State School Principals’ Perceived Leadership Behaviors in Relation to English Language and Other Subject Area Teachers’ Job Satisfaction in TRNC

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This study was intended to determine the state school teachers’ perceptions of their school principal’s leadership behavior (consideration and initiating structure) in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) in relation to their job satisfaction levels. The study measured teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior through the responses they gave on the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). One the other hand, Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman job satisfaction scale was utilized to measure teachers expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

From a population of around 1550 school teachers, 837 randomly selected teachers were sent the questionnaire packages and 599 (N = 599, 274 form elementary, 325 from secondary schools) returned them. Thus, the return rate was 72%. With a sample size of 599 teachers 57% of all the teachers in TRNC were included in the study.

After the data was collected, teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels were determined through statistical analysis.

While examining the obtained data, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 18) was utilized to carry out statistical procedures. First, the perceived leadership behavior of school principals and teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction,
intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels were calculated as a whole. Then, a linear regression analysis was conducted to test whether a relationship existed between school teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ leadership behavior and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels. Since a relationship was found, the significance of this relationship was analyzed.

Analysis of data proved that there was a significantly positive relationship between school principals’ perceived consideration behavior and teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels and there was no significant relationship between school principals’ perceived initiation of structure behavior and teachers’ overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

Further analyses were carried out to examine in detail the difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and expressed job satisfaction levels. A significant difference was observed in both areas so school principals were interviewed to double check the validity of the findings. Elementary school principals were perceived to be less considerate and less initiating structure than secondary school principals, moreover, elementary school teachers expressed lower overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. School principals agreed with the findings stating the possibility that a difference could exist between elementary and secondary school teachers perceptions of their principals’ leadership behavior and expressed job satisfaction levels due to the fact that their conditions were quite different from each other.
Another area which was specifically dealt with was the difference between English language and other subject area teachers’ perceptions or their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels. The reason for doing so was the assumption that the English language teachers due to some peculiarities of their subject area would have different needs and expectations, thus, their job satisfaction levels would be affected if such needs and expectations were not met. No significant difference was found between the two. The reason for this could be the support the English language teachers receive from external institutions such as the British Council in Cyprus, the Cyprus Turkish English language teachers Association (CTELTA) and representatives of publishers.

**Key Words:** English language teachers, school principals, leadership, consideration, initiating structure, motivation, job satisfaction
ÖZ

Bu çalışma Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti’ndeki (KKTC) devlet okullarında görev yapmakta olan okul müdürlerinin önerlik tutum ve davranışları ile bu okullarda görev yapmakta olan öğretmenlerin iş doyumu düzeyleri arasında doğrudan bir ilişki olup olmadığını araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Çalışmada, öğretmenlerin okul müdürlerinin tutum ve davranışlarını betimleyişini ölçmek için Ohio State Üniversitesi tarafından 1957 yılında geliştirilmiş olan Lider Davranışı Betimleme Ölçeği (Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, LBDQ) ve yine öğretmenlerinin iş doyumu, içten güdülenmişlık ve dıştan güdülenmişlik düzeylerini ölçmek için de Mohrman, Cook, Mohrman İş Doyumu Ölçeği (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales, MCMJJS) kullanılmıştır.

Bu ölçekler, kişisel bilgileri içeren bir araçla birlikte, paket halinde, KKTC genelinde ilk ve orta öğretimde görev yapmakta olan 1550 civarındaki öğretmen den, yansız rastlantısal örneklemeye yöntemi ile seçilmiştir 837 öğretmen gönderilmiş ve KKTC genelindeki devlet okulu öğretmenlerinin %73’üne paket gönderilmiştir. Gönderilmiş olan paketlerden 599 tanesi geri gelmiştir. Böylece KKTC genelindeki öğretmenlerin %72 geri dönüş sağlamış ve KKTC genelindeki devlet okulu öğretmenlerinin %39’undan oluşan bir örneklem elde edilmiştir.

