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Ahmad Mohammad Sharif

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Leader behavior, organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction of vocational teachers in Malaysia

Sharif, Ahmad Mohammad, Ph.D.
The Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical Col., 1989

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LEADER BEHAVIOR, ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND JOB SATISFACTION OF VOCATIONAL TEACHERS IN MALAYSIA

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

The School of Vocational Education

by

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Diploma of Agriculture, Malaysia, 1972
Certificate in Education, Malaysia, 1973
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May, 1989
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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to identify the relationships of the perceptions of both leader behavior and organizational effectiveness to the job satisfaction of vocational teachers in vocational schools in Malaysia. Nine social and demographic characteristics of respondents were also investigated. The study was also aimed at determining the relative influence of the selected factors on the job satisfaction of respondents.

A simple random sample of 250 teachers was selected, of whom 225 responded. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) - long form was used to measure job satisfaction, while the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness were utilized to determine leader behavior of school principals and organizational effectiveness of schools, respectively. Data were collected by mailed questionnaires. Four mailings were made, each about two weeks apart.

The vocational teachers seemed to have a low level of general job satisfaction based on norms established in the United States. The five areas with which they were least satisfied were advancement, compensation, social status, school policies and practices and supervision-technical.
Their satisfaction was highest in the areas of moral values, co-worker relationships, security, ability utilization and social service. The teachers' level of intrinsic satisfaction was significantly higher than that of their extrinsic satisfaction.

School principals were perceived by respondents to display low levels in both initiation of structure and consideration dimensions of leader behavior. In addition, the perceived overall organizational effectiveness of schools was in the moderate range.

The overall perceived organizational effectiveness followed by consideration dimension of leader behavior were found to be significant contributors to the general and extrinsic job satisfaction models. The overall perceived organizational effectiveness was also the most significant contributor to the intrinsic job satisfaction model, followed by initiation of structure and consideration dimensions of leader behavior.

The recommendations of the study were that efforts should be focused on the training of teachers particularly in the enhancement of teachers' intrinsic factors. Moreover, policymakers and administrators should also focus on the organizational effectiveness of schools and the two dimensions of principal's leader behavior.
Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Malaysia, centrally located in the fastest developing region of Southeast Asia, covers an area of 330,433 square kilometers and comprises the West or Peninsular Malaysia and East Malaysia. Malaysia, formerly known as Malaya under British rule, was officially established in 1963 with the amalgamation of Sabah and Sarawak which currently constitute East Malaysia. Politically, Malaysia is a constitutional monarchy based on a parliamentary democracy. Its parliament consists of a Senate and a House of Representatives. Malaysia, with a total population of about 14 million, has a diversity of races, cultures and religions. Its population is made up of three main ethnic groups -- Malays (the majority group), Chinese and Indians. Malays, the indigenous group, are Muslims while the Chinese and Indians are predominantly Buddhists and Hindus, respectively. Malaysia ranks as the world's largest exporter of rubber, tin, timber, palm oil and pepper (Information Malaysia, 1988).

Education in Malaysia

As revealed in the Malaysia Plan Reports (1976), education in Malaysia is geared toward fostering national unity and catering to manpower requirements. Malaysia uses
a 6-3-2-2 type of educational system -- six years of primary education, three years of lower secondary education, two years of upper secondary education and two years of post-secondary education (See Appendix A). Education at the primary school level is free but not compulsory. Children enter primary school at the age of six. There is automatic promotion from standard (grade) one through standard six. Instruction provided at the primary schools is in three languages: Bahasa Malaysia, the national language of the country, Chinese and Tamil. The emphasis of the curriculum in this level is acquisition of three basic skills -- reading, writing and arithmetic (Ministry of Education, Malaysia, 1985).

Students are automatically promoted to the lower secondary schools and promotion from form one through form three (grade seven through grade nine) at the lower secondary level is also automatic. Students in primary Chinese and Tamil schools have to undergo a one-year special class called "Remove Class" to equip them with sufficient proficiency in Bahasa Malaysia which is the medium of instruction in all secondary schools. At the lower secondary level, the educational emphasis is to provide knowledge in general/academic subjects; however, students are also required to take at least one of the four prevocational subjects or electives offered. The subjects
prevocational subjects or electives offered. The subjects include: industrial arts, commerce, home science and agricultural science.

At the end of form three, students sit for the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE). The results of the examination provide the basis for the selection of students for admission into upper secondary schools in either the academic (arts or science) stream or the technical and vocational stream. Education at the upper secondary level is more specialized as students are channeled to different streams. Students selected for the arts or science streams are placed in regular academic schools, fully-residential schools, science schools and junior colleges. Students selected for technical and vocational streams are placed at the technical and vocational schools. The curriculum in the upper-secondary schools includes languages, mathematics, sciences, social studies, civics, religious or moral education and elective subjects. At the end of two years, students in academic and technical schools sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) examination while students in the vocational schools take the Malaysian Certificate of Education (Vocational) [MCE(V)] examination. Based on their results, students may proceed to the two-year pre-university level which when completed allows them to sit for the Malaysian High School Certificate (MHSC) examination.
to determine admissability to local universities. The MCE holders can also enter local universities/polytechnics leading to diplomas/certificates in a variety of professional fields. These programs last for two to three years. Those with an interest in teaching can enter three-year teacher-training colleges. A selected few are sent to foreign universities (Ministry of Education, Malaysia, 1985).

Vocational Education and Training

Occupational education in Malaysia can be broadly classified into two major categories: vocational training and vocational education. Vocational training, which is an out-of-school program tailored for specific jobs, is run by several agencies including the Ministry of Labor and Manpower, the Ministry of Industry and the Ministry of Agriculture. There are also other quasi-governmental agencies such as the Rubber Research Institute, Federal Land Development Authority and other private bodies conducting vocational training to meet the job needs of their own agencies. This vocational training, which is terminal in nature, involves courses that run from three months to two years in length.

Vocational education, on the other hand, consists of those programs offered in the secondary vocational schools
under the auspices of the Technical and Vocational Education Division (TAVED) of the Ministry of Education. The courses, which run for two years, prepare students with job-entry skills integrated with general subjects.

**Vocational Schools**

Vocational courses were officially introduced in the education system as part of the public school curriculum in 1965 and the objectives of secondary vocational schools are defined as follows:

1. To provide industrial and technical sectors with manpower equipped with basic skills and knowledge.
2. To provide a flexible and broad-based curriculum to meet not only immediate needs but also future needs and changes in industries.
3. To provide basic education in science, mathematics and languages to enable students to adapt themselves to new methods of work and achieve greater proficiency in their future work.
4. To provide the foundation for skills and knowledge on which to build subsequent education and training (Ministry of Education, Malaysia, 1979).

The four major courses offered are engineering trades, commerce, agriculture and home science. The vocational education program is open for those with LCE certificates.
The school calendar year extends from early January to mid-November, which covers three terms, the same as in regular academic schools. The class hours are from 7:30 a.m. to 4:00 p.m., Monday through Friday. Each student, besides majoring in one of the four major courses, is also required to take general subjects, such as Bahasa Malaysia, English, vocational mathematics, environmental science and religious studies/social studies. The medium of instruction is the Malaysian language except for instruction in the subject of English.

Vocational Teachers

Teachers of engineering trades, home science and commerce are MCE-, MCVE- or MHSC-holders who have undergone a three-year course in teacher-training colleges. The three major components of the teacher education curriculum in Malaysia are general education, professional education and specialized technical areas of teaching. The general education component of the curriculum includes Malaysian language, English language, science, mathematics, library science, arts and one of the three electives — craft, music and physical science. The professional education areas include philosophy, psychology, sociology and pedagogy. Engineering trades teachers specialize in one of the technical areas which include electrical installation and
maintenance, radio and television servicing, sheet metal work and welding, motor mechanics, woodworking and building construction, fitting and machining and air-conditioning and refrigeration. Home science teachers pursue one of the three specialized courses, catering, fashion design and dressmaking, or beauty culture while commerce teachers take either commercial studies or principles of accounts as their area of specialization. Agricultural teachers in vocational schools are MCE holders who have undergone a three-year diploma course or MCE/MHSC holders who have obtained degrees from the University of Agriculture or universities abroad.

To update the technical knowledge of vocational teachers, they are periodically given in-service training locally or abroad. In-service training is often conducted at teacher-training colleges during school vacations. As for training abroad, teachers are often sent to Japan, England, Canada, West Germany and a few other industrialized countries that offer advanced courses. These skill-upgrading courses are usually sponsored by the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, and/or other external organizations.

Importance, Trends and Problems of Vocational Programs

Malaysia, like many other developing countries, is on the threshold of industrialization and needs a wide range of
skilled manpower for economic expansion. To accomplish this task, Malaysia has put a strong emphasis on vocational education (Information Malaysia, 1984). The Technical and Vocational Education Division of the Ministry of Education is responsible for the training of the largest number of future craft persons and trade persons to fulfill the country's labor force needs through the integration of vocational programs into the education system (Ministry of Education, Malaysia, 1979).

The importance of vocational education in meeting the manpower requirements and the emphasis the government has placed on these programs is reflected in the Ministry of Education Report of 1987. This report indicates that in addition to the nine vocational schools that have been recently opened (bringing the total to 36 schools), eight more schools should be in operation by late 1989 and another 12 should be in operation by 1992.

In addition, the TAVED restructured its vocational education system in 1987. Under this new structure, students are channelled to either the vocational or skill stream as they enter the second year of the program. Streaming to one of these programs is based on their achievement in course work, monthly tests and final examinations. Those who perform well in both general and vocational subjects are placed in the vocational stream.
where they sit for the MCE(V) at the end of the second year. Besides acquiring the vocational trade, this group of students can further their studies in colleges as do their counterparts in the regular academic schools. Those students who are deficient in their general subjects are placed in the skill stream where they undergo two more years solely for job training. This group of students will sit for the National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board (NITTCB) examination which qualifies them to enter the labor market as skilled technicians.

To keep abreast of technological change, the TAVED implemented its new vocational curriculum in the same year it restructured the system. The vocational courses (Appendix B) in the new curriculum allow students to pursue more specialized areas of interest instead of the broad vocational courses of the old curriculum. To successfully implement the rapid progress of the above-mentioned programs, Malaysia needs effective vocational education. To achieve effectiveness, retention and more organizational commitment of vocational teachers are crucial. Turnover and turnover intentions among vocational teachers have been common as perceived by the researcher during his service at the TAVED. Turnover itself is not now as serious a problem as turnover intentions, however, since teachers are bound by both their service contract and the realities of the
country's economic recession. If the turnover problem is not rectified at an early stage, the progress of vocational programs might be adversely affected in the future. Thus, there is a need to retain teachers in the profession.

The question may arise as to why these teachers leave their job or have the intentions of leaving the teaching profession. According to Mattox (1974) and Gruneberg (1976), there is a definite and consistent relationship between turnover and job dissatisfaction of workers. Turnover and turnover intentions are equally serious problems since people who think about quitting their jobs are actually more likely to leave (Atkinson and Lefferts, 1972).

Another reason people leave their jobs is a lack of commitment. Mortimer (1979) argued that more committed workers are less likely to leave their jobs. Organizational commitment is also related to job satisfaction according to some studies (Bame, 1972; Kongchan, 1986; and Mottaz, 1987), and teachers' commitment, too, is essential in the successful implementation of vocational programs. Since retention and commitment of vocational teachers are important in the effectiveness of vocational programs, a study of factors influencing satisfaction of vocational teachers seems crucial.
Many factors have been identified in studies as sources of job satisfaction. These have been commonly classified under two broad categories — intrinsic and extrinsic (Gruneberg, 1976; Herzberg, 1966; Hopkins, 1983; Kalleberg, 1977; Katz and Van Maanan, 1977; Locke, 1976; Mortimer, 1979; Mottaz, 1985, 1987; and Wernimont, 1966). Intrinsic facets of a job are those features that are reflective of work content while extrinsic factors are those associated with work environment or context. Locke (1976) and Lawler (1973) believed that some of these factors should be weighed more than others. However, many research studies indicate organizational factors are equal to or more important than social and demographic variables in determining job satisfaction (cited in Bacharach and Mitchell, 1983).

Studies by the National Education Association (1982) reveal that the proportion of teachers saying they would not teach again tripled in the period 1971 to 1981. Their main reasons centered around the issues of how a school is run and led. Teachers' feelings generally implied low satisfaction with the teaching profession. As the nature and trend of the teaching profession may not vary significantly across countries of different socio-cultural backgrounds, what happened to teachers in the United States may also occur in a country like Malaysia. Thus, a job satisfaction model (See Figure 1) was developed to predict
the influence of the leader behavior of the principal, the organizational effectiveness of the schools, and the social and demographic variables toward the job satisfaction of teachers.

![Figure 1: Job Satisfaction Model](image)

As reflected in the job satisfaction model, teachers' satisfaction is influenced by how effective the principals are in their leadership roles (House, 1971). Also, according to the propositions advocated by the Human Resource Movement (cited in Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1979), job satisfaction of teachers is predicted to result from the successful accomplishment of important and meaningful work i.e., organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, Miskel et al. (1983) viewed job satisfaction as a criterion of organizational effectiveness. Job satisfaction is also affected by values that people bring to their work place (Locke, 1976). The importance of including social and demographic variables in a study has been emphasized by
Seashore and Taber (1975) as, "it is essential to take them into account for they are the basis for much selective nonrandom clustering of like people in like jobs and job environment" (p. 35). They also indicated that documentation of demographic correlates of a phenomenon such as job satisfaction is often used as a prerequisite of establishing social indicators in program development.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to identify the relationships of the perceptions of both leader behavior and organizational effectiveness to job satisfaction of vocational teachers in secondary vocational schools in Malaysia. The study also sought to describe these teachers with respect to their social and demographic characteristics and to determine the relative influence of selected factors on the job satisfaction of the vocational teachers in Malaysia.

Specific Objectives of the Study

This study was conducted to accomplish the following specific objectives:

1. To measure the job satisfaction of vocational teachers in Malaysia.
2. To measure the leader behavior of vocational school principals in Malaysia as perceived by vocational teachers.

3. To measure the organizational effectiveness of vocational schools in Malaysia as perceived by vocational teachers.

4. To determine if significant differences existed in job satisfaction among selected social and demographic variables for teachers -- ethnic group, sex, marital status, courses taught, educational preparation -- and to identify the relationships between job satisfaction and the following demographic characteristics: qualifications, teaching experience, salary and distance from their hometowns.

5. To determine if a significant explanatory model existed for job satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire from factors of leader behavior, organizational effectiveness, and the selected social and demographic variables.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed to guide the researcher:
1. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

2. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

3. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of consideration of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

4. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of consideration of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

5. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of vocational schools by vocational teachers.

6. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of vocational schools by vocational teachers.
Definitions

Job Satisfaction

Locke (1976), whose multifaceted concept of job satisfaction has gained wide support, defined job satisfaction as the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perceptions of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's needs" (p. 1342). Underlying Locke's theory, which is the theoretical framework of the study, job satisfaction is viewed as being the outcome of the interaction of one's values and one's perceptions of the job and the environment. Locke's definition of job satisfaction underlies the "fit" hypothesis or person-environment congruence which emphasizes the compatibility of external work features and internal attributes that the individual brings to the work place.

Applying this notion to the job as a whole or to each of its facets, this concept of discrepancy approach has also been linked by other researchers to job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935; Lawler, 1973; Mortimer, 1979; Mottaz, 1985). The discrepancy approach is in turn regarded as a key indicator of the Theory of Work Adjustment, a derivative of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) as postulated by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). Spokane (1985), who made an extensive review of person-environment
congruence, concluded that "higher congruence was substantially related to greater job satisfaction" (p.319). In a more recent study, Smart et al. (1986) supported the above notion.

Kalleberg (1977), who has a similar notion of job satisfaction, regarded job satisfaction as "a function of the range of specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions that he/she experiences with respect to the various dimensions of work" (p. 127). His notion underlies a unidimensional nature of job satisfaction and also, the idea that individuals have a subjective orientation toward their work situation. This concept does not imply that the causes of job satisfaction are not multidimensional. As Kalleberg asserts, individuals may be satisfied in one aspect of their job and at the same time they may be dissatisfied with another. In spite of its multidimensional cause, an overall composite satisfaction can be obtained by weighing the specific satisfactions against the specific dissatisfactions. His view, in essence, implies the interplay of two types of factors producing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction: perceived job characteristics or rewards and the work values that represent meanings that individuals attached to those job rewards (Kalleberg, 1977).

The MSQ, which was used to measure job satisfaction in this study (See Appendix C), measures two major job facets:
intrinsic and extrinsic. The intrinsic facets of a job are measured by 13 subscales: ability utilization, achievement, activity, authority, coworkers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service and variety. The extrinsic job facets are measured by seven subscales: advancement, company policies and practices, compensation, social status, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical and working conditions.

**Leader Behavior**

Leader behavior, which is an independent variable in this study, primarily represents initiation of structure and consideration behaviors of a principal (Halpin and Winer, 1957) as exemplified in the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (See Appendix D). Initiation of structure refers to the extent to which a leader initiates, organizes and defines work to be done and the manner in which it will be done (Bass, 1981). Consideration involves the extent to which a leader exhibits concern for people's interest, mutual understanding, respect through appreciation for work and higher-order needs of individuals.

**Organizational Effectiveness**

Organizational effectiveness of school, another independent variable, is measured by the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE) (See Appendix E). The IPOE as postulated by Miskel, et al., is a derivative of
Mott's (1972) criteria of organizational effectiveness, and has five dimensions: quantity, quality, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility. Quantity and quality, respectively, refer to "how much" and "how good" the products and services are in terms of instruction, student learning and extracurricular activities that the school staff produces. Efficiency refers to how accomplished the school staff is in acquiring the greatest number of those products and services from available resources. Adaptability is the ability to anticipate problems, develop timely solutions, stay current with technological change and utilize up-to-date educational facilities and processes. Flexibility, the last dimension, refers to how capable the staff is in adjusting to and handling emergency situations, such as facing an unpredictably heavy workload through conceptual adjustment and modification of work roles (Miskel, et al., 1979).

Significance of the Study

Effectiveness of the vocational programs is essential to keep pace with the current rapid development of vocational programs in Malaysia. To accomplish this, retention and commitment of vocational teachers should be the concern of the administrators and policy makers. Since turnover, turnover intentions and commitment are related to
job satisfaction, it would seem that identification of factors influencing their satisfaction would be a crucial focus to reduce the turnover and turnover intentions and to improve commitment.

Teachers' satisfaction and performance are also associated with the leadership behavior of principals (Blase et al., 1986; Roberts, 1984; and Roberts, 1986). Thus by studying the relationships between teachers' job satisfaction and leadership behaviors of their principals, the researcher can identify behaviors of school principals that enhance teachers' satisfaction and performance. The leadership behaviors and qualities of principals that are identified can also serve as input for developing curriculum for in-service training of present and future principals.

Organizational effectiveness of the schools also contributes to job satisfaction of vocational teachers. Identifying the relationship between their job satisfaction and the organizational effectiveness of the schools will help to identify what crucial dimensions or aspects of school organization enhance teachers' levels of job satisfaction. In addition, it may also give insights into the strengths and deficiencies of the existing vocational schools with respect to their productivity and innovation, among other things. All these findings could help in
determining the guidelines for improved effectiveness of future vocational programs.
Work plays a crucial part in the life of an individual. Steers and Porter (1979) give several factors explaining why this is true. First, it gives a worker intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in exchange for services rendered. The type, amount and the extent to which these rewards are met affect one's job. Second, work provides friendships developed through social interactions in the work place. The work one engages in may also provide social status, identity, self-esteem and self-actualization. Steers and Porter (1979) add that work can also provide a sense of accomplishment, direction and value to the society. On the other hand, they believe it can provide frustration and boredom if these factors are absent. Lawler (1973) has even remarked, "What happens to people during the work day has profound effects both on the individual employee's life and on the society as a whole, and thus these events cannot be ignored if the quality of life in a society is to be high" (p. 63). Thus, work has a profound impact on an individual's life and society.

Vocational education programs in Malaysia play vital roles in gearing the nation toward industrialization (Information Malaysia, 1988). As a result, vocational
teachers in Malaysia are important to the country as their expertise is in high demand. How effective the programs are in meeting the needs of the country's labor force depends on how productive and committed the teachers are in their work roles. Knowledge of factors that enhance their satisfaction at the workplace will improve the prediction of teachers' performance, productivity and commitment and will also increase the probability that a worker will remain in a job (Dawis and Lofquist, 1981). As job satisfaction has been a focus in improving the quality of workers, a multitude of theories have been developed in an attempt to explain job satisfaction in various perspectives and dimensions.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Early scholars like Hoppock (1935), who gave an encompassing definition of job satisfaction, described it as a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say he or she is satisfied with his or her job. Hoppock viewed job satisfaction as resulting from the fit between an individual's needs and the requirements of the job and its environment. Campbell et al. (1970) divided the theories of job satisfaction into two major categories: content and process theories. Content theories focus on the needs of an individual and the rewards within an organizational
structure that are offered to fulfill those needs. Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (1954), Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory (1959) and Alderfer's Existence-Relatedness-Growth Theory (ERG) (1969) are three examples of content theories of job satisfaction. Process theory, on the other hand, deals with understanding why an individual chooses a particular behavior pattern to accomplish his or her goal. Adams' Equity Theory (1963), Vroom's Expectancy/Valence Theory (1964), Lawler-Porter Model (1967), Locke's Value Theory (1969) and Kalleberg's Work Values and Job Rewards (1977) are typical examples of process theories of job satisfaction.

**Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory**

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (1954), which has become a widely discussed perspective on human motivation, postulated that an individual has five basic needs arranged in ascending order — physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization. Maslow's Theory reveals that the higher-order needs, which consist of the last two, can be met only after the lower-order needs have been fulfilled.

Physiological needs, which are the lowest of the hierarchy, consist of food, clothing and shelter. If someone were deprived of all these needs, the drive to satisfy physiological needs would be greater than that of
any other. If these needs are fulfilled, a higher-order need, safety, will emerge. Safety needs are concerned with security and protection from danger or threats. Retirement pensions, fringe benefits and insurance benefits are some examples that can provide economic safety and job security. If the previous two needs are fulfilled, the social needs -- the desire to seek love, friendship, affection, belonging, acceptance -- will come into play. Deprivation of these needs might create maladjustment, lack of cooperation, or even antagonism among individuals (Maslow, 1954).

The needs for recognition, appreciation, and status from associates and peers constitute esteem or ego needs. The lack of satisfaction of these needs may result in an inferiority complex, helplessness and the like. Self-actualization, the highest level of the needs hierarchy, is a person's desire for self-fulfillment; that is, the desire to develop his or her full potential, becoming all that it is possible to become (Maslow, 1954).

**Alderfer's ERG Theory**

Alderfer (1969) condensed Maslow's five hierarchical needs into three categories: existence, relatedness and growth. The existence category combines the physiological and safety needs of Maslow's theory, the relatedness category contains the social needs, and the growth category
consists of the esteem and self-actualization needs. The three categories are more flexible than Maslow's theory in the sense that they are operational simultaneously to a certain extent. For instance, a teacher whose existence needs are not satisfied, who has low pay, can still maintain social interactions with his or her peers and improve his or her skills in teaching as well. Furthermore, needs may be operative at more than one level at any time. As in the previous example, the teacher may transfer his or her desires to relatedness needs but still retain growth needs.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Maslow's theory influenced Herzberg and his associates (1959) to advance the Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory (M-H Theory). Herzberg and his colleagues, who developed this theory based on their experiments with 200 engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania examined the causes of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Using a critical incident technique, each of the men was asked to tell about a time when he felt exceptionally good about his job and another time when he felt quite unpleasant about it. The content analysis of the semi-structured interviews revealed two sets of distinct factors: motivators and hygienes that relate to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1959).
Motivators, or as they are sometimes labeled "satisfiers", constitute elements related to actual work content such as recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, interpersonal relations, responsibility, work itself and personal life that are intrinsic in nature (Herzberg, 1959).

Hygienes, commonly termed "dissatisfiers," consist of elements related to work context or environment such as advancement, salary, supervision-technical, company policies and administration, working conditions, status and job security that are extrinsic in nature (Herzberg, 1959).

The above theory postulates that factors contributing to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction exist in bipolar or separate dimensions, i.e., the opposite of job satisfaction is no satisfaction while the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). On the basis of his research, Herzberg concluded that motivators (intrinsic factors) are the primary causes of satisfaction while their absence will not make individuals dissatisfied. Likewise, hygienes (extrinsic factors) will cause them to be dissatisfied if absent. However, individuals will not be satisfied either if inadequate hygiene factors exist.

Motivators, as postulated by Herzberg's M-H Theory, correspond to Maslow's higher-order needs -- esteem and
self-actualization -- while the hygienes can be associated with Maslow's lower needs -- physiological, safety and social needs. Hoy and Miskel (1982) also remarked, "Maslow focuses on the general human needs of the psychological person while Herzberg concentrates on the psychological person in terms of how the job affects basic needs" (p. 151).

Herzberg's theory has served as a foundation for research in the area of job redesign. Hackman and Lawler (1971) noted that the central thrust of job redesign lies in the enhancement of job core aspects -- variety, identity, autonomy and feedback -- that will lead to quality work, which in turn satisfies higher-order needs (Maslow, 1954).

Based on the assumption that satisfaction comes from motivators and dissatisfaction comes from hygiene factors, the theory has implications for teachers in schools. For example, teachers cannot be motivated towards higher levels of productivity simply by improving hygiene factors, such as increased pay, better working conditions and so forth. Adjusting those factors may move them only from being dissatisfied to a neutral position. In other words, the improved salaries will only reduce their dissatisfaction but their level of satisfaction will still remain unchanged. Only improvement of motivators such as recognition,
appreciation, job variety and the like will move them from neutral to satisfaction.

Process theories have emerged during the 1960's. The advocates of these theories, who rejected the content theories, believed that different psychological behavior processes that people go through will exert them to different levels of effort, expectations and values that influence the accomplishment of their intended rewards (Campbell et al., 1970).

Equity Theory

Adams' Equity Theory (1963) is concerned with how people make social comparisons, particularly extrinsic rewards, involving the relationships between two variables -- inputs and outcomes. Inputs are individuals' contributions such as working experience, qualification, skill and effort for an exchange of outcomes which include those benefits such as pay, promotions and status that an individual receives. For inputs and outcomes to operate, they should exist and also relevant as bases for comparisons.

According to the theory, people assign different weights to the various inputs as a result of perceived economic or social importance. People estimate a ratio of their outcomes to inputs compared with the ratio of another
individual's or group's outcomes to inputs. Individuals' perceptions of inputs and outcomes, frame of reference and whether one is overpaid or underpaid are conditions necessary to create a state of inequity. Adams (1963) also postulated that the perceived inequity which may lead to tension within individuals can be reduced by several alternatives.

1. Individuals may increase or decrease inputs, depending on how advantageous or disadvantageous the inequity is to them. Underpaid staff may reduce their effort proportionately while the overpaid may work harder.

2. Individuals may alter outcomes by seeking labor union efforts to get pay raises or to improve working conditions. The overpaid workers may donate to charitable organizations in trying to reduce the feelings of inequity.

3. Individuals who feel inequitably treated may increase status outcomes by relating how important their work is to the organization, or they may decrease perceived effort by saying that they do not have to work hard.

4. Those who feel they are inequitably treated by the organization may leave for a better job hoping to
secure a more favorable balance of inputs to outcomes.

5. They may influence their hard working counterparts to leave in time of injustice. On the other hand, if their fellow workers' efforts are much higher than theirs, they will influence them to decrease their efforts.

6. They may select different individuals for objects of comparison because of lack of basis of comparison, e.g., pay increases in different occupational groups (pp. 427-428).

**Expectancy/Valence Theory**

Expectancy or Valence Theory is a process theory that focuses on the relationship among variables that affect human behavior rather than on the variables themselves. The theory assumes that the individuals are rational, thinking beings who have beliefs and anticipations about future events in their lives (Steers and Porter, 1979).

Georgopoulos et al. (1957), who advocated the first basic model of Expectancy/Valence Theory, postulated that motivation of individuals depends on the compatibility of their needs, goals and expectations and the environment they are in. Individuals in a work situation satisfy their needs by working toward certain goals. How productive they are in
their endeavor depends on their level of motivation. Their motivation level, in turn, depends on their particular needs as reflected in the goals toward which they are moving and the perceptions of the usefulness of productivity behavior instrumental to reaching their goals. If individuals follow this line of thought and action, they arrive at a path-goal approach which is based on the assumption that productivity is a function of motivation. The path-goal approach can be summarized as follows:

"If a worker sees high productivity as a path leading to the attainment of one or more of his personal goals, he will tend to be a high producer. Conversely, if he sees low productivity as a path to the achievement of his goals, he will tend to be a low producer" (Georgopoulos et al., 1957, p. 346).

The crucial element in this theory is one's perception of the instrumentality or usefulness of productivity as a path leading to a variety of job-related goals (Georgopoulos et al., 1957). Perceptions in this context can be regarded as expectations of a certain number of rewards as a result of certain behaviors. For one to be motivated to high productivity, he or she may face obstacles like supervisory, work pressures and limited knowledge. Overcoming these obstacles requires that an individual be given relative freedom to seek an intended path.
Vroom (1964) expanded the path-goal theory by incorporating the premise that an individual has preferences among outcomes. He expands it to several major concepts — valence, instrumentality, expectancy, and force. Valence refers to the value an individual places on an outcome's anticipated reward. A valence can range from +1.0 to -1.0, depending on how much the anticipated reward is valued by an individual. Money would have a positive valence for most, while unpleasant working conditions would have a negative valence.

Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that an incentive with a valence or value will be forthcoming after a given level of performance (Vroom, 1964). It is an effort-reward or outcome-outcome relationship. Instrumentality also ranges from -1.0, a belief that the attainment of a reward is certain without incentive, to a +1.0 which is indicative of the first as a prerequisite of the second. An individual evaluates a potential outcome, e.g., a promotion on the basis of an individual's perception of the relationship between the outcome and another outcome, or a pay raise for which an individual has varying preferences or valences. It recognizes how instrumental the promotion is in providing an individual with extra money, an outcome that one values.
Individuals have beliefs that an effort will result a specified outcome level. These beliefs are termed as "expectancies". Vroom (1964) defines expectancy as "a momentary belief about the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome and is described in terms of its strength" (p. 17). An individual's performance is not dependent simply on the individual but is also affected by events and circumstances beyond one's control. Alternatives available and beliefs that a certain level of performance can be achieved also affect one's behavior. Its probability ranges from one to zero. Unlike instrumentality which is effort-reward relationship, expectancy is an effort-performance association.

Vroom (1964) also posits that the factors of expectancy and valence will interact or combine multiplicatively to produce a net level of force or motivation. This is supported by Galbraith and Cummings (1967). Relating one particular reward only such as pay which is highly valued to performance will not motivate individuals. Other rewards would also come into play to give a combined effect.

Vroom (1964) argued that several things intervene in the relationship between job satisfaction and performance. To him, job satisfaction is influenced by the number of rewards one derives from his or her job while one's performance is influenced by the basis of the attainment of
the rewards. An individual will be satisfied with his or her job if it provides what he or she desires and the individual will also perform more effectively if such performance leads to the attainment of what he or she desires.

With regard to outcomes, Galbraith and Cummings (1967) further refined them into two levels. The first level outcomes are direct outcomes that are immediate results of action. Second level outcomes or indirect outcomes are the perceived consequences of direct outcomes. Direct outcomes carry a valence corresponding to how they are perceived to be instrumental to the achievement of the indirect outcomes.

Lawler-Porter Model

Lawler (1973) further refined the Expectancy Theory by making several postulations. People have preferences among various outcomes available to them and they also have expectancies about the likelihood that their effort will lead to intended performance or behavior. Moreover, they have expectancies (instrumentalities) about the likelihood that certain outcomes will follow their performance. In addition, actions they choose depend upon the expectancies and preferences they have at the time.

According to Porter and Lawler (1968), effort is the result of the interaction between the value of rewards and
the perceived effort-reward probability which is the basic postulate of Vroom's model. The effort that leads to performance is influenced by individuals' abilities and traits such as intelligence and skill and also their role perceptions that include behaviors an individual feels are necessary to do the job successfully. A quality performance may not result if effort, abilities, traits and role perceptions are inadequate. The effort-performance expectancies as identified by Lawler (1973) are determined by the individual's self-esteem, past experience, actual situation and his or her communication from others.

Porter and Lawler (1968) consider rewards to be the outcomes of performance. However, as many organizations do not reward individuals for outstanding performance, performance-reward linkage is inconsistent. An example would be a situation in which promotion is given to government employees based on their longevity and seniority. Lawler (1973) also identifies performance-rewards expectancies as influenced by past experience, attractiveness of outcomes, belief in one's destiny, effort-performance expectancies, actual situation and communication from others.

Lawler and Porter (1967) also categorized rewards into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards as had Herzberg et al. (1959). To them, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are not
directly related to job satisfaction because the relationship is moderated by how equitable these rewards are to individuals. Nevertheless, they argued, to attain quality performance the intrinsic rewards are more important than extrinsic rewards as they influence higher-order needs of individuals.

Satisfaction, to Lawler and Porter (1967), is determined by the individual's comparison of what one considers an equitable reward with the amount of actual reward. To the extent that the perceived equitable reward exceeds the actual reward, the individual is dissatisfied; if the actual reward exceeds the perceived equitable reward, the individual is satisfied. Thus, the greater the discrepancy between these two values, the greater the level of dissatisfaction or satisfaction.

This model also argues that performance is more likely to influence satisfaction than vice versa. This is because its direction is moderated only by rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic) that are equitable. For satisfaction to influence performance, many intervening variables are involved such as value of reward, perceived effort-reward probability, effort, abilities and traits and role perceptions.
Locke's Value Theory

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as the:

"appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one's important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help to fulfill one's basic needs. These needs are of two separable but interdependent types: bodily or physical needs and psychological needs, especially the need for growth. Growth is made possible mainly by the nature of the work itself" (p. 1319).

To Locke, job satisfaction is a complex emotional reaction as a result of value appraisal derived from the perceptions of one's job. The appraisal process, according to Locke (1969), involves individual's job perceptions, value standard and judgment of the relationship of one's perceptions and values. In regard to perceptions, Griffin and Bateman (1986), after reviewing many studies remarked that, "almost without fail, job perceptions have been positively and significantly related to job satisfaction" (p. 161). Hence, job satisfaction is influenced by changes in job attributes as a result of one's perceptions of a job.

Locke based his propositions about job satisfaction on concepts of needs, values, goals, expectations and emotions. He utilized cognition which involves senses and thought to tie up all these concepts.
A need, which is a requirement of the organism's survival and well being, is divided into two broad categories: physical and psychological. Physical needs are food, water, etc., which are necessary for the healthy and proper functioning of the body. Psychological needs are pleasure, self-esteem and growth. Physical and psychological needs are interdependent, i.e., both are required to facilitate the achievement of physical well-being. Needs may or may not direct one to appropriate action.

Values are "what the individual acts to gain and/or keep" (Rand, 1964 as cited in Locke and Henne, 1986), which are conducive to one's welfare. A value is what one consciously or subconsciously desires, wants or seeks to attain. Values are subjective and acquired through experience and thought while needs are objective and inborn.

To Locke (1969), value appraisal is the estimate of the relation between what was perceived to exist in the working environment by way of outcomes (rewards) and what one wants from the environment (value standards) which all reflect a value judgment, discrepancy between the value content (what is wanted) and its intensity (how much is wanted) and also value importance (how important is what is wanted). Locke (1976) suggests that the importance of a particular job facet affects the range of emotional response a given
job element can produce rather than the actual satisfaction with that element. This notion is consistent with earlier studies by Mobley and Locke (1970) which reported that the more value importance one puts in a particular reward, the higher will be his or her level of job satisfaction if it is achieved.

What types of values do people want from work? There are generally two types of values that an individual might seek on a job (Locke, 1970): task-related and non-task related. Task-related values are activities an individual likes or is interested in for their own sake, i.e., for their intrinsic satisfaction. Non-task values are those that lead to extrinsic rewards, such as pay raise, promotion and recognition. Another difference is that task-related values are under the control of an individual worker, while non-task values are organizationally-controlled factors.

Task-related values are often linked to task success and task achievement. Previous studies have indicated that the degree of task success is significantly related to one's liking for the task and also to one's satisfaction (Locke, 1965; Locke 1966a; Locke 1966b; and Locke 1967a). Task achievement has also been found to be a major source of satisfaction (Friedlander, 1964; Herzberg, 1966; Hoppock, 1935; and Wernimont, 1966). Furthermore, most individuals value jobs that are mentally challenging, i.e., those that
provide a sense of accomplishment, rather than those that are routine and undemanding (Vroom, 1964). Values can be translated into action or behavior by having goals.

Goals and values are similar in meaning. However, goals are more specific and closer to action than either values or needs. According to Locke and Henne (1986), values help to focus attention and effort and also enhance persistence and strategy. After making an intensive review, they concluded that specific, challenging goals lead to higher performance than general and easy goals, provided individuals have sufficient knowledge and abilities and receive adequate feedback to show progress in relation to goal attainment. In addition, supervisors should be supportive and the assigned goals should be accepted by the individuals.

Locke (1969) also built up his theory of job satisfaction based on expectations derived from Vroom's Expectancy Theory (1964), which denotes an individual's beliefs about future occurrence. However, Locke (1969) argued that what is expected may or may not be parallel to what is wanted or valued. On the other hand, what is valued may or may not correspond to what is expected. Demotions, for example, produce displeasure whether they are expected or not. However, promotions, pay raise and the like will produce pleasure whether they are expected or not. Values
and expectations often coincide because most people value only those things that are within their chance of attainment. Nevertheless, values are more influential than expectations in determining job satisfaction (Locke 1967b).

Locke (1976), like Herzberg et al. (1959), Vroom (1964) and Lawler and Porter (1967), has expressed the opinion that fulfillment of higher-order needs are derived from attainment of intrinsic aspects of the job, i.e., from work itself. In pursuing the work itself, employees like to feel their work to be important to an organization, i.e., task significance (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), besides giving opportunities to utilize their abilities. This can be enhanced, Locke (1984) believed, by giving the employees varied and responsible tasks and autonomy in making decisions. Moreover, their work requires recognition which can give feedback on a worker's performance. Recognition is one of the single most frequently mentioned events causing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Locke, 1973).

Locke (1970), as did Adams (1963), believed that justice in distributing extrinsic rewards commensurate with and appropriate to workers' outcomes is desirable. Workers also prefer coworkers who can share similar values and facilitate work accomplishment and supervisors who are fair, considerate, competent and honest (Locke, 1984).
Regarding determinants of job satisfaction, Schneider and Locke (1971) developed a classification system based on two major categories -- events (what happened) and agents (who made it happen). Anything that causes a person to be satisfied or dissatisfied should be perceived, at least in part, as being the outcome of some events that occurred or some perceived conditions, e.g., achievement or accomplishment. Also every event or condition that happens should be perceived as being caused by an agent which could be someone or something, e.g., oneself, a supervisor or policies. The event/condition category can be further divided into task-related and nontask-related events.

An agent can be classified as either self or non-self. Self is the employee himself or herself, while non-self agents comprise company policies and practices, supervision, and coworkers.

Adopting a critical incident approach similar to Herzberg et al. (1959), Schneider and Locke (1971) identified factors responsible for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of blue- and white-collar workers. Each employee was asked to think of a time when he felt especially good or bad, or a high or low point in his feelings about the job and what happened to make him feel that way. They found the same classes of events, which were mainly task-related or motivators, to be responsible for
both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, the effects of motivators were greater on satisfaction than on dissatisfaction.

Schneider and Locke (1971) also argued that the distinction between event and agent seemed to parallel that of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene classification. An event is a happening that is the consequence of the action of some agent and Herzberg's motivators tend to be events while his hygiene factors are labeled as agents. For instance, achievement, work itself, recognition and responsibility, which are all motivators, are normally regarded as outcomes of an event while hygiene factors -- supervision, salary, advancement, policies and the workers themselves -- all tend to be the agents whose actions lead to outcomes that are labeled as motivators.

Using a similar event/agent classification system, Locke (1973) conducted studies involving blue- and white-collar workers using the same methodology. The results showed white-collar workers placed more importance on motivators (intrinsic) and less importance on hygienes (extrinsic) in formulating their satisfaction and dissatisfaction even though both were influential. The white-collar workers were significantly more likely to take credit for satisfying events and to blame others for dissatisfying incidents.
The combined results of Schneider and Locke (1971) and Locke (1973) specifically indicated that achievement, responsibility and salary were responsible for satisfaction, while interpersonal atmosphere, working conditions, amount of work and smoothness of work influenced their dissatisfaction. Task activity, promotion and recognition contributed to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

The above studies suggest that both motivators (intrinsic) and hygienes (extrinsic) lead to satisfaction and dissatisfaction even though the effects of motivators on satisfaction tend to be greater than on dissatisfaction.

Kalleberg's Work Values and Job Rewards

Kalleberg's (1977) theory of job satisfaction has its foundation in the work of Morse (1953), who posited that individuals' levels of satisfaction with a particular circumstance or dimension depend not only on the rewards given to them but also on their needs and wants. As Morse argues, the more rewards individuals receive, the greater their satisfaction and at the same time, the more they desire, the less will be their satisfaction.

Kalleberg (1977) posits job satisfaction to be a discrepancy between work values and job rewards. Following a similar line of thought to that of Goldthorpe et al. (1968), he refers to work values as the general attitudes
regarding the meanings and importance that individuals attach to the workplace. He believes that these can identify individuals' satisfaction and their quality of work experience. Rewards, on the other hand, are benefits and utilities individuals receive from a specific job. The rewards individuals obtain from their jobs, however, may not fit the meanings or values they seek in their work. As a result, their work experiences may not give the amount of satisfaction they want to fulfill their goals and personality needs.

