when, and where to do various tasks. It emphasizes ordered behavior. With the selling (high task-high relationship) aspect, the leader provides both directive behavior and supportive behavior. Participating (low task-high relationship)

styles indicate that the leader and follower share in decision making, with the main role of the leader being facilitating and communicating. Delegating (low task-low relationship) entails little direction or support on the part of the leader (Robbins, 1998). The four styles of leadership are based on directive and supportive behaviors. Directive behaviors include close supervision, structure, and control. They identified four-leader behavior styles based on task, direction, and relationship. McKee (1991) referred to their discussion of relationship as providing social and emotional support in addition to facilitating behaviors.

The four basic leadership styles are summarized as follows:

S1 – high task/low relationship: This style is effective when employees are low in motivation and ability. It is particularly helpful for new employees and volunteers. This style is high in direction with low support.

S2 – high task/high relationship: Leaders explain decisions and solicit suggestions from employees making it an appropriate style for working with employees who have been with the agency for two to three years (Heller, 1993). This is known as the coaching style that has high direction and high support. This is the best attitudinal style of the four (Bass, 1990).

S3 – high relationship/low task: This style is effective for employees with adequate ability and motivation. The style works well with creative individuals who need support to implement their ideas (Heller, 1993). Further, it is a style that offers high support with low direction.

S4 – low relationship/low task: This style is effective when people have high ability and motivation. Additionally, it is a delegating style that provides low support and little direction.

The two dimensions of this theory are referred to as relationship behavior and task behavior (Robbins, 1998). Task behavior refers to "the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 129), whereas relationship behavior refers to "the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group" (p. 129). They created a grid, a 2x2 matrix, with each quadrant representing a different leadership style.

The final component in Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) theory is defining four stages of follower readiness. In the R1 quadrant, employees are unable, unwilling, or are too insecure to take responsibility to do a task. In this stage, employees are not competent nor confident. In the R2 stage, employees are unable, yet willing to do the necessary work tasks. While they are motivated, employees in the R2 stage lack the appropriate skills. In stage R3, employees are able but unwilling. Finally, in the R4 stage, people are both able and willing to do what is required (Robbins, 1998).

As employees reach high levels of readiness, the leader responds by not only continuing to minimize control over activities, but also by continuing to decrease relationship behavior as well (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). At stage R1, employees need clear and specific directions. At stage R2, both high-task and high-relationship behavior is needed on the part of the leader. The high-task behavior compensates for the

employee's lack of ability, and the high-relationship behavior attempts to get people to accept the leader's desires (Robbins, 1998). The R3 stage represents motivational problems that are best solved by a supportive, nondirective participative style. Finally, at stage R4, the leader does not have to do much because employees are both willing and able to take responsibility (Robbins, 1998).

What makes Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) theory unique is its recognition of differences among employees. In Hersey and Blanchard's terms, leaders demonstrate varying degrees of readiness, which in turn, determines which of the four leadership styles is most appropriate. For instance, if a child care worker is new to the field and unwilling to take responsibility, the telling style of leadership is appropriate. On the other hand, as seasoned child care worker is more than capable of doing the work and more than willing to accept responsibility for the task, then the delegating style of leadership is may work best. According to the theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993), effective supervision takes place when the style employed by the leader is synchronized with the appropriate developmental level of the staff. Leadership styles relate to overall job satisfaction, with lack of support related to lower job satisfaction (Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993).

Measurements based on Hersey and Blanchard's work have been criticized due to the lack of internal consistency (Bass, 1990). Also, the focus on employee maturity may be minor in comparison other variables such as job tasks, technology used, information, required, managerial control, and the amount of employee control required (Bass, 1990). As in Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) model, Hersey & Blanchard's work overlooks

the macro forces that may influence leadership style. Generally, the situational theories have received little research attention, and for those studies focusing on situational models, the results have been mixed. For instance, some researchers have found partial support for situational theories (Norris & Vecchio, 1992) whereas others refute support (Blank, Weitzel, & Green, 1990).

### Behavioral Theories

Leading off with the behavioral theories of leadership are the Ohio State studies. Ohio State University has long been a leading-edge authority on management and leadership research. In 1945, the Ohio State University studies were conducted to determine the dimensions of leadership behavior (Robbins, 1998). The project staff of Ohio State University developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) that was designed to discover how leaders carry out their responsibilities. Questions focused on two elements of leadership: initiating structure and consideration for employees. An important finding of the Ohio State University studies was that these two dimensions are independent (Robbins, 1998; Spector 1997). This means that consideration for workers and initiating structure exist simultaneously and in different amounts.

This two dimensional model is based on initiating structure and consideration. To initiate structure means that leaders are engaging in behaviors that help employees to understand how tasks are to be completed. In other words, leaders provide structure for the work activities (Spector, 1997). On the other hand, consideration refers to those behaviors that show concern for employees, therefore resulting in relationship building

(Robbins, 1998). A matrix was created that showed the various combinations and quantities of these factors. According to the Ohio State University studies, consideration produced higher employee satisfaction (Robbins, 1998). As Robbins (1998) notes, initiating structure involves leader roles, roles of employees toward achieving goals, and the leader's active involvement in planning work activities, communicating pertinent information, and scheduling work. Consideration involves an organizational atmosphere of mutual trust, respect for employee's ideas, consideration of employee's feelings, and exceptional communication (Smith & Peterson, 1988). "Task-orientated style of leadership is more effective than a consideration (relationship-orientated) style under extreme situations, that is, when the situations, is either very favorable (certain) or very unfavorable (uncertain)" (Gannon, 1982, p. 361).

With this theory, task-orientated leadership would work best in crisis situations. In uncertain situations, the leader and employee relations are usually poor, the task is unstructured, and the position power is fragile. Further, the task-orientated leader proves to be the most successful in this situation (Gannon, 1982). The leader's position power is strong if management backs his or her decisions. Finally, Gannon states that even though the leader may not be relationship-orientated, leader-member relations may be extremely strong if he or she is able to gain promotions and salary increases for employees. In these situations, the task-orientated style of leadership is preferred over the considerate style.

"The consideration style of leadership seems to be appropriate when the environmental or certain situation is moderately favorable or certain, for example, when (1) leader-member relations are good, (2) the task is unstructured, and (3) position power

is weak" (Gannon, 1982, p. 362). These studies were critical in further refining definitions of the leadership dimensions of consideration and task structure. This theory focuses solely on leader-member relations and does not consider situational variables that may exert and influence on the leader's behavior.

Likert (1961) conducted extensive research on human behavior within organizations. He examined different types of organizations as well as leadership styles. Further, Likert (1961) asserted that to achieve greatest profitability, positive employee relationships, and high productivity, every organization should make the most favorable use of their staff's assets.

Organizations at have widely varying types of leadership styles. Likert identified four main categories of leadership style (Davis, 1989). The first leadership style is exploitive, which is an authoritative system, where decisions are imposed on employees, where motivation is characterized by threats, where high levels of leadership have great responsibilities but lower levels have essentially none, where there is very little communication and minimal teamwork (Yukl, 1998). The benevolent style is another authoritative system, where motivation is chiefly by rewards, where leaders feel responsibility but lower levels do not, and where there is little communication, in addition to very little teamwork (Yukl, 1998).

The consultative system involves leaders who have significant but not complete trust in their staff, where motivation is by rewards, where a high proportion of staff, especially those at the higher levels, feel responsibility for achieving organization goals, where there is some communication with a moderate amount of teamwork (Davis, 1989;

Yukl, 1998). In the participative group system, leaders have complete confidence in their employees, motivation is by economic rewards based on goals that have been set in a participative fashion, staff feel responsibility for the organizational goals, communication is strong, and there is cooperative teamwork. The participative system is the ideal for the human service agencies, such as child care centers, and Likert (1961) states that all organizations should adopt this system. In discussing Likert's theory, Yukl (1998) notes that the participative style does not equate with abdication of responsibility; rather, the leader maintains the responsibility for decisions and maintains control.

To convert an organization, four main features of effective management must be put into practice (Davis, 1989). The motivation to work must be fostered by prevailing principles and techniques, and not by a system of rewards and threats such as the command and control style of leadership (Yukl, 1998). Employees should be viewed as people who have their own needs, desires, and values, and their self-worth must be maintained as well as enhanced. According to Likert (1967), an organization of highly unified and effective teams must be formed and committed to achieving the objectives of the organization. Supportive relationships must exist within each team. These are characterized not by actual support, but by mutual respect. The work team should be skilled in leadership. Membership roles should be structured to foster easy interaction (Likert, 1967). Yukl (1998) describes this as the "linking pin" between the leader and the group: The team should have a well-established, relaxed working relationship between members. In the ideal situation, employees should be loyal to their organization, their leader, and to each other since they have a high degree of mutual trust. The values and

goals of the group are an expression of the values and needs of its members (Likert, 1967).

According to Likert (1961), job-centered leaders were found to be the least productive. On the other hand, employee-centered leaders, were found to be the most effective (Robbins, 1998). Likert (1961) also discovered that effective leaders set specific goals, but gave employees freedom in the way they achieved those goals. This has been called general supervision, as opposed to close supervision. In contemporary organizational terms, this is called empowerment (Robbins, 1998).

The initial phases of the behavioral research seemed as limiting as the previous leadership theories as the number of behaviors that were identified were staggering (Robbins, 1998). Over time, it appeared that the key leadership behaviors could be grouped or categorized. The most prominent studies were those undertaken by the University of Michigan and by Ohio State University. Interestingly, both studies arrived at similar conclusions: leadership behaviors could be classified into two categories, consideration and task structure.

The University of Michigan studies identified two styles of leader behavior: production centered and employee centered styles (Robbins, 1998). With production centered behavior, a leader pays close attention to the work of staff, explains work procedures, and is interested in staff performance. Employee centered behavior concerns the leader's interest in developing a cohesive work group and in ensuring employees are satisfied with their jobs (Robbins, 1998). These two styles of leader behavior were understood to lie at the ends of a single continuum. Likert (1961) found that employee-

centered leader behavior generally tended to be more effective. These two behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, were not viewed as opposite ends of a continuum, but as independent variables. In this case, the leader can exhibit varying degrees of both initiating structure and consideration at the same time. Rather than concentrating on what leaders are, as the trait approach did, the behavioral approach concentrated on how leaders perform (Likert, 1961). The main weakness of the behavioral approach was the focus on finding a dependable recommendation for effective leadership. Likert (1961) expanded on the previous studies with extensive research into what differentiates effective leaders from ineffective leaders.

McGregor (1960) examined theories on behavior of individuals at work, known as Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor was a social psychologist who asserted that leaders should challenge their assumptions about people (DuBrin, 2000). According to Theory X assumptions, the average person has an intrinsic dislike of work and will avoid it if possible. Due to their dislike for work, most employees must be controlled and threatened so they will complete their job tasks (DuBrin, 2000). According to McGregor (1960), employees prefer to be directed and tend to dislike responsibility. These assumptions lie behind most organizational principles today, and give rise to command and control management with punishments and tight control; yet, strives for harmony at work (McGregor, 1960). Theory X managers do not give their workers this opportunity so that the employees behave in the normative fashion (DuBrin, 2000).

According to Theory Y principles, control and punishment are not the only methods to make employees work. It is assumed that employees will direct themselves if

they are committed to the goals of the organization. If a job is satisfying, then the result will be commitment to the organization (DuBrin, 2000). The average employee learns to seek responsibility. Yet, if an employee lacks motivation, a Theory X manager may be most effective (McGregor, 1960).

Imagination, creativity, and ingenuity can be used to solve work problems by a large number of employees. This parallels Maslow's theory in that Theory X leaders view employees as motivated by lower order needs whereas Theory Y leaders assert that higher order needs dominate their employees (Robbins, 1998). Overall, McGregor (1960) considers these two theories as two quite separate attitudes stating that Theory Y is conducive to participative problem solving. It is part of the leader's job to exercise authority, and there are cases in which this is the only method of achieving the desired results because workers do not agree that the ends are desirable (DuBrin, 2000).

With situations where it is possible to obtain commitment to objectives, it is better to explain the matter fully so that employees grasp the purpose of a work task (McGregor, 1960). They will then exert self-direction and control to do better work than if they had simply been carrying out an order, which Theory Y did not fully explain (Robbins, 1998). The situation in which employees can be consulted is one where the individuals are emotionally mature, and positively motivated towards their work, where the work allows flexibility, and where the employee can see his or her own position in the management hierarchy (McGregor, 1960). When these factors are present, McGregor states that managers will find that the participative approach to problem solving leads to

much improved results compared with the alternative approach of handing out authoritarian orders.

When leaders become convinced that they are under estimating the potential of staff, and accept Theory Y assumptions, then they can invest time, money, and effort in developing improved applications of the theory (DuBrin, 2000). McGregor (1960) contends that some of the theories he has put forth are unrealizable in reality, but he hopes that leaders to put into operation the basic assumption that employees will contribute more to the organization if they are treated as responsible and valued individuals. Hence, the value of considerate leadership is stressed. Robbins (1998) notes that there is no evidence to confirm that Theory X or Theory Y assumptions are valid. Further, there is little evidence indicating that adopting Theory Y assumptions or changing one's behavior will increase worker motivation (Robbins, 1998).

The managerial grid was created by Blake and Mouton (1964). According to Robbins (1998), the managerial grid is a two dimensional model of leadership style. Similar to the consideration and task oriented leadership styles, the grid is based on leader consideration and leader task orientation (Robbins, 1998). Rather than focusing on results, the grid is useful for indicating the prevalent factors in a leader's cognitive course of action with respect to getting tasks accomplished. With this model, behavior is an important criterion for hiring leaders. This research gave rise to the "high-high" leader (Yukl, 1998).

Blake and Mouton's (1964) work builds on the initial studies conducted at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University, both of which approached leadership

as an either/or proposition, identifying leaders as either inclined to initiating structure or solely focused on consideration for employees (Robbins, 1998). Blake and Mouton (1964) identified five styles of leadership that reflect the degree of emphasis placed on the concern for production and the concern for employees. The managerial grid is based on the concept that leaders vary in their concern for people (1 through 9) and from their concern for production (1 through 9). Bass (1990) summarizes these five styles as follows:

**9,1: *Authority-Obedience Management*** – the leader's maximum concern for production (9) is combined with a minimum concern for people (1). Dictating to subordinates what they should do and how they should do it, the leader concentrates on maximizing production.

**1,9: *Country Club Management*** – the leader shows a minimum concern for production (1) but maximum concern for people (9). Even at the expense of achieving results, fostering good feelings gets primary attention.

**1,1: *Impoverished Management*** – the leader has minimum concern for both production and people and puts forth only the least effort required to remain in the organization.

**5,5: *Organizational Man Management*** – The leader goes along to get along, which results in conformity to the status quo.

9,9: *Team Management* – the leader integrates the concern for production and the concern for people at a high level; is goal centered; and seeks results through the participation, involvement, and commitment of all those who can contribute. This style can take the form of paternalism if the leader fails to integrate the concerns of production and people and the two are kept in logic-tight compartments. (pp. 483-484)

These five styles of leadership are based on concern for employees and initiating structure for task completion or production.

For Blake and Mouton (1964), the ideal leadership behavior included team leadership in which the leader is also a member of the team and the team is the primary decision maker. On the other side of the coin, considerate leaders go about task completion and goal achievement differently compared to the task leader. Although task leaders have as much concern for people, consideration leaders will not allow concern for the individual or team be an excuse for poor performance (Robbins, 1998). Failure is treated as a learning experience for the whole group, not just the person who was erroneous or may have failed at the task. According to Blake and Mouton (1964), it is better for a leader to be high on both of these dimensions. Flexibility is essential depending on the nature of the situation.

Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid is probably the best known of the behavioral theories of leadership as it integrates task and considerate orientations as the most effective approach to leadership (Bass, 1990). As the previously discussed theorists, Blake and Mouton (1964) also arrive at two dimensions of leadership behavior, which

they referred to as concern for people and concern for production. They charted these two dimensions to arrive at five leadership styles corresponding to the four corners and the center-point of the managerial grid. Blake and Mouton (1984) brought attention to the qualitative aspects of high-high leadership as distinguished from other forms of leader behavior. Additionally, they stressed the need to match the leader's behavior to the organizational situation.

Behavioral theories of leadership hypothesize specific behaviors that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. A current trend in behavioral theory of leadership is focusing on transactional and transformational characteristics of leaders. As opposed to focusing solely on the behavior of leaders, transformation and transactional styles look at the interaction between employees and their supervisors.

#### Interactionist Theories

Burns (1970) defined leadership as behaviors or processes used to motivate and influence employees. Burns described leadership behavior as falling within two broad categories of influence. One category is called transformational leadership. This behavior is based on the belief that leaders and employees can elevate each other to higher levels of motivation and morality. In contrast, transactional leadership seeks to motivate followers by appealing to their own self-interest. Its principles are to motivate by the exchange process (Robbins, 1998). For example, business owners exchange status and wages for the work effort of the employee.

Transactional behavior focuses on the accomplishment of tasks and positive employee relationships in exchange for desirable rewards (Robbins, 1998). Transactional

leadership may encourage the leader to adjust their style and behavior to meet the perceived expectations of the employees. Transactional leadership can encompass four types of behavior: contingent reward, passive management, active management, and laissez-faire leadership (Burns, 1970). With contingent reward, the leader clarifies the work to be accomplished and the leader uses rewards or incentives to achieve results when expectations are achieved. Passive management by exception occurs when the leader uses correction or punishment as a response to unacceptable performance or deviation from the accepted standards. With active management by exception, the leader actively monitors the work performed and uses corrective methods to ensure that the work is completed to meet accepted standards. Laissez-faire leadership is where the leader is indifferent and has a “hands-off” approach toward the workers and their performance (Bass, 1990). This leader ignores the needs of others, does not respond to problems, or does not monitor performance (Burns, 1970).

Transactional leadership behavior is used to one degree or another by most leaders (Flauto, 1999). A leader should not exclusively or primarily practice transactional leadership behavior to influence others. Those who do so risk common problems according to Flauto. Some leaders use the transactional style as a tool to manipulate others for personal reasons. It can place too much emphasis on the “bottom line.” This style is short-term oriented with the goal of simply exploiting efficiency and profits. The leader can pressure others to engage in unethical or amoral practices by offering strong rewards or punishments. According to Flauto, transactional leadership seeks to influence others by exchanging work for wages, but it does not build on the employee’s need for

meaningful work or stimulate their creativity. If utilized as the primary behavior by a leader, it can steer towards an organizational climate permeated by position, power, privileges, and politics. The most effective and beneficial leadership behavior to achieve long-term success and improved performance is transformational leadership.

With these qualitative definitions of transformational and transactional leadership styles in mind, an assessment was developed which pinpoints one's style on these dimensions in a quantitative fashion. Transactional and transformational leadership were measured using subscales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1990). The leader-member exchange dimension was measured by a subscale consisting of six items of the LMX-6 scale (Flauto, 1999). Communication competence was assessed by the 12-item Communicator Competence Questionnaire (Flauto, 1999).

Using this scale, Flauto (1999) found that employees in high-quality leader-member dyads rated their supervisors as high in communication competence. At the lower levels of communication competence, high quality leader-member relationships do not exist. According to Flauto, leaders who use transactional leadership behaviors were rated, by their employees, as higher in communicative competence than are those who did not. The relationship, however, was lower than is the relationship between any other variables in the study.

Transactional leadership requires a level of communication competence that allows the leader to negotiate the leader-member explicit or implicit contract and to monitor the resulting transactions (Flauto, 1999). The three factors that constitute transformational leadership, charisma, individual consideration, and intellectual

stimulation, are communication-based. Employees report a high relationship between transformational leadership and communication competence. Transformational leadership is the best single predictor of communication competence. In other words, transformational leadership explains more of the variance in communication competence than do the other dimensions. The best single predictor of communication competence is leader-member exchange. Transactional leadership is a distant third as a predictor of communication competence. Further, transactional leadership adds no predictive ability to the full model and is only marginally significant to the partial models (Flauto, 1999). As opposed to Burns' (1970) concept that transformation and transactional leadership are at opposite ends of the continuum, Bass (1990) found evidence that transformational leadership enhances the impact of transaction leadership. Table 1 outlines the major constructs of the leadership theories herein described, the author, year, and major criticisms:

Table 1

*Summary of Leadership Theories*

Name	Contingency Model	Tannenbaum & Schmidt Model	Hersey & Blanchard Model
Date	1987	1973	1993
Author	Fiedler & Garcia	Tannenbaum & Schmidt	Hersey & Blanchard
Orientation	Situational	Situational	Situational

*(table continues)*

Name	Contingency Model	Tannenbaum & Schmidt Model	Hersey & Blanchard Model
Constructs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leadership variables</li> <li>• Environmental variables</li> <li>• Relationship orientation versus task orientation</li> <li>• Match leader to situation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Democratic leadership</li> <li>• Autocratic leadership</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Telling</li> <li>• Selling</li> <li>• Participating</li> <li>• Delegating</li> <li>• Relationship versus task orientation</li> <li>• Follower readiness</li> </ul>
Criticisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training and experience can influence leader effectiveness</li> <li>• Uncertainty about LPC as a measure of leader effectiveness</li> <li>• Assumes leadership is innate and fixed</li> <li>• Mixed empirical support</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focused on employee power versus leader power</li> <li>• Two dimensional view of leadership</li> <li>• Neglects social and political considerations</li> <li>• Mixed research support for these assumptions of leaders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Neglects political factors in leadership</li> <li>• Overlooks larger organizational influence on leader-employee</li> <li>• Mixed research support for these assumptions of leadership</li> </ul>

Name	Ohio State Model	Likert Model	Theory X/Y Model
Date	1945	1961	1960
Author	Project Staff – Ohio State University	Likert	McGregor
Orientation	Behavioral	Behavioral	Behavioral
Constructs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Initiating structure</li> <li>• consideration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• exploitative</li> <li>• benevolent</li> <li>• consultative</li> <li>• participative</li> <li>• employee centered versus product centered</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• X, command and control leadership</li> <li>• Y, participative problem solving leadership</li> </ul>

*(table continues)*

Name	Ohio State Model	Likert Model	Theory X/Y Model
Criticisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>neglects training and experiences</li> <li>neglects situational variables such as organizational politics</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>neglects larger social and political factors on leadership style</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>two dimensional view of leadership</li> <li>neglects larger social and political factors</li> </ul>

Name	Managerial Grid Model	Transactional Model	Transformational Model
Date	1964	1970	1970
Author	Blake & Mouton	Burns	Burns
Orientation	Behavioral	Interactionist	Interactionist
Constructs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>expressive leadership versus instrumental leadership</li> <li>five leadership styles</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>contingent reward</li> <li>management by exception</li> <li>laissez-faire</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>charisma</li> <li>inspiration</li> <li>intellectual stimulation</li> <li>individualized consideration</li> </ul>
Criticisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>two dimensional</li> <li>neglects larger macro forces which influence leadership</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>too much emphasis on the bottom line</li> <li>short term view of leadership goals</li> <li>situational variables not considered</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>situational variables are not considered</li> <li>more difficult to measure transformational leader outcomes</li> </ul>

Given the evolution of leadership theory, leadership style has an impact on employees and the organization. Yet, leadership style does depend on the situation, employee relations, management support, and the amount of information leaders have

(Robbins, 1998). Other variables may include how well the organization is doing or the fact that the organization requires change, factors pertinent to child care organizations. The purpose of a leader is to have certain desired outcomes including increased productivity, high employee job satisfaction, and low turnover (Yukl, 1998). The next section considers research on leadership styles.

### Research on Leadership Styles

Leadership is a behavioral style. For most employees, the leader is the point of contact with the larger organizational structure. Therefore, the leader's behavior serves as a method of communication from the larger organization. Employee's perceptions, attitudes, and opinions of an organization are strongly influenced by his or her perceptions of the messages communicated by the supervisor or leader. Satisfaction with supervision may be an intermediary for satisfaction with the agency (Bissell & Beach, 1996; Kleinman, 2004; Spector, 1985). Additionally, research has demonstrated that an employee's relationship with his or her supervisor, or satisfaction with supervision, influences the psychological commitment to the organization, turnover intentions, and attitudes toward the job (Bissell & Beach, 1996).

The series of Ohio State University studies was one among several programs of research that asserted that leadership style varies along two dimensions: consideration and task structure (Smith & Peterson, 1988). In essence, effective leaders treat employees fairly; yet, provide appropriate structure for task accomplishment. Graen and colleagues (1972) stated that leadership style does make a difference within organizations: "This difference may be not so much in terms of what the leader does but

may be in terms of how it [leadership style] is interpreted by his members" (p. 235). By vicariously watching the leader, employees attach meaning to the leader's behavior and evaluate that in terms of his or her own expectations of supervision. Thus, the employee will use the evaluation to determine satisfaction with supervision and satisfaction with the organization.

Stout (1984) conducted a study that focused on the relationship between the measures of rehabilitation leader's task orientation and consideration or relationship orientation behavior with scores for job satisfaction, stress, and health problems of employees. A sample of 78 rehabilitation workers in mental health and retardation settings participated in the study. Initiating structure was defined as a process whereby the supervisor "clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected" (p. 133). On the other hand, consideration refers to the extent which a supervisor "regards the comfort, well being, status and contribution of followers" (p. 133). Higher job satisfaction was found among workers whose supervisors were high on consideration irrespective of their level of structure. Further, low stress was reported by workers whose supervisors were high on both consideration and structure compared with those leaders low on both dimensions. Additionally, more health problems were reported by employees who had supervisors high in structure and low in consideration behaviors. Stout concluded that supervisory development is a possible approach for reducing human input costs which in turn increase organization productivity.

McKee (1991) examined the impact of leadership style of community college presidents with respect to faculty job satisfaction. This study determined the leadership

style of college presidents in West Virginia and Virginia as viewed by faculty employees, measured the job satisfaction of the faculty members, and examined the correlation between perceived leadership style of the presidents and the job satisfaction of the employees. A random sample of 321 individuals was selected from a population of 2,028 faculty members. The return rate for the questionnaires was 60%. Job satisfaction was significantly higher for employees who considered the leadership style of their supervisor to be high relationship and low task structure. McKee concluded that relationship behavior should be stressed in agencies and further; it should be a criterion for prospective presidents of community colleges.

In another study of teacher job satisfaction and principal leadership style, Heller (1993) and colleagues administered questionnaires to a sample of 520 teachers, stratified by gender and school type. The return rate was 65%. The researchers concluded that there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and leadership style. They suggested that future research take into account the consideration aspect of leadership style and to measure job satisfaction in specific task areas such as curriculum development, faculty evaluation, staff development, and instructional organization. Thus, the study was limited by forcing leadership styles into one general category (telling, selling, participating, or delegating, and comparing this to job satisfaction).

A supervisor's behavior influences the employee's levels of job satisfaction, role strain, and turnover intentions. O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) selected 226 accounting employees from an organization in the United States and one company in New Zealand. They found role stressors, uncertainty about performance, and concern about acceptance

by a supervisor significantly predicted job satisfaction, strain, and turnover. “When supervisors were perceived to initiate structure, set goals, assist with problem solving, provide social and material support, and give feedback on job performance, their subordinates experienced lower ambiguity and uncertainty, and hence greater satisfaction with their job” (p. 152). This study is an exception to the previously cited research since it provides more positive support for leaders initiating structure as opposed to showing consideration for employees.

Thus far, this chapter has outlined the facets of leadership style that affect the employee. Traits of the leader as well as leader behaviors such as consideration versus task structure, were the focal point of the preceding theories and research. To view employee satisfaction from leadership style alone would ignore other aspects of the organization climate that may influence a person’s desire to stay on the job and enjoy it. The following section outlines characteristics of the job that may influence employee satisfaction.

### Job Characteristics Theory

Job characteristics refer to the content and nature of job tasks themselves (Spector, 1997). Hackman and Oldham (1980) created the most renowned theory of how job characteristics affect people, known as the Job Characteristics Theory. The premise of this theory is that people can be motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction they find in doing job tasks. In essence, people are motivated to perform well if they like their jobs, find them meaningful, and enjoyable (Spector, 1997). There are five core job characteristics: Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback.

Spector (1985; 1997) asserts that these core characteristics of jobs induce psychological states that in turn lead to job performance, job satisfaction, motivation, and turnover.

People who prefer challenge and interest in their work will be happier and more motivated if they have complex jobs as defined by the five core characteristics.

Skill variety is the opportunity to do a range of job activities using different skills and talents (Bass, 1990). The director of a child care center who works with employees, deals with parents, and interacts with funding agencies and other administrators exemplifies a high degree of skill variety. An example of low variety is that of an employee of a child care center whose primary duty is to perform diaper changes all day long.

Autonomy is the freedom to schedule one's work activities and decide on the procedures involved (Yukl, 1998). An example of high autonomy is that of an assistant director of a child care center is free to schedule the day's appointments and decides the best way to carry out educational programs. This is compared to the example of the low autonomy position of child care assistant who follows the instruction of the lead teacher and is not responsible for program planning.

Task significance is the impact that a particular job has on other people (Spector, 1997). A child care worker is highly visible, has an immediate effect on children and parents, and has high task significance. Conversely, the contributions of the child care center janitor may not be noticed.

Task identity is the extent to which a job involves doing a complete piece of work from beginning to end (Robbins, 1998). An example of high task identity is within the

role of the assistant director of a child care center in that he or she can design an educational program, select the participants, and implement the program. The child care volunteer, who only assists with the morning program, can exemplify low task identity.

Feedback is information, which is received concerning the effectiveness of one's performance (Robbins, 1998; Spector, 1997). Employee evaluations provide information to staff about their performance. Typically, new employees will receive high feedback, with more frequent evaluations to allow for improvement in fulfilling their job responsibilities. Seasoned workers may only receive a yearly evaluation, a low feedback situation. High feedback positions inform the worker that his or her job is done within expectations (Johns, 1996).

The main premise of Job Characteristics Model is that the higher the level of core characteristics found in a job, the more intrinsically motivating it will be (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). If the position contains high levels of the core characteristics, the employee will deem the work important. As explained by the Hackman and Oldham model (1980), work will be intrinsically motivating when it is perceived as meaningful, when the employee feels responsible for the outcomes of the work, and when the worker has feedback about his or her work progress. In essence, the model asserts that the level of intrinsic motivation found in a particular job is directly related to the amount of psychological impact and variety that is inherent to the work being completed (Johns, 1996).

The first three dimensions--skill variety, task identity, and task significance--combine to create meaningful work (Johns, 1996). Jobs with autonomy give employees a

feeling of personal responsibility for the results. Feedback lets the person know the actual results of the work activities. Jobs high on motivating potential must be high on at least one of the three factors that lead to experienced meaningfulness (Johns, 1996). The model predicts that a job high on these dimensions will have positive influence on motivation, performance, and satisfaction (Johns, 1996).