Bulguların analizi için Sosyal Bilimler İçin İstatistik Paketi (SPSS version18) programı kullanılmış ve bu işlemler sonucunda okul müdürlerinin öğretmenler tarafından
betimlenmiş olan önderlik tutum ve davranışlarının öğretmenlerin iş doyumu ile doğrudan ve anlamlı bir ilişkisi olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. İşlerin yapılmasını insan ilişkilerini iyi tutarak sağlamaya odaklanmış okul müdürleri ile çalışan öğretmenler daha yüksek iş doyumu bildirirken, yalnızca işlerin yürütülmesine odaklanmış ve insan ilişkilerini pek fazla önemsemeyen tutumların iş doyumuyla doğrudan ve anlamlı bir ilişkisi olmadığını göstermiştir.

Araştırma, öğretmenlerin, müdürlerinin liderlik davranışlarına yönelik algıları ve iş doyum düzeylerine genel bakışın yanı sıra, öğretmenlerin görev yaptıkları okul türünü (ilk ve orta dereceli okul) de dikkate almış ve bu iki tür okulda görev yapan öğretmenlerin algıları ve iş doyum düzeylerini karşılaştırılmıştır. İlköğretimde görev yapmaya olan öğretmenler müdürlerinin gerek insan ilişkileri gerekse iş odaklı tutumlarını, orta öğretimde görev yapan öğretmenlere nazaran daha düşük algılamakta, bunun yanı sıra iş doyum düzeylerini de daha düşük olarak ifade etmektedirler. İkisi arasında her iki alanda da anlamlı bir fark görüldüğünden, bulguların geçerliliğini artırmak üzere okul müdürleri ile yarı-yapılandırılmış ve rahat bir ortamda geçen bir mülakat yapılmıştır. Okul müdürleri, öğretmenlerin ifadelerinin doğru olabileceğini çünkü bu iki tür okul arasında, görev öğretmen ve öğrenci sayıları, görev öğrenci nitelikleri gerekse de müfredat uygulamaları açısından oldukça büyük farklılar olduğunu dile getirmişlerdir.

Ele alınan bir diğer konu ise, İngilizce öğretmenleri ve diğer konu alanı öğretmenlerinin okul müdürlerinin liderlik davranışlarını algılama ve iş doyum düzeyleri arasında bir fark olup olmadığını bulmuştur. Bunu ele almaktaki gerçekçe, hem konu alanı olarak İngilizce dersini

Anahtar Sözcükler: Okul müdürleri, liderlik (önderlik), insana yönelik, işe yönelik, motivasyon, iş doyumu
To my family
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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

LBDQ : Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

MCMJSS: Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales

TRNC : Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

SPSS : Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SSP : Secondary School Principal

ESP : Elementary School Principal

CTELTA : Cyprus Turkish English Language Teachers Association

ELT : English Language Teaching

EL : English Language
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The long history of leadership studies, beginning with the great-man theories focusing on personality traits of leaders led to research on personal, environmental, situational, behavioral and psychological factors influencing leadership. All genre in leadership since mid-twentieth century have investigated what made a leader behave in a certain way and how leader behavior influenced leader-member relationships, work process and productivity. They have all emphasized symbolic leader behavior such as work-oriented, people-oriented, transformational, transactional, visionary, inspirational, and so on and so forth. They have also stressed characteristics such as communicating, sharing, having positive emotions and moral values, giving individualized attention and intellectual stimulation. No matter what leadership style was defined or described, there was always a leader-member interaction which mutually affected each other. This study mainly focuses on leader-member relationships, namely leadership behavior and its relation to member job satisfaction in non-profit (educational) organizations.

There are many different meanings of leader and leadership given in different sources. For example The New Lexicon, Webster’s Encyclopedic Dictionary (1993) defines the world “leader” as “someone who acts as a guide; a directing head or chief” (p. 562). The New American Webster Handy Dictionary (1981), on the other hand, defines the word as “one who goes before as a guide; one who influences; one who directs or controls” (p.
Based on this fact, the term “leadership” was incorporated into the technical vocabulary in the field of management and administration without being clearly defined. Bennis (1959) agreed that leadership was an elusive concept and that it often appeared in other forms resulting in invention of endless proliferation of insufficient terms to deal with it. In 1997, Bennis and Nanus still claimed that the field still lacked a clear and unequivocal understanding to distinguish leaders from non-leaders and effective leaders from ineffective leaders.