Using the data from the 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn and Shepard, 1974), which gathered perceptions of a representative sample of the national employed civilian labor force through personal interviews, Kalleberg examined job satisfaction through the interplay of work values and job rewards associated with six dimensions of work: intrinsic, convenience, financial, coworker relationships, career and resource adequacy.

Kalleberg's study revealed that rewards have greater predictive power than values in influencing job satisfaction. In addition, rewards have positive net effects on job satisfaction; however, values generally have negative effects while holding perceived job rewards constant. He also concludes that job satisfaction is an additive function of work values and job rewards.
words, he says, "the effect of an increase in the level of a perceived job characteristic is always positive and does not depend on the availability of the characteristic" (p. 133). His theory implies that the highest levels of job satisfaction are experienced by those who have high rewards and low values while the lowest levels of satisfaction involve those with low rewards and high values.

Among the six factors, the intrinsic dimension which includes characteristics of the job such as workers' challenge, interest, identity and self-direction, has the greatest single impact on workers' satisfaction followed by the financial dimension which includes pay, fringe benefits and job security. The dimensions of convenience and relationships with coworkers have the smallest effect on job satisfaction.

As workers have little control over the attainment of job rewards, Kalleberg (1977) hypothesized that the more opportunities workers have, the more easily they will find jobs that give greater rewards. Second, the more resources workers have, the greater their power of obtaining job working experience and of perceiving themselves to have greater rewards than those with less experience. Whites perceive that they attain higher rewards than blacks in every dimension except convenience. Kalleberg (1977) also argued that educational attainment is related to financial
rewards but does not influence the amount of resources workers have. Furthermore, workers who belong to a union or an employees' association perceive greater financial rewards but lower intrinsic and resource rewards. Kalleberg also noticed that the importance people attach to various dimensions of work is shaped by their social lives prior to their career, nonwork social roles and their work experience.

Structural positions such as class and occupational status often cause people to exhibit inequality in job satisfaction as these positions are associated with different job rewards and work values (Kalleberg and Griffin, 1978). Workers in a working class position, such as those in manual labor, obtain less income and are involved in work that offers less intrinsic rewards than people in upper middle-class positions such as managers and small employers, since those in working class positions have less control over these rewards. Thus, their work is less satisfying. Occupational status within each class, even though less influential than the class itself, causes inequality in job satisfaction as it is associated with different rewards and values. As status increases, so does job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1957; and Hoppock, 1935).
Summary of Job Satisfaction Theories

The following is a summary of the job satisfaction theories and approaches that have been discussed. Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Theory (1954) assumes individuals are motivated to satisfy several different needs which he categorized in order of prepotency as: physiological, safety, social, self-esteem and self-actualization. The theory also assumes that individuals will be motivated to fulfill higher-order needs after the lower-order needs are met. Alderfer (1969) simplifies Maslow's human needs into three categories: existence, relatedness and growth. Unlike Maslow's rigid hierarchical order of need-fulfillment, Alderfer's approach suggests that several needs may exist at one time.

Maslow's theory has influenced Herzberg et al. (1959) to advance the Two-Factor Theory of job satisfaction, consisting of two sets of factors: motivators or satisfiers pertaining to the job content of individuals (intrinsic), and hygenies or dissatisfiers confining to their work environment (extrinsic) (Herzberg et al., 1959). Motivators only influence satisfaction while hygenies can only maintain individuals' reactions toward their jobs (Herzberg, 1966).

Equity Theory (Adams, 1963) is concerned with the fairness of individuals' relationships with others on the
basis of what they get out of their job (output), and what they contribute to their work place (input). A feeling of inequity results if the input/output ratio is unbalanced. Rather than emphasizing individuals' needs and social comparison, people are also motivated when they have the expectancy that their work place is able to provide them with rewards they value. This assumption is highlighted by Vroom's Expectancy/Valence Theory (1964). Lawler and Porter (1967) refine the theory by indicating that satisfaction is influenced by the number and amount of rewards individuals receive and also what they consider to be fair.

Locke (1976) consolidates aspects of theories by Herzberg et al. (1959), Vroom (1964) and Lawler (1973) by incorporating the concepts of needs, values, goals, expectancies and emotions. However, Locke views job satisfaction as the outcome of the perceived relationship between what one wants (values) and what one perceives it as offering. To him, it is the achievement of important values that yield high satisfaction. Locke also argues that both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of jobs are responsible for job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Kalleberg (1977) extended Locke's theory by considering values with rewards. To him, rewards are more influential than values toward individuals' job satisfaction.
Measuring Instruments

As job satisfaction constitutes a broad spectrum of definitions, dimensions and approaches, its measurements too tend to be varied in nature. Kalleberg (1974) has indicated four commonly used measures or indicators of job satisfaction:

1. Direct Indicator

This is the most common technique used in job satisfaction studies in which respondents are asked directly "poll-type" questions such as "How do you feel about your present job?" Are you (1) Very dissatisfied; (2) Dissatisfied; (3) Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4) Satisfied or (5) Very Satisfied?" Blauner (1966) as cited by Kalleberg (1974) noted that a direct indicator implies a common-sense notion of satisfaction and its concept is unitary. It is straightforward and easily understood. However, its procedure of asking people how they feel about their job is naive since it expects them to provide a frank and simple answer to what may be a complex and vague concept.

2. Otherwork Indicator

This is an indirect indicator in which the respondents are not specifically asked whether they are satisfied with their job, but this is inferred from their responses. A commonly used question is "Would you recommend your present
job to your friend?" (1) Yes (satisfied response) or (2) No (dissatisfied response). Studies by Robinson and others (cited in Kalleberg (1977), indicated that responses to this measure suggest higher levels of job dissatisfaction as they give a much broader frame of reference to the respondents.

3. Is Now Scale

This measure attempts to determine overall satisfaction by first measuring satisfaction with a number of facets of the job and then summing the responses over facets. The respondents are asked how much satisfaction they get from various aspects of their job and these responses are summed to obtain an overall measure of respondent's satisfaction (Alderfer, 1969; Wanous and Lawler, 1972). Blauner (1966) indicated (as cited in Kalleberg, 1974) that satisfaction in this scale is conceptualized as the respondents' attainment defined by the researcher rather than by the respondents.

4. Should Be--Is Now Scale

This measure operationalizes satisfaction as a discrepancy between responses to a "how much is there now" item and responses to a "how much should there be" item. The differences between these two items are computed and summed across job facets with each weighed to yield an overall measure of job satisfaction (Porter and Lawler, 1968; Wanous and Lawler, 1972). This approach requires the respondents to indicate how satisfied they are, and
presumably the respondents make a judgment themselves regarding their aspirations and present level of attainment with respect to goals and needs. Their level of satisfaction is based upon their own standards rather than on standards set by the researcher (Kalleberg, 1974, 300-303).

**Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire**

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) measures two major aspects of an individual's job satisfaction: intrinsic and extrinsic. It consists of two versions: short and a long form.

The long form consists of 100 items, five items for each of 20 factors. The items appear in blocks of 20 so that items for each scale appear at 20-item intervals. The 20-scale categories consist of 13 intrinsic job factors and seven extrinsic factors (Weiss et al., 1967). The 13 intrinsic factors of job satisfaction are ability utilization, achievement, activity, authority, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service and variety while the seven extrinsic factors of job satisfaction include advancement, company policies and practices, compensation, social status, supervision-human, supervision-technical and working conditions.
The form uses a direct indicator technique, as the subjects are required to respond to one of the five category rating scales: Very Dissatisfied; Dissatisfied; Neither Dissatisfied Nor Satisfied; Satisfied; Very Satisfied, which are correspondingly scored from 1 to 5. Each subscale is scored by adding responses for each item per scale. The design of the MSQ also yields a general satisfaction score by adding one item from each of the 20 subscales. The total scoring will then be from a minimum of 20 to a maximum of 100. It is expected that it takes 15-20 minutes for an average respondent to complete the long form.

The Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the long form have been shown to range as high as 0.97 on ability utilization and to as low as 0.59 on variety. The Median Hoyt Reliability Coefficients ranged from 0.93 for advancement and recognition to 0.78 for responsibility. This shows that the MSQ has adequate internal consistency reliabilities. The long form MSQ had shown a maximum coefficient of 0.97 over one week and 0.89 over one year when analysis of test-retest was used to measure its stability. Thus, it is relatively stable over time.

Raw scores for each of the MSQ scales of the individuals can be converted to percentile scores using tables in the MSQ manual. A percentile score gives an individual his or her relative position in the norm group,
i.e., the percentage of people in the norm group with scores equal to or lower than his or her raw score. Weiss et al. (1967) suggest that when conducting a comparison, a percentile score of 0.75 or higher represents a high degree of satisfaction, 0.25 or lower represents a low level of satisfaction and scores in between reflect a moderate level of satisfaction. The raw score on a scale can be converted to different percentile scores for different norm groups. In the event that an individual engages in an occupation for which no appropriate norm group is available, the MSQ raw scores can be converted to percentile scores using norms for "employed disabled" or "employed non-disabled" which include skilled and unskilled blue- and white-collar workers and professional personnel. As the vocational teachers in Malaysia are labeled as skilled white-collar workers, their obtained scores were converted to percentile scores using norms for the "employed non-disabled". The MSQ scores can also be interpreted by simply ranking them. This will indicate areas of relatively greater or lesser satisfaction. Normative data for the long form include the following (Weiss et al., 1967):


2. Source of the data.
3. Demographic characteristics such as sex, age, education, and tenure information.

4. Mean, standard deviation, Hoyt reliability coefficient and standard error of measure.

5. Percentile equivalents of raw scores in five-point intervals (pp. 5-6).

Factor analyses that have been conducted with the MSQ have indicated that half of the common MSQ scale variance can be accounted for by extrinsic satisfaction scores, the other half by the intrinsic satisfaction scores. However, the factor structure varies among occupational groups with regard to the determination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The instrument developers, thus, recommend conducting a supplementary factor analysis with each group being studied as the job facets may load on different factors in different groups.

Another version of the MSQ, the short form, consists of one statement relative to each of the 20 items listed as scale categories on the long form. It consists of only three scales -- intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and general satisfaction. The intrinsic satisfaction score is found by summing 12 of the 20 items, and the extrinsic measure is determined by adding six items. Norms of the short form are not as extensive as the long form with respect to occupational areas. Administration of
the short form normally takes from five to ten minutes. The Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the short form had been shown to have coefficients varying from 0.87 to 0.92 for general satisfaction. Median Reliability Coefficients were 0.86 for intrinsic, 0.80 for extrinsic and 0.90 for general satisfaction.

**Job Description Index**

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is an indirect measure of satisfaction that consists of five single-word or phrase descriptors of five job facets or factors -- work itself, pay, promotion, supervision and co-workers. There is a last category, job in general, which measures overall job satisfaction. The items of the JDI are selected based on extensive literature review and factor analytic studies (Smith et al., 1975). Under each job facet, nine to 18 adjectives or descriptors are listed for an individual to describe his or her work.

The five JDI scales represent distinct facets or areas of satisfaction which pose varying degrees of importance and relationships among individuals. Moreover, the intercorrelations among different facets would vary according to different jobs or situations. Furthermore, different facets may be affected differently by different situational variables (Smith et al., 1975).
They also reveal several advantages of the JDI. It focuses more toward specific areas of satisfaction. Moreover, it is a job-referent measure rather than a self-referent one. Its scales are appropriate for a large cross-section of jobs and individuals. In addition, it can be scored easily and quickly.

A respondent is asked to write a "Y" (Yes), an "N" (No) or a "?" (Undecided) in the blank beside the description which best describes his/her feelings toward his/her job in relation to that item. A standard scoring procedure is then used to produce a score which ranges from 0 to 54. The JDI has been shown to have a high degree of internal consistency and validity. Reliabilities (split-half) range from 0.80 to 0.88 (Smith, et al., 1957).

After careful consideration of both instruments, the MSQ was preferred over the JDI for this particular study for the following reasons:

1. The MSQ has several advantages in assessing a more individualized picture of teachers' satisfaction because it comprises extrinsic and intrinsic factors of a job.

2. It is additive in scoring procedures for job satisfaction in general.

Of the two versions of the MSQ, the long form was preferred to the short form because it takes only a few
minutes more to get 20 specific job facets to assess individuals' perceptions toward their work. Because of its broader scope of content area, the long form is more suitable for an organization trying to improve job satisfaction of its employees or to discover why they leave their jobs (Scarpello and Campbell, 1983). Furthermore, its additive procedure in scoring for general satisfaction is in consistent with Locke's (1969) definition of overall job satisfaction as "the sum of the evaluations of the discrete elements of which the job is composed" (p. 330).

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used to measure the perceptions of teachers toward their principals' leader behavior. The LBDQ (Halpin, 1959a) was originally developed by Hemphill and Coons (1957) and Halpin and Winer (1957) identified the two dimensions: consideration and initiation of structure. The LBDQ contains 40 questions pertaining to administrative leadership, arranged into two major dimensions: initiation of structure and consideration, which the researcher intended to measure. The initiation of structure contains 15 items while the consideration contains 25 items. To give equal weight to the scoring, 10 items were not scored in the consideration subscale. The score for each dimension was
the sum of scores assigned to responses marked on each of the 15 items in the subscale. The possible range of scores on each dimension was 0 to 60.

The LBDQ had five response categories: Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom and Never. The respondent was requested to circle the most appropriate response for each item. For consideration and initiation of structure, the estimated reliabilities by split-half method had been found to be 0.83 and 0.92, respectively (Halpin and Winer, 1957).

Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness

The Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE) was used to measure the organizational effectiveness of the vocational schools as perceived by teachers. The IPOE, a derivative of Mott's Index of Organizational Effectiveness (Mott, 1972), was modified by Miskel et al. (1979) for use in a school setting. Overall effectiveness of the school was rated using five dimensions: quantity, quality, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility. The IPOE has eight identified objectives or items for the respondent to select one out of five alternatives to assess how well his/her school achieves those objectives. The score for each item was the sum of the scores assigned to responses which ranged from 8 to 40. The alpha coefficients of reliability for the school version of the index has been
shown in previous research to be 0.89 (Miskel et al., 1979) and 0.87 (Hoy and Ferguson, 1985).

The Organizational Climate Index (OCI), designed by Stern and Steinhoff (1957-1970) was also one of the instruments suggested to measure the organizational effectiveness of the school. However, it is more appropriate to measure school climate since it contains other broad areas of school organization: intellectual climate, achievement standards, personal dignity, orderliness and impulse control. Furthermore, the IPOE pertains specifically to organizational effectiveness.

Research in Job Satisfaction

In early studies, Wernimont (1966) revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic job facets were influential in job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of workers even though the first is greater than the second. The factors that influenced their satisfaction were achievement, work itself, responsibility, recognition and interpersonal relationships with superiors, while the same factors affected their dissatisfaction, with the addition of another factor, advancement. Locke and Whiting (1974) revealed that three intrinsic job facets -- task activity, amount of work and smoothness -- were more likely to act as dissatisfiers than
as satisfiers, while salary was more likely to act as a satisfier than as a dissatisfier.

Travers (1974) reported that both blue-collar and white-collar workers in a large public utility company in New York City perceived opportunities for advancement as sources of satisfaction. As for white-collar workers, a significant positive relationship was also observed between the extrinsic factors of supervision and salary, and intrinsic factors of ability utilization, recognition, advancement and overall job satisfaction. This was the only factor related to job satisfaction of blue-collar workers. Blue-collar workers were generally found to be less satisfied than white-collar workers. Occupational classification was a significant function of overall satisfaction but not of intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction.

Neale et al. (1980) found that employees of nursing homes or community services for the elderly in two metropolitan areas in the United States were least satisfied with co-workers and pay, and most satisfied with supervisors, promotion opportunities and the work itself.

Mottaz (1985) investigated the nature and sources of overall work satisfaction from six diverse organizations in a large midwestern area of the United States during 1979 and 1980. The organizations included a university, five
elementary schools, a plastics factory, an order-processing firm, a hospital and a law-enforcement agency. The findings showed that overall, workers exhibited moderate to moderately high levels of satisfaction. The level of job satisfaction increased from blue-collar jobs to professional occupations. Occupational status was found to be the most powerful predictor of the three types of work-related values -- intrinsic task rewards (variety, responsibility, creativity, challenge, etc.), extrinsic organizational rewards (pay, promotions, etc.) and extrinsic social rewards (supportive co-workers and supervision). Nevertheless workers, regardless of occupational group, attached the greatest importance to intrinsic task rewards followed by intrinsic social and organizational rewards. The upper level occupations tended to favor more intrinsic task rewards while lower level occupations tended to favor extrinsic organizational rewards. This particular finding is consistent with Gruenberg's (1980) finding that friendly and supportive relationships with fellow workers and supervision were the crucial sources of job satisfaction in any type of setting and occupation.

Hopkins (1983), in her study involving state public employees of five major cities in the states of Nebraska, New York, Oregon, Tennessee and Wisconsin revealed that supervision, pay, promotions, working conditions and
security explained more variance in work satisfaction than the job characteristics, even though the latter was also important. She also found quality of supervision and fairness of promotions to be the two most important indicators of extrinsic rewards while factors such as variety, planning, skill, freedom, decision making and learning new things explained the most variance among the intrinsic rewards.

Social and Demographic Variables

For this study, nine social and demographic factors -- ethnic groups, gender, marital status, course taught, qualification, educational preparation, teaching experience, salary and distance from hometown.

Research studies have shown inconsistent evidence as to the influence of races and ethnic groups on job satisfaction. Blacks are generally less satisfied than whites (Near et al., 1978; Weaver, 1977; Weaver, 1974a, 1974b; Quinn and Shepard, 1974). However, Jones et al. (1977) found no difference in general satisfaction between them. Nevertheless, blacks indicated higher satisfaction with pay and opportunities to get a job than whites. Shapiro (1977) concluded that blacks are less extrinsically satisfied than whites. Slocum (1971), in studying cultural differences within the United States, found that Mexican
workers were more job-satisfied than their American counterparts. Slocum added that Mexican operators had lower-order needs that were easily fulfilled while American workers had higher-order needs or expectations that were difficult to meet. Nevertheless, Barret and Bass (1976) reported that American workers indicated greater satisfaction than German workers. Novak (1975) revealed a significant difference in job satisfaction between white and black teachers, while Hafford (1977) failed to support the findings. In Malaysia, Malay teachers are more generally satisfied than non-Malay teachers (Othman, 1980).

Regarding gender, females place greater importance than males on social dimensions and also on comfort factors which make work more convenient with household responsibilities (Walker et al., 1982). Brief and Aldag (1975), in their review of literature, reported similar results. Schuler (1975) also found that females emphasize social relationships while males prefer more opportunities in decision making and authority. Nevertheless, some studies have failed to show significant gender differences in job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1957; Hulin and Smith, 1964; Lacy, 1973; and Weaver, 1978). Lortie (1975) found male teachers to be less satisfied with their work than either single or married female teachers. Male teachers were more concerned with achievement and recognition than were female
teachers. Several other studies have shown significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female teachers (Abdul Malek, 1984; Hafford, 1977; Holdaway, 1978; Randall, 1988; Thompson et al., 1986) while others revealed no effect (Haji Hashim, 1986; Hsieh, 1976; Klawitter, 1986; May, 1986; and Olatunji, 1972).

Some researchers found that job satisfaction also varies across marital status (Gechman and Wiener, 1975; Neale et al., 1980). Job satisfaction among divorced or separated workers was found to be low (Near et al., 1978). Mottaz (1987) however, did not find any difference in job satisfaction among workers of different marital statuses. Married and unmarried teachers were also found to be different in their job satisfaction as revealed by Hafford (1977) and Randall (1988) who conducted studies in the United States. Lacy (1973) did not find any influence of marital status on teachers of business education. However, Malaysian public school teachers of different marital status did not show significant differences in job satisfaction (Haji Hashim, 1986).

Malaysian vocational teachers of different subject matter areas are placed at different salary schemes as they have varying qualifications (Lloyd, 1985). Based on the fact that teachers of different vocational areas have
varying salary schemes, it is conceivable that their level of job satisfaction would differ across income.

Quitugua (1975) reported that Guamanian teachers who had their training outside Guam are more satisfied than those who are trained locally. Assuming that the change in their level of satisfaction was brought about by the improved performance as a result of new knowledge and skills acquired (Lawler and Porter, 1967) through training, a similar rationale can also be applied to Malaysian vocational teachers who have undergone advanced courses overseas.

In an early study, Herzberg et al. (1957) found a positive relationship between educational level and job satisfaction. Klein and Maher (1966) reported that people with a higher level of education are less satisfied with their pay than those with a lower level of education since they tend to compare their pay with that of their reference groups. Near et al. (1978) reported that the lowest levels of job satisfaction were found among those with an intermediate level of education such as high school and some college education. In a more recent study, Mottaz (1987) found that better-educated workers tend to be less satisfied with their work than their less-educated counterparts. This is due to higher values with increased education which are unfulfilled in the work place. This finding is consistent
with previous studies regarding the relationship between education and work attitudes (Gruenberg, 1980; Kalleberg, 1974; Mottaz, 1984, 1986).