Spector (1997) asserts that these core characteristics of jobs induce psychological states that in turn lead to job performance, job satisfaction, motivation, and turnover. People who prefer challenge and interest in their work will be happier and more motivated if they have complex jobs as defined by the five core characteristics. The next section will look at the aspects of job satisfaction in more detail.

### Job Satisfaction

Traditional studies of job satisfaction found that supervisors who thought of employees as human beings rather than focusing exclusively on the task at hand were favored (Likert, 1961). According to Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory (Herzberg, et al., 1966), job satisfiers include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and the possibility of growth. On the other hand, job dissatisfiers revolve around company policy, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions (Herzberg, et al., 1966; Smith & Canger, 2004).

Why should organizations be concerned with job satisfaction? Employees deserve reasonable treatment and job satisfaction is often a reflection of fair conduct. Job satisfaction can influence behavior of employees, which affects organizational

functioning (Kleinman, 2004; Spector, 1985). Simply stated, job satisfaction is the extent to which people like or dislike their job. Historically, job satisfaction was approached from the perspective for need fulfillment. Today, it is assessed as an attitudinal variable (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction can be viewed as global affect about the job centering on various attitudinal facets of the job. The facet approach to job satisfaction can be helpful for organizations that want to identify areas of dissatisfaction and work to improve them (Spector, 1997).

Hossain (1995-96) measured and compared the satisfaction with different aspects of the job, intention to quit, job stress, and major causes of job dissatisfaction as perceived by public and private sector industrial workers. Sixty employees from the private sector and 60 from the public sector were selected on a random basis from two industrial companies in Bangladesh. One of the items measured was the behavior of the leader. The three highest causes of job dissatisfaction for employees in the private sector were lack of job security, poor salary, and misbehavior of the supervisor (Hossain, 1995-96). For employees in the public sector, the three highest causes of job dissatisfaction were poor salary, poor working conditions, and lack of promotion opportunities. It appears that misbehavior of the leader was a more crucial element for private sector employees.

Hellman (1997) used meta-analytic procedures to determine the nature the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave an organization. He found that the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave were significantly correlated. Additionally, across levels of job satisfaction, employees for a federal agency were

significantly less likely than employees from the private sector to leave the organization. The study focused more on individual, cognitive factors related to intent to leave and turnover as opposed to organization or supervisory influences.

Bissell and Beach (1996) examined the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. Participants were from two cooperating organizations in state agencies. The first group consisted of 88 employees whereas the second group consisted of 34 employees. Using the Satisfaction With My Supervisor Scale (Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1987), Bissell and Beach (1996) asked participants to first fill out the form on how their supervisor should act and then compared this to actual ratings of current supervisors. Satisfaction was measured using King's (1960) About Your Company Questionnaire. The scale consisted of 11 items about what it is like to work in the organization; each item is rated on a seven point Likert scale.

Correlations between satisfaction with the supervisor and satisfaction with the organization were significant. Further, Bissell & Beach (1996) found decreased job satisfaction for those employees that had a discrepancy between ideal supervision and what they actually experienced from their supervisors on the job. The implication is that to reduce turnover and job dissatisfaction, supervisors may have to reevaluate their approach in order to match their employees' expectations, as indicated in the Situational Leadership II Model. Bissell and Beach (1996) found that when leaders changed their definitions of supervision, turnover decreased to near zero, absenteeism went down, moral increased dramatically, trust of management increased, and both the quantity and quality of customer service improved.

### Turnover

Job dissatisfaction is one source of turnover in organizations (Smith & Canger, 2004). High staff turnover has many negative repercussions for organizations (Hannigan, Edwards, & Burnard, 2004). Turnover results in lack of continuity of services to clients, lack of trained staff, and extra managerial resources in terms of recruiting and training new staff (Hatton & Emerson, 1998). Additionally, there are other costs to organizations: replacement costs, out of processing costs, disruption of social and communication structures, productivity loss, and loss of high performers (Samik-Ibrahim, 1997). These repercussions of turnover not only affect the organization but also the employees who stay. For instance, high turnover leads to decreased satisfaction, cohesion, and commitment for stayers (Samik-Ibrahim, 1997).

Most theories of turnover consider it a result of employee job dissatisfaction (Bluedorn, 1982). Logically, people who are dissatisfied with their job will seek alternative employment. Studies have been consistent in demonstrating a significant correlation between job satisfaction and turnover (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Hulin, Rozonowski, & Hachiya, 1985). Spector (1997) goes as far as saying that this is a casual relationship: Job dissatisfaction leads to turnover. If job satisfaction level is low, the person will develop a behavioral intention to leave the job. Retention is a reflection of leadership (Ribelin, 2003).

Tauton, Boyle, Woods, Hansen, and Bott (1997) examined supervisor leadership style and turnover of hospital staff nurses. The study utilized causal modeling to rate the impact of manager leadership characteristics on registered nurses in four urban hospitals.

The effects of manager characteristics were related to work characteristics, job stress, job satisfaction, commitment, and intention to stay. They found that manager consideration of the nurses significantly affected retention.

On the extreme side, a leader's behaviors can be abusive; thus affecting turnover and job satisfaction. Keashly, Trott, and MacLean (1994) examined the extent to which students experience nonsexual, nonphysical, abusive behavior on their jobs and the relationship to turnover. Abusive behaviors were defined as hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors directed by one person towards another intended to undermine the person (Keashly, et al., 1994). Examples of verbal and nonverbal abusive behaviors included yelling or screaming at someone for disagreeing, using derogatory names, engaging in explosive outbursts, intimidation by use of threats, aggressive eye contact, the silent treatment, and humiliating a person in front of others (Keashly, et al., 1994).

Using a volunteer sample of 59 introductory psychology students, equally represented by both sexes, Keashly and colleagues (1994) collected questionnaires that focused on interpersonal relationships in the agency. The questionnaire assessed job satisfaction in terms of work on the present job, supervision, co-workers, and the job in general. The authors provided moderate reliability and validity evidence for the survey. They found that the quality of the interpersonal relationships at work was significantly related to job satisfaction and intention to leave the workplace. The greater the number of abusive incidents, the greater the dissatisfaction with the job and the organization.

Hatton and Emerson (1998) looked at the turnover rates in a human service agency working with people with multiple disabilities. Questionnaires were collected

from 59 direct care staff and compared to actual staff turnover three years later. The questionnaire assessed the following information: demographic characteristics, perceived job task, work roles, perceived practical and emotional support from other staff, commitment to the organization, job satisfaction, coping strategies, perceived stress, and intention to leave the agency. They found two significant predictors of turnover were staff satisfaction with public respect for the job and levels of practical support from supervisors. The results support previous studies, which found that practical support from supervisors, has a significant influence on job satisfaction (Ribelin, 2003; Rose, 1993) and actual staff turnover (Kleinman, 2004; Razza, 1993).

The impact of leadership style and job satisfaction and turnover was a focus of an article in USA Today in April, 2000. Some firms are holding their leaders liable for retaining employees (Armour, 2000). The focus of the endeavor was on only middle managers, specifically linking their pay to turnover of employees and taking other measures such as sending managers to employee retention seminars. On the positive side, companies such as Hartford Life Insurance are giving bonuses and stock plan options for those managers showing the highest retention of their employees.

#### Chapter Summary

The ability of a leader has tremendous relevance for the effectiveness of an organization. A leader's behavior has a decisive impact on the morale, productivity, and satisfaction of employees (Robbins, 1998). Having concern for people, or an expressive leadership style, has received a great deal of attention in the literature (Bass, 1990; Chemers & Ayman, 1993; Robbins, 1998, Yukl, 1998). Leaders showing concern for

people facilitate a group with higher productivity and higher performance (Singh, 1998). In addition, employee oriented leadership is more conducive to job satisfaction (Kleinman, 2004; Singh & Pestonjee, 1974; Spector, 1985). Although the relationship between concern for employees and productivity is not always clear, studies of leadership and satisfaction generally indicate that consideration is more highly related to satisfaction than task structure (Wilkerson & Wagner, 1993). Grievance and turnover rates relate to supervisor structure and consideration behaviors (Harris, 1962; Stout, 1984; Yukl, 1998).

Many of the studies mentioned in this review have included self-report measures. Since this was the predominant method to ascertain the influence of leadership style on job satisfaction or turnover, it was the approach adopted by this researcher. It should be noted that the accuracy of self-report measures may be compromised by self-presentation motives and on recalling events in the workplace. Spector (1992) noted that self-report measures focus on the indicators of psychological states that make them inappropriate for measuring the objective environment. "There is a clear distinction, however, between the objective environment and the individual's perception" (Spector, 1992, p. 125). To amend this problem, he suggests assessing the instrument's convergent validities with other source of data about the same construct. For this reason, the next chapter provides detailed information on the validity of the assessments used in this research.

The variability in the results of the studies considered in this chapter are due to several methodological problems. For instance, many of the studies focused on one specific job category (Keller, 1989; Lagace, 1988; O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1999; Russ & McNeilly, 1995). Also, the sample sizes were small, a factor that will limit the ability to

generalize the findings to the larger population. The samples themselves may have been diverse which will contribute to inconsistencies.

Some variables are difficult to measure and/or the assessment instruments may have construct measurement problems. Dalessio (1982) gave examples of variables difficult to measure: (a) organizational mobility, which is the extent to which an employee feels that his or her career is tied to the organization; (b) expected utility of present job, which is the expectancy that the current job still leads to future attainment of positive or negative valued outcomes; (c) attraction of alternatives, which is the expectancy that alternate jobs will lead to future attainment of various positive and negative valued outcomes; and (d) congruence, which is defined as the congruence between individual and organizational values and goals. Once again, a major difficulty in examining observational variables is that they are often based on hypothetical constructs that are not easily measured.

#### Summary of Methods and Procedure

The selection of the design and statistical analyses for this research address the research questions posed in this study. The use of a regression analysis provides a comprehensive examination of the research variables, leadership style and job satisfaction, and is most appropriate for an exploratory study such as the present research.

Each of the measures utilized, the LOQ (Fleishman, 1989) and the JSS (Spector, 1997), have been demonstrated to possess acceptable levels of reliability, validity, and consistency. Both scales have been utilized extensively in research. Although no research design without flaws, this research emulated the preceding studies of leadership

style by employing a correlation approach. The design and methodology of the present study were judged to be the best approach given the inherent costs and restrictions associated with the research, including the ethical requirements for research with human participants, the tools available to measure leadership style and job satisfaction, as well as the complexity of the constructs under consideration. The next chapter outlines the methods used to examine the impact of leadership style on employee satisfaction in nonprofit child care centers.

## CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

### Introduction

Much of the research to date on leadership and its effects on job satisfaction centers on for-profit organizations, the government, and the military (Bass, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988; Smith & Canger, 2004; Waldman et al., 1987). Further, the employee base in nonprofit agencies, is in fact, different than that found in for-profit agencies and other organizations, and the effect of leadership may be different in nonprofit agencies (Galaskiewicz & Beilefeld, 1998). For instance, many nonprofit agencies concentrate on social work activities where evaluation criteria are not easily discerned. Consequently, there is a need to study nonprofit agencies and deal with their unique concerns related to leadership and job satisfaction.

Based on the literature review and research questions, a study was designed to ascertain the influence of leadership consideration and structure on employee job satisfaction. Since control of all but a single independent variable was both unrealistic and artificial manipulation of the variables in question would be costly, highly impractical, and problematic, control of the variables was neither necessary nor desirable for a theoretical study, so a nonexperimental design was selected to further examine these research questions posed. In order to determine the influence of leadership style (predictor variable) on employee job satisfaction (criterion variable), a correlational research design was employed. This approach will determine if these variables covary, and if they do, the direction, magnitude, and forms of the observed relationship (Bordens & Abbott, 1999)

Child care directors and workers participating in this study are described as well as the sampling method and the eligibility criteria. Measures taken to protect the participant's anonymity including right to withdraw procedures are discussed. Although this study did not involve a treatment condition, it presents reliability and validity information on the instruments, the LOQ and JSS (See Appendix A). In addition, the cutoff scores that were used for the directors' LOQ scores are explained.

Last, this chapter includes a description of the statistical analysis applied to the data collected from this study. In order to predict the influence of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in child care settings, regression analyses were conducted. Follow up bivariate regression analyses were completed to further clarify the strength and direction of this relationship, particularly given the small sample size of the directors. In addition, correlational analyses were done. Fisher's Exact Test and Chi Square analyses, were conducted to determine if there was a pattern to the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. To further explore the relationship between child care centers on leadership style and job satisfaction, a post-hoc analysis was done. Specifically, a one analysis of variance and post-hoc t-tests were conducted to examine the difference between the one center whose director was high on leadership structure and the other centers that were low on leadership structure. In order to correct for possibly family wise error with the systematic t-tests, a Bonferonni analysis was conducted.

### Purpose

Although the relationship between concern for employees and job satisfaction is ambiguous for nonprofit agencies, research on leadership and employee job satisfaction

in the for-profit organizations generally indicates that consideration is more highly related to satisfaction than a leadership style based on initiating structure (Wilkerson & Wagner, 1993). Since this relationship is predicated on studies of profit agencies, this research focuses on the influence of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in one nonprofit arena, the child care industry. Some current issues in the quality of child care services involve the shortage of highly qualified directors, a critical leadership role in a child care agency (Borge, Hartman, & Strom, 1996). Thus, leadership style can directly affect not only employee satisfaction and growth, but also the welfare of the children and families. The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of leadership style and job satisfaction in nonprofit child care centers in order to shed light on this murky area in the literature.

### Research Questions

Based leadership studies, research indicates that leadership styles higher consideration promote higher employee job satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Robbins, 1998). Since the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction has not been examined in nonprofit organizations, a detailed series of questions must be answered. Within this particular context of a nonprofit child care setting, the following research questions were raised.

*Research Question #1* – Is there a relationship between a child care director's leadership style, consideration versus structure, as determined by the LOQ?

*Research Question #2* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director's leadership consideration (as determined by the LOQ), and child care workers' level of job satisfaction (as determined by the global score on the JSS)?

*Research Question #3* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director's leadership consideration (as determined by the LOQ), and child care workers' level of supervisor job satisfaction (as determined by the supervisor subscale score on the JSS)?

*Research Question #4* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director's leadership structure (as determined by the LOQ), and child care workers' level of job satisfaction (as determined by the global score on the JSS)?

*Research Question #5* – Is there is a relationship between a child care director's leadership structure (as determined by the LOQ), and child care workers' level of supervisor job satisfaction (as determined by the supervisor subscale score on the JSS)?

### Research Methodology

This study examines the impact of leadership consideration and leadership structure on employee job satisfaction, both on a global job satisfaction level as well as satisfaction with supervision. In order to predict the influence of leadership style on employee job satisfaction in child care settings, regression analyses were conducted. Follow up bivariate regression analyses were conducted to further clarify the strength and direction of this relationship (Wood, 1974). In addition, correlational analyses were done. Fisher's Exact Test and Chi Square Analyses were conducted to determine quality of fit and to see if there was a pattern to the relationships of leadership style and employee job satisfaction. To further determine if the differences between leadership style significantly

influenced employee job satisfaction, an analysis of variance was conducted on job satisfaction between the one center that had a high structure director and the other who were low on structure. To further examine the significance of this relationship, post hoc t-tests were conducted. In order to correct for possibly family wise error with the systematic t-tests, a Bonferonni analysis was conducted.