The subject of leadership has been defined, analyzed and described from different perspectives, such as sociology, psychology, business, education, and so on, but generally there is a vague description of the relationship among these approaches. In such a plethora of definitions, however, there are recurring themes such as process, transaction, and context, which make it possible to come up with general constituents of leadership. Green (1988) mentioned four main elements of leadership as the leader, the followers, the relationship between them, and the context. He described leadership as “a process” and “a transaction” taking place between an individual leader and the followers. He added that this transaction took place in a given context that shaped the nature of the transaction (p. 3).

Some theorists viewed leadership as a process of influencing others; while others indicated it as a process of maintaining relations. Tucker (1984), combining both processes, defined leadership as “the ability to influence and motivate an individual or a group of individuals to work willingly toward a given goal or objective under a given
circumstance” (p. 41). According to Tucker, the term ‘leadership’ implied that where there was a leader there were one or more follower(s) who worked in collaboration for the accomplishment of the shared goal(s) or objective(s) and that the leader was in a position to influence the behaviors and attitudes of others in the process.

Moreover, stressing the relationship between the leader and the followers, Kouzes and Posner (1993) considered leadership to be a relationship, “… between constituent and leader that was based on mutual needs and interests” (p. 11). For Gardner (1986), this relationship was “a team relationship which involved a number of individuals acting together” (p. 15). Therefore, according to Kouzes and Posner, and Gardner, the leader was not an isolated idol within the group, and leadership evolved from group interaction based mutual needs and interests resulting in the recognition or rejection of the person as the leader, whether this person was chosen, appointed, or elected. Based on the above mentioned definitions, it could be stated that effective leadership involved cooperation, collaboration, interaction, and participation on both sides in the process of the accomplishment of the shared goals and objectives.

Besides defining leadership, another area of concern for researchers (Bass, 1990; Gardner, 1986; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Sashkin, 1999; Yukl, 1998) was distinguishing leadership form management and leaders from managers. Kouzes and Posner(1995), stressing the importance of a shared vision viewed leadership as a propelling force to take an institution further. They suggested that the distinction between leadership and management is that leaders were pioneers leading the way while managers were people
handling things for maintaining the present situation. However, Sashkin (1999), considering leadership from a more recent perspective put the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership and regarded the transformational leader as the figure influencing followers to go beyond expectations. He suggested that the transformational leader created an awareness of the importance of achieving valued outcomes. Sashkin also stressed the fact that transactional or managerial leadership was just as important since there were tasks to be achieved, and if things were not done in the right way tasks could not have been accomplished. Yukl (1998) also agreed that transactional leadership was just as important as transformational leadership because besides uniting people around a shared vision and agreeing together what things should be done and how they should be done, it was just as important to ask people to do things orderly and efficiently to maintain standards.

1.1 Background of the Problem

In the fields of business and industry, the distinction between management and leadership may have been more clearly stated and the behavioral attributes and personality traits that are needed to carry out the tasks may have been more comprehensively defined, however, when the concern is leadership and management in education, it becomes more difficult to make a clear distinction between the two terms. Because of the recent work in the field of leadership creating a wider view of profit making and non-profit making organizations, educational administrators and school principals now have a holistic concept of school culture in the sense that they are able to perceive the school as a complex phenomenon embodying students, teachers,
administrators and the community. They have been provided with a broader framework for understanding difficult problems, complex relationships and human relations within the school.

School principals as educational leaders, especially those who are involved in professional development and those who follow recent studies in the field, have come to realize that management and leadership in schools (task oriented and relations orientated behavior) might overlap and that they might need to exert both leadership and management behaviors. Bass (1990) states that “all management functions can potentially provide leadership; all the leadership activities can contribute to managing” (p. 385). Gardner (1986) adds to this discussion by saying, “Every time I encounter an utterly first-class manager, he turns out to have quite a lot of a leader in him… even the most visionary leader will be faced on occasion with decisions that every manager faces” (quoted in Bass, 1990, p. 366). Gardner (1986) names the person demonstrating both types of behavior as the ‘leader-manager’ and sums up the leader-manager’s tasks as envisioning the group’s goals, affirming values for the group, motivating the members, managing, achieving a workable unity among the members, explaining what needs to be done, serving as a symbol, representing the group, and renewing the group.