In educational settings, vocational agriculture teachers in the southeastern United States with higher qualifications are more satisfied than those with lower qualifications (Abdul Malek, 1984). Othman (1980) also revealed similar results among Malaysian primary and secondary school teachers. However, qualifications did not make any difference in the job satisfaction of university instructors in Malaysia (Haji Hashim, 1986). Other studies have also found no relationship between qualifications and job satisfaction of teachers (Habibi, 1986; and Randall, 1988).

Herzberg et al. (1957) reported that job satisfaction tends to increase with working experience. However, Gibson and Klein (1970) showed otherwise, as experienced workers had low expectation on rewards. Nevertheless, workers tend to be less satisfied with self-actualization and working conditions as these factors decrease as their length of service increases, but they are more satisfied with pay increases (Near et al., 1978; Wild and Dawson, 1972). Several studies have indicated positive relationships between teaching experience and job satisfaction among teachers (Abdul Malek, 1985; Avi-Itzhak, 1983; Bledsoe and
Haywood, 1981; Grady, 1985; Hafford, 1977; Hsieh, 1976; Lacy, 1973; Mattox, 1974; Novak, 1975; Olatunji, 1972; Randall, 1988; Reinecker, 1973; and Quitigua, 1975). No relationships between experience and job satisfaction were also reported (Bowen, 1981; Habibi, 1986; Klawitter, 1986; May, 1986). However, Othman (1980) and Haji Hashim (1986), respectively, indicated that Malaysian school teachers and university instructors with more experience are more job-satisfied than less experienced ones.

Several studies have shown positive relationships between salary and job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1957; Kalleberg, 1974; Locke, 1973; Ronan and Organt, 1973; Schuster and Clarke, 1970; Vroom, 1964). Lawler (1971) revealed that pay was one of the three most important job incentives. Lawler and Porter (1963, 1966) reported that a significant relationship between pay and satisfaction with pay remained throughout the working life even though other variables were controlled. In education, significant relationships were found between salary and job satisfaction of teachers (Abdul Malek, 1984; Hafford, 1977; Hsieh, 1976; Kazanas and Gregor, Lacy, 1973; Mattox, 1974; 1975; Randall, 1988; Reinecker, 1973) while other researchers found no relationships (Arvey and Gross, 1977). Nevertheless, Othman (1980) reported a positive relationship between salary and
job satisfaction among Malaysian school teachers, and so did Haji Hashim (1986) with the university instructors.

Barnowe and associates (cited in Locke, 1976) reported that employees prefer a workplace close to their home. This situation is not unusual among Malaysian vocational teachers who wish to teach in a school as close as possible to their hometown.

Job Satisfaction Studies in Education

In an early study, Sergiovanni (1967) found intrinsic facets of teachers' jobs — achievement and recognition — were identified as the factors contributing most to their job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors — interpersonal relationships, supervision, and school policies and practices — contributed to their job dissatisfaction. Responsibility and work itself, being relatively standardized for teachers, did not vary greatly.

Many other studies also showed that intrinsic factors were related to job satisfaction while the extrinsic factors were associated with job dissatisfaction. Bishop (1969) and Wickstrom (1972) both revealed that achievement, work itself and interpersonal relations were responsible for teachers' job satisfaction while school policies and administration and working conditions were potential sources of job dissatisfaction.
Sergiovanni and Starrat (1979), however, argued that extrinsic factors can also be sources of satisfaction among some teachers. This group of "hygienically-oriented" teachers, as they labeled them, are also motivated toward salary, supervision, school policies and administration, job security and the like, and can be categorized into three groups. The first group, as they explain, comprises those who have potential for motivation but are discouraged by organizational policies and administration. The second group also has the potential but seek this in other places. This group of teachers regards their teaching as a stepping stone to a better position in their teaching profession or as a means to obtaining fringe benefits, such as getting a house or car loan. They are honest in their work but their performance is in doubt as they lack commitment to the profession. However, they can be major contributors to their profession if proper supervision and motivation exist. The third group consists of those who are fixed at lower-order needs (Maslow, 1954) and do not have the drive to seek motivation.

After studying school administrators, Schmidt (1976) found that they were highly motivated by achievement, recognition and advancement. However, they were not greatly motivated by salary, interpersonal relations, policy and administration, and supervision.
The major sources of overall dissatisfaction of Alberta teachers in Canada as found by Holdaway (1978) were in the areas of school administration and policies, and societal attitude. It was also found their major satisfying factors were interpersonal relationships, freedom in making instructional decisions and the teaching assignment. As for their dissatisfying factors, attitudes of society and parents, status of teachers, decision making, consultative and bargaining procedures, preparation time, and staffing procedures were important. The overall satisfaction as found by Holdaway (1978) was related more to the intrinsic job characteristics of teachers -- in ranking order, sense of achievement, career orientation, recognition and stimulation -- than to aspects of the extrinsic factors of job such as salary, allocation of resources and physical conditions.

In regard to college level teachers, Seegmillar (1977) reported that they showed a high degree of satisfaction on factors of achievement, growth, recognition, responsibility and the work itself. They were also satisfied in extrinsic factors of interpersonal relations, supervision and working conditions. Nevertheless, they were least satisfied in salary and administrative policies. Moxley (1977) also supported Seegmillar's findings with respect to least
satisfying factors. In addition, Moxley found responsibility and advancement to be satisfiers.

Hafford (1977), using the MSQ to measure the job satisfaction of teachers of grades 1-12 from Tennessee, revealed that intrinsic factors are more influential than extrinsic factors in contributing to the level of job satisfaction of teachers. In comparison with the MSQ norm group, the teachers showed a significantly lower satisfaction for almost all intrinsic factors and all extrinsic factors.

Birmingham (1984), who also used the same instrument for the same grade level in Minnesota, reported similar findings. However, Sweeney (1981) found secondary teachers in Iowa were least satisfied in esteem and prestige factors of their job.

May (1986), who studied the job satisfaction of chief administrative officers of teacher education, indicated that intrinsic job characteristics -- achievement, work itself, use of best abilities, challenging assignments and recognition -- were found to be the most important sources of satisfaction while extrinsic job characteristics -- policies, work group, relationship with superiors and working conditions (with the exception of knowledge of the job) -- were found to be related to their dissatisfaction.
Medved (1982) argued that both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the job contributed to both teachers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, teachers were dissatisfied with lack of recognition, an intrinsic aspect of job, and also with pay and other forms of extrinsic rewards.

Avi-Itzhak (1983) reported that teachers were more satisfied on the two lower needs -- security and social and less satisfied with higher-order needs -- esteem, autonomy and self-actualization. The findings implied that extrinsic aspects of a job have a greater effect on their job satisfaction than intrinsic aspects.

Hill (1986-87) revealed that faculty members at 20 institutions in Pennsylvania were satisfied in the intrinsic job factors, particularly in the areas of teaching, its convenience as a professional pursuit, and the recognition and support from the job. However, they were dissatisfied with salary, administrative policies, and interpersonal relations as practiced by the university authority.

Randall (1988) found teachers were most satisfied with intrinsic aspects of their job -- ability utilization, achievement, activity, creativity, independence, moral values, responsibility, social service and variety -- and least satisfied with coworkers, security and working conditions, the extrinsic aspects.
Studies in developing countries are also cited. Olatunji (1972) reported factors that contributed most to Nigerian secondary school teachers' satisfaction were working conditions, principal, and teaching itself, while their least satisfied factors were those dealing with fellow teachers and pupils. In another developing country, Ghana, Bame (1974) found teachers were most satisfied in the job security and promotion exercise. However, they were least satisfied with salary and promotion. Quitugua (1975) found Guamanian teachers to be satisfied with such factors as relationships with principal, fellow teachers and people in the community, and also future outlook for education and school community relationships. However, they were dissatisfied with working conditions, job security, teaching load, pay, recognition and status.

As in Malaysia, Othman (1980) found primary and secondary teachers from urban, semiurban and rural schools in the selected states were satisfied with promotion and salary and also with convenience and status. However, relations with clientele (students and community) and administration were prominent sources of job dissatisfaction among teachers of all ethnic groups.

Haji Hashim (1986) revealed that the academic staff of universities in Malaysia were neither highly satisfied nor seriously dissatisfied with their jobs. They showed low
satisfaction in intrinsic as well as in extrinsic factors: achievement, interpersonal relations, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, working conditions, advancement, job security, status and personal life. They were also dissatisfied with the possibility of growth, university policy and administration, salary and supervision.

The following is a summary of the above-mentioned studies. These studies have indicated intrinsic and extrinsic facets of a job as responsible for teachers' high and low level of job satisfaction (Birmingham, 1984; Hafford, 1977; Medved, 1982; Olatunji, 1972; Schmidt, 1976; and Quitugua, 1975). Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors were responsible for low satisfaction and dissatisfaction of Malaysian teachers (Haji Hashim, 1986). However, Bame (1974), Moxley (1977), and Seegmiller (1977) found both intrinsic and extrinsic facets affect teachers' satisfaction, and extrinsic facets influence their dissatisfaction. Othman (1980) revealed extrinsic factors were responsible for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Studies by Bishop (1969), Hill (1986-87), Holdaway (1978), May (1986), Sergiovanni (1967) and Wickstrom (1972) revealed results in general agreement with the Two-Factor Theory of Herzberg et al. (1959). Randall (1988) revealed teachers' satisfaction was influenced by intrinsic factors while both
facets affected their dissatisfaction. Avi-Itzhak (1983) revealed results opposite to those of Herzberg. Sweeney (1981) indicated intrinsic facets were responsible for teachers' high and low levels of satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Studies in Vocational Education

Research studies on job satisfaction in the area of vocational education are important because the discipline itself prepares individuals for the work force.

Early studies have been mixed with regard to intrinsic and extrinsic factors affecting job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Kenneke (1969) found that the primary sources of job satisfaction of industrial arts teachers in Oregon were working conditions, social service, and social and professional relationships while their sources of dissatisfaction were poor economic consideration, working conditions and administrative policies. Novak (1975) indicated faculty members in Minnesota Area Vocational Technical Institute were also not satisfied with an extrinsic factor -- advancement. Hall (1973), using MSQ, found that business teachers in Arizona were satisfied by coworker relations, supervision and independence. This shows that intrinsic as well as extrinsic factors are influential in creating job satisfaction. However, Hadaway's (1979) findings substantiated that intrinsic
factors were primary causes of job satisfaction while extrinsic factors were influential in producing job dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, Kaufman and Buffer (1978) found industrial arts teachers also identified both intrinsic and extrinsic factors as being responsible for their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Specifically, the staff valued teaching and academic freedom, while salary, promotion, supervision and evaluation procedures were their dissatisfying factors.

Teachers of business education, home economics, and trade and industrial education as reported by Muncrie (1973), placed highest importance on such job factors as ability utilization, achievement and social service, while advancement, company policy, creativity, moral values, responsibility, supervision/human relations and working conditions were of moderate importance to them. Authority, independence and social status were least important to them.

Kazanas and Gregor (1975), using the MSQ as one of their instruments, revealed the higher the meaning and value of work that vocational and non-vocational teachers bring to their work place, the higher is their job satisfaction.

Arvey and Gross (1977), who also used the MSQ, found that homemakers were quite satisfied with their work role. The highest satisfaction derived from job autonomy, an intrinsic aspect of job, while the least satisfying were the
factors of recognition and supervisory opportunities, which were respectively intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their job.

Among teacher educators of agriculture, Bowen (1981) found interpersonal relationships and work itself to be the two most satisfying factors of the job, while salary and working conditions were their least satisfying factors. In addition, the policy and administration, technical supervision and interpersonal relations were the factors most related to their job satisfaction followed by advancement and responsibility.

As reported by Pinchak (1983), intrinsic job factors among coordinators in the Occupational Work Adjustment Program in Ohio were identified more often than extrinsic factors in contributing to their job satisfaction.

Abdul Malek (1984), who used the JDI to measure the job satisfaction of vocational agriculture teachers in the southeastern United States, revealed that satisfaction with work increased as salary, an extrinsic factor, increased.

Grady (1985) examined the factors affecting job satisfaction of vocational agriculture teachers in Louisiana using the MSQ as a measuring instrument. The teachers appeared to be most satisfied with intrinsic job characteristics -- social service, moral values and creativity -- and least satisfied with extrinsic aspects --
advancement, company policies and practices, and compensation. It was further revealed that four of the seven factors, identified as explaining 96 percent of the variance in job satisfaction, were extrinsic factors such as security, compensation, supervision-technical and working conditions while the other three -- authority, responsibility and co-workers -- were intrinsic factors. In general, teachers were moderately satisfied and intrinsic factors predicted a higher level of job satisfaction than extrinsic factors of the MSQ.

In a more recent study, Thompson et al. (1986) also found agriculture teachers were generally satisfied with their job. Earlier, Bowen (1981) reported similar results with teacher educators of agriculture.

Atta-Safoh (1985) revealed that a majority of the adult vocational supervisors in school districts and joint vocational schools in Ohio were satisfied with their jobs. The intrinsic and the extrinsic job characteristics were both found to contribute to the supervisors' overall job satisfaction, even though the first were more closely related to the overall job satisfaction than the second.

Hilton (1986) reported that the faculty members of both two- and four-year post-secondary vocational education public institutions in Idaho indicated similar intrinsic job facets -- recognition, work itself and achievement -- to
influence their satisfaction while extrinsic job facets -- administration and policies and salary were factors influencing their job dissatisfaction. Interpersonal relationship with students tended to influence both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

In a more recent study, Beavers (1987) reported that vocational agriculture teachers in North Carolina employed during the 1985-1986 school year were most satisfied in their professional acceptance and school faculties; however, they were not satisfied with salary, student academic ability and non-instructional duties.

To summarize, studies by Grady (1985), Hadaway (1979) and Hilton (1986) revealed results in agreement with Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Beavers (1987) and Arvey and Gross (1977) indicated results similar to those of the above studies, except both factors were also responsible for dissatisfaction. Lacy (1973) and Abdul Malek (1984) found extrinsic job factors were responsible for job satisfaction; however, Novak (1975) and Kenneke (1969) indicated that these job factors affect teachers' job dissatisfaction. Studies that indicated both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors were responsible for job satisfaction were indicated by Atta-Sofah (1985), Hall (1973) and Kenneke (1969). Kaufman and Buffer (1978) revealed that both factors influence teachers' job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.
Muncrie (1973) indicated that satisfaction is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors while dissatisfaction is influenced by intrinsic factors. Bowen (1981) and Hilton (1986) indicated that extrinsic factors affect both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

**Leader Behavior -- Dimensions and Studies**

Leadership and leader behavior are two terms often used synonymously. Leadership is a dynamic leader-behavior relationship in a specific environment to give a generalized effect as a result of the position the leader possesses (Owens, 1981). Leader behavior, on the other hand, as Owens noted is the way in which a leader exercises influence to develop productive interactions or to accomplish the group's tasks. Owens believes that through analysis of leader behavior, the elements of leadership that may include leader's behavior, followers' behaviors and the environment of the situation can be studied, learned and practiced. Halpin (1959) also preferred to study leader behavior rather than leadership, because by analysis of the behaviors of leaders, patterns that help to understand complex phenomena of leader behaviors can be identified.

Researchers usually define leadership in accordance with their individual perspectives and the nature of the phenomena that interest them. Stogdill (1974), who made a
comprehensive review of leadership literature, remarked "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concepts" (p. 259). However, initiation of structure and consideration which were originally delineated by Halpin and Winer (1957) as a result of leadership studies at Ohio State University, were the two most common dimensions of leader behavior studied by researchers. According to Halpin (1966), these two dimensions of leader behavior can be described as the following:

"Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff" (p. 86).

Halpin also argued that both factors above as measured by the LBDQ instrument are crucial dimensions of leader behavior, and effective leaders are often associated with high performance on these two dimensions. Leaders who exhibit high performance on these dimensions are associated with groups having such characteristics as pleasant attitude and atmosphere coupled with clear working procedures. Earlier, Evenson (1959) and Jacobs (1965) had found these
two dimensions were also crucial to create high performance among school principals. Halpin (1966) also revealed that superiors and subordinates tend to evaluate these two dimensions in opposite directions with regard to effectiveness. Superiors are more inclined toward initiating structure, while subordinates are more concerned with consideration of their leader behavior. In regard to the applicability of these two dimensions in Malaysia, Ahmad (1981) reported that a majority of elementary school principals were low both in dimensions of initiation of structure and consideration.

Leadership studies are governed by researchers' conceptions of leadership and methodological preferences. Approaches toward leadership studies can be broadly classified under three categories of theories: trait, behavioral and contingency.

The trait theory, sometimes labelled as "leaders are born, not made," was popular from the 1920's to the 1950's. Stogdill (1948), after reviewing 120 trait studies, came up with common personal factors associated with leadership, particularly in the areas of intellectual capacity, achievement, responsibility and status. He concluded that there was little support for the beliefs that traits and the capacity to lead effectively are consistently related.
The behavioral approach attempts to describe the behaviors of leaders that are effective to organizational outcome. It focuses not on traits but rather on leaders' performance. The behavioral approach regards leader behavior as the cause that affects subordinate satisfaction and performance. The LBDQ and the LBDQ-Form XII (Stogdill, 1963) are two examples of leadership instruments that lean toward this approach to leadership studies. Brown (1967), who made a study of 170 principals, categorized the 12 subscales of the LBDQ-XII into two: the person-oriented leadership constituted by demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, tolerance of freedom, consideration, predictive accuracy, and integration and the system-oriented leadership that consisted of representation, persuasiveness, initiating structure, role assumption, production emphasis and superior orientation.

Another example of this approach is the Four-Factor Theory (Bowers and Seashore, 1966) which emphasizes four dimensions of leadership behavior: support, interaction facilitation, goal emphases and work facilitation. The support behavior and interaction facilitation dimensions are associated with the consideration of the LBDQ while goal emphasis and work facilitation correspond to the initiation of structure of leader behavior.
The contingency approach assumes different situations that require different patterns of traits and behaviors for leaders to be effective. Thus, it attempts to predict which types of leaders will be effective in different types of situations. Among the most widely known contingency theories are Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967), House's Path-Goal Theory (1971), and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory (1977).

In Fiedler's model (1967), the extent to which the situation gives a leader influence over subordinates depends on three major factors: leader-member relations, position power and task structure. Pleasant leader-member relations help leaders to exercise their influence and authority while substantial position power possessed by leaders enables them to administer sanctions that would enhance subordinates' compliance with their directions and policies. Among the three, Fiedler also found that leader-member relations is the most important, followed by task structure and, lastly, position power.

House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (1971) reflects how a leader's function is supplemental in influencing the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates especially with the leader. This theory includes four basic types of leader behavior -- directive leadership, achievement-oriented leadership, supportive leadership and participative
leadership. The first two -- directive and achievement-oriented leadership -- are equated with initiating structure while the last two correspond to consideration.

As exemplified by this theory, the leader should exhibit directive leadership to increase subordinate effort and satisfaction when role ambiguity exists. When the task is stressful, boring or frustrating, supportive leadership, which displays concern and consideration among workers, is helpful in minimizing negative aspects of the work environment. By so doing, subordinate effort, particularly in intrinsic aspects of a job, can be increased. In a situation where subordinates have ambiguous and nonrepetitive tasks (unstructured), achievement-oriented leadership, such as giving them confidence and encouragement, is more appropriate. Participative leadership, which considers subordinates' opinions and suggestions as inputs toward decision making, is applicable when the role ambiguity is associated with unstructured tasks. In a situation where subordinates need autonomy and a sense of achievement, participative decision making is also workable.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1977) is concerned with two broad categories of leadership behavior: task behavior and relationship behavior, which correspond respectively to initiating structure and
consideration dimensions of the LBDQ. The task behavior is the extent to which leaders define roles and responsibilities of followers. The relationship behavior refers to the extent to which leaders can maintain interpersonal relationships to facilitate the accomplishment of the outcome. This theory requires two components of follower maturity -- job maturity and psychological maturity. Job maturity refers to subordinates' task-related skills and technical knowledge while psychological maturity deals with self-confidence and self-respect of employees.

As stipulated by the theory, the leaders should concentrate on task-oriented behavior such as directive and autocratic, in a situation where subordinates are immature in relation to their tasks. When subordinates exhibit a moderate amount of maturity, the leader should engage in considerable relationship behavior. However, when subordinates are very mature, the leader should give more autonomy and freedom in their decision making.

In educational setting, Sergiovanni (1987) noted five forces of leadership that have an impact on schooling -- technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural.