### Participants

Although the sample was not randomly selected, it was diverse in terms of the population of child care workers, representing different ages, cultural backgrounds, and educational experiences. Ten out of 23 child care centers elected to participate, whose directors were members of the Early Childhood Education Quality Council (ECEQC), and who met the three-year directing requirement. Although gender was a variable not considered in this study, it should be noted that the participants were female, as is generally the case with leaders and teachers working in the child care industry. Essentially, this sample represents what is also known as an availability sample. It was expected that many of the child care workers would be recruited by the director of the center in which they were employed.

All child care directors belonged to the Early Childhood Education Quality Council (ECEQC), collaboration of nonprofit, urban child care centers in Rochester, New York. The ECEQC consists of 23 nonprofit centers and was formed in 1993 to support the maintenance of quality standards in our nationally-accredited child development programs. The mission of the ECEQC is to promote and maintain quality standards, advocate on behalf of children and families, strengthen bonds between parents, centers,

and the community, and provide mutual support among centers (Vickers, 2002). The vision of ECEQC states that all families will have access to high quality, affordable care, and age appropriate learning experiences for their children. The council operates through the guidance of a leadership group and the work of action committees (Vickers, 2002). Further, the ECEQC interfaces with the Rochester City School District, the Monroe County Department of Social Services, the Child Care Council, Rochester Association for the Education of Young Children, the Regional Early Childhood Direction Center, the Rochester Public Library System, and other cooperating agencies to fulfill the mission (Vickers, 2002).

The centers varied in size and the number of employees retained. The only eligibility requirement for the child care workers completing the JSS was that they were employed at the child care center full-time. Again, only those workers from each center volunteering to complete the survey participated.

Directors who volunteered for participation in the study were given a brief explanation of the purpose of the study at an ECEQC meeting. They were told that participation in the study was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw from the study without any consequences. Even if the directors decided to participate in the study, they and their employees had a right to withdraw their participation without consequence. In addition, directors and employees were told that their responses to the surveys were anonymous and confidential. Additionally, only this researcher and her dissertation committee had access to the completed questionnaires.

Participation of human subjects in this research was reviewed by Walden University's Internal Review Board and approved before this study was conducted. Since the ECEQC has 23 directors participating, with many new directors, this researcher solicited 10 participants of this committee along with their respective employees to complete the research. In order to be eligible to participate in this study, the directors had to have three years of employment as a director of the child care center. This requirement precluded some centers from participating in the study. Further, the directors had to be members of the ECEQC and run nonprofit child care centers. Ten centers was selected as it was a reasonable estimate of the number of centers eligible to participate in this study based on the criteria set forth in this research.

All participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study. Directors signed off on a form stating that they there were no risks associated with completing the assessments, that their center and the respondents would remain anonymous, that the information obtained would be confidential, and that there would be no financial compensation for completing the surveys. Further, directors understood that their decision whether or not to participate would not affect their current or future relations with Walden University or the Child Care Council. They understood that they had the right to withdraw at any time and it will not affect those relationships. Directors agreed to maintain the confidentiality of the people who volunteered to complete the surveys. No names or other identifying information appeared on the surveys. Centers were identified by number only.

Although no one volunteering to participate decided to withdraw from the study, two centers had to be dropped due to change in director leadership. All participants signed a consent form to giving permission to use the results of the completed survey (See Appendix B).

### Instruments

*Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.* Leader behavior was determined using the LOQ (Fleishman, 1996). The LOQ is a 40-item forced-choice measure indicating the alternative that most nearly expresses the respondent's opinion on how frequently he or she should do what is described by that item. The respondent indicates what he or she, as leader, sincerely believes to be the desirable way to act. This assessment asks leaders to choose the alternative that expresses their opinion on how frequently they should do what is described in each question. According to Fleishman, the LOQ can help select leaders and administrators, evaluate management-training programs, assess managerial style for performance appraisals, and train new administrators.

The LOQ is a self-report measure of two leadership variables, consideration and initiating structure. Further, the assessment represents independent scales, which means that a supervisor can be high on both dimensions, low on both, or high on one and low on the other (Fleishman, 1996). A high score on consideration indicates good rapport with employees and effective communication. On the other hand, a low score on consideration reflects relationships that are more impersonal with employees. According to Fleishman, high scores on leadership structure reveals a very active role in directing, planning, communicating, criticizing, scheduling, and trying new ideas (Fleishman,

1996). Low scores on structure indicate that the leader is relatively inactive in giving direction to employees. It measures aspects of leadership behavior such as representation and integration (Fleishman, 1996).

Internal consistency reliabilities for the LOQ, using the split-half method, correlations between odd and even numbered items within each scale, are reported to range from .67 to .89. This included 24 Air Force NCOs, tested 1 month apart, and 31 first line supervisors, tested 3 months apart. Fleishman (1996) reported that the LOQ was developed to maximize construct validity. The consideration and structure scales were developed using factor-analytic procedures. Further, item analyses were conducted to provide homogenous measures of consideration and structure. Based on correlational studies, low consideration scores were more indicative of undesirable work situations (Fleishman, 1996). Fleishman (1996) found that those supervisors high in structure and low in consideration significantly had higher turnover, more grievances, and higher employee stress levels. Additionally, research indicated that managers high in consideration and high in structure did not show these adverse affects (Fleishman, 1996). Overall, Fleishman (1996) found that people high in consideration and high structure optimize a variety of different effectiveness criteria.

*Job Satisfaction Survey.* Job satisfaction was measured by the JSS (Spector, 1985). This assessment measures employee job satisfaction and is specifically designed to be used in human service, nonprofit organizations. There are modest correlations between the JSS and turnover rates.

The JSS focuses on nine facets of job satisfaction: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1985). The interrelations among the JSS subscales are significant and small. Spector (1997) suggests that this provides evidence that people have distinctly different feelings about the various aspects of the job. Additionally, he states that people tend not to have global feelings that produce the same level of satisfaction with every job aspect. (Spector, 1997).

Spector (1985) began with a literature review including studies of job satisfaction dimensions. From each study, a list of dimensions was made and the nine most common were chosen for the scale. The development of the JSS proceeded using attitude scale construction techniques for summated rating scales. Half of the items were written in a positively worded fashion and the other half in a negatively worded direction. Each item had an evaluative statement in which agreement would indicate either positive or negative attitude about the job. An initial item pool was administered to a small pilot sample of employees at a community mental health center. Part whole correlations were calculated for each item with its subscale. Only those items having a correlation of at least .45 were retained.

The JSS was normed on 3,148 individuals who constituted 19 separate samples. Each sample represented a single study or administration of the JSS. Further, several samples represented multiple organizations, and three pairs of samples. The assessment was standardized on human service employees.

Internal consistency reliability estimates refer to how well items of a scale relate to one another. Spector (1985) calculated internal consistencies or coefficient alphas from a sample of 3,067 individuals who completed the JSS. These coefficients ranged from .60 for the coworker subscale to .91 for the total scale. The widely accepted minimum standard for internal consistency is .70 (Nunnally, 1978), suggesting that the coworker subscale is lower than what is accepted. Test retest reliability was examined using a sample of 43 employees. The reliability coefficients ranged from .37 to .74. The time span was 18 months indicating relative stability of the assessment.

The five JSS subscales (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and nature of work) correlate well with corresponding subscales of the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969). Further, the correlations ranged from .61 for coworkers to .80 for supervision. The JSS has also been shown to correlate with other scales and variables that have been shown in research to correlate with other job satisfaction scales. These include job characteristics evaluated using the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), age, organizational level, absenteeism, organizational commitment, leadership practices, intention to quit the job, and turnover (Spector, 1985). Based on the literature, the composite scores of these instruments were utilized for the analysis of this study. Of particular interest to this study is the JSS supervision subscale as it relates to leadership style,

#### Procedures

The ECEQC member directors were selected as the target population for the following reasons: (a) they were accessible; (b) they were likely to be interested in this research as they have a leadership committee related to the operation of a child care

center; (c) one of the instruments, JSS, was specifically designed to be used in human service settings; (d) directors were judged to have leadership ability in the area of nonprofit, child care; and (e) all participants are of an age which allows informed consent.

The ECEQC was contacted by telephone. The proposed research was explained to the chair of the ECEQC. Specifically, the chair was told that the research would examine the impact of leadership consideration and structure on the child care workers' level of job satisfaction.

Next, the proposed research was presented to ECEQC's leadership team members at one of their monthly meeting. After discussing her credentials with the committee, this researcher presented the following rationale to the committee: Given the dearth of literature on leadership style in nonprofit agencies, this researcher plans to examine child care director's leadership style and compare that to their employees' level of job satisfaction. Understanding this relationship may have important implications for director leadership programs and employee retention of child care centers.

After answering questions raised, a sheet was passed around to the members to sign up if they were interested in volunteering to participate in the study. Since many members of the leadership committee were not present, the chair of the ECEQC included information about the study in a ECEQC newsletter. Further, telephone contacts were made to enlist the remaining participants for the study in order to obtain a sample of 10 participating centers. The chair of the ECEQC provided written permission for this researcher to contact the directors of the child care center (Vickers, 2004).

Using the sign-up sheet with the names and telephone numbers of child care directors belonging to ECEQC, the directors were contacted by telephone to ascertain any questions they may have about the research as it was presented at the ECEQC meeting. Again, it was verified that the director had been with the center for at least three years before proceeding. With this criteria met, this researcher explained participation process. The directors were instructed to complete the LOQ, which would take approximately 15-30 minutes. The directors also completed the demographic data sheet, which represented information on all center employees, and not limited to those participating in this research (See Appendix C) for the center. The director's employees completed the JSS, roughly taking the same amount of time or less to complete as the LOQ. It was recommended that the director administer the JSS at the center's regular staff meeting, at which time she could complete the LOQ so that all instruments are completed at one time.

Again, the voluntary nature of the study was reiterated--participants were told that only this researcher and her dissertation committee members would have access to the completed questionnaires. The participants who elected to complete the survey were provided a questionnaire containing all measures. Participants were told not to write their name or any other identifying information on the survey. In addition, all information was submitted anonymously, thereby protecting the director and employees' confidentiality in making responses to these survey questions.

The participating director was provided with a package containing one LOQ, a demographic data sheet, and enough JSS forms for each child care employee. The demographic data sheet (Appendix C) was to be completed by the director and provides

information on the director's background as well as the background of the child care workers employed at the center. The package was delivered to the director of the child care center personally so that any administration questions could be answered at that time. Since these instruments can be self-administered, the directors were encouraged to do this at the weekly staff meeting. A 1-week time line was set so that the instruments could be administered, sealed in the self-addressed, stamped envelope, and returned to this researcher. To maintain anonymity, a number identified each center. Child care workers and directors were not identified by their names, only numbers assigned by this researcher. Centers were contacted by telephone to make sure they followed up on sending in the materials after the one-week interval.

After the LOQ surveys were scored, cutoff scores had to be established. Using the LOQ norms for a sample of 305 directors (Fleishman, 1989), the mean score for consideration was 53.2 (SD=7.2) while the mean for structure was 47.9 (SD=8.2). In Fleishman's (1989) study, the directors were described as administrators but no demographic information or information on the types of organizations in which they worked was provided in the test manual. The cutoff scores above 53.2 were classified as high consideration (HC) while scores below 53.2 were categorized as low consideration (LC). The cutoff scores for structure were set at the mean of 47.9 so that scores above this number were classified as high structure (HS) and scores below this were classified as low structure (LC).

### Data Analysis

The influence of leadership style (LOQ) on employee job satisfaction (JSS) was examined using multiple regression analysis (Bordens & Abbott, 1999). To further explore influence between leadership style on employee satisfaction and given the small sample size, individual bivariate regression analyses were conducted. This approach makes possible clarification between leadership style and job satisfaction. According to Wood (1974), the use of a regression approach, as employed in the present research, grants a closer approximation to a causal statement. In addition, a multiple regression approach permits concurrent consideration of multiple predictor variables for a criterion variable (Heiman, 2000).

Although correlation analyses do not permit determination of cause and effect, they have the ability to quantify the extent of the relationship between, or among, variables and make prediction possible (Wood, 1974, p. 39). Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis was used to see the relationship among all variables. An elemental risk for a correlational approach is that some variable or variables other than those under consideration may be responsible for the obtained relationship (Wood, 1974). Despite this limitation, the correlational approach may reveal possible relationships that may be clarified by further experimental investigation (Wood, 1974).

Given the small number of directors and centers participating, Fisher's Exact Test was used to determine the goodness of fit and to see if there was a pattern or trend with leaderships style. Next, Chi Square Analyses were planned to see if a there was a pattern to the leadership styles (HC/LC and HS/LS).

An analysis of variance was done to contrast structured leadership with nonstructured leadership groups. The post-hoc analysis was done to compare the groups one on one, on structured leadership. The post-hoc t-tests further clarified the relationship between groups on supervisor job satisfaction, to see if there were differences between the one director that was high in structure and remaining directors who were low in structure. To correct for a family wise error with multiple t-tests, a Bonferroni analysis was applied.

#### Summary

The present study utilized a nonexperimental research design that did not manipulate the variables, nor assigned participants randomly, both of which are required for experimental designs. The selection of a nonexperimental research design was made for several reasons. While it may be possible to select, control, and manipulate participants according to the variables under question, doing so was neither necessary nor desirable for this study. Second, control of all but a single independent variable was both unrealistic and artificial, and may possibly obscure the relationships between and among the variables. Last, inclusion of laboratory controls, or manipulation of the variables in question, would have been costly, highly impractical, and, possibly, ethically problematic. A correlational design was selected to determine the influence of leadership on job satisfaction, to see if these variables covary and if so, the direction, magnitude, and forms of these relationships.

Each of the measures utilized, the LOQ and JSS, have been demonstrated by the research literature to possess acceptable levels of reliability, validity, and consistency.

Additionally, these two scales have been utilized extensively. The JSS has only been available for a roughly 15 years, but has seen increasing use as the construct of job satisfaction (Spector, 1994). The LOQ has been in existence for more than 40 years, and has been applied extensively in profit organizations. According to Fleishman (1996), the LOQ, in present form, is based on more than 30 years of research and use in a variety of organizations.

In summary, this research determines to what extent, if any, the LOQ predicts employee satisfaction as determined by the JSS. Further, it ascertained if there is a difference between consideration and structure with respect to leadership styles of directors running nonprofit, child care centers. Last, it determined if leadership consideration and structure have an influence on global job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision. These questions are addressed with the participating child care centers in Rochester, New York.

## CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

### Sample

The study sample was obtained through the ECEQC in Rochester, New York. After getting permission from the ECEQC chair to talk to the members, affiliated directors were contacted. The directors, in turn, gave permission to use their center and respective employees as a research site. Ten out of 24 centers agreed to participate in the study (42%); however, two centers were dropped from the study because they changed director leadership, leaving eight centers participating in the study. The LOQ, JSS, and demographic data sheets were administered during a weekly staff meeting and collected. The data was extracted and recorded in Excel, and subsequently reduced. Additionally, the data was analyzed using Excel functions and SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 11.0.

*Center Directors.* The directors from the participating centers completed the LOQ and the demographic data sheet. The average age of the director sample was 44.4, with a range of 31 to 56 years. All participating directors were White females with college degrees. Per the requirement of this research, the directors worked for their respective child care center for at least three years. The average number of years directing child care centers was 10.86 with a range of 3 to 32 years. The education and credentials of the directors as well as the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAYEC) accreditation status of their center are listed in Table 2.