Therefore, based on the ideas above, it can be deduced that the areas of function of school principals as appointed administrators in TRNC are twofold. While they follow instructions, meet deadlines, and improve or, at least, maintain standards and quality, they also try to improve human relations, motivate subordinates and form unity among members of the group. In certain cases, they also deal with conflict and when there is a
process of change, they need to deal with resistance from certain people, who will
directly or indirectly be affected, to the change in process. School principals, as
administrators, also try to overcome the problems of promotion, evaluation, and
appraisal or rating of professionals working for a shared goal and mission.
Management and leadership functions of school principals may also be investigated by
focusing on the forms of communication applied in the work environment. School
principals may be considered to be ‘Directive’ or ‘participative’ (supportive) (Tucker,
1984). Studies in the field (Berlew & Heller, 1983; Drenth & Koopman, 1984;
Scandura, Graen, and Novak, 1986; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Tucker, 1984)
asserted that directive behavior, in an extreme definition, consists primarily of a one-
way communication from the person in charge to the faculty members through which
what is to be done, when, where and how it is to be done is explained in detail. In
addition to providing detailed guidance, the person in charge carefully monitors the
performance of others and, in its ultimate application, expects unquestioning
compliance. Participative (supportive) behavior, on the other hand, consists of two-way
communication between the supervisor and the subordinates through which the person in
charge provides personal and psychological support. This kind of support includes
encouragement, praise, and general concern for the personal and professional welfare of
each faculty member. Some leaders (supervisors) are capable of moving from one
extreme to the other in terms of how supportive they are and try to provide the amount
of support that the subordinates seem to need. Thus, school principals as managers may
be expected to be directive when there are tasks to be completed and participative when
personal welfare, needs and wants of the members of the group are concerned.
When discussing the position of a ‘chairperson’ in an academic department (who is also an educational leader with similar roles to those of a school principal) Tucker (1984), said that a chair person is “neither exclusively directive nor supportive” (p. 42). While acting, the main concern of an educational leader should be the maturity level of the group members. Thus, appropriate amount of direction and support needed to achieve a specific goal or objective should be provided after determining the maturity level of the group members. Tucker’s discussion points to one important factor to be taken into consideration when educational leadership is concerned; schools are organizations in which the members are experienced, capable, and willing to work effectively as a group, to set high but attainable goals and reach group decisions. Educators are ready to accept responsibility for their decisions and assignments. Thus, such people might need more support than direction.

Other studies related to description of leader behavior were carried out in the United States during the mid-twentieth century. The Ohio State leadership studies focused on leadership behaviors in terms of consideration and initiating structure. The terms “consideration” and “initiating structure” were used by Halpin (1966) to describe the leadership style of school superintendents. In his description, consideration factor referred to leader behavior, which was indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of the staff. Initiating structure factor referred to the leader’s behavior in delineating the relationship between self and the members of the group, and in endeavoring to establish well defined patterns
of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedures. This was another but similar approach to management and leadership functions of administrators.

Ohio State studies also stressed the importance of exerting both consideration and initiating structure behaviors in a school culture because schools embody professionals with a shared mission, aspirations, assumptions and values. Such features were not imposed on them by the institution they were working in, but assumed by the teachers themselves while choosing the teaching profession. Thus, based on this argument, it can be inferred that school principals, throughout their leadership should practice their ability to share ideas, promote participation, allocate resources, shape a shared mission and vision, allow and create opportunities for professional development, evaluate their position and others’ contribution to the process of the accomplishment of goals. Thus, they need to consider others’ welfare, and establish a structure through which people work unobtrusively and meet the requirements of their basic task (teaching) and the needs and the expectations of the institution.