The technical forces include planning, organizing, scheduling, supervising, budgeting, monitoring and many other mundane and routine duties of principals. The human force constitutes human relations, interpersonal competence
and instrumental motivational technique. The educational force is the conceptual understanding about professional matters of education and schooling related to teaching-learning effectiveness, educational administration, curriculum development, student testing and measurement. The symbolic force of leadership emphasizes a sense of significance, expectations, faith, vision and purpose of the school that identify the substance to people. The last aspect, the cultural force, defines and strengthens values, norms, and aspirations that give the school its unique identity to help bond together staff in the work to enjoy a sense of personal significance and pride. The technical and educational forces are equated with initiation of structure, while the human, symbolic and cultural forces can be associated with the consideration dimension of the LBDQ.

Sergiovanni (1987) concludes that technical, human and educational forces of leadership are essential to competent schools, and their absence leads to ineffectiveness. However, their contributions do not guarantee excellence. School excellence can be achieved only through the existence of cultural and symbolic forces, apart from the first three forces.
Job Satisfaction -- Leader Behavior

Blocker and Richardson (1963), who made a comprehensive review of 25 years of research concerning job satisfaction, concluded that the administrator is the key factor. An early study by Chase (1953) revealed that dynamic and stimulating leadership of principals contributes to teacher satisfaction. McLelland (1964) has also indicated six critical requirements that influenced the job satisfaction of teachers with regard to effectiveness of the principals: creating satisfactory conditions; principal's communication; monitoring school instructional programs; concern and interest for mental, physical, and economic welfare of teachers; attitude; and leadership effectiveness.

Many past studies have reported that initiation of structure and consideration of principals are related to teachers' job satisfaction. Roberts (1984) reported that teachers in Washington experienced higher job satisfaction under principals who displayed high-consideration, high-initiating structure and high-consideration, low-initiating structure than those under low-consideration, high-structure, and low-consideration, low-initiating structure. And it was also reported that consideration more related to job satisfaction, while initiating structure was associated with job performance. In a more recent study, Shakeraneh (1986) concludes that regardless of cultural and context
situations, teachers favor principals with these two categories of leader behavior.

Blase et al. (1986) found that all teachers who expressed high dissatisfaction in the central midwestern United States considered their principals to be low in both initiating structure and consideration dimensions. They revealed that this situation would result in a decline in their performance. They reported a majority of those who expressed high satisfaction perceived these two dimensions as crucial in improving their performance. It was further indicated that initiation of structure gave more impact to teacher performance than did consideration. However, consideration was positively related to teacher satisfaction. Earlier, Schriesheim and Murphy (1976), who used the MSQ and the LBDQ-XII, revealed that leader consideration enhanced subordinate satisfaction and performance in a relatively relaxed and less stressful work environment but under high pressure and stressful conditions, initiating structure of a leader was more helpful.

Crouch and Powell (1983) related the importance and the contribution of the consideration dimension of job satisfaction. Using the JDI as the measuring instrument, they indicated that consideration accounted for 33.7 percent of the variance in satisfaction with present job, 22.1
percent of the variance in satisfaction with pay, 20.8 percent of variance in satisfaction with promotions and only 3.2 percent with co-workers. They also indicated the contribution of consideration to the extrinsic aspect of job satisfaction is almost three times more than its contribution the intrinsic source of job satisfaction.

Kim (1986) found teachers in Korea indicated that their job satisfaction was positively related to both consideration and initiation of structure of their principals. However, consideration was more significantly related to their satisfaction than initiation of structure.

Konto (1987), who used the MSQ and the LBDQ-XII, found that vocational technical instructors in Missouri were most satisfied if both consideration and initiating structure of principals' behavior existed in their schools.

Hsieh (1976) made a comparative study of relationships between principals' leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction in the United States and China. The MSQ and the LBDQ-XII were used to measure job satisfaction of teachers and the leader behavior of their principals, respectively. In both countries, he found consideration and initiation of structure, which he referred to as person-oriented and normative/system-oriented leadership, respectively, were highly related to all three aspects of job satisfaction -- overall, extrinsic and intrinsic -- even
though the first dimension was more significant than the second. However, Mes (1984) found intrinsic satisfaction was enhanced only under both initiating structure and consideration dimensions. Konto (1987) also indicated that if either one of these two dimensions was lacking then teachers would express moderate general satisfaction but low intrinsic job satisfaction.

Klawitter (1986), whose research was based on Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory (1977), found that teachers in West Virginia who most frequently perceived principals to demonstrate high task and good relationship were more satisfied in general and in the extrinsic aspect of the job, particularly administration and supervision, than those teachers whose principals displayed high task and poor relationships. The least satisfied teachers were those who viewed their principals to be low in both dimensions.

Nongmak (1987) found goal emphasis and participative leadership, which are equated to initiating structure and consideration of the LBDQ, were significantly related to intrinsic job satisfaction of teachers in Thailand. It was also found that support by the principal, work facilitation, and competence, which are associated with initiating structure of leader behavior, were significantly related to extrinsic job satisfaction and general job satisfaction.
Jang (1988), in a more recent study of teachers in Korea, concluded that the greater the degree to which the principal's behavior is supportive of teachers, facilitative of the worker, receptive to teachers' ideas, and informative and the more it emphasizes goals that are equated with both dimensions of the LBDQ, the higher will be the teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic sources of job satisfaction.

The above-mentioned studies have led the researcher to develop four hypotheses. The first two hypotheses are that positive relationships between both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction of teachers and the initiating structure of the principal's leader behavior as perceived by teachers will exist. The third and fourth hypotheses are that positive relationships between both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction of teachers and the consideration of the principal's leader behavior as perceived by teachers will exist.

Organizational Effectiveness — Dimensions and Studies

School effectiveness has emerged as a recent and popular topic studied by educational researchers. However, research on effective schools is often centered narrowly around academic achievement of students (Madaus et al., 1980). Miskel et al. (1983) argue that organizational
effectiveness of schools represents not only achievement of students but also a much broader multidimensional concept.

According to Georgopoulus and Tannenbaum (1957), organizational effectiveness is the "extent to which any organization as a social system, given certain resources and means, fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain upon its members" (pp. 536-537). Mott (1972) defines organizational effectiveness as the "ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power for action -- production and adaptation. Effective organizations are those that produce more and higher-quality outputs and adapt more effectively to environmental and internal problems than do other, similar organizations" (p. 17). Mott (1972), who made an extensive study of organizations, identified quantity, quality, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility as criterion variables for assessing effectiveness of an organization.

Adapted from Mott's (1972) derivatives of the IPOE, Miskel et al. (1979) have described perceived organizational effectiveness as the:

"Subjective evaluation of a school's productivity, adaptability, and flexibility. Schools produce a variety of products and services in terms of instruction, learning, and extra-curricular events.... In summary, effective schools are perceived to produce products and services in greater
quantity, with better quality; to show flexibility; and to exhibit adaptability to a greater extent than less effective organizations" (pp. 98-99).

Steers (1975), who reviewed 17 multivariate models of organizational effectiveness in terms of frequency of occurrence of evaluation criteria, concluded that adaptability and flexibility were mentioned most often, followed by productivity (quantity, quality, and efficiency) and satisfaction. In a more recent study, Eyob (1983), who identified the concept of organizational effectiveness in formal organization, also concluded that productivity, adaptability, and flexibility are strong indicators of organizational effectiveness. Thus, it can be argued that the five criterion variables in the present study constitute an acceptable composite of organizational effectiveness indicators.

Job Satisfaction -- Organizational Effectiveness

Locke (1969) found strong evidence that sense of achievement, which is very similar to perceived effectiveness, is influential in determining an individual's job satisfaction. Past research has also revealed that organizational effectiveness is a good indicator of job satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1973; Steers, 1977). In an early study, Lacy (1973) also indicated some facets of
school effectiveness such as teaching load, fringe benefits, administration, supervision, students' abilities, enthusiasm and needs were influential in the job satisfaction of business teachers. In other school situations, teachers' job satisfaction is also related to various facets or dimensions of school effectiveness such as teaching effectiveness as perceived by students (Cooper, 1974; Stuntebeck, 1974) and factors associated with effective learning (Educational Research Service, 1983). Holdaway (1978) found that variables related to the work done by teachers, particularly a sense of achievement in teaching, have higher correlations with job satisfaction than the conditions under which they work.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) reported that job satisfaction of teachers was affected by extrinsic rewards, such as advancement and salary, and also factors affecting school effectiveness such as teaching load and pupils' misbehavior. Another study by Kreis (1983) also found that availability of resources such as books, supplies and field trips that facilitate the organizational effectiveness of the school has a significant effect on teachers' job satisfaction.

Knoop (1978) found teachers in Ontario, Canada, indicated that the organizational effectiveness of their schools contributed to the intrinsic aspects of job
satisfaction such as work itself and co-workers, and also to such extrinsic aspects as supervision and pay.

Miskel et al. (1979) found the perceived organizational effectiveness of public schools as measured by the IPOE, was positively related to school factors: specification of general rules for teachers, more professional activities and pleasant climate between teachers and principals. These activities that are associated with the intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics enhanced their job satisfaction.

Gunn and Holdaway (1986) also found that sense of accomplishment, equated to high school effectiveness, was related to job satisfaction of principals. They, too, found satisfaction of teachers and students to be the most important indicators of school effectiveness. They found teachers' and administrators' ability in handling unexpected overloads of work and emergencies, which is equated with the flexibility dimension of the IPOE, related to their job satisfaction. Their ability to demonstrate a professional and caring attitude and to provide students with satisfactory skills in language, which are respectively equated with adaptability and productivity, were also related to their job satisfaction.

In a more recent study, Schulz (1987) also found teachers' perceptions of organizational effectiveness of
public and non-public schools in southeastern Louisiana, as measured by the IPOE, were related to both intrinsic and extrinsic sources of job satisfaction.

The studies mentioned above were based on findings in the North American school system. It is the researcher's expectation that teachers' perceived organizational effectiveness would be related to the job satisfaction of teachers in different geographical settings such as Malaysia. Thus, the researcher hypothesized that the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction were both positively related to the organizational effectiveness of vocational schools as perceived by vocational teachers in Malaysia.
Chapter 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

The target population in this study was defined as vocational teachers currently teaching in the secondary vocational schools in West Malaysia. The 1987 directory from the Technical and Vocational Education Division of the Ministry of Education was used to identify the subjects. All teachers teaching one or more vocational classes were considered to be members of the population.

A simple random sampling procedure was used to select the sample. Cochran's formula (1977) was used to determine that 178 responses was the minimum needed sample size. The calculations were as follows:

\[ n_0 = \frac{t^2 s^2}{d^2} \]

\[ = (1.965)^2 \times (0.75) \]

\[ = (0.10)^2 \]

\[ = 100 \]
A sample of 250 vocational teachers was selected for inclusion in the study. This sample size was selected in anticipation of approximately a 75% response rate. A sample of 250 would have allowed the researcher to achieve the minimum required sample size with a response rate as low as 71%.

**Instrumentation**

Four instruments were used in the collection of data for the study. One measured the dependent variable, job satisfaction, while two were used to measure the independent variables, leader behavior and organizational effectiveness. The last instrument was designed by the researcher to measure the selected social and demographic variables.
Selection/development of the measuring instruments is discussed in the following sections.

Job Satisfaction

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (1967) measures job satisfaction with respect to specific aspects of work and the work environment. Two versions of the MSQ are available: the long form and short form.

The long form was selected for use in this study (See Appendix G for letter giving permission to use) and consists of 100 items -- five items for each of the 20 subscales or factors. The 20 scale categories consist of 13 intrinsic job factors and seven extrinsic factors (Weiss, et al., 1967). The 13 intrinsic job factors are ability utilization, achievement, activity, authority, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service and variety. The seven extrinsic factors are advancement, company policies and practices, compensation, social status, supervision-human, supervision-technical and working conditions. The long form has shown a test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.97 over one week and 0.89 over one year (Weiss et al., 1967). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the current study was found to be 0.97.
Subjects were requested to respond to the MSQ on a five category rating scale that included the following: Very Dissatisfied; Dissatisfied; Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied; Satisfied; Very Satisfied. The items were scored 1 through 5. Each of the 20 subscales was scored by summing the responses for the items in that scale. The MSQ also yields a general satisfaction score, which is calculated by adding one item from each of the 20 subscales. The general satisfaction score ranges from a minimum of 20 to a maximum of 100.

**Leader Behavior**

Teachers' perceptions of leader behavior (See Appendix H for a letter giving permission to use this instrument) was measured using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) as designed by Halpin and Winer (1957). The instrument contains 40 questions pertaining to administrative leadership, arranged into two major dimensions: initiation of structure and consideration. In using the LBDQ, only 30 of the 40 items were scored, 15 for each dimension. The 10 unscored items were retained to keep the conditions of administration comparable to those used in standardizing the questionnaire. The score for each dimension was the sum of responses marked on each of the 15
items in the dimension. The possible range of scores on each dimension was 0 to 60.

The LBDQ had five response categories: Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom and Never. The respondent was requested to circle the most appropriate response for each item. For consideration and initiation of structure, the estimated reliabilities by the split-half method had been found to be 0.83 and 0.92, respectively (Halpin and Winer, 1957). The alpha reliability coefficient for consideration and initiation of structure in the current study was found to be 0.82 and 0.76 respectively.

Perceived Organizational Effectiveness

The organizational effectiveness of the schools as perceived by the vocational teachers (see Appendix I for a letter giving permission to use this instrument) was measured using the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE). The IPOE is a derivative of Mott's Index of Organizational Effectiveness (Mott, 1972) that was modified by Miskel and his associates (1979) for use in schools. Overall effectiveness of the school was rated on five dimensions: quantity, quality, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility. The respondent was requested to select one out of five alternatives to assess how well his/her school achieved eight identified objectives or
items. The overall organizational effectiveness was the sum of the item responses. The possible range for the overall score was from eight to 40. The alpha reliability coefficient for the school version of the index has been shown in previous research to be 0.89 (Miskel et al., 1979) and 0.87 (Hoy and Ferguson, 1985). In this study, the alpha reliability coefficient of the IPOE was found to be 0.84.

Social and Demographic Information

A researcher-designed questionnaire requesting information on social and demographic variables — ethnic groups, sex, marital status, courses taught, qualifications, educational preparation, teaching experience, salary and distance from hometown — was used to measure the variables. The variables were selected based on previous research findings. Content validity of the questionnaire was established through a review by a panel of experts consisting of faculty members from the School of Vocational Education, Louisiana State University, and officials from the Educational Planning Research Division, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

Data Collection

Data were collected by mailed questionnaires. A total of four mailings were made, each about two weeks apart. For
the first mailing, questionnaires were mailed to the
selected teachers, accompanied by a self-addressed, stamped
envelope and a cover letter (Appendix J). Within two weeks
after the first mailing, 140 (56%) teachers had responded.
A second mailing (Appendix K) consisting of a letter was
sent to all non-respondents, and a phone call to a randomly
selected nonrespondent from each school was placed asking
his or her assistance by responding and reminding other
nonrespondents to complete and submit their questionnaires.
After the second mailing, another 65 (26%) responses were
returned. For the next reminder (Appendix L), a second set
of questionnaires was enclosed to the remaining
nonrespondents. Thirteen teachers (5.2%) responded after
the third mailing. After the fourth mailing (Appendix M),
the researcher received seven (2.8%) more responses which
made a total of 225 or a 90% return rate.

Data Analysis

The information gathered in the study was analyzed
using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS).
The alpha level was established a priori at .05. The
following statistics were used to accomplish the objectives
and hypotheses:
Objective 1. To measure the job satisfaction of vocational teachers, means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentiles were used.

Objective 2. To measure the leader behavior of principals, means and frequencies were used.

Objective 3. To measure the organizational effectiveness of the vocational schools, means and standard deviations were used.

Objective 4. To determine if significant differences in job satisfaction existed among selected social and demographic variables for teachers -- ethnic group, gender, marital status, courses taught, educational preparation -- and also to identify the relationships between job satisfaction and the following variables: qualifications, teaching experience, salary, distance from hometowns, the following tests were used:

A t-test was used to determine if significant differences existed between teachers of different ethnic groups, gender, and marital status categories with respect to their level of satisfaction.

A one-way ANOVA was used to determine if teachers teaching in four different courses differed in their level of job satisfaction.
Kendall's $\tau_b$ correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between qualifications of teachers and their job satisfaction.

A $t$-test was also used to determine if locally trained teachers differed in their level of job satisfaction from those who had received their preservice/inservice training outside Malaysia.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine if relationships existed between job satisfaction of teachers and the characteristics, teaching experience, salary and the distance of the schools from their hometown.

Objective 5. To determine if a significant explanatory model existed for job satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire from factors of leader behavior, organizational effectiveness, and selected social and demographic variables, multiple Regression Analysis with simultaneous entry of individual variables was used.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test each of the hypotheses below:

Hypothesis 1. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of the initiation of structure dimension of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.
Hypothesis 2. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of the initiation of structure dimension of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

Hypothesis 3. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of the consideration dimension of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

Hypothesis 4. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of the consideration of leader behavior dimension of principals by vocational teachers.

Hypothesis 5. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of vocational schools by vocational teachers.

Hypothesis 6. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of vocational schools by vocational teachers.
Chapter 4
RESULTS

This chapter presents findings of the study. The social and demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented first. Following this, the findings concerning objectives and hypotheses are presented.

Description of Respondents

Out of 225 responses received, the majority were Malays (181 or 80.5%), who form the majority ethnic group in Malaysia. Other ethnic groups represented included Chinese (40 or 17.8%), Indians (3 or 1.3%) and others (1 or 0.4%).

The majority of teachers in the study were males (186 or 82.7%) with females making up 17.3% (39) of the respondents. Most of the teachers were married (158 or 70.9%) while 62 (27.8%) were single. Only three respondents (1.3%) were either widowed or divorced. Two respondents did not state their marital status.

Data in Table 1 indicate that the majority of respondents were teaching engineering courses (166 or 74.4%). The course represented by the smallest group of teachers was agriculture, with 14 (6.3%) teachers in the study. Two respondents did not report the course they taught.
When asked about their highest educational degree earned, the majority of respondents (186 or 83.0%) indicated that they held teacher certificates (See Table 2). In addition, there were 14 (6.3%) respondents in each of the diploma and bachelor's degree categories. Only two (0.9%) teachers had a masters degree or above. One respondent failed to report his or her qualifications.

Approximately one-fourth (57 or 25.3%) of the respondents indicated that they had received at least some of their preservice/inservice education outside Malaysia. When asked where this training had occurred, almost half (25 or 45.5%) responded that they had studied in Japan. The
Table 2

Highest Education Completed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher certificate</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>83.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below teacher certificate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master and above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next largest response indicated was education in England (12 or 21.8%). All other countries identified were reported by less than 10% of the respondents (See Table 3).

It was also found that two respondents attended programs in two different countries (not shown in Table). One of these went to school in both the Philippines and in the United States. The other one attended school in India and Japan. Regarding the length of time spent studying in the identified countries, a range of one month to 54 months, with an average of nine months, was found.
Table 3

Educational Preparation Outside Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Germany</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 4, respondents with less than five years of teaching experience formed the largest group (74 or 33.0%). The next largest group was those with ten to 14 years of teaching experience (67 or 29.9%) followed by respondents with five to nine years of teaching experience (62 or 27.7%). Only 21 (9.4%) respondents had been in the teaching profession for 15 years or more. Respondents had an average of eight years of teaching experience.
Table 4

*Years of Teaching Experience*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 9</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 14</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 - 19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 and above</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Mean years of teaching experience was 8.0.

Monthly income of respondents is presented in Table 5. Examination of the data show that slightly more than two-thirds of the respondents (152 or 69.1%) earned between $501 and $1000 Malaysian ringgit as a monthly income, while about one-fourth (58 or 26.4%) earned more than $1000 ringgit ($2.67 ringgit = $1.00 American dollar). Only ten teachers (4.5%) had a monthly income of less than $500 ringgit. An average monthly income of respondents was found to be $861 ringgit. The entry level salary for teachers with teacher
Table 5

Monthly Salary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than $500</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$501 - $1000</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1001 and more</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean monthly salary of teachers was $861 ringgit. $2.67 ringgit was equivalent to $1.00 American dollar as of October 10, 1988.

certificates is $480 ringgit per month while their maximum pay is $1120 ringgit (Lloyd, 1985). For comparison purposes, teachers having degrees with academic honors start with a monthly salary of $1000 ringgit, and can reach a top salary scale of $2340 ringgit per month.

The distance of their hometowns from the schools where vocational teachers were currently teaching is reported in Table 6. The majority of teachers (136 or 62.7%) responded that they taught in schools located 50 kilometers or less from their hometowns. The second largest group (47 or 21.7%)
Table 6

Distance of Respondents' Current Teaching Positions from their Hometowns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance (Km)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 and less</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 - 100</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 - 150</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151 - 200</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201 and above</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean distance of teachers' hometown from the school was 100 kilometers.

were those located 201 kilometers or more from their hometowns. The respondents taught in schools located at an average distance of 100 kilometers from their hometowns.