Of the child care workers from the participating centers, 50% had their high school diploma, 24% had their bachelor's degree, 14% had their associate's degree, 8% had their CDA (Child Development Associate), and 4% had their master's degree. The people that work in the child care industry do not reflect the regular education industry where everyone has at least a bachelor's degree (NCES, 1996). Table 3-B summarizes the child care worker educational data.

Table 3-B

*Child care Worker Education Demographic Data by Center*

Center	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	%
High School	7	5	13	5	18	16	2	23	89	50
Associates	1	2	3	5	2	2	3	7	25	14
CDA	5	0	0	0	0	0	5	8	18	8
Bachelors	4	1	6	6	6	1	7	4	35	24
Masters	0	0	1	0	1	1	4	0	7	4
Total	17	8	23	16	27	20	21	42	174	100

## Results and Data Analyses

*Descriptive Statistics.* This section contains the descriptive statistics and analyses of the areas of focus that were the subject of the research questions in this study.

Descriptive analyses were conducted to clarify relationships between the LOQ scales and JSS global scores and supervision subscale scores of the JSS. Table 4 presents a summary of the descriptive statistics on these dimensions.

Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics of LOQ and JSS Results*

Source	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD	Maximum	Minimum
LOQ Consideration	8	54.39	4.94	60	42
LOQ Structure	8	37.04	6.10	50	28
JSS Global Score	94	135.61	24.48	187	66
JSS Supervisor Score	94	18.28	5.05	24	5

Based on LOQ normative data for directors (Fleishman, 1996), consideration scores of 53.2 and above were classified as being high consideration (HC), while those below were characterized as low consideration (LC). Structure scores of 47.9 and above were classified as being high structure (HS), while those below were characterized as low structure (LS). For this study, the mean LOQ score for directors was 53.1, generally indicating that on the average, the directors were high consideration, in fact, five out of eight directors fell above the cutoff score of 53.2. The mean structure score was 38.6, indicating that the directors were low in structure, with seven out of the eight directors classified as low in structure. Table 5 lists the LOQ scores by center.

Table 5

*LOQ Scores by Center*

Center	Consideration	Structure	Style
1	60	28	HC-LS
2	42	45	LC-LS
3	54	37	HC-LS
4	56	33	HC-LS
5	60	47	HC-LS
6	48	35	LC-LS
7	48	50	LC-HS
8	57	34	HC-LS
Mean LOQ	53.1	38.6	LC-LS
Range	42-60	28-50	
<i>SD</i>	4.94	6.10	

Based on the cutoff scores, no center director had a high consideration, high structure (HC-HS) leadership style. The director from Center #7 had a leadership style that was low in consideration and high in structure (LC-HS: 12.5% of the sample). The directors from Centers #2 and 6 had leadership styles characterized by low consideration and low structure (LC-LS: 25% of the sample). Most directors (Centers # 1, 3, 4, 5, 8) had a style characterized by high consideration and low structure. The HC-LS style characterized 62.5% of the sample of directors. In Table 6, the centers are broken down based on the consideration and structure dimensions.

Table 6

*Break-out of Centers on Consideration and Structure Dimensions*

Variable	High Consideration	Low Consideration
High Structure	None (0%)	Center 7 (12.5%)
Low Structure	Centers 1, 3, 4, 5, 8 (62.5%)	Centers 2, 6 (25%)

*Fisher's Exact Test.* Given that the requirement of the Chi Square Test was not met, Fisher's Exact Test was used to determine if there was a pattern to the leadership styles among the center directors (Agresti & Finlay, 1986). No significant patterns emerged for the directors participating in the study on consideration and structure ( $p < .38$ ). Table 7 outlines the results of Fisher's Exact Test.

Table 7

*Fisher's Exact Test of Leadership Style*

Source	Value	df	Asym. Sig. 2-sided	Exact Sig. 2-sided	Exact Sig. 1-sided
Pearson Chi-Square	1.91	1	.17		
Continuity Correction	.08	1	.78		
Likelihood Ratio		1	.14		
Fisher's Exact Test				.38	.38
# Valid Cases	8				

*Chi Square Analysis.* Given that there appeared to be a grouping of LOQ scores for high versus low structure, a Chi Square analysis was completed. There was a trend in that significantly more directors were low structure as compared to high structure ( $p < .03$ ). The proportion of high versus low consideration scores was not significant ( $p < .48$ ). Table 8 lists the Chi Square results.

Table 8

*Chi Square Results of Leadership Style*

Variable	Consideration	Structure
Chi-Square	.50	4.50
df	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.48	.03

*Research Question 1:* The question asked if there was a relationship between the consideration and structure scales on the LOQ. To determine the relationship between consideration and structure, a multiple correlational analysis was applied to all variables. There was a significant negative correlation between leadership consideration and leadership structure ( $r = -.585, n = 94, p < .01$ ). This indicates that as consideration goes up, structure goes down. Given the small sample size ( $N=8$ ), a bivariate correlational analysis was run on the consideration and structure LOQ scores. The resulting correlation between these two variables was not significant ( $r = -.458, n=8, p < .253$ ).

*Research Questions 2-5:* Questions 2 through 5 examine the impact of leader consideration and structure on the LOQ and JSS global job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision scores. The analysis for each of the research questions is listed as follows:

*Leadership Style and Global Job Satisfaction.* Questions 2 and 4 examine the influence of leadership consideration and structure scores (LOQ) on global job satisfaction scores (JSS). The second question ascertains if there is a relationship between a child care director's consideration style, as determined by the LOQ, and the child care workers' level of job satisfaction, as determined by the global score on the JSS. To test the relationship between the director's consideration leadership style and the child care workers' overall job satisfaction, a Pearson bivariate correlational analysis was conducted with these two variables. There was no significant correlation. This means that there is no apparent relationship between a director's global job satisfaction and consideration as measured by the JSS and LOQ, respectively.

The fourth research question asks if there is a relationship between a child care director's leadership structure orientation, as determined by the LOQ, and the child care workers' level of job satisfaction, as determined by the global score on the JSS. To test the relationship between the director's structure orientation and the child care workers' global job satisfaction, a Pearson bivariate correlational analysis was conducted with these two variables. There was a significant positive correlation between leadership structure and global job satisfaction ( $r = .597, n = 94, p < .01$ ). This appears to indicate that a director's leadership structure and the child care workers' global job satisfaction

are positively correlated—that as the director’s leadership structure score increases, the child care worker’s level of job satisfaction increases. Table 9 lists the correlations between LOQ Factors and JSS Factors.

Table 9

*Correlations between LOQ Factors and JSS Factors*

Variable	LOQ Consideration	LOQ Structure
JSS Global Job Satisfaction	-.124	.597 **
JSS Supervisor Satisfaction	-.070	.207 *

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

*Leadership Style and Satisfaction with Supervision.* Questions 3 and 5 examine the influence of leadership consideration structure scores (LOQ) on satisfaction with supervision (JSS). Specifically, question 3 asks if there is a relationship between a child care director’s leadership consideration style, as determined by the LOQ, and the child care workers’ level of supervisor job satisfaction, as determined by the supervisor subscale score on the JSS. To test the relationship between the director’s consideration leadership style and the child care worker’s satisfaction with supervision, a Pearson bivariate correlational analysis was conducted with these two variables. There was no significant correlation. As above, this reveals that there is no apparent relationship between the directors’ consideration and satisfaction with supervision as measured by the LQQ and JSS respectively.

The fifth question asks if there is a relationship between a child care director's structure orientation, as determined by the LOQ, and the child care workers' level of supervisor job satisfaction, as determined by the supervisor subscale score on the JSS. To test the relationship between the director's structure orientation and the child care workers' satisfaction with supervision, a Pearson bivariate correlational analysis was conducted with these two variables. There was a significant positive correlation between leadership structure and satisfaction with supervision ( $r = .207, n = 94, p < .05$ ). This appears to indicate that a director's leadership structure and child care workers' satisfaction with supervision are positively correlated—that as the director's leadership structure score increases, the child care workers' level of job satisfaction increases.

*One Way ANOVA and Post-Hoc Analyses.* An analysis of variance was conducted on job satisfaction between the one center that had a director with high structured leadership and the other center directors who were low on structure. There were significant difference in the mean difference on the scores global job satisfaction ( $p < .001$ ) and satisfaction with supervision ( $p < .003$ ). Table 10-A and 10-B list the ANOVA results for global job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision.

Table 10-A

*ANOVA Results for JSS Global Job Satisfaction*

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P value	F
Between	13418.12	7	1916.87	4.31	0.0001	2.13
Within	35167.85	79	445.16			
Total	48585.96	86				

Table 10-B

*ANOVA Results for JSS Satisfaction with Supervision*

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P value	F
Between	546.66	7	78.09	3.50	0.0003	2.13
Within	1740.37	78	22.31			
Total	2287.02	85				

Since the one-way analysis of variance revealed significant differences between the child care centers on satisfaction with supervision, a post-hoc t-test between centers was conducted between Center 7 (LC-HS), the only center with a director high on structure, and the remaining center directors, who were low on leadership structure (LS). The first set of post hoc t-tests were conducted on the JSS global job satisfaction scores, using Center 7 and comparing it systematically to the remaining centers. No significant differences emerged. The second set of post hoc t-tests examined the satisfaction with supervision scores, using Center 7 and comparing it systematically to the remaining centers. One significant difference emerged. Since direction was not predicted in the research questions and in keeping with the consistency of previous assessment criteria, a two-tailed t-test was performed. There was a significant difference between Center 7 (LC-HS) and Center 5 (HC-LS), ( $t=2.31$ ,  $df=8$ ,  $p<.003$ ).

Given that two independent evaluations of the data were conducted utilizing unequal samples, a Bonferroni adjustment was performed post-hoc for further evaluation of the finding that was statistically significant. Using an adjusted alpha level .01, the findings for the procedure related to the criterion variable of satisfaction with supervision, which previously resulted in findings of statistical significance, was

examined. With a  $p < .003$  and a  $t$  value of 3.36, the significant difference between Center 7 (LC-HS) and Center 5 (HC-LS) was supported.

*Regression Analysis.* The use of a regression approach offers the most comprehensive examination of the research variables and is most appropriate for a speculative study such as the one at hand. Using the enter method, a significant model did not emerge ( $F = 2.242, p < .112$ ). The adjusted R square = .022 with a standard error of estimate = 24.21 (The model accounts for 2% of the variance in leadership style). The results of the regression analysis are listed Table 11.

Table 11

*Regression Analysis for Consideration and Structure*

Source	Unstandardized B	Coefficients St. Error	Stand. Coeff. Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	232.06	47.66		4.86	.00
Consideration	-1.21	.627	-.25	-1.93	.056
Structure	-.825	.508	-.21	-1.62	.11

With the regression analysis, using structure and consideration together were not significant in predicting overall job satisfaction. When analyzing structure and consideration by themselves, neither was significant at the .05 level, although consideration was close with  $p < .056$ . Even though some relationships were significant, they did not account for much in the way of the total amount of variability with regard to leadership in attempt to identify a “model” regarding leadership style.

Leadership structure did significantly predict satisfaction with supervision at the .05 level ( $p < .027$ ). Additionally, there was a significant relationship between the JSS

satisfaction subscale and the global score on the JSS, indicating that the satisfaction with supervision is one of the larger issues making up the global score for the JSS. Table 12 summarizes the multivariate analysis.

Table 12

*Multivariate Regression Analysis for Consideration and Structure*

Source	Unstandardized B	Coefficients St. Error	Stand. Coeff. Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	6.21	9.81		.63	.53
Consideration	7.93	.13	.08	.62	.54
Structure	.21	.10	.25	2.00	.048

*Pearson Product Analysis.* The relationship between the consideration and structure scores from the LOQ and the global score and satisfaction with supervision scores on the JSS was examined using a Pearson Product Moment correlation test. A significant relationship was found for the structure leadership style as measured by the LOQ and global satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision as measured by the JSS. Table 12 summarizes the correlation between the LOQ factors and the JSS factors. Please refer back to Table 9 for the correlations between LOQ Factors and JSS Factors. This concludes the analysis for the research questions posed in this study.

#### Summary of Results

The present research was designed to answer the research questions, which were supported, or suggested, by research in the literature. The preceding analyses examined the relationship between leader consideration and structure on job satisfaction. The following summarizes the findings with regard to these research questions.

Research question 1 tested the relationship between leadership consideration and leadership structure on the LOQ. Using a multiple regression analysis, a significant, negative correlation between the leadership and structure scales of the LOQ was found. This was inconsistent with the literature which states that these variables are independent (Fleishman, 1996). Given the small sample size, a bivariate analysis was done on these two variables and a significant difference was not supported.

Research questions 2 through 5 tested the relationships between the consideration and structure scores from the LOQ and the global score and satisfaction with supervision scores on the JSS. No significant relationships were found between consideration and global job satisfaction or satisfaction with supervision. Although the regression analysis reached significance with respect to consideration, the other statistical analyses did support for a significant relationship between leadership consideration and job satisfaction, a finding that was inconsistent with the literature (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1998).

Mild, significant relationships were found between leadership structure and global job satisfaction ( $r = .597, p < .01$ ) as well as satisfaction with supervision ( $r = .207, p < .05$ ). Although it was a significant finding, it did not account for much of the variance. From this exploratory study, it appears that a director's leadership structure and child care workers' satisfaction with supervision and global job satisfaction are positively correlated. In other words, as the director's leadership structure score increases, child care workers' level of job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision increases.

A post hoc analysis revealed significant differences in satisfaction with supervision as well as global job satisfaction. Follow up t-tests were conducted to

systematically compare Center 7, high structured leadership style, with the remaining centers that were low on leadership structure. A significant difference was found between Center 7 and Center 5 using a two-tailed t-test, ( $t=2.31$ ,  $df=8$ ,  $p<.003$ ). As noted, the Bonferroni analysis resulted in a highly significant finding related to the criterion variable of satisfaction with supervision, between Center 7 and Center 5 ( $t=3.36$ ,  $df=8$ ,  $p<.003$ ). It is important to note here that the variability of the same was large and that Center 7 may well have been an outlier in the data collected. The finding that leadership structure significantly relates to increased employee job satisfaction was inconsistent with the literature cited in Chapter 2, with the exception of the O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) which found that leadership structure relates to increased employee job satisfaction.

This concludes the analyses of the data obtained through this research effort. Although these analyses did not provide support for the relationship between leadership consideration and employee job satisfaction, significant results were found with respect to leadership structure and employee global job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision. The results of these analyses, particularly the inherent difficulties associated with population sample, set the stage for the next chapter wherein their meanings and implications are discussed.

## CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Introduction

Due to the lack of research on the topic of leadership style and the influence on employee job satisfaction in nonprofit agencies, a series of research questions were posed. Specifically, this research effort was designed to explore the influence of leadership consideration and structure orientations on employee job satisfaction in nonprofit, child care agencies. Although the results of this study did not provide support for the influence of leadership consideration on employee job satisfaction, it did provide mild significant results on the influence of leadership structure on employee job satisfaction, both on a global level and satisfaction with supervision. The following sections discuss the results described in the previous chapter with the aim of elucidating their meaning.