When school leadership is concerned, there are many factors to be considered such as the organizational structure depending on the education system of the country, self-concept and self-esteem of the teachers, their concerns related to self-development, professional development and self-actualization, their values and aspirations, their perceptions of the worth of their job, their work environment, relationships with colleagues and supervisors, their needs and expectations related to the subject area they are teaching, and so on and so forth. Therefore, since the present study is aimed at
investigating teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior in relation to their job satisfaction; specifically focusing on the difference between elementary and secondary school teachers, and the difference between the English language teachers and other subject area teachers, it is a multi-disciplinary study drawing on theories, assumptions and research findings from studies on education systems, organizational behavior, management, leadership, psychology (theories of motivation, self-concept and self-esteem) and English Language teaching.

The study is mainly a survey discussing the state school teachers’ perception of their school principals’ leadership behaviors in relation to their expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. It is intended to examine teachers’ perceptions and job satisfaction levels as a whole and find out the difference, if any, between elementary and secondary school teachers’, and English language and other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior in relation to their job satisfaction levels.

1.2 The Role of Leadership in Teachers’ Motivation and Job Satisfaction

The absence of conceptual clarity throughout the studies on what constitutes effective leadership has concerned the researchers evaluating the quality of educational leadership to refine or redefine the existing definitions. As a result of a thorough evaluation of educational leadership practices and research, it was recommended by the National Commission for Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA) in the United States that educational leadership be redefined because the studies revealed that the field lacked conceptual clarity of what constituted “good” educational leadership (Duignan &
Macpherson, 1992, p. 1). As a result, academic initiatives were taken to address the deficiencies and unfold the ambiguities and doubts in the field to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

The studies in the field have clearly shown that educational leadership and management were practiced jointly; while management activities fall within non-educational criteria such as “bureaucratic efficiency, political expediency, and economic constraints” (Duignan & Macpherson, 1992, p.3), leadership involves the process of establishing and guiding the talents and energies of people involved to achieve common goals. School principals mainly work through management structures and routines to achieve organizational purposes. In education, daily management routines are means to other ends such as improved human interaction, achievement of educational goals for which the school exists, development of a sense of membership (belonging, participation, involvement, etc.) and a feeling of success and satisfaction for both parties; the school principal and teachers, or the leader and the followers.

In order for a school to function effectively, a school principal needs the support of the others in his/her endeavor just as the others need his/her support in theirs. In order to provide the necessary support for the school principal, the members of the group need to be motivated and happy with what they are doing; feel self-worth through acceptance and respect, thus be intrinsically and extrinsically motivated.
Surveys since the 1920s illustrated the importance of leadership on members’ job satisfaction (Bergen, 1939; Houser, 1927; Kornhouser and Sharp, 1932; Viteles, 1953, cited in Bass, 1990). These studies being carried out in industrial institutions, focused on employee attitudes toward supervisors and contributions of such attitudes on employee satisfaction. The results were consistent in that favorable attitudes of employees toward their supervisor contributed to employee satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Since then, countless surveys can be cited to support the argument that leaders make a difference in their subordinates’ satisfaction and performance. Therefore, whether an organization succeeds or fails depends on the satisfaction level of the employees, thus directly on the leadership style employed within the organization (Bass, 1990).

Research in the field (Cerit, 2007; Everett, 1991; Fowler, 1991; Klawitter, 1985; Krook, 1989; Luis, at. al., 2010; Mulford, 2003; Ngang, et al., 2010) provided evidence for considering leader behavior as a highly strong predictor of in determining school effectiveness. In such studies, school principals’ behaviors were consistently associated with teachers’ job satisfaction. Findings of other studies also pointed to a positively significant relationship between leader behavior, school effectiveness and job satisfaction of teachers (Bare-Oldham, 1998; Bull, 2005; Fowler, 1991; Hall, 1994; Krook, 1989; Saeed, et.al. 2011; Yılmaz, 2011).