**Objective One: To measure the job satisfaction of vocational teachers**

Job satisfaction of vocational teachers was measured using the MSQ long form. Categories of respondents' general
satisfaction scores are presented in Table 7. The data show that the 60's score category formed the largest group (84 or 38.7%). The majority of teachers (159 or 73.3%) reflected a general satisfaction score between 60 and 79. The lowest and highest obtained scores were respectively 40.0 and 99.0 and the mean general satisfaction score was found to be 67.0 ($SD = 9.6$). The mean score was compared to the percentile score for an established norm group entitled "Employed Non-disabled" (Weiss et al., 1967), which included skilled blue collar workers, skilled and unskilled white collar workers, and professional employees. This norm group was used as a basis for comparison because vocational teachers in Malaysia are occupationally categorized as skilled white-collar workers and/or professional employees (Ministry of Labor and Manpower, Malaysia, 1980). However, the researcher was unable to identify a norm group which could be demonstrated to be specifically appropriate for use with data collected outside of the United States. Therefore, the reader should be cautious in interpreting the results of the norms reported since they are accurate only to the extent that the norm group selected was appropriate. Nevertheless, when compared with this norm group, the vocational teachers' general satisfaction score fell at the 13.3 percentile, which indicated a low level of satisfaction.
The frequency of respondents' levels of general satisfaction were also determined. Examination of the data in Table 8 reveals that almost two-thirds (141 or 65.0%) of the respondents showed a low level of general job satisfaction. Slightly less than one-third of them (71 or 32.7%) were at the moderate level of satisfaction while only five (2.3%) had scores that were at the high level of satisfaction.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40 - 49</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - 59</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 - 69</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 - 79</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 - 89</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 - 100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Mean = 67.0.
Table 9 shows the number of respondents that fell into score categories for the levels of intrinsic job satisfaction. The category ranges were established by dividing the possible range into five response categories on the MSQ. The lowest possible score was 13.0, while the highest was 65.0. The mean intrinsic satisfaction score was found to be 45.4, while the obtained minimum and the maximum scores were 20.0 and 65.0, respectively. As indicated in Table 9, the largest group of respondents (124 or 56.4%) fell within the score category 45.51 to 58.50 corresponding to the "satisfied" response category of intrinsic

Table 8

Levels of General Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction level</th>
<th>Percentiles</th>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>≤25</td>
<td>≤71</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>26 - 74</td>
<td>72 - 83</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>≥75</td>
<td>≥84</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>225</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
satisfaction. In addition, 83 (37.7%) were in the category 32.51 to 45.50, corresponding to "neither dissatisfied nor satisfied" response category. No respondents were in the category described as "very dissatisfied."

A similar procedure was adopted in categorizing respondents' scores and levels of extrinsic satisfaction

Table 9

Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Satisfaction levels</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13.00 - 19.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.51 - 32.50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.51 - 45.50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.51 - 58.50</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.51 - 65.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 225 100.0

Note. Mean = 45.4. Satisfaction levels are labeled as 1 = very dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = neither dissatisfied nor satisfied; 4 = satisfied; 5 = very satisfied.
(See Table 10). The lowest possible score was 7.0 and the highest was 35.0. The mean extrinsic satisfaction score was found to be 21.9 while the obtained minimum and maximum scores were 11.0 and 34.0, respectively. The largest group of respondents (126 or 57.0%) fell into the response category 17.51 to 24.50 corresponding to "neither dissatisfied nor satisfied". In addition, 65 (29.4%) were

Table 10
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Satisfaction levels</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.00 - 10.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.51 - 17.50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.51 - 24.50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.51 - 34.50</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.51 - 35.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 225 100.0

Note. Mean = 21.9. Satisfaction levels are labeled as 1 = very dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = neither dissatisfied nor satisfied; 4 = satisfied; 5 = very satisfied.
in the category 24.51 to 34.50, corresponding to "satisfied" response level. No respondents were in the category described as "very dissatisfied."

Mean scores on the 20 subscales of the MSQ are presented in Table 11. The highest score possible on each scale was 25 while the lowest was five. The five subscales on which respondents had the highest satisfaction scores were moral values (M = 19.04), coworker relationships (M = 18.72), security (M = 18.66), ability utilization (M = 18.09) and social service (M = 18.04). The five subscales on which they had the lowest scores were advancement (M = 14.02), compensation (M = 14.39), social status (M = 15.44), company policies and practices (M = 16.02), and supervision-technical (M = 16.11).

Locke (1973) asserts that both dimensions -- intrinsic and extrinsic -- are responsible for job satisfaction. Hill (1986-87) suggests that a comparison of the responses on these two dimensions of job satisfaction be made. To make this comparison, the intrinsic and extrinsic measures had to first be converted to a common measurement scale. This was done by calculating the overall mean of the 13 intrinsic subscales and multiplying this value by seven. Then the overall mean of the seven extrinsic subscales was calculated and multiplied by 13. The two measurements were then
Table 11
Scores on Subscales of the MSQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral values</td>
<td>19.04</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworker</td>
<td>18.72</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>18.66</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability utilization</td>
<td>18.09</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social service</td>
<td>18.04</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>17.88</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>17.82</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>17.38</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>17.32</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>17.09</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision-human relations</td>
<td>16.85</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority</td>
<td>16.43</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>16.12</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision-technical</td>
<td>16.11</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company policies and practices</td>
<td>16.02</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>15.44</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>14.39</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*M The means of each scale scored from a minimum of 5 to a maximum of 25. Responses were on a five point Likert-type scale having values of 1 = very dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = neither dissatisfied nor satisfied; 4 = satisfied; 5 = very satisfied.
statistically compared using the t-test procedure. It was found respondents' mean of intrinsic factors, taken as a whole, (M = 317.97) was significantly higher than that of their extrinsic factors (M = 285.88, t(217) = 10.27, p < .001). According to Hill (1986-87), such a result reflects the dichotomous nature of factors affecting job satisfaction, which is in agreement with the aspect of Herzberg's M-H Two-Factor Theory (1959) suggesting that separate and distinct factors influence job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

In an attempt to identify the basic dimensions underlying the job satisfaction of vocational teachers in Malaysia, a factor analysis was conducted using the data in this study. Procedures that were utilized included the following. Employing an exploratory principal component solution and varimax rotation, the 100 items of the MSQ were first subjected to a factor analysis where two factors were specified. The primary purpose of this procedure was to determine if the two primary factors -- intrinsic and extrinsic -- would factor-analyze consistently with the previously established intrinsic and extrinsic scales of the MSQ. Results revealed that all items that were previously identified as intrinsic had their highest factor loadings on the same factor (See Appendix N). The same was also true for extrinsic items. One item was found not to load at .30
or higher on either factor, but its highest loading was consistent with its previously identified nature.

Following this, a factor analysis (See Appendix 0) was conducted through which eight distinct factors emerged, which may be interpreted as follows:

1. Task and value dimensions -- ability utilization, achievement, social service, creativity, responsibility, variety, moral values, and activity,
2. Social dimension -- supervision-human, supervision-technical, company policies and practices, and recognition,
3. Reward dimension -- compensation and advancement,
4. Status and authority dimension -- social status and authority,
5. Working condition dimension,
6. Security dimension,
7. Coworker dimension,
8. Independence dimension.

The results of the factor analysis of the responses to the MSQ indicated that Malaysian vocational teachers perceived the intrinsic and extrinsic facets of their job as consisting of similar factors to those found by the instrument developers. Thus, the distinction between
intrinsic and extrinsic facets of a job was manifested among Malaysian vocational teachers in a similar manner to the distinction obtained by developers in the Western cultural settings.

However, when additional factor analyses were conducted, the 20 subscales of the MSQ loaded on eight distinct factors, which can be interpreted as the following dimensions: task and value, social, rewards, status/authority, working conditions, security, coworkers and independence. The dimensions that emerged reflected a lower level of differentiation in the perceptions of work dimensions among vocational teachers in Malaysia than those found by instrument developers. This could be explained by relatively simple perceptions of the concept of a job in the Eastern culture as opposed to the more complex Western perceptions of work. Moreover, in Malaysia, it is likely that teaching does not involve such well-differentiated work roles as do occupations in non-school settings.

Objective Two: To measure the leader behavior of school principals

Leader behavior of school principals as perceived by the vocational teachers was measured using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Two major
dimensions were delineated from this measurement, initiation of structure and consideration.

To describe the respondents on the dimensions of perceived leader behavior, their scores were categorized into five intervals corresponding to the five descriptors of the response scale. Responses for each of the 15 items included in each dimension ranged from 0 to 4; therefore, the lowest possible score was 0, while the highest was 60.0 for each dimension.

The obtained minimum and maximum response scores for the initiation of structure dimension were 20 and 56. The data in Table 12 indicate that the largest group of respondents (116 or 54.0%) fell in the score category of 23 to 37, which corresponds to the "occasionally" descriptor on the response scale for leader behavior. An additional 92 (42.8%) were in the score category of 38 to 52, which corresponds to the "often" response category.

The obtained minimum and maximum scores for the consideration dimension of leader behavior were found to be 12 and 56. The data in Table 13 indicates that the largest group of respondents (115 or 52.8%) fell in the score category of 23 to 37 which corresponds to the "occasionally" descriptor of leader behavior.
Table 12

Principals' Initiation of Structure Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 7</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 - 22</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 - 37</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 - 52</td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 - 60</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>225</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 37.35.

To determine overall styles of leader behavior of principals, respondents were classified as high or low on each dimension (Halpin, 1966). Classification as high or low was defined as those which scored above and below the mean of each dimension, respectively. Halpin (1966) indicates that the measurements of the two dimensions are separate and distinct, four quadrants of leader behavior can be formed by cross-partitioning on the mean score values of each dimension. Respondents were, therefore, classified on
Table 13

Principals' Consideration Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 7</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 - 22</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 - 37</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>52.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 - 52</td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 - 60</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>225</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 35.59.

The combination of dimensions of initiation of structure and consideration as low initiation of structure -- low consideration, low initiation of structure -- high consideration, high initiation of structure -- low consideration, and high initiation of structure -- high consideration.

Examination of the data in Table 14 reveals that the largest group of principals had low scores on both dimensions of leader behavior (72 or 34.3%). The next
largest group was those who were high initiation of structure -- high consideration (58 or 27.6%). The smallest group was high initiation of structure -- low consideration (37 or 17.6%).

Table 14
Classification of Principals on Dimensions of Leader Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INS - CONS</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low - low</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low - high</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High - low</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High - high</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. INS - Initiation of structure; CONS - Consideration.

Objective Three: To measure the organizational effectiveness of vocational schools

The organizational effectiveness of vocational schools as perceived by the vocational teachers was measured using the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE).
The IPOE includes measurements on organizational effectiveness in the areas of quantity, quality, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility. Each subscale is rated using a Likert-type scale of 1 to 5. The response scale values established by the research for interpretation included the following: ≤ 1.50 — very low; 1.51 - 2.50 — low; 2.51 - 3.50 — moderate; 3.51 - 4.50 — high; ≥ 4.51 — very high. The means for each of the dimensions, which are displayed in Table 15, fell at the moderate category of the scale of organizational effectiveness. The flexibility dimension received the highest rating, with a mean of 3.31 (SD = 0.76), while the quantity dimension obtained the lowest mean rating of 2.88 (SD = 0.82). The mean of overall organizational effectiveness, which was calculated by summing the scores for each of the eight items, was found to be 25.20 (SD = 4.50). Based on the possible range of 8.0 to 40.0 for the overall score of the organizational effectiveness, and extending the interpretation scale used for five dimensions, this obtained score also fell in the moderate effectiveness category of 20.08 to 28.08 (See Table 15).

Objective Four: To measure associations and differences between selected social and demographic variables and job satisfaction
The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to assess the relationships between job satisfaction and respondents' characteristics which were measured as interval data. These variables included years of teaching experience, salary and distance from hometown. As indicated in Table 16, none of the correlations between general job satisfaction and these variables were found to be

Table 15
Organizational Effectiveness of Vocational Schools as Measured by IPOE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>25.20</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean for each dimension was calculated from responses on the following scale: 1 = very low; 2 = low; 3 = moderate; 4 = high; 5 = very high.
Table 16

Relationships Between Teaching Experience, Salary, Distance From Hometowns and General Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from hometown</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Relationships were measured using the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient.

...significant. Years of teaching experience was, however, found to be significantly related \( r = 0.17, p = 0.01 \) to intrinsic job satisfaction (See Table 17). The magnitude of this relationship was described by Best (1981) as negligible. The relationships of these three variables with extrinsic satisfaction were also found to be nonsignificant (See Table 18).

The qualifications of respondents were measured as ordinal data. Therefore, a Kendall's \( \text{tau}_b \) correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between qualifications of teachers and their job satisfaction. No relationships were found between respondents' qualifications...
Table 17

Relationships Between Teaching Experience, Salary, Distance From Hometowns and Intrinsic Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from hometown</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Relationships were measured using the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient.

Table 18

Relationships Between Teaching Experience, Salary, Distance From Hometowns and Extrinsic Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from hometown</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Relationships were measured using the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient.
and general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction (See Table 19).

Table 19
Relationships Between Qualifications and General, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>$r^a$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General job satisfaction</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic job satisfaction</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic job satisfaction</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Relationships were measured using the Kendall's $\tau_b$ Correlation Coefficient.

To examine possible differences between measures of job satisfaction and variables that were at a nominal level of measurement, tests of difference were determined to be most appropriate. For the nominal dichotomous variable, whether or not teachers had received training outside of Malaysia, the $t$-test procedure was used to determine if there was a difference in the job satisfaction. No significant differences were found in the three facets of job
satisfaction between locally-trained teachers and those who had received their training outside Malaysia (See Table 20).

Table 20
Comparison of General, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Scores by Location of Educational Preparation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Malaysia</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>67.56</td>
<td>9.31</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Malaysia</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>67.38</td>
<td>10.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Malaysia</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>45.12</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Malaysia</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>46.19</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Malaysia</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>22.16</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>-1.60</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Malaysia</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>21.15</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To compare the job satisfaction of teachers between levels of the variable course taught, one-way analysis of variance was selected as the most appropriate test. The general satisfaction means of teachers teaching engineering trades, home science, commerce, and agriculture were found
to be 68.1, 67.7, 64.4 and 62.8, respectively. The results in Table 21 reveal that the four groups of teachers were not significantly different in their level of general job satisfaction ($F (3, 211) = 1.94, p = 0.12$). The four groups of teachers also did not show differences on intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction (See Table 22 and Table 23).

Table 21

Analysis of Variance of General Job Satisfaction by Course Taught

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>176.58</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>90.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>214</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Group means were as follows: Engineering trades = 68.1, home science = 67.7, commerce = 64.4, agriculture = 62.8. Overall mean = 67.3.

To determine if a significant difference existed in job satisfaction between Malays, the majority group, and the minorities, which were made up of Chinese, Indians, and other races, a t-test was used. Data in Table 24 indicate that Malays did not differ in their levels of general
Table 22

Analysis of Variance of Intrinsic Job Satisfaction by Course Taught

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62.30</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>44.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>214</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Group means were as follows: Engineering trades = 45.7, home science = 45.9, commerce = 44.0, agriculture = 42.4. Overall mean = 45.4.

Table 23

Analysis of Variance of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction by Course Taught

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.58</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>16.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>218</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Group means were as follows: Engineering trades = 22.9, home science = 21.9, commerce = 20.5, agriculture = 22.3. Overall mean = 21.9.
satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction from the minorities.

A t-test was also used to determine if significant differences existed in general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction between male and female respondents. No significant differences were found in the three facets of job satisfaction by gender (See Table 25).

Table 24
Comparison of General, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction Scores by Ethnic Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malays</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>67.39</td>
<td>9.87</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minorities(^a)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>67.51</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malays</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>45.11</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minorities(^a)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46.48</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malays</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>22.10</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minorities(^a)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.16</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Minorities included Chinese, Indians and other ethnic groups.
A t-test was again used to determine if married teachers differed from single teachers in the three aspects of job satisfaction. Data in Table 26 show that married teachers were not significantly different from single teachers with respect to general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction.

Table 25
Comparison of General, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction Scores by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>67.20</td>
<td>10.01</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>68.38</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>45.24</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>46.05</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>21.83</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22.33</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 26
Comparison of General, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction Scores by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>67.73</td>
<td>9.76</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singles(^a)</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>66.87</td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>45.77</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singles(^a)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>44.63</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>21.85</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singles(^a)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>22.13</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Singles included teachers who were unmarried, widowed and divorced.

Objective Five: To determine if a significant explanatory model existed for job satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire from factors of leader behavior, organizational effectiveness and the selected social and demographic variables.
Using multiple regression analysis, each of the three facets of job satisfaction was regressed on all the selected independent variables simultaneously. Data presented in Tables 27 - 29 show explained variance as well as the standardized and unstandardized regression coefficients to estimate the relative importance of each variable.

As indicated in Table 27, the overall organizational effectiveness followed by the consideration of leader behavior were found to be the two significant predictors of general satisfaction in a significant explanatory model which explained 27.8% of the variance. These results suggest that teachers' perceptions of how well the school is organized and how considerate the principal is have a significant impact on their general satisfaction. No other variables contributed significantly to the model.

Table 28 indicates that the variables entered into the regression accounted for a total of 21.6% of the variance in intrinsic satisfaction. The overall organizational effectiveness was found to be the most significant predictor, followed by initiation of structure of leader behavior and consideration of leader behavior. No other variables contributed significantly to the model. These results indicated that teachers' intrinsic satisfaction is significantly influenced by the perceptions of their overall
organizational effectiveness of schools, as well as by how effective and considerate their principals are.

The overall organizational effectiveness and consideration of leader behavior also were the two significant explanatory predictors in the extrinsic satisfaction in a significant model which accounted for 33.7% of the variance (See Table 29). Thus, these results also indicate teachers' extrinsic satisfaction is significantly influenced by their perceptions of overall organizational effectiveness of schools, and by how considerate their principals are. No other variables made a significant contribution to the model.
Table 27

Multiple Regression Analysis of General Job Satisfaction Scores
(n = 225).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>F-prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>460.42</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>67.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>528.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in the equation</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall organizational effectiveness</td>
<td>6.063</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>5.785</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration (LBDQ)</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>3.827</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation of structure (LBDQ)</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>1.369</td>
<td>0.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses taught</td>
<td>-0.948</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
<td>-1.004</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.449</td>
<td>0.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>1.165</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from hometown</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>-0.389</td>
<td>0.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>0.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational preparation</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.166</td>
<td>0.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>-0.015</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.992</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Multiple R = 0.527, R² = 0.278, constant = 30.06.

*Significant contributor to the model.
Table 28

Multiple Regression Analysis of Intrinsic Satisfaction Scores
(n = 225).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>F-prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>175.0</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>211.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variables in the equation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall organizational</td>
<td>3.113</td>
<td>1.263</td>
<td>4.073</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effectiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation of structure (LBDQ)</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>2.314</td>
<td>0.022*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration (LBDQ)</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>2.363</td>
<td>0.019*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>0.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses taught</td>
<td>-0.659</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
<td>-0.958</td>
<td>0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>1.222</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>1.068</td>
<td>0.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>-0.653</td>
<td>-0.062</td>
<td>-0.612</td>
<td>0.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td>0.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>0.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational preparation</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from hometown</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.947</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Multiple R = 0.465, R^2 = 0.216, constant = 21.42.

*Significant contributor to the model.
Table 29
Multiple Regression Analysis of Extrinsic Satisfaction Scores
(n = 225)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>F-prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>104.28</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>11.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>115.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variables in the equation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall organizational effectiveness</td>
<td>2.904</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>6.692</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration (LBDQ)</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>5.477</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses taught</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>0.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from hometown</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>-0.076</td>
<td>-1.284</td>
<td>0.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>0.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation of structure (LBDQ)</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.730</td>
<td>0.466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>0.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational preparation</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td>0.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>-0.038</td>
<td>-0.284</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>0.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.992</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Multiple R = 0.581, R² = 0.337, constant = 7.407.

*a Significant contributor to the model.
Hypotheses

Six additional objectives were established for this study in the form of hypotheses. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were used to assess the relationships between job satisfaction and leader behavior of school principals and organizational effectiveness of schools. The interpretation of the correlation coefficients is based on the set of descriptors proposed by Best (1981), which were as follows: 0.00 - 0.19 — negligible or no relationship; 0.20 - 0.39 — low correlation; 0.40 - 0.59 — moderate correlation; 0.60 - 0.79 — substantial correlation; 0.80 - 1.00 — very high correlation. The alpha level was set a priori at 0.05. The correlation coefficients for the hypotheses are displayed in Table 30.
Table 30

Correlation Coefficients of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, Leader Behavior and Organizational Effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>INS</th>
<th>CONS</th>
<th>IPOE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic job satisfaction</td>
<td>$r=0.30^*$</td>
<td>$r=0.28^*$</td>
<td>$r=0.32^*$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n=210$</td>
<td>$n=213$</td>
<td>$n=212$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic job satisfaction</td>
<td>$r=0.17^*$</td>
<td>$r=0.41^*$</td>
<td>$r=0.47^*$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n=211$</td>
<td>$n=215$</td>
<td>$n=213$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. INS — Initiation of structure; CONS — consideration; IPOE — overall organizational effectiveness; $^*p < 0.05$.