### Problem Statement

High quality child care contributes to a child's development, socially, cognitively, and emotionally (Todd & Deery-Schmitt, 1996); therefore, it is not surprising that the problem of employee job satisfaction is critical in terms of providing quality care in child care centers (Deery-Schmitt & Todd, 1995). Given that turnover is higher in nonprofit organizations that offer low wages, job dissatisfaction and turnover in human service agencies, particularly child care providers, is problematic in that it potentially compromises child development (Whitebook & Sakai, 2003). Although this research focused specifically on job satisfaction, research shows that there is a negative relationship between turnover and job satisfaction (Manlove & Guzell, 1997), and the

relationship is particularly true for the child care industry (Phillips et al., 1991). Lack of job satisfaction can lead to poor quality child care. The literature shows that it is very young children who are most vulnerable to the effects of poor quality child care (Carnegie Task Force on Meeting the Needs of Young Children, 1994; Gnezda, 1996). With the growing need for child care services and investments by state and other funding agencies (National Prekindergarten Program, 2004), the issue of job satisfaction is key to maintaining and promoting quality child care programs.

#### Description of Study Variables

The present research focused on two leadership factors: consideration and structure. These factors are important to leadership research and emerged out of the Ohio State Studies (Robbins, 1998). Consideration is the extent to which a leader shows concern and respect for employees, focuses on their welfare, demonstrates support, and expresses appreciation for them (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Structure is the extent to which a leader organizes his/her role within an organization and the roles of employees, is oriented toward goal attainment, and establishes well-defined avenues of communication (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Leadership consideration and leadership structure were measured using the Fleishman's (1996) LOQ assessment that emerged out of the Ohio State Studies (Fleishman, 1996).

Job satisfaction is general attitude toward a person's job. It concerns differences between the amount of reinforcement employees receive and the amount they feel they should receive because of their endeavors (Hellman, 1997; Hossain, 1995-96; Lagace, 1988; Robbins, 1998; Sighn & Pestonjee, 1974). Employees deserve to be treated fairly

and job satisfaction is often a reflection of fair treatment. Spector (1997) noted that job satisfaction does influence employee behavior, which, in turn, influences organizational functioning. Job satisfaction was measured using Spector's (1994) JSS.

As may be the case in similar research endeavors, issues related to the instruments used to measure the variables may have influenced the obtained results of this research. The instruments utilized to quantify the research variables for the present research were selected because of their proven reliability and validity and for their successful use in other research efforts. Further, issues with the population sample may have influenced the obtained results of this research.

#### Population Sample

The participants in this study were anonymous and volunteered for this research. The sample consisted of eight directors and 94 child care teachers in child care centers in Rochester, New York. The directors were all White, female, college educated females and had an average age of 44.4 years. Per the requirement of this research, the directors worked for their respective child care center for at least 3 years. The average number of years directing child care centers was 10.86 with a range of 3 to 32 years. The sample of directors completed the LOQ to measure their leadership style on the dimensions of consideration and structure.

#### Research Questions and Outcomes

*Leadership Consideration and Structure.* The relationship between leader consideration and structure was mixed. A Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis revealed that there was a significant negative correlation between leadership

consideration and leadership structure, indicating an inverse relationship existed. Given the small sample size, a bivariate correlational analysis on the consideration and structure LOQ scores was conducted. The resulting correlation between these two variables was not significant. The correlation between consideration and structure has been a long-standing debate in the field (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Much of the debate centers on the concerns about the independence of these dimensions. Fleishman (1996) claims orthogonally of these dimensions, which suggests that leadership consideration is independent of leadership structure. Although the literature notes that these scales should be independent, research does not always support the orthogonally of these dimensions of leadership (Bass, 1990; Weissenberg & Kavanagh, 1972). Yet, the LOQ is one of the few measures that demonstrate low intercorrelations (Fleishman, 1996; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Additional research is needed on the independence of these dimensions of leadership.

Fisher's Exact Test was used to determine if there was a pattern of leadership style among the center directors (Agresti & Finlay, 1986). In looking at levels of structure and consideration, no significant patterns emerged for the directors participating in the study. This may be due in part to the small sample size of directors. Since it appeared that there was a grouping of LOQ scores in the HC-LS quadrant, a Chi Square analysis was completed to determine the difference between two independent variables, consideration and structure. There was a trend in that more directors were low in structure. The differences in consideration did not reach significance.

A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference between leadership structure and global job satisfaction as well as satisfaction with supervision. This difference was mild and did not account for much of the variance. A post-hoc analysis revealed significant differences between leadership style and job satisfaction. Follow t-tests revealed a significant difference on satisfaction with supervision between the director of Center 7 (LC-HS) and the director of Center 5 (HC-LS). As noted, the Bonferroni correction resulted in a highly significant finding related to the criterion variable of satisfaction with supervision, between Center 7 and Center 5. It was of interest that the director of Center 7 had different credentials compared to other directors. She had a degree in nursing whereas the others had degrees in early childhood education and administration. Center 7 could have been an outlier in the data, thus skewing the sample. Future studies may want to consider this demographic characteristic in relationship to structure and consideration leadership style.

This largest grouping of directors was in the HC-LS category, a participative style of leadership. The participative system is the ideal for the human service agencies, such as child care centers, and Likert (1961) states that all organizations should adopt this system. The participative style was also discussed by Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) theory, in which leadership was characterized by directive (structure) and supportive (consideration) behaviors. With this sample of directors, 62.5% had a participative style of leadership. Participating (HC-LS) styles indicate that the leader and follower share in decision making, with the main role of the leader being facilitating and communicating. Yet, significantly more child care workers were satisfied with the leader who was LC-

HS, which would equate with Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) telling style of leadership. With the telling (LC-HS) style, the leader defines roles and directs people on what, how, when, and where to do various tasks. It emphasizes ordered behavior. According to Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid, the majority of the directors in this study would be classified as country club managers (1,9 on the grid). This is known as the Country Club Manager, where the leader shows a minimum concern for production (1) but maximum concern for people (9). Even at the expense of achieving results, fostering good feelings gets primary attention. Yet, satisfaction with supervision was associated with authority-obedience managing style (9,1 on the grid). With the Authority-Obedience Manager, the maximum concern is for production (9) and is combined with a minimum concern for people (1). Dictating to employees what they should do and how they should do it, the leader concentrates on maximizing production. Counter the research trends in profit and military organizations, child care workers in nonprofit centers were more satisfied with a director who had a leadership style low on structure.

*Leadership Consideration and Job Satisfaction.* There was no significant correlation between leadership consideration and global job satisfaction. This means that there is no apparent relationship between this population of child care workers' global job satisfaction and the consideration leadership style of their director as measured by the JSS and LOQ. There was no significant correlation between leader consideration and satisfaction with supervision. As above, this reveals that there is no apparent relationship between the director's consideration style of leadership and supervisor job satisfaction as

measured by the LQQ and JSS respectively. The lack of significant differences may be due in part to the small number of directors participating in the study.

These findings were in opposition to the research reviewed in this study suggesting that leadership consideration is more conducive to job satisfaction (Singh & Pestonjee, 1974; Spector, 1985). It should be reiterated that the research to date did not include a study of nonprofit organizations. According to the Ohio State University studies, consideration produced higher employee satisfaction (Robbins, 1998). Research on for-profit and military organizations found that consideration was significantly related to increased employee job satisfaction (McKee, 1991; Stout, 1984). To date, research on the impact of leadership style in nonprofit organizations has investigated the relationship to employee job satisfaction. The results of this exploratory study revealed that leadership trends in relationship to job satisfaction differ than the results obtained in for-profit and military organizations.

*Leadership Structure and Job Satisfaction.* What about the influence of leadership structure? There was a mild but significant positive correlation between leadership structure and global job satisfaction. This appears to indicate that a director's leadership structure and child care workers' global job satisfaction are positively correlated—that as the director's leadership structure score increases, the child care workers' level of global job satisfaction increases. In addition, there was a significant positive correlation between leadership structure and supervisor job satisfaction. This appears to indicate that a director's leadership structure and child care workers'

satisfaction with supervision are positively correlated—that as the director’s leadership structure score increases, the child care workers’ level of job satisfaction increases.

With the regression analysis, using structure and consideration together was not significant in predicting overall job satisfaction. When analyzing structure and consideration by themselves, neither was significant, although consideration was close to reaching significance. Even though some relationships are significant, they do not account for much in the way of the total amount of variability with regard to leadership in attempt to identify a “model” regarding leadership style. On the other hand, leadership structure did significantly predict satisfaction with supervision. Additionally, there was a significant relationship between the JSS satisfaction subscale and the global score on the JSS, indicating that the satisfaction with supervision is one of the larger issues making up the global score for the JSS.

As noted in the literature, leadership structure is more effective in extreme situations or when the situations are very uncertain (Gannon, 1982). In line with this statement, leadership structure would work best in crises. Further, even though the leader may not be relationship-orientated, leader-member relations may be extremely strong if he or she is able to gain promotions and salary increases for employees (Gannon, 1982). In these situations, the leadership structure is preferred over leadership consideration. “When supervisors were perceived to initiate structure, set goals, assist with problem solving, provide social and material support, and give feedback on job performance, their subordinates experienced lower ambiguity and uncertainty, and hence greater satisfaction with their job” (O’Driscoll & Beehr, 1994, p. 152). This study was exception to research

trends discussed in Chapter 2 since it provides support that is more positive for leaders initiating structure as opposed to showing consideration for employees.

#### Summary of Discussion

The preceding discussion highlights the clarity, and the lack thereof, regarding the relationships between and among the variables. The points of clarity relate directly to the research questions. The first of these points is that leadership structure and satisfaction with supervision were mildly but significantly correlated in this research sample. This outcome was surprising given the discussion of previous research trends in profit organizations.

Additional clarity was found in the relationships between and among the child care centers. Specifically, the unique leadership style of Center 7 (LC-HS) significantly differed from Center 5 (HC-LS). The major revelation for these relationships is that, a leadership style high in structure relates significantly to employee's level of job satisfaction as compared to a center where level of structure is low. A question remains if Center 7 was an outlier which skewed the sample.

The lack of clarity involved the relationship of consideration to employee job satisfaction. Additionally, the relationship between leadership consideration versus leadership structure styles was not clear. Yet, the validity of consideration and initiation of structure continues to show support in the literature (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Judge and colleagues (2004) analyzed 163 independent correlations for consideration and 159 correlations for structure. They found that consideration (.48) and structure (.29) have moderately strong, nonzero relations with leadership outcomes. Additionally,

consideration was more strongly related to job satisfaction, satisfaction with the supervisor, and leader effectiveness. Initiating structure was only slightly more strongly related to the group's performance and the leader-job performance. Once again, these studies focused on for-profit agencies.

Child care workers' perception of their director's leadership style influenced their level of job satisfaction. As other research reported, the present research did not find a consistent link between leadership and job satisfaction (House & Aditya, 1997; Northouse, 1997). This has important implications for trainers of future child care directors as employee indicate a desire to have more structured leadership to be satisfied with their jobs, and specifically satisfied with the supervision they receive. The next section focuses on recommendations for future research on the influence of leadership on job satisfaction in nonprofit agencies.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

This study implemented a widely used research technique, namely, the use of surveys. Although surveys are important for predicting behavior, they do have their limitations. To maintain ethical standards, surveys were treated anonymously and confidentially in this study. People volunteered to participate, which makes this sample different from the larger population. Since it was not required that the child care workers participate, the return rate was only 56%. This return rate was only 9% lower than the Heller (1993) study that surveyed teacher job satisfaction in relation to their principal's leadership style and only 4% lower than the McKee (1991) study of college president

leadership style and faculty job satisfaction. Some strategies can be put into place which would increase the return rate. For instance, a personal explanation to all groups of child care workers participating, focusing on why participation is important and how the results would be beneficial. Providing a token of appreciation for the people participating would help the return rate.

As noted in the preceding summary, the results of this research provided both clarity and uncertainty with regard to the relationships between and among the variables. Much of the uncertainty was related in part to difficulties associated with the population sample. In addition, there was a great deal of variability in the sample. Given the small sample size, future studies may focus on expanding the number of participating directors. Also, future studies could focus on the number of years of directing experience. This sample had a great deal of variable with 3 to 32 years.

Examining center characteristics is also critical. For instance, one center participating in the study had a religious affiliation in addition to being nonprofit. Is this another moderating variable? Do the religious auspices of an organization put constraints on a director's style of leadership? In addition, some centers differed on NAEYC accreditation status. Is there a relationship between NAEYC accreditation and the influence on a director's leadership style? Research shows that NAEYC accredited centers experiences less teaching staff turnover compared to those centers that were not accredited (Whitebook & Sakai, 2003). Is it the non-accredited centers that demonstrate more of a need for structure as they have more variability in their employees' educational background and variability in the quality of the program?

Further, all the participants in this study were female. Future research should determine if there are gender differences with respect to job satisfaction and leadership style in nonprofit agencies, such as child care. For example, Bogler (2002) reported that female teachers expressed greater job satisfaction as compared to their male counterparts. There are few studies on employee job satisfaction, which examine the relationship between job satisfaction and teacher demographic characteristics. Personal demographic characteristics can be examined in more detail, particularly the relationship between education level, length of employment, and need for structure leadership style.

In order to determine the relationship of leadership structure needs for people newly hired, the length of employment for each employee should be recorded for future research efforts. Additionally, this information would lend itself well to a study of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover with respect to leadership style. Given that the turnover rate is high in child care centers, with ranges from 30-50% per year (Ramsburg & Montanelli, 1999), many new employees are hired each year. A question that remains to be answered is if it is the newer employees who need a structured leadership style in order to be satisfied their jobs and level of supervision.

The present research focused only on the analysis of the current leadership conditions and satisfaction levels within eight child care centers. Further, it focused on one exogenous factor, leadership style, on child care worker job satisfaction. Other factors can be considered such organizational variables, center size, NAEYC accreditation, school location, and religious affiliations. In viewing organizational change, the structural embeddedness model holds that strategic changes to the organization

must involve the structure of role relationships, decision-making, and control processes (Galaskiewicz & Bielefeld, 1998). Change in strategy without involving change in structure will result in failure. Moderating factors such as size of the child care center, age, social network influences will influence leadership styles. The next section focuses on other moderating factors, which may constrain leadership style.

An elemental risk for a correlational approach is that some variable or variables other than those under consideration may be responsible for the obtained relationship (Wood, 1974). There are extraneous factors to consider when discussing the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction and turnover. For instance, the experience level of the employee may be a moderator on preference for leadership style. Russ and McNeilly (1995) stated that experience has a direct relationship to turnover and organizational commitment. Further, experience may moderate relationships such as perceptions, attitudes, and behavior. Experienced employees will "be more sensitive and display stronger reactions to work-related variables such as leadership behavior and role stress than their longer-tenured counterparts" (Johnston, et al., 1989, p. 272). Except for supervisor consideration, the impact will decline as employees learn about their job duties, solidify attitudes toward the organization, and become more independent (Russ & McNeilly, 1995). Satisfaction with immediate supervisors will have more impact on the organizational commitment of less experienced employees than more seasoned workers.

Singh (1998) examined role conflict as a moderator for supervisory behavior with subordinates' job satisfaction and productivity in a profit agency. In an earlier study, Singh and Pestonjee (1974) found that employee oriented supervision is more conducive

to job satisfaction. Expanding on the previous study, the investigation was conducted in India with 50 first-level supervisors and 600 blue-collar workers of a textile mill. The Supervisor's Orientation Schedule (Singh, 1998) was used for determining the characteristics of supervisory behavior. It contained two dimensions: employee-oriented and production-oriented behaviors. Job satisfaction was assessed by Satisfaction – Dissatisfaction Employee's Inventory. The assessment focused on job, management, personal adjustment, and social relationships. To assess the impact of supervisory behavior on productivity, the researchers analyzed the significance of differences in productivity scores of subordinates under different categories of supervision. The results confirmed that employees of a LH [low task high consideration] category of supervision had the best performance in comparison to employees who worked under HH [high task high consideration], HL [high task low consideration], and LL [low consideration low task] categories of supervision. They found that role conflict has moderating effects on the relationship between supervisory behavior and job satisfaction (Singh & Pestonjee, 1974).