It was also discussed that positive effects of leadership behavior on teacher job satisfaction indirectly affected students’ academic performance in a positive way, thus, leader behavior was found to be influential not only on teacher job satisfaction but also
on student achievement and success (Brown, 1967; Fast, 1964; Greenfield, 1968; Keeler & Andrews, 1963; Seeman, 1957). Brown (1967) and Greenfield (1968), reviewing Canadian studies, concluded that performance of pupils was associated with the principals’ LBDQ scores. Similarly, Keeler and Andrews (1963) reported that both consideration and the initiating structure by the principals, as described by teachers, were significantly and positively related to pupils’ examination scores on a province-wide examinations. Furthermore, Seeman (1957) found that performance evaluation of the school principals’ leadership positively related to consideration, initiating structure, communication, and willingness to change, and negatively related to domination and social distance. According to Fast (1964), consideration and initiation of structure behaviors displayed by school principals, as described by teachers, were positively related to the teacher job satisfaction. As an important issue, Stromberg (1967) discussed that even morale of the teachers strongly depended upon their leaders’ consideration and initiating structure behaviors. Johnson (1978) also found evidence that the leaders’ consideration behavior was strongly associated with teacher satisfaction.

Studies carried out and theories emerging from these studies in the US were all concerned with development of the individual within an effective and cohesive organization (Bass, 1990), with the belief that effective leadership in organizations strongly endorsed human relations (Maslow, 1965; McGregor, 1960). The humanistic approach, viewing the human being, by nature, as a motivated organism suggested that participation in organized and well functioning organizations generated the satisfaction
of higher-order needs in subordinates, which, in turn, increased the subordinates’ motivation, satisfaction, quality and quantity of performance (Bass, 1990). Therefore, it was the function of the leader to reorganize or transform the organization in such a way that individuals would be provided with freedom and opportunities through which they realize their energy and potential to fulfill their personal, and the organizational needs (Bass, 1990). Burns (1978) argues that an effective leader, realizing the need for effectively functioning followers would go further and satisfy followers’ needs to reveal their potential and allow self actualization.

Apart from these findings, reviewed research in the field of education also showed that there is no ultimate style of leadership that will successfully apply in all types of situations (Bhella, 1982; Boyer, 1982; Everett, 1987; Halpin, 1959; Klawitter, 1985, Stogdill, 1974), yet leaders who exhibit high task (initiating structure) and high relationship (consideration) skills in combination based on their situations are likely to have a positive impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Similar to the above discussion, Northfield (1992) viewed a school principal occupying a key position since the position suggested some critical functions for ensuring teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Based on the result of a research done by Hall and Hord (1986), Northfield stated that in a school culture, in order to motivate teachers and to gain their cooperation and support, the educational leader needed to help educators to shape their purposes and make sense of their involvement in and contribution to the process of education. Thus, based on what Northfield stated, it could be concluded that
in such a culture, teachers, as professionals, try to put great effort towards a mission with shared assumptions, values, inspirations and interpretations of their situation, and they view their job as a holy mission. Therefore, to be effective leaders, school principals should involve concerned people in the process of decision making, and try to evoke interest in others who seem to be indifferent.

In order to secure cooperation and support from others, a school principal needs to create an atmosphere in which values and conflicts are clarified through communication, and in which people communicate easily and effectively. In order to create such an atmosphere, equity must be practiced, resources must be garnered, allocated and used effectively, and administrative routines must be accomplished smoothly (Bass, 1990; Northfield, 1992).

1.3 Problem Statement

The Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus has a centralized education system which results in appointment of school principals by the Ministry of Education in state owned schools. This is assumed to automatically put the school principals into a more directive and work oriented position. Yet, functioning as a school administrator in such a small community in which people interact in close interpersonal relationships also requires them to conduct people oriented leadership based on positive relationships, communication and consideration of their subordinates’ wants and needs. This suggests that school principals need to have a wider perspective of the needs of their institutions
and the teachers, and to possess a variety of competencies to meet these needs and fulfill everyday work routines.

School principals have many different functions such as working and acting with others, abiding with directives, budgeting, and so on. How they lead is not only determined by education authorities, but it is also affected by the context or situation, their personality traits, academic background, competence and others’ beliefs about leadership and management behaviors (Adlam-Knudsen, 2011; Ubben & Hughes, 1987). Therefore, the context and principals’ personal qualities and behavior determine, to a large extent, how teachers feel about their institution, and how satisfying their work environment is. Accordingly, a particular leadership style may hinder or foster teacher commitment and job satisfaction.