Hypothesis One: There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

The correlation between intrinsic job satisfaction and the initiation of structure dimension of leader behavior of principals as perceived by vocational teachers was found to be $r = 0.30$ ($p = 0.001$), indicating a low positive relationship. This supported the hypothesis.
Hypothesis Two: There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers

The calculated coefficient was $r = 0.17$ ($p = 0.015$), indicating a significant, positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals as perceived by vocational teachers. The magnitude of this relationship was however, negligible. This was also in support of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis Three: There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of consideration of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers

The correlation between intrinsic job satisfaction and the consideration dimension of leader behavior of principals as perceived by vocational teachers was $r = 0.28$ ($p = 0.001$), indicating a low positive relationship and supporting the hypothesis.

Hypothesis Four: There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of consideration of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers
The correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction and the consideration dimension of leader behavior as perceived by teachers was $r = 0.41$ ($p = 0.001$), indicating a moderate positive relationship. This was also in support of the hypothesis.

**Hypothesis Five:** There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of schools by vocational teachers.

Regarding the correlation between intrinsic job satisfaction and the overall organizational effectiveness of the schools as perceived by the vocational teachers, a coefficient correlation of $r = 0.32$ ($p = 0.001$) was obtained, indicating a low positive relationship. This was also in support of the hypothesis.

**Hypothesis Six:** There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of schools by vocational teachers.

The obtained coefficient was $r = 0.47$ ($p = 0.001$), indicating a moderate positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the overall organizational effectiveness of the schools as perceived by vocational
teachers. This also indicated results in support of the hypothesis.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationships among job satisfaction of vocational teachers in Malaysia and their perceptions of leader behavior of principals and organizational effectiveness of schools. This study was also intended to measure associations and differences between nine selected social and demographic variables job satisfaction of the vocational teachers. The objectives were as follows:

1. To measure the job satisfaction of vocational teachers in Malaysia.
2. To measure the leader behavior of vocational school principals in Malaysia, as perceived by vocational teachers.
3. To measure the organizational effectiveness of vocational schools in Malaysia, as perceived by vocational teachers.
4. To determine if significant differences existed among selected social and demographic variables for teachers -- ethnicity, gender, marital status, courses taught, educational preparation and their levels of job satisfaction -- and to identify the
relationships between qualifications, teaching experience, salary, distance from their hometowns and their job satisfaction.

5. To determine if a significant explanatory model existed for job satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire from factors of leader behavior, organizational effectiveness and the selected social and demographic variables.

The hypotheses of the study were as follows:

1. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

2. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

3. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of consideration of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.

4. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of consideration of leader behavior of principals by vocational teachers.
5. There will be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of vocational schools by vocational teachers.

6. There will be a positive relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the perceptions of organizational effectiveness of vocational schools by vocational teachers.

The target population for the study was vocational teachers in the 36 vocational schools in West Malaysia. A simple random sample of 250 teachers was selected, of whom 225 responded, resulting in a response rate of 90 percent.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)-long form was used to measure the job satisfaction of vocational teachers, while the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE) were utilized to determine the leader behavior and organizational effectiveness of schools, respectively. A researcher-designed questionnaire containing nine social and demographic variables was also included as part of the study.

Summary

The large majority of the 225 teachers responding were Malays (181 or 80.5%), while Chinese, Indians, and others
made up the rest. Male teachers also constituted the majority of the respondents (186 or 82.7%), and a large proportion of the respondents were married (158 or 70.9%). Teachers of engineering trades formed the majority group (166 or 74.4%), which is reflective of the total vocational program. A majority of the teachers, (186 or 83.0%) possessed teacher certificates as the highest level of education completed. Only 14 (6.3 %) of them possessed either diplomas or degrees.

In addition, about one-fourth (55 or 24.4%) of them had received some of their preservice or inservice training outside Malaysia. Japan (25 or 45.5%) was most cited among the countries attended by the teachers, followed by England (12 or 21.8%). About one-third of the teachers (74 or 33.0%) had less than five years of teaching experience, followed closely by those with ten to 14 years of teaching experience (67 or 29.9%), and five to nine years of teaching experience (62 or 27.7%). Slightly more than two-thirds of the teachers (152 or 69.1%) had a monthly income of between $501 to $1000 ringgit per month, while one quarter (58 or 26.4%) had an income of more than $1000 ringgit per month. Teachers teaching in schools located 50 kilometers or less from their hometowns formed the majority (136 or 62.7%).
Objective One

The first objective was to measure the job satisfaction of the vocational teachers. The vocational teachers in Malaysia seemed to have a low level of general job satisfaction when compared with the established norm group employed non-disabled (Weiss, et al., 1967). It should be noted, however, that this norm group has not been demonstrated to be specifically appropriate for use with data collected outside of the United States. The five areas with which they appeared to be least satisfied were advancement, compensation, social status, school policies and practices and supervision-technical. Their satisfaction was highest in the areas of moral values, coworker relationships, job security, ability utilization and social service. The teachers' level of intrinsic satisfaction was significantly higher than that of their extrinsic satisfaction, which is indicative of the dichotomous nature of factors affecting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of respondents.

Objective Two

The second objective was to measure the leader behavior of the vocational school principals as perceived by the vocational teachers. School principals were classified by a large group of teachers (72 or 34.3%) as displaying low
levels in both initiation of structure and consideration dimensions of leader behaviors.

**Objective Three**

The third objective was to measure the organizational effectiveness of the vocational schools as perceived by the vocational teachers. The overall organizational effectiveness of the schools as perceived by the teachers appeared to be moderate, as its obtained mean (25.20) fell at the moderate category of the IPOE scale. The mean scores of the five dimensions of the IPOE -- quantity, quality, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility -- also fell at the moderate category. The quantity and efficiency dimensions had the two lowest scores.

**Objective Four**

The fourth objective was to determine whether significant differences existed in the job satisfaction of Malaysian vocational teachers of different ethnic groups, gender, marital status, educational preparation and teaching assignment. This objective was also intended to determine if relationships existed between teachers' qualifications, teaching experience, salary, distance from hometowns and job satisfaction. Teaching experience was found to be significantly related to the intrinsic job satisfaction of
teachers, however, the magnitude of the correlations was determined to be negligible ($r = 0.17$).

Objective Five

The fifth objective was to determine if a significant explanatory model existed for job satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire from factors of leader behavior, organizational effectiveness, and the selected social and demographic variables.

Multiple Regression Analysis with simultaneous entry of the variables was used for this purpose. The overall perceived organizational effectiveness and consideration dimension of leader behavior were found to be significant predictors in general and extrinsic job satisfaction models which accounted respectively for 27.8 percent and 33.7 percent of the explained variances. As for explaining 21.6 percent of the variance in the intrinsic job satisfaction model, the overall perceived organizational effectiveness, initiation of structure, and consideration dimension of leader were the three key predictors.

All six hypotheses tested at the 0.05 probability level were supported.
Hypothesis One

There was a positive and low relationship ($r = 0.30$) between intrinsic job satisfaction of vocational teachers and initiation of structure of leader behavior of principals.

Hypothesis Two

The relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and the initiation of structure of leader behavior was also found to be positive but at a negligible correlation coefficient ($r = 0.17$).

Hypothesis Three

There was also a positive and low correlation coefficient ($r = 0.28$) between intrinsic job satisfaction and consideration of leader behavior.

Hypothesis Four

A positive and moderate relationship ($r = 0.41$) between extrinsic job satisfaction and consideration of leader behavior was found.
Hypothesis Five

The relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and the organizational effectiveness of the schools was found to be positive and low ($r = 0.32$).

Hypothesis Six

The relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness of the schools was also found to be a positive and moderate relationship ($r = 0.47$). It achieved the highest coefficient correlation among the six hypotheses tested in this study.

Conclusions and Discussion

Based on the findings of the study, conclusions and discussions were developed. Implications for practice and research were also indicated.

Vocational teachers in Malaysia seemed to possess a low level of general job satisfaction when compared with the established norm group employed non-disabled (Weiss et al., 1967). It should be noted, however, that this norm group has not been demonstrated to be specifically appropriate for use with data collected outside of the United States. This conclusion is based on the obtained general satisfaction mean score of 67.0, which fell at the 13.3. Scores at or below the 25th percentile are considered to be indicative of
a low level of satisfaction. In addition, almost two-thirds of the respondents (141 or 65.0%) had general satisfaction scores of 71 (25th percentile) and below.

Earlier studies have shown low levels of job satisfaction to be related to low job performance (Korman, 1968; Ivancevich, 1978 and Porter and Lawler, 1968) and a lack of organizational commitment (Bame, 1974; Kongchan, 1986 and Mottaz, 1987). If one applies these associations to the setting of this study, the job performance and organizational commitment of vocational teachers in Malaysia might be in question.

Vocational teachers were least satisfied with the following job aspects: advancement, compensation, social status, school policies and practices, and supervision-technical, all of which are extrinsic in nature. In another related study involving Malaysian university instructors, Haji Hashim (1986) revealed that the extrinsic as well as the intrinsic aspects were responsible for their least satisfying factors. Contrary to this study, Othman (1980) did not indicate advancement and compensation as factors that least satisfied Malaysian public school teachers. Nevertheless, vocational teachers were most satisfied with moral values, coworkers, security, ability utilization, and social service, all of which are intrinsic in nature.
This study also revealed that overall satisfaction with intrinsic factors was significantly higher than with extrinsic factors. According to Hill (1986-87), such a result is an indication of the dichotomous nature of factors affecting respondents' satisfaction, which is in agreement with the aspect of Herzberg's M-H Two-Factor Theory (1959) suggesting that separate and distinct factors influence job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. This conclusion also lends support to previous studies in vocational education, such as those of Hadaway (1979), Grady (1985) and Hilton (1986) with regard to the dichotomous nature of factors influencing job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

As regards to methodology, the present study, which involved a single occupation, used a survey or poll-type questionnaire, adopting a direct enquiry method. Locke's (1973) study, however, adopted semi-structured interviews accompanied by an indirect method of enquiring into respondents' satisfaction. Kalleberg used a secondary analysis of data of employees of several occupational groups, and he also conducted interviews of respondents. He measured job satisfaction as the interplay between one's job values and work rewards.

The school principals seemed to display low levels in both initiation of structure and consideration dimensions of leader behavior. This is based on the findings that the
principals were perceived by a largest group of teachers (72 or 34.3%) to be low in both dimensions of leader behavior. These findings are similar to previous results by Ahmad (1981), who reported elementary school principals in Malaysia were also low in both dimensions of leader behavior. That principals exhibiting low levels in both dimensions as perceived by the teachers was also in agreement with the finding of this study that teachers had the lowest job satisfaction scores in the dimension of technical supervision, which involves technical know-how, decision making, delegation, help and guidance.

Many studies have used teachers' perceptions and judgment as useful sources from which inferences can be drawn relative to the nature of school leadership. Moreover, their perceptions are not different from those of their principals in assessing school leadership (Brown, 1967).

Thus, the low levels in both dimensions of leader behavior derived from teachers' perceptions in this study lead the researcher to conclude that a large number of principals do not have much capacity to initiate, organize, and define work to be done and the manner in which it will be done. Also, they lack consideration in fulfilling the teachers' interests, needs, and welfare.
It is also evident that low levels of job satisfaction among vocational teachers is well substantiated with low levels of both initiating structure and consideration dimensions of principals' leader behaviors. Thus, this study provided additional support to earlier studies that found a positive relationship between these two dimensions of principals' leader behaviors and teachers' job satisfaction (Blase et al., 1986; Jang, 1988; Kim, 1986; Konto, 1987 and Roberts, 1984).

According to Blase et al. (1986), a situation where school principals exhibit low levels of leader behavior, particularly in initiation of structure, would also result in low performance among teachers. Thus, the result of this study that indicated low levels in both dimensions of principals' leader behaviors would imply low performance among vocational teachers, which in turn would impede the overall organizational effectiveness of future programs. Moreover, principals deficient in both dimensions would also not be effective in getting teachers to comply willingly with their directives (Kunz and Hoy, 1976). Hence, it is a challenge for decision makers to orient principals to take more initiative and be more considerate in order to increase teacher performance and also to foster rule compliance among teachers, which would enhance the future progress of vocational programs in Malaysia.
The level of overall organizational effectiveness of vocational schools as perceived by the teachers seemed to be moderate. This conclusion is based on the findings that the obtained means of all the five dimensions of the IPOE and the overall organizational effectiveness (25.20) fell in the moderate category on the scale. If teachers' perceptions were accurate, then vocational schools operating at the mediocre level are insufficient to meet the challenge and demand of the labor market of a country like Malaysia, which is in the midst of industrialization. Thus, there is also a need for decision makers to look into the running of school organization.

Of the nine social and demographic variables tested, only years of teaching experience showed a significant and positive relationship with intrinsic job satisfaction ($r = 0.17$, $p = 0.01$). Even though there is a likelihood that experienced teachers are more satisfied in the intrinsic features of the job than less experienced ones, the practical significance is negligible, since the magnitude of the correlation coefficient is small. Unlike this study, Othman's (1980) found significant differences in job satisfaction among public high school teachers of different races, qualifications, teaching experience, and salary. His study, like the present one, failed to find a significant difference in job satisfaction between male and female
teachers. Haji Hashim (1986) found, as did this study, positive relationship between teaching experience and job satisfaction of Malaysian university instructors. His study, however, revealed positive relationship between salary and job satisfaction. Nevertheless, he too did not get significant differences in job satisfaction among teachers of different sexes, marital status and qualifications.

Salary has been shown to make a difference in the job satisfaction of Malaysian university instructors (Haji Hashim, 1986) and public high school teachers (Othman, 1980). As vocational teachers of different subject matter areas are placed at different salary schemes, it was expected that they would also differ in their level of job satisfaction. Such was not the case. Another anticipated outcome that failed to be confirmed is that teachers who have undergone training outside their home country would tend to be more job-satisfied than those who were trained locally (Quitugua, 1975). This was also not the case with Malaysian teachers who have undergone training in foreign countries. It was also expected that working near one's hometown would give more convenience and comfort that make one's working life more satisfying (Barnowe et al., as cited by Locke, 1976). This contention, too, did not hold true among vocational teachers in Malaysia. Thus, sending
teachers for further training outside Malaysia or placing them at schools near their hometowns, hoping that they will be more satisfied, does not make a difference, as based on the results of this study. Since the sociodemographics have negligible or no relationships to all three aspects of their satisfaction, efforts to promote teachers' job attitude should be focused primarily on non-personal factors, such as in the areas of organization and leadership.

The variables tested in this study enable a prediction of 33.7 percent of the explained variance in extrinsic satisfaction, followed by 27.8 percent and 21.6 percent of explained variances in general and intrinsic satisfaction, respectively. Among the variables, the perceived overall organizational effectiveness was found to be the most important explanatory variable predicting all three aspects of job satisfaction of teachers. Consideration of leader behavior came second in importance in explaining their general and extrinsic satisfaction and third in predicting intrinsic satisfaction. Initiation of structure of leader behavior came second to overall organizational effectiveness in explaining intrinsic satisfaction.

Several conclusions can be derived from the above results. Teachers' satisfaction with the extrinsic rewards provided by the school organization can be enhanced by making schools more effective in their functioning as well
as having school principals who are concerned with teachers' needs, interests, and welfare. Teachers will also be satisfied in general if they see that their schools are effective and that the principals are concerned with their needs, interests, and welfare.

An effective school organization also helps to make teachers' jobs more intrinsically interesting and challenging. Their intrinsic satisfaction can also be enhanced if principals are more involved in initiating, organizing, and defining work to be done and the manner in which it is to be done. Also, principals should show more for teachers through expressing appreciation for their work and interest in their pursuit of self-esteem, self-actualization, and other higher-order needs.

Organizational effectiveness of schools and the leader behaviors of school principals should also be great concern as they exhibited significant effects or influence toward teachers' general, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction as found in this study.

The influence of organizational effectiveness on job satisfaction found in this study is in line with general propositions advocated by Locke (1969), Campbell et al. (1973) and Steers (1977). It is also in support of more recent studies by Gunn and Holdaway (1986) and Schulz (1987).
All six hypotheses tested regarding the relationships between perceived leader behavior of principals and organizational effectiveness of schools and both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction revealed positive correlations. The following conclusions were derived from the hypotheses.

1. Teachers who had higher perceived levels of initiation of the structure dimension of principals' leader behavior tended to have higher levels of intrinsic job satisfaction. In other words, when principals are perceived by their teachers as more involved in initiating, organizing and defining work to be done and more involved in the manner in which the work is to be done, the teachers tend to be more satisfied with job content, e.g., find it more intrinsically interesting and challenging. This conclusion is supported by the findings from the first hypothesis, which showed a positive relationship ($r = 0.30, p = 0.001$) between intrinsic job satisfaction and initiating structure of leader behavior.

2. Teachers who had higher perceived levels of initiation of the structure dimension of
principals' leader behavior tended to have higher levels of extrinsic job satisfaction. This means that when principals are perceived by their teachers as more involved in initiating, organizing and defining work to be done and more involved in the manner in which the work is to be done, the teachers tended to be more satisfied with work context, e.g., conditions surrounding their work or with organizational rewards provided by the school. This is based on the findings from second hypothesis, which indicated a positive relationship ($r = 0.17$, $p = 0.015$) between extrinsic job satisfaction and initiation of structure dimension of leader behavior.

3. Teachers who had higher perceived levels of the consideration dimension of principals' leader behavior also tended to have higher levels of intrinsic job satisfaction. This means that when principals are perceived by their teachers as friendly and warm, coupled with better mutual understanding, trust and respect, the teachers' work tends to be more intrinsically interesting and challenging. This is based on the findings from the third hypothesis, which indicated a positive relationship ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.001$) between
intrinsic job satisfaction and consideration dimension of leader behavior.

4. Teachers who had higher perceived levels of the consideration dimension of principals' leader behavior also tended to have higher levels of extrinsic job satisfaction. When principals are perceived by their teachers as friendly, warm, trustworthy and respectful, the teachers tend to be more satisfied with the work context or rewards provided by the organization. This conclusion is based on the findings from the fourth hypothesis, which revealed a positive relationship ($r = 0.41$, $p = 0.001$) between extrinsic job satisfaction and consideration of leader behavior.

5. Teachers who had higher perceptions of the overall organizational effectiveness of their schools tended to have higher levels of intrinsic job satisfaction. The more effective the schools are perceived to be by the teachers, the more satisfied the teachers will be with the job content, i.e., an effective school organization will also make teachers' work more intrinsically interesting and challenging. This is based on the results of the fifth hypothesis, which indicated a positive relationship ($r = 0.32$, $p = 0.001$) between
intrinsic job satisfaction and the overall organizational effectiveness of the schools.

6. Teachers who had higher perceptions of the overall organizational effectiveness of their schools also tended to have higher levels of extrinsic job satisfaction. The more effective the schools are perceived to be by the teachers, the more satisfied the teachers will be with the conditions surrounding their work or with organizational rewards provided by the school. This conclusion is derived from the findings of the sixth hypothesis, which showed a positive relationship ($r = 0.47$, $p = 0.001$) between the extrinsic job satisfaction and the overall organizational effectiveness of the schools.

One interesting point to note is that the hypotheses, which were developed based primarily on studies in developed Western countries, provide support to findings in a developing country like Malaysia in an Eastern socio-cultural setting. Thus, Malaysian teachers perceive leader behaviors and organizational effectiveness in a manner similar to individuals in Western countries in relation to their job satisfaction.
Recommendations for Practice

The findings of this study led the researcher to suggest that efforts should be focused on the training of vocational teachers to enhance teachers' intrinsic facets of their job. These strategies, which may include both job enlargement and enrichment as well as other task-focused approaches, are aimed at developing more meaningful, challenging, and interesting jobs, thereby increasing the level of intrinsic rewards. It may be also a worthwhile effort to expose teachers to a greater number and wider variety of enriched activities, such as involvement in the technical specification and evaluation of equipment, internship supervision, examination panels, contest judging, inservice courses, curriculum development, and project evaluation. Giving teachers more autonomy in the selection of instructional materials and in work scheduling are possible steps, too.

This study also suggests that leader behaviors of school principals should be improved, as they were perceived to have low levels in both dimensions of leader behavior by the largest group of teachers. Furthermore, teachers' satisfaction was significantly influenced by leader behaviors of their principals. These conclusions led the researcher to suggest that training workshops should be organized for the school principals to enhance their human
relations, interpersonal skills, technical know-how, and problem-solving skills.

Sensitivity training, which focuses on human relations and interpersonal skills of individuals, can provide an opportunity for principals to learn about themselves and how their behaviors impact others. Role playing is also suggested, to place individuals in a problem situation involving social interactions with people from different organizational positions. To increase principals' technical know-how, in areas such as, instructional leadership, motivational techniques, curriculum development, and teaching methods, programmed instruction is suggested, in addition to normal lectures and seminars. Programmed instruction is a technique that provides a detailed step-by-step sequence of materials that emphasizes constant feedback. Principals' problem solving skills should be improved through case studies and panel discussions.