Another moderator is performance. This is a critical issue particularly if there is turnover of employees that are performing well. In general, research indicates that job satisfaction had a greater impact on turnover intention for low performers than for high performers (Russ & McNeilly, 1995). Further, empirical evidence demonstrates that satisfaction with promotion has a greater impact on the attitudes of high performers. On the other hand, satisfaction with the work itself has a greater impact on the attitudes of low performers.

Role ambiguity can serve as another moderating variable. O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) conducted a study of role ambiguity with organizations in the United States and New Zealand. Their findings supported the belief that supervisors can influence the degree of role stress and uncertainty which their subordinates experience, that in turn may affect levels of satisfaction, strain and turnover intentions. Keller (1989) suggested that an employee's need for clarity serves as a moderator on the impact of supervisory behavior. He observed the need for clarity moderates the relationship between supervisor initiating structure and an employee's performance.

Role stress may be another moderator to consider in the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. Lagace (1988) suggested that gender moderates the impact of role stress. In reference to the previous discussion, if women have less confidence in some job situations, they will be more likely to be affected by role ambiguity and role conflict as compared to men. This is why it is critical to consider supervisory or leadership behavior: The extent of supervisory behavior will determine the level of role stress.

Employee experience, performance, role conflict, role stress, and role ambiguity are possible moderating variables. What about the influence of gender? Gender research in for-profit agencies indicates that women experience life differently, leading to differences in cognition, affect, and behavior (Russ & McNeilly, 1995). A major premise would center on women's value of social relationships. In some occupations such as sales, women report lower self-esteem that can produce gender differences in the role of supervision. Russ and McNeilly (1995) assert that female sales representatives will

depend more heavily on their supervisors for support and feedback; therefore, satisfaction with supervisors is more strongly related to job attitudes for women than for men.

On the other hand, the expectation for leadership may depend on the gender of the leader. Johnson (1986) surveyed 167 teachers; 123 returned the questionnaire. Overall, teachers preferred male leaders to demonstrate an initiating structure style of leadership. The sample preferred female leaders to demonstrate a facilitating or considering style of leadership. Johnson (1986) asserts that these differentials relating to gender have clear implications with respect to job satisfaction.

Employee turnover of female college graduates was researched in a longitudinal study that spanned ten years (Allen, Drevs, & Ruhe, 1999). The women were randomly selected from business and liberal arts programs in a midwestern college. A total of 1500 questionnaires were sent out with 476 being returned. Other demographic characteristics were not discussed. The researchers found that organizational commitment was positively related to job commitment and employee commitment. Further, they found that employee commitment was positively related to job satisfaction, supervisory support, and organizational career support. The authors note that relationships and personal support are more salient to career and personal development for women than for men. Based on this premise, they hypothesized the employee commitment would be positively related to supervisory support (Allen, Drevs, & Ruhe, 1999).

Supervisory support is another possible moderating variable. Job satisfaction was associated in a negative direction with the lack of supervisory support. The more that immediate supervisors were seen as inhibiting the respondent's career interests, the less

the company was viewed as not taking probable career interests into consideration when placing employees in various positions (Allen, Drevs, & Ruhe, 1999). Lack of managerial support indicated supervisors as sexist, chauvinistic, patronizing, and ineffective behaviors. While many male supervisors were threatened by the female managers, female supervisors' perceptions were not much better. "Clearly, both organizational and supervisory supports were important to these women, which is in keeping with the suggestion that women's experiences in organizations are influenced not only by their gender and attitudes of those in power, but also by the organizational context, including a firm's policies" (p. 88).

Crouch and Powell (1983) examined the relationship between subordinates' sex, subordinates' sex role identity, subordinates' perception of supervisors' leadership style, supervisors' sex role identities, supervisors' perception of their own leadership style, and subordinates' job satisfaction. To determine predictors of job satisfaction, nine supervisors in a housekeeping unit of a university and 32 subordinate workers (17 females and 25 males) completed measures assessing sex role orientation, perceptions of leadership style, and job satisfaction. Statistical analyses revealed that perceptions of supervisors and leadership styles related to the following aspects of job satisfaction: work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and the job in general. Supervisor's sex role orientation related to the subordinates' sex-role identification and job satisfaction. Further, a perceived leadership style of consideration predicted several measures of job satisfaction including work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, co-workers,

and the job in general. The data were collected from a single job category and may not generalize to other professions. Caution should also be used given the small sample size.

Russ and McNeilly (1995) conducted a study to examine the moderators of experience, gender, and performance in relationship to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. For the sales employees participating in the study, gender moderates the link between job satisfaction, and organization commitment. Further, they found a joint moderator effect of gender and experience on the strength of the relationship between turnover intention and organization commitment. The researchers conclude that the experience results of their study suggest the need for different treatment of new employees as well as seasoned ones in order to maintain and improve loyalty. Since the relationship between gender and organizational commitment and turnover intentions were weak, Russ and McNeilly (1995) assert that future research should explore other constructs to explain turnover intentions of women. Further, since there are stronger ties for women between loyalty and satisfaction with supervisors or coworkers, they may require assignment to experienced leaders.

Only a few moderator variables were considered here as possibilities for investigation in future research. Although performance, experience, and gender may be critical issues when considering job satisfaction (Lagace, 1988; Russ & McNeilly, 1995), others may be more pertinent. Psychological characteristics of employees have received attention in the literature. Need for achievement and cognitive fit may be psychological characteristics to consider in future research (Spector, 1992). Using psychological

characteristics, as moderators can be essential for understanding the relationship between job satisfaction; yet, they present implementation difficulties for leaders.

No HC-HS directors were identified in this sample and this leadership style is most conducive to high job satisfaction (Blake & Mouton, 1964). This style most closely parallels Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) selling leadership style. With the selling (high task-high relationship) aspect, the leader provides both directive behavior and supportive behavior. Future research should focus on the impact of this leadership style on child care worker job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision. According to Blake and Mouton (1964), it is better for a leader to be high on both of these dimensions. Flexibility is essential depending on the nature of the situation.

What is needed is longitudinal research which will follow several centers, their leaders, and their child care workers over period of several years, such the 2 year longitudinal study with 57 family child care providers conducted by Todd and Deery-Schmitt (1996). These longitudinal studies can focus on job satisfaction as it relates to job turnover, position turnover, and occupational turnover.

A comparison of profit and nonprofit child care centers with respect to the variables considered in this research is needed. Do leadership styles differ in for-profit child care centers compared to the non profit counterparts? The present study was exploratory and utilized a nonexperimental design, which was helped illuminate the relationship between the variables in question. In order to ascertain causal relationships, an experimental design must be adopted.

Although some may feel that research on leadership consideration and structure, is passé, obsolete, and the results inconsistent (House & Podsakoff, 1994; Yukl, 1998; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992), recent meta analytic studies indicate that continued research on these dimensions of leadership is warranted (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004).

Contemporary leadership theory focuses on transformation and transactional leadership styles. The transformation-charismatic leadership style is supported by meta-analytic evidence (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996). Although transformational leadership is viewed as an advance over the consideration and structure dimensions outlined by Fleisch (1996), there has been little discussion of the relationship between these dimensions to transformational leadership (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004).

Although Bass (1990) argued that individualized consideration, a fact of transformational leadership was distinguished from the Ohio State consideration factor, Seltzer and Bass (1990) found moderately strong correlations between consideration/structure, and transformational leadership.

In keeping with the current trends in leadership research, future studies in this arena should focus on the impact of transformational and transactional leadership styles of directors and the impact on employee job satisfaction. As opposed to focusing solely on the behaviors of leaders, transformation and transactional styles look at the interaction between employees and their supervisors. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1990) can be used as a tool for measuring transformation and transactional leadership styles and relate this to employee job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision. Bogler (2002) found very little importance of demographic variables

compared to the contribution of other variables such as teachers' perceptions of their occupation and of their supervisor's leadership style. Further, he stated that teacher job satisfaction is positively related to participative decision making and to transformational leadership, a finding supported by other researchers (Kirby et al., 1992; Koh et al., 1995; Sillins, 1992). Since teachers expressed higher job satisfaction when they perceived their leader as a transformational leader, Bogler (2002) proposed that supervisors should consider adopting this style of leadership.

#### Implications for Social Change

Leadership style is critical in terms of an employee's level of job satisfaction. By vicariously watching the leader, employees attach meaning to the leader's behavior and evaluate that in terms of his or her expectations of supervision. Thus, employees will use the evaluation to determine satisfaction with supervision and satisfaction with the organization. The study of job satisfaction is important given its effect on employee retention (Bogler, 2002). Further, Zigarreli (1996) reports that teacher job satisfaction is the single, general measure that is a statistically significant predictor of effective schools. "Teacher job satisfaction was found to be associated with teacher quality and retention, and with organizational commitment and organizational performance in reference to the following school areas: academic achievement, student behavior, student satisfaction, teacher turnover, and administrative performance" (Bogler, 2002, p. 666).

Knowledge about job satisfaction and leadership style in early childhood programs is essential to any effort designed to improve the quality of services to young children and their families. In addition, it is critical in terms of the leadership training of

directors of child care centers. Nonprofit organizations seeking funding will be better served showing that they have satisfied teachers and lower turnover rates. This exploratory study points to a preference for the more structured style of leadership as it relates to satisfaction with supervision. Leadership effectiveness is based on the flexibility of the leader to adapt to the situation and is dependent on the job and psychological maturity of the employees (Bass, 1990). Given that a majority of the sample of directors had a low structure leadership style and that this was related significantly with satisfaction with supervision, training programs for future directors may want to focus on developing a structural orientation.

Some leaders are able to articulate why they have designed their organization the way they have; others appear to be rationalizing and are not really consciously aware of the assumptions they are making, even though such assumptions can sometimes be inferred from the results. In any case, the organization's structure and design can be used to reinforce leader assumptions but is rarely an accurate initial basis for embedding them because structure can usually be interpreted by the employees in a number of different ways. (Schein, 1992, p. 247).

Employees who lack knowledge of the job or who operate from fallacious assumptions about the job, will resist changes implemented by a leader (O'Toole, 1996), and may not be satisfied with the supervision they receive. Similarly, Bissell and Beach (1996) examined the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. They found decreased job satisfaction for those employees that had a discrepancy between ideal supervision and what they actually experienced from their supervisors on the job. This

implied that in order to increase employee job satisfaction, leaders may have to reevaluate their approach in order to match their employees' expectations. Additionally, Bissell and Beach (1996) found that when leaders changed their definitions of leadership, turnover decreased to near zero, absenteeism went down, morale increased dramatically, trust of management increased, and both the quantity and quality of customer service improved. The results imply that directors of child care centers may be high in consideration and that this factor is not as relevant to employee job satisfaction as a structured leadership orientation; therefore, the next section outlines recommendation for future actions.

The results imply social change effort at a broader level of nonprofit organizations. Child care organizations have a simple organizational structure, which Robbins (1998) defines as a structure characterized by low degree of departmentalization, wide control spans, little formality, and power and authority centralized in one person, namely the director of the organization. Robbins (1998) notes the inherent weaknesses of simple organizational structures. For instance, as the organization grows, decision making slows down because it is centralized in one person. Also, it is risky as it is heavily dependent on the leader. So in essence, a leader's style is critical to the overall functioning of the child care center. According to Robbins (1998), the organizational structure can have a significant effect on its members, particularly their satisfaction with the job. If the leader does not provide enough structure, there is a risk that employees will not be satisfied with their job, and thus the position may turn over. One structural element, centralization, is linked strongly to job satisfaction. Less centralized agencies

have greater job satisfaction. Social change can be implemented in nonprofit agencies that have a simple organizational structure, like child care organizations, for which a more structured style of leadership will lead to increased employee job satisfaction.

#### Recommendations for Action

Given the quality issues with respect to the shortage of highly qualified directors of child care agencies (Whitebook & Sakai, 2003), training issues must be addressed. First, directors of child care centers need to be aware of their leadership style and the relationship of style to employee job satisfaction. It would appear that developing a leadership style high on consideration and high on structure is important for increasing employee satisfaction (Bass, 1990; Heller, 1993). Research supports that when leaders change their definitions of leadership, job satisfaction increases and turnover is decreased to near zero (Bissell & Beach, 1996). Specifically, if leaders are low in structure, they need training that focuses on increasing skill in planning, communicated information, scheduling, and providing informative and constructive feedback to employees (Fleishman, 1996).

Training programs can also focus on strategies for improving employee retention, as suggestion by Armour (2000). Specifically, directors need to have training on the attitudinal facets which lead to dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). Leaders should be trained to recognize aspects of the organizational climate which create uncertainty for employees, a critical issue when bring a new employee on board. Training on employee readiness (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993) is key to providing structure for new employees and continued support for seasoned workers. A telling style is going to be more effective

for leaders to adopt when working with new employees. When employees perceive their director as initiating structure through setting goals, problem solving, and providing feedback on performance, employees were more satisfied, experienced less strain, and the position was less likely to turnover (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). Director training can focus on the need for frequent assessment feedback for new employees.

Evidence suggests that other situational variables, like training and experience, influence a leader's effectiveness (Bass, 1990). In essence, the training of child care directors should focus on creating policies structures, employee training programs, creating detailed job description, having comprehensive employee manuals, and standard operating procedures, anything that will help create structure for new employees. This relates back to job characteristics theory. Directors need to be trained on the five core job characteristics which lead increased job satisfaction and performance (Johns, 1996; Spector, 1997): skill variety, task identify, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback. Reducing ambiguity in the structural elements of an organization may be key to higher job satisfaction and higher employee productivity (Robbins, 1998). No matter how considerate a leader may be, the child care center will not achieve the organization goals unless there are agreed upon structures in place to fulfill the mission, and these structures are understood and implemented by new employees.

Generally, the results of this research are relevant psychology as they pertain to relationship issues, communication strategies, and attitudes developed by employees. Specifically, the results are relevant to directors who wish to increase the job satisfaction of their employees as well as prevent turnover. The results of the research can be

disseminated in director training programs, thereby promoting social change by focusing on the impact of leadership style on employee job satisfaction. In this exploratory study, a need for structured leadership was related to higher global job satisfaction as well as satisfaction with supervision. Further, the results can contribute to social change by examining the impact of leadership style in other nonprofit agencies having an organizational structure similar to child care agencies.

As Robbins (1998) notes, initiating structure involves leader roles, roles of employees toward achieving goals, and the leader's active involvement in planning work activities, communicating pertinent information, and scheduling work. Consideration involves an organizational atmosphere of mutual trust, respect for employee's ideas, consideration of employee's feelings, and exceptional communication. With the flux of change in nonprofit organizations such as child care centers, the need for structure seems to be critical to employee job satisfaction, particularly on satisfaction with supervision and has important implications for child care director training programs.

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Appendix A

Research Instruments

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and Job Satisfaction Survey

\* Permission to include these assessment was obtained from Spector (2004) for the JSS and from Pearson Publishers (2004) for the LOQ.