Most important of all, the policy makers and administrators should direct their attention primarily toward improving the perceived organizational effectiveness of the schools, since this factor was the most significant explanatory factor in predicting all three job satisfaction models. The results for five dimensions of the IPOE, which indicated moderate levels of effectiveness, imply that further improvement in this aspect is needed, particularly
in the dimensions of quantity and efficiency, which had the two lowest mean scores. With respect to the quantity dimension, it may be a possible measure for vocational school staff to spend more time, manpower and other resources to increase their output, such as students' classroom and extra-mural activities, community projects, instructional materials, etc. In addition, exposing them to time and resource management principles and methods through workshops and seminars may be a worthwhile measure to help improve their efficiency.

Recommendations for Further Research

The limitations of the present study enabled a prediction of only a maximum of 33.7 percent and a minimum of 21.6 percent of the explained variances in the extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction of teachers. Social and demographic variables were also found to have no influence on teachers' satisfaction in this study. This suggests that more organizational and non-personal variables should be explored, such as school bureaucracy, school climate, and political or religious affiliations/groups in order to explain as much variance as possible in job satisfaction of teachers in future studies.

Because job satisfaction is related to teachers' performance and commitment as revealed in some studies, it
is suggested that future research should also identify the relationships of these factors in the Malaysian context, since these two variables are crucial to the progress of vocational schools in Malaysia.

This study explored two major dimensions of leader behavior as measured by the LBDQ. Future research should explore and determine specific areas of leader behavior in which school principals are deficient. For this purpose, the LBDQ-form XII, which has 12 dimensions of leader behavior, is recommended. Knowing how principals' behaviors affect teachers' satisfaction, and also identifying their deficiencies, would help staff development for both school principals and teachers to be more effective.

This study revealed general indicators of effectiveness of school organization. More in-depth studies should be conducted to explore in what key problem areas schools are likely to be deficient. Knowing specific areas of school deficiencies will help decision makers improve school outcomes.

Qualitative methods, such as in-depth interviews and observations would be worthwhile methodology to be adopted in the future in an attempt to explore teachers' affective reactions toward their work.
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May, C. R. (1986). Job satisfaction of chief administrative officers of teacher education programs


THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN MALAYSIA, 1984.

AGE

- PRIMARY
  6 7 8 9 10 11
- LOWER SECONDARY
  12 13 14 15
- UPPER SECONDARY
  15 16 17
- FORM SIX
  17 18 19
- HIGHER EDUCATION
  19 & ABOVE

NATIONAL SCHOOL
1 2 3 4 5 6
ACADEMIC

NATIONAL TYPE CHINESE SCHOOL
1 2 3 4 5 6
ACADEMIC

NATIONAL TYPE TAMIL SCHOOL
1 2 3 4 5 6
VOCATIONAL

KEY:
- R REMOVE CLASS
- LOWER CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION
- MALAYSIAN CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION
- MALAYSIAN CERTIFICATE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
- MALAYSIAN HIGHER SCHOOL CERTIFICATE

MATRICULATION/FOREIGN UNIVERSITIES

HIGHER EDUCATION

LOWER UPPER UNIVERSITIES

COLLEGES EMPLOYMENT

ACADEMIC

TECHNICAL
Appendix B

NEW COURSE STRUCTURE

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<tr>
<td>1. Engineering trades -- specializations</td>
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<td>electrical installation and maintenance, fitting and machining sheetmetal work and welding radio tv and electronic servicing woodworking and building construction air conditioning and refrigeration motor mechanics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Commerce -- specializations</td>
<td>21 27 48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>office management business management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Agriculture -- specializations</td>
<td>21 27 48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ornamental horticulture farm mechanization farm management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Home science -- specializations</td>
<td>21 29 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catering fashion design and dress making beauty culture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Number of classes per week for general subjects: Malaysian language (5), English language (4) mathematics (5), general science (5), religious studies (3) citizenry (2), geography (3), history (3), drawing (2). Home science majors substitute history for geography. Drawing for home science majors only.
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These consist of pages:

197-199, Appendix C
Appendix D

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies

Name of Leader Being Described ______________________
Name of Group Which He/She Leads ______________________
Your Name _______________________________________

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "group," as employed in the following items, refers to department, division, or other unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members," refers to all people in the unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

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The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43210

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DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

1. Does personal favors for group members
2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.
3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.
4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group.
5. Acts as the real leader of the group.
6. Is easy to understand.
7. Rules with an iron hand.
8. Finds time to listen to group members.
9. Criticizes poor work.
10. Gives advances notice of changes.
11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
12. Keeps to himself/herself.
13. Looks out for the personal welfare of the individual group members.

14. Assign group members to particular tasks.

15. Is the spokesperson of the group.

16. Schedules work to be done.


18. Refuses to explain his/her actions.

19. Keeps the group informed.

20. Acts without consulting the group.

21. Backs up the members in their actions.

22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.

23. Treats all group members as his/her equals.

24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.

25. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors.

26. Is willing to make changes.

27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by group members.

28. Is friendly and approachable.

29. Asks the group members follow standards and regulations.

30. Fails to take necessary action.

31. Makes group members feels at ease when talking with them.

32. Lets group members know what is expected of them.
33. Speaks as the representative of the group.  
34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation.  
35. Sees to it that group members are working up to the capacity.  
36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group.  
37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.  
38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.  
39. Sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.  
40. Keeps the group working together as a team.
Every educator produces something during work. It may be a "product" or a "service." The following list of products and services are just a few of the things that result from schools:

Lesson plans  Student learning
Community projects  Instruction
New curricula  Teacher-parent meetings
Athletic achievements  Art and music programs

Please indicate your responses by checking the appropriate line for each item:

1. Of the various things produced by the people you know in your school, how MUCH are they producing?
   - Low production
   - Fairly Low
   - Moderate
   - High
   - Very high production

2. How good is the QUALITY of the products or services produced by the people you know in the school?
   - Poor quality
   - Low quality
   - Fair quality
   - Good quality
   - Excellent quality

3. Do the people in your school get maximum output from the available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)? That is, how EFFICIENTLY do they do their work?
   - Not efficiently
   - Not too efficiently
   - Fairly efficiently
   - Very efficiently
   - Extremely efficiently

4. How good a job is done by the people in your schools in ANTICIPATING problems and preventing them from occurring or minimizing the effects?
   - A poor job
   - An adequate Job
   - A fair job
   - A very good job
   - An excellent job
5. How INFORMED are the people in your school about innovations that could affect the way they do their work?

_____ Uninformed _____ Moderately informed
_____ Somewhat informed _____ Informed
_____ Very informed

6. When changes are made in the methods, routines or equipment, how QUICKLY do the people in your school accept and adjust to the changes?

_____ Very slowly _____ Fairly rapidly
_____ Rather rapidly _____ Rapidly
_____ Immediately

7. How MANY of the people in your school readily accept and adjust to the changes?

_____ Many less than half _____ The majority
_____ Less than half _____ Many more than half
_____ Nearly everyone

8. How good a job do the people in your school do in COPING with emergencies and disruptions?

_____ A poor job _____ A fair job
_____ An adequate job _____ A good job
_____ An excellent job
Appendix F

Please provide background information as requested below. Your name will not be associated with the data in any way during data analyses. This information will help us to analyze your responses.

Please circle the number or fill in the space where appropriate, corresponding to your response.

I. RACE II. GENDER

1. Malay 1. Male
2. Chinese 2. Female
3. Indian
4. Others specify,  

III. MARITAL STATUS IV. COURSE TAUGHT

1. Single 1. Engineering trades
2. Married 2. Commerce
3. Widow/widower 3. Home science
4. Divorced 4. Agriculture

V. QUALIFICATIONS

1. Less than teacher certificate
2. Teacher certificate
3. Diploma
4. Bachelor degree
5. Master and above

VI. Has any of your educational preparation (preservice and/or inservice) been outside of Malaysia? YES or NO. If yes; in what country(ies)? and how long in each country?

Country(ies) Duration (months)

VII. How long have you been in the teaching profession?  

_____ years.

VIII. What is your total salary per month derived from teaching?  

_____ ringgit.
X. How far is the school from your home town? _____ kilometers.
February 23, 1988

Ahmad Mohd. Sharif  
3550 Nicholson Drive #1104  
Baton Rouge, LA 70802  

Dear Mr. Sharif:

We are pleased to grant you permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Long Form, 1977) in your research. We acknowledge receipt of payment for 300 copies of the instrument.

Vocational Psychology Research is currently in the process of revising the MSQ manual and it is very important that we receive copies of the research study results in order to construct new norm tables. Therefore, we would appreciate receiving a copy of your results including: 1) demographic data of respondents, including age, education level, occupation and job tenure; and 2) response statistics including scale means, standard deviations, Hoyt reliability coefficients and standard error of measurement. If your tests are scored by us, we will already have the information detailed in item #2.

Your providing this information will be an important and valuable contribution to the new MSQ manual. If you have any questions concerning this request, please feel free to call me at 612-625-1367.

Good luck with your research. If you have any questions, or if we can be of any additional assistance, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely,

Gloria J. Randahl  
Assistant Director  
Vocational Psychology Research
March 8, 1988

Mr. Ahmad M. Sharif
3550 Nicholson Dr. #1104
Baton Rouge, LA 70802

Dear Mr. Sharif:

You have our permission to use the LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE for your doctoral study to measure the leader behavior of the school principals as perceived by the teachers.

Please follow the guidelines listed in the attached Statement of Policy.

Sincerely yours,

Barbara L. Roach
Director

BLR
ahr
Appendix I

Professor Cecil Miskel
College of Graduate Education
University of Utah
235 Mallon Pennion Hall
Salt Lake City, UT 84112

Feb. 10, 1987

Dear Prof. Miskel,

First of all I would like to introduce you that, currently, I am pursuing doctoral program in Vocational education at Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge. I will be presenting my dissertation proposal at the end of this semester.


It is requested that is it possible for me to use the instrument for my studies with your consent? If it is O.K. can I obtain from you the IPOE manual. I agree to pay any charge for the manual. I appreciate very much if I could get an immediate reply from you. Your help is much needed. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Ahmad Shaird
3750 Nicholson Dr. 1104
Baton Rouge, LA 70802.
Phone: 1-504-344-7333

[Handwritten note]

Dear Mr. Shaird,

You have my permission to use the IPOE. There is no charge. While the manual was developed for the measure, the enclosed paper might be of help to you.

Cecil Miskel
Appendix J

Cover Letter

To:

---------------
Technical & Vocational Education
Division,
Ministry of Education,
Pusat Bandar Damansara,
50604 Kuala Lumpur.

March 17, 1988

As most of us know, our vocational education programs have been expanding rapidly within the past two decades as reflected in the growing number of schools being built, and the number of staff being sent for further training. New curriculum is also being implemented. Above those, we are now in the era of new vocational education system. Teachers are the key personnel in diverting the efforts toward the successful implementation of the curricular changes and the overall effectiveness of the new education system.

In light of these, I would like to take this opportunity to conduct a study entitled, "Leader Behavior, Organizational Effectiveness, and Job Satisfaction of Vocational Teachers in Malaysia." The main purpose of this study is to measure the job satisfaction of teachers, besides exploring the influence of their perceptions of leader behavior and organizational effectiveness of the schools toward their job satisfaction. Information from this study will be used as inputs by administrators, teachers, and other education personnel to further improve the development of vocational programs in the future.

You are one of the very few teachers in this country who have been selected to participate in this study. I would appreciate very much, if you could spare a few minutes of your precious time to complete the questionnaires, and return them in the enclosed, self-addressed stamped envelope. Your prompt reply is highly regarded. All replies will be held in strict confidence, and will be treated as grouped data.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely

Ahmad Mohd. Sharif
First Reminder Letter

To:

----------------- Technical & Vocational Education
----------------- Division,
---------------- Ministry of Education,
----------------- Pusat Bandar Damansara,
----------------- 50604, Kuala Lumpur.


A few days ago, you were mailed questionnaires designed to obtain opinions about your job. You are one of the few in the country to participate in my study, "Leader Behavior, Organizational Effectiveness, and Job Satisfaction of Vocational Teachers in Malaysia."

To this date, we have received many responses; however, we have not received yours. Your opinions and input are crucial to the success of my study.

Therefore, if you have not attended the questionnaires, would you please take a few minutes of your time today to complete and return them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Thank you for your cooperation and interest.

Sincerely,

Ahmad Mohd. Sharif.
Appendix L

Second Reminder Letter

To:_________________
Technical & Vocational Education
Division,
Ministry of Education,
Pusat Bandar Damansara,
50604 Kuala Lumpur.


A few weeks ago, you were mailed questionnaires designed to obtain opinions about your job, and followed by a reminder letter approximately two weeks thereafter. I feel that the questionnaires did not reach you or you were just busy to look into the questionnaires.

I enclosed here again the four questionnaires -- The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness, and a questionnaire requesting on teacher's background.

It would be a great help for my study if you could spare few minutes of your time completing and returning the enclosed questionnaires in the self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Thank you again for your cooperation and interest.

Sincerely

Ahmad Mohd. Sharif.
Appendix M

Third Reminder Letter

To:

------------------ Technical & Vocational Education
------------------ Division,
------------------ Ministry of Education,
------------------ Pusat Bandar Damansara,
------------------ 50604 Kuala Lumpur.

May 10, 1988

This is our fourth letter to you requesting you help us in measuring your job satisfaction.

As we stated earlier, your input is vital to make the success of my study.

Please complete the enclosed questionnaires today, and return them to us in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely

Ahmad Mohd. Sharif.
Appendix N

Factor Analysis of 100-MSQ Item Producing Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors of Job Satisfaction

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<td>.518</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>13</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix O

Varimax Rotation of 100-item MSQ by Principal Factor Analysis Producing Eight Factors

Factor 1: TASK AND VALUE DIMENSIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item nos.</th>
<th>Subscales and items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subscale: Ability utilization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Chance to do the kind of work I do best</td>
<td>.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Chance to do work well suited to my abilities</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Chance to make use of my abilities</td>
<td>.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>Chance to do something to use of my abilities</td>
<td>.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87.</td>
<td>Chance to use of my abilities and skills</td>
<td>.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a*26.</td>
<td>Chance to tell others how to do things</td>
<td>.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale: Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>To see the results the work I do</td>
<td>.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>To take pride in a job well done</td>
<td>.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>To do something worthwhile</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td>To do my best at all times</td>
<td>.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99.</td>
<td>Feeling of accomplishment I get from the job</td>
<td>.484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale: Social service</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>My job provides for steady employment</td>
<td>.557</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>To be of service to people</td>
<td>.635</td>
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<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Chance to help people</td>
<td>.578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td>To do things for other people</td>
<td>.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>To be of some small service to other people</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b*8.</td>
<td>Social position in the community</td>
<td>.423</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subscale: Creativity</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>To try out some of my ideas</td>
<td>.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>To do new and original things on my own</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>To try something different</td>
<td>.537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td>To develop new and better ways to do the job</td>
<td>.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
<td>To try my own methods of doing the job</td>
<td>.588</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subscale: Responsibility</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>To be responsible for planning my work</td>
<td>.569</td>
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<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>To make decisions on my own</td>
<td>.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>To be responsible for the work of others</td>
<td>.398</td>
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<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>Freedom to use my own judgement</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>97.</td>
<td>Responsibility of my job</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subscale: Variety</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Variety of my job</td>
<td>.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>To do different things from time to time</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
45. Routine of my work
65. To do something different every day
85. To do many different things on the job

Subscale: Moral values
3. To do the job without feeling morally wrong
23. To do things not against my religious beliefs
43. To do things not against my conscience
63. To do things that do no harm other people
83. To do the job without feeling I cheat someone

Subscale: Activity
20. To be active much of the time
40. To do something much of the time
60. Being able to stay busy
80. To be "on the go" all the time
100. Being able to keep busy all the time

Factor 2: SOCIAL DIMENSION

Subscale: Supervision-technical
10. Understanding between my supervisor and me
30. My boss handles his/her employees
50. My boss backs up his/her top management
70. My boss takes care of employees' complaints
90. Personal relationship between boss and workers

Subscale: Supervision-human
15. Technical know-how of my supervisor
35. Competence of my supervisor in decision making
55. My boss delegates work to others
75. My boss provides help on hard problems
95. My boss trains his/her employees

Subscale: Company policies and practices
9. Policies and practices toward employees
29. Administration of company policies
49. How informed the employees about policies
69. Company policies put into practice
89. The way company treats its employees

Subscale: Recognition
18. I am noticed when I do a good job
38. I get full credit for the work I do
58. Recognition I get from the work I do
78. They usually tell me when I do my job well
98. The praise I get from doing a good job
Factor 3: REWARD DIMENSION

Subscale: Compensation
12. The amount of pay for the work I do .703
32. Chance to make as much money as my friends .564
52. My pay compares with that in other companies .681
72. My pay and the amount of work I do .713
92. My pay compares with that of other workers .697

Subscale: Advancement
14. Opportunities for advancement on this job .574
34. Chances of getting ahead on this job .322
54. Promotions are given on this job .637
74. Chances of advancement on this job .649
94. Chances for advancement .640

Factor 4: STATUS AND AUTHORITY DIMENSION

Subscale: Status
b*8. Social position in the community .552
28. Chance to be somebody in the community .336
48. Chance to "rub elbows" with important people .336
68. Chance to be important in the eyes of others .578
88. Chance to have a definite place in community .472

Subscale: Authority
6. Chance people look for me for direction .385
a*26. Chance to tell others how to do things .422
46. Chance to supervise others .415
66. Chance to tell people what to do .437
86. Chance to tell others what to do .416

Factor 5: WORKING CONDITION DIMENSION

Subscale: Working conditions
13. Working conditions on this job .583
33. Physical surroundings where I work .761
53. Pleasantness of the working conditions .619
73. Physical working conditions of the job .693
93. Working conditions .588

Factor 6: SECURITY DIMENSION

Subscale: Security
11. My job security .525
31. My job provides for a secure future .559
51. My job provides for steady employment .718
71. How steady my job is .723
91. Layoffs and transfers are avoided .315
23. To do things not against my religious beliefs .373

Factor 7: COWORKER DIMENSION

Subscale: Coworker
16. Spirit of cooperation among co-workers .354
36. To develop close friendships with co-workers .596
56. Friendliness of my co-workers .549
76. The way co-workers are easy to friends with .711
96. The way co-workers get along with each other .665

Factor 8: INDEPENDENCE DIMENSION

Subscale: Independence
4. Chance to work for myself .558
24. Chance to work alone on the job .316
44. Chance to be alone on the job .583
f*64. Chance to work independently of others .561
e*60. Being able to stay busy .433

Note. Factor loadings less than .300 are arbitrarily ignored.
* Items loaded in two factors.
Ahmad is the second son of late Mr. Sharif, a small entrepreneur at Teluk Intan in the state of Perak. He received his earliest primary and secondary education at the Anglo-Chinese School in Kampar. He obtained his Diploma of Agriculture from the University of Agriculture, Malaysia, in 1972, and Certificate of Education from the University of Malaya, in 1973. His first appointment as an instructor was at the Secondary Vocational Agriculture School at Rembau, Negri Sembilan. After teaching for two years, he was transferred to Technical and Vocational Education Division (TAVED), Ministry of Education, as an organizer of agricultural education.

Three years later, he was offered a scholarship to pursue degree courses in the area of vocational education at Louisiana State University. After obtaining his Bachelor and Master degrees, he returned to serve TAVED as senior assistant director. Due to his outstanding service, the Malaysian government offered him another scholarship in 1985 to follow a doctoral program in the similar field at the same university.

His areas of responsibilities at the TAVED cover personnel management of principals and teachers of technical and vocational schools with respect to their recruitment,
appointment, promotion, and staff development. He also dealt with budgeting and funding of technical and vocational schools. He too, was involved in curriculum development and supervision of agricultural education.

He had also served as an assistant secretary of the Association of Senior Education Officers of Malaysia, a non-profit organization dealing with professional matters and welfare of teachers in the nation. During his student days at Louisiana State University, he was too active in a student organization; serving as president of the Malaysian Student Association for two terms.

Ahmad is happily married to Aisah Mohamad Som. He is blessed with one son, Mohammad Zulhelmi, aged 5, and two daughters, Nur Syazreen, and Nur Shahira, ages 4 years and 8 months, respectively.
Candidate: Ahmad Mohammad Sharif

Major Field: Vocational Education

Title of Dissertation: LEADER BEHAVIOR, ORGANIZATION EFFECTIVENESS AND JOB SATISFACTION OF VOCATIONAL TEACHERS IN MALAYSIA

Approved: 

Michael J. Burnett
Major Professor and Chairman

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

Richard C. Love

Charles W. Smith

Joe W. Kotulik

Gary E. Moore

Date of Examination: May 3, 1989