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1989)

1. Put the welfare of your unit above the welfare of any person in it.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
2. Give into your subordinates in discussions with them.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
3. Encourage after duty work by persons of your unit.
  - A. A great deal.
  - B. Fairly often
  - C. To some degree
  - D. Once in awhile
  - E. Very seldom
  
4. Try out your own new ideas in the unit.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
5. Back up what persons under you do.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
6. Criticize poor work.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

7. Ask for more that the person under you can accomplish.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
8. Refuse to compromise a point.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
9. Insist that persons under you follow to the letter those standard routines handed down by you.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
10. Help persons under you with their personal problems
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
11. Be slow to adopt new ideas.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
12. Get the approval of persons under you on important matters before going ahead.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

13. Resist change in ways of doing things.
  - A. A great deal.
  - B. Fairly often
  - C. To some degree
  - D. Once in awhile
  - E. Very seldom
  
14. Assign persons under you to particular tasks.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
15. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
16. Stress importance of being ahead of other units.
  - A. A great deal.
  - B. Fairly often
  - C. To some degree
  - D. Once in awhile
  - E. Very seldom
  
17. Criticize a specific act rather than a particular member of your unit.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
18. Let the persons under you do their work the way they think is best.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

19. Do personal favors for persons under you.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
20. Emphasize meeting of deadlines.
  - A. A great deal.
  - B. Fairly often
  - C. To some degree
  - D. Once in awhile
  - E. Very seldom
  
21. Insist that you be informed on decisions made by persons under you.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
22. Offer new approaches to problems.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
23. Treat all persons under you as your equals.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
24. Be willing to make changes.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

25. Talk about how much should be done.
- A. A great deal.
  - B. Fairly often
  - C. To some degree
  - D. Once in awhile
  - E. Very seldom
26. Wait for persons in your unit to push new ideas.
- A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
27. Rule with an iron hand.
- A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
28. Reject suggestions for changes.
- A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
29. Change the duties of persons under you without first talking it over with them.
- A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
30. Decide in detail what shall be done and how it should be done by the persons under you.
- A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

31. See to it that persons under you are working up to capacity.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
32. Stand up for persons under you, even though it makes you unpopular with others.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
  
33. Put suggestions made by persons in the unit into operation.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
34. Refuse to explain your actions.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
35. Ask for sacrifices from persons under you for the good of your entire unit.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
  
36. Act without consulting persons under you.
  - A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom

37. "Needle" persons under you for greater effort.
- A. A great deal.
  - B. Fairly often
  - C. To some degree
  - D. Once in awhile
  - E. Very seldom
38. Insist that everything be done your way.
- A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never
39. Encourage slow working persons in your unit to work harder.
- A. Often
  - B. Fairly Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Once in a while
  - E. Very Seldom
40. Meet with the person in your unit at certain regularly scheduled times.
- A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

<p align="center"><b>JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY</b>                      Paul E. Spector                      Department of Psychology                      University of South Florida                      Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.</p>							
<p align="center">PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH                      QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO                      REFLECTING YOUR OPINION                      ABOUT IT.</p>		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.							
Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B

Research Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

**The Relationship of Consideration and Task Structure Leadership Styles to Employee Job Satisfaction in Nonprofit Child Care Organizations**

You are invited to participate in a research study of leadership style on employee satisfaction in nonprofit child care centers. You were selected as a possible participant because of your knowledge and/or experience related to the topic. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before acting on this invitation to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by: Stephanie L. Brooke, MS, NCC – Doctoral Candidate at Walden University

**Background Information:**

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction in nonprofit child care centers.

**Procedures:**

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following thing: You will be asked to complete a survey, which should take no more than 20 minutes. Your responses on the survey will be anonymous and confidential.

**Voluntary Nature of the Study:**

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with your employer. If you initially decide to participate, you are still free to withdraw at any time later without affecting those relationships.

**Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:**

There are no risks or benefits for participating in this study.

In the event you experience stress or anxiety during your participation in the study you may terminate your participation at any time. You may refuse to answer any questions you consider invasive or stressful

Compensation:

No compensation will be provided.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. In any report of this study that might be published, the researcher will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a participant. Research records will be kept in a locked file; only the researcher will have access to the records

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is Stephanie L. Brooke. The researcher's adviser is Dr. John Schmidt. *You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact them at 5660 Big Tree Road, Lakeville, New York, 14480. Phone: 585-346-0741. The Research Participant Advocate at Walden University is Dale Good, you may contact him at 1-800-925-3368, x 1210 if you have questions about your participation in this study*

You may keep a copy of this consent form. You will receive a copy of this form from the researcher.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Printed Name  
of Participant

Signature

\_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of  
Investigator

\_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix C

Demographic Data Sheet

Your age					
Year directing					
Race/ethnicity	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Other
Credentials/Highest Degree					
Day care center	Public	Private	Church affiliated	Non church affiliated	NAEYC Accredited
NAEYC Accredited	Yes/No				
<b>Employees:</b>					
Number of employees					
Age range of employees					
Average age of employees					
Number of each race	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Other
Average number of employees with degree:	High school	Associates	Bachelors	Masters	Other
Average length of employment					
Shortest stay of employment					
Longest stay of employment					

## Appendix D

## Curriculum Vita

**Professional Experience**

**Monroe Community College**  
*Adjunct Instructor*

2003 – Present

Teach introduction to psychology, interpersonal relations, and lifespan development.

**Jamestown Community College: Jamestown, NY**  
*Online Instructor*

2003 – Present

Teach general psychology online through SUNY Learning Network (SLN).

**Cayuga Community College: Cayuga, NY**  
*On-line Instructor*

2003 – Present

Teach introduction to psychology, child psychology, abnormal psychology, and lifespan online. Trained in Lotus Notes through SUNY Learning Network (SLN). Developed new courses, child psychology and lifespan, and implemented them for CCC.

**University of Phoenix: Phoenix, AZ**  
*On-line Instructor*

2000 – Present

Teach introduction to psychology, human motivation, emotional intelligence, adult development, skills for professional development, diversity, introduction to sociology, communications, philosophy, and contemporary issues in business. Completed faculty training in copyright issues, plagiarizing, learning teams, learning materials, writing, working with difficult students, APA style, student evaluation, critical thinking, and working with new students.

**Nazareth College: Rochester, NY**  
*Adjunct Instructor*

1999 - Present

Teach motivation and emotion, organizational psychology, child development, introduction to psychology, social problems, and introduction to sociology.

**Consulting: Monroe, Livingston, and Warsaw Counties**  
*Group Facilitator*

1999 - Present

Hired to facilitate groups on conflict resolution skills, problem solving, and art therapy for community agencies and schools. Appeared on Buffalo television news with respect to sexual abuse (5/01) and video voyeurism (6/03) issues.

**Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT): Rochester, NY**  
*Adjunct and Online instructor*

2003

Teach introduction to sociology and demographics. Teach online and face to face for psychology – introduction to psychology and personality.

**SUNY Brockport: Brockport, NY**  
*Adjunct Instructor*

2002 - 2003

Teach introduction to sociology.

- St. John Fisher College: Rochester, NY** 2000 – 2003  
*Adjunct Instructor*  
 Teach gender issues, introduction to psychology, developmental psychology, and child development.
- SUNY Geneseo: Geneseo, NY** 1999 - 2003  
*Adjunct Instructor*  
 Teach social problems and introduction to sociology.
- Genesee Community College: Lakeville, NY** 1994 - 2000  
*Adjunct Instructor*  
 Teach courses in psychology, sociology, family violence, and child/adolescent development. Developed a non-credit course in art therapy. Responsible for teaching point-to-point classes.
- The Growing Place: Rochester, NY** 2000 – 2001  
*Assistant Director*  
 Responsible for hiring, orienting, and training new staff. Serve as director in her absence. Responsible for enrollment, implementing programs, and scheduling.
- Asbury Child Care Center: Rochester, NY** 2000  
*Education Director*  
 Responsible for hiring and supervising teachers. Assist developing educational plans and ensuring developmentally appropriate practice. Responsible for maintaining state and NAEYC guidelines.
- Center for Youth Services: Rochester, NY** 1999 - 2000  
*Assistant Shelter Supervisor*  
 Supervised shelter staff, interns, and residents. Created and implemented an independent livings skills program for youth. Interviewed, hired, and trained new staff and volunteers. Responsible for statistics reports and United Way program descriptions. Completed Excellence in Management Training through the United Way.
- Charles Settlement House: Rochester, NY** 1997- 1999  
*Program Director*  
 Supervised day-to-day operations of settlement programs, 12 full-time staff, volunteers, and interns. Responsible for the six departments operations and goals. Wrote program descriptions and grants. Wrote and received the grant for reading through the Friends of Rochester Public Library. Designed and executed conflict resolution program for after school youth. Completed management-training program through United Way.
- YMCA: Greece, NY** 1997 - 1999  
*Site Coordinator/Staff Trainer*  
 Supervised before and after school programs. Trained four year olds in swimming and gym activities. Taught child abuse prevention classes.
- Easter Seals: Rochester, NY** 1998 - 1999  
*Behavior Specialist*  
 Worked with autistic children in residential settings.
- Hillside Children's Center: Rochester, NY** 1996  
*Social Worker*  
 Employed as a social worker. Conducted individual, group, and family counseling for aggressive boys. Specialized in art therapy.

- Livingston County Employment & Training:** Geneseo, NY 1995  
**Summer Counselor**  
 Responsible for interviewing, determining eligibility, teaching, and counseling youth. Supported supervisors in providing learning rich environments. Presented workshops on SCANS and pre-employment skills.
- Private Practice:** Raleigh, NC 1993 - 1994  
**Counselor**  
 Provided individual, couples, and group counseling for women's issues. Specialized in sexual abuse counseling and career planning. Received National Certification for Counselors (NCC #31267) in October 1993.
- Kids 'R' Smart:** Raleigh, NC 1993 - 1994  
**Program Coordinator**  
 Implemented and managed 17 after school programs in the areas of art, drama, and foreign language. Responsible for program implementation, hiring, and supervising teachers.
- NCSU Career Planning Department:** Raleigh, NC 1992 - 1994  
**Career Planning Instructor**  
 Helped students appraise career potential, explore alternatives, and implement career action plan.

### Education

- Ph.D. in Organizational Psychology - **Walden University** - expected graduation in 2004; Student Council Representative and Vice President of Psi Chi.
- Certified On Line Instructor - **Walden Institute** - May 2000
- Certified Art Therapist - **Nazareth College/Hillside Children's Center**, 1995
- Masters of Science in Community Agency Counseling - **North Carolina State University**, 1993; Phi Kappa Phi National Honor Society
- Bachelor of Arts in Clinical/Counseling Psychology, minor in Sociology - **Moravian College**, 1988; graduated summa cum laude and with honors in Psychology. Treasure of Psychology Club
- Valedictorian - **Northern Lehigh High School**, 1984; American Association of Physics Award; Society of Women Engineers Award; National Honor Society; Who is Who in America Award. Participated in Debate Club and School News Paper.

### Publications

- 2004:** A therapist's guide to art therapy assessments: Tools of the trade, second edition, with a forward by Barry Cohen, ATR, Charles C. Thomas Publishers, in print.
- March 2004:** "Breaking down the myths surrounding sexual abuse." *Expository Magazine*, vol. 3(1), [Online], [http://www.expositorymagazine.net/myths\\_sexual\\_abuse.php](http://www.expositorymagazine.net/myths_sexual_abuse.php)  
 "The Mother I Carry: A Memoir of Healing from Emotional Abuse", APA Division 42, [Online] [http://www.division42.org/MembersArea/Nws\\_VIEWS/articles/Reviews\\_Books/mother\\_carry.html](http://www.division42.org/MembersArea/Nws_VIEWS/articles/Reviews_Books/mother_carry.html)
- Jan 2004:** "Critical Review of the Obsidian Mirror," APA Division 42 Bibliotherapy Project, [Online], [http://www.division42.org/MembersArea/Nws\\_VIEWS/articles/Reviews\\_Books/obsidian.html](http://www.division42.org/MembersArea/Nws_VIEWS/articles/Reviews_Books/obsidian.html)
- Nov 2003:** "Critical Review of The Mother I Carry by Louise Wisechild", *Expository Magazine*, vol. 2(4), [Online] [http://www.expositorymagazine.net/mother\\_i\\_carry.php](http://www.expositorymagazine.net/mother_i_carry.php)
- July 1999:** "Critical Review of Assessment of Interpersonal Relations (AIR), Measurement in Evaluation in Counseling and Development, vol 32(2), p.105-110.

- October 1997: Healing through Art: Art Therapy with Sexual Abuse Survivors, with a forward by Dr. Dee Spring, Atr. Charles C. Thomas Publishers.
- May 1996: A Therapist's Guide to Art Therapy Assessments: Tools of the Trade with a forward by Dr. Harriet Wadeson, ATR. Charles C. Thomas Publishers.
- January 1996: "Critical Analysis of the Self-Esteem Index", Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, vol. 28(4), p. 233-240.  
"Art Expression: An approach to working with incest survivors" The Arts in Psychotherapy, vol. 22(5), p. 447-466.
- October 1995: "Critical Analysis of the Depression and Anxiety Scale, Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, vol. 28 (3), p. 162-167.
- August 1995: "Strategic Family Play Therapy: A critical review", The Arts in Psychotherapy, vol. 22 (3), p. 269-270.
- July 1995: "Cliffs' GRE StudyWare Package: A critical evaluation", Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, vol. 28 (2), p. 119-122.
- January 1995: "A critical review of Battle's Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventory", Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, vol. 27 (4), p. 248-252.
- June 1994: Brooke, S. & Joseph Ciechalski, "Critical Analysis of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire" in A Counselor's Guide to Career Assessment, 3rd ed., Jerome T. Kapes and Marjorie Moran Mastey, eds., p.220-225.  
"An approach to preventing sexual abuse." Southern Women's Words Quarterly, vol 1 (1), p. 5-10.
- Winter 1993: "The Morality of Homosexuality", Journal of Homosexuality, vol. 25 (4), p. 77-99.
- May 1993: "Heterosexism hurts, too", letter to editor of APA Monitor, p. 55.
- April 1993: "RISA: A critical review of the Responsibility and Independence Scale for Adolescents", Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, vol 26 (1), p. 105-109.
- April 1992: "Beyond Myth", letter to editor of APA Monitor, p. 46.
- November 1991: "Reduce the bias", letter to the editor of APA Monitor, p. 3.
- June 1991: "Learnfare is oppressive", letter to the editor of APA Monitor, p. 4.

#### Community Activities :

- Vice Chairperson for ARIA (Awareness of Rape and Incest through Art), 2004 - Present
- Editor for Expository Magazine, 2003 - Present
- Peer review for professional APA Journals, such as the *Journal of Play Therapy*., 2002 - Present
- Catholic Diocese Committee to Prevent Violence against Women, 1999
- Big Sisters, 1998
- Family Crisis Counselor – Hillside Children's Center, 1998-1999
- Rape Crisis – Planned Parenthood, 1996-1998
- Peer Counselor and Group Facilitator, Women's Center, 1990-1994
- Child care Teacher, Volunteers of America, 1987-1988

#### Professional Conferences:

- Play Therapy Conference, Pergia, Italy, 2004
- Case Studies in Science Conference, Buffalo, NY, 2004
- NAEYC Validator Training, Denver, CO, 2003
- Shadows and Art Therapy with Harriet Wadeson, Rochester, NY, 2003
- Excellence in Management Training, Rochester, NY, 1998-1999
- Working with Difficult People with Gregory Lester, 1999
- Art Therapy with Harriet Wadeson, Greensboro, NC, 1993
- National Association of Social Workers Conference, Raleigh, NC, 1993
- Paper presented at Easter Psychological Association, Buffalo, NY, 1988