House (1971) found that behaviors of leadership which focus on initiating structure were most valuable when tasks were stressful and dissatisfying, while consideration style was most appropriate when tasks were routine and clear. Initiating structure was also rated with high productivity but tended to generate employee dissatisfaction, grievance and turnover, whereas consideration behaviors have been associated with satisfied subordinates and fewer absences (John & Taylor, 1999). They found a strong relationship between consideration behavior of principals and the organizational commitment, thus job satisfaction of teachers. Studies in Philippines (David, 1990; Alegre, 1994; Andreas, 1981) also indicated that the Filipinos tended to be relationship oriented and preferred consideration behavior, and when it was practiced they worked
better and were more committed to their work. Thus, there are numerous findings indicating that teachers feel committed to their school when the principal’s leadership style is supportive and enabling (Burns, 1990; Fjelstad, 1990).

In the light of the above findings, it may be possible to state that a leadership style that is high in consideration is associated with teacher job satisfaction. This may be due to the fact that consideration behavior is closely related to mutual trust and respect, two-way communication, and concern for others’ welfare. Therefore, satisfied teachers respond positively to the school principal’s practice of considerate leadership by being committed to their organization. Studies carried out using LBDQ (Brown, 1967; Fast, 1964; Lunenberg and Ornstein, 1991; Reyes and Shin, 1995; Stromberg, 1967) also supported this view by stating that principals contributing to teachers’ job satisfaction scored high on LBDQ.

Such studies discussing leadership behaviors of school principals in relation to teacher job satisfaction and commitment to the institution may imply that state school principals in TRNC would be expected to exert both initiation of structure and consideration behavior experienced professionals in the teaching job and as appointed administrators, and score high on both aspects of LBDQ. As members of a small community, they would be expected to be perceived more considerate than initiating structure, because the social structure on the island closely knit; people have more intimate and friendly relations rather than being inhibited and indifferent to one another as observed in larger societies.
As practicing professionals in the teaching job, school principals are very familiar with problems intrinsic to the profession of teaching and the responsibilities invested upon teachers. In an education system a school principal has to go through different steps before holding the position. Especially in TRNC, in order to become a school principal, one has to have a certain amount of experience in teaching and administration, as a deputy head, before being appointed as school principal. While performing the required tasks as school principal, the person in this position also maintains teaching duties by undertaking a certain amount of teaching load. Therefore, the school principal, besides coordinating, managing and leading functions, has to execute his basic task as a teacher.

A school principal is a person in a position to organize and improve conditions for the development of standards and quality in teaching and learning Northfield (1992), in order to achieve this, the school principal needs to employ opportunities for self-development, to accommodate conveniences for teaching professionals’ personal and professional development, and to provide opportunities for these people to develop personal and organizational understanding, and an understanding of the purpose of the education system as a whole.

Based on the arguments related to task (initiating structure) and relationship (consideration) orientation, one needs to ask which skill is most important for the school principals. Is initiating structure (task orientation) more effective than consideration (relations orientation)? Which style is the best to gain support and approval of teachers
for a collaborative work environment to achieve the goals of the institution and at the same time satisfy teachers? Herein lay the problem.

The present study, therefore, was based on the relational concept of school leadership to teacher job satisfaction, modeled on the Ohio State leadership studies of consideration (relations-orientation) and initiation of structure (task-orientation) behaviors. For the purpose of the study two instruments were employed: The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ, developed by the Ohio State leadership studies group) to measure perceived leadership behaviors of school principals, and Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSC) to measure teachers’ job satisfaction levels.

The study was mainly concerned with displaying the results of a survey of school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior in relation to their expressed job satisfaction levels in TRNC, in general. However, in connection with the main concern, the type of school (elementary and secondary schools) in which participants worked, and teachers’ subject areas (especially English) were also considered in order to be able to comment on contextual or situational factors affecting the difference (if any) in teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels.

1.3.1 School Leadership and Different Types of Schools
Elementary and secondary schools, as the types of schools in which participants worked were considered for a few reasons. Elementary school education in TRNC comprises the
kindergarten through 5th grade. Secondary education comprises 6th grade through 12th grade. The first phase which is 6th through 8th grade is the middle school period, now called the second stage of primary education. The second phase, which is 9th grade (preparatory class) through 12th grade is the Lyceum (high school) period.

Elementary and secondary education differs in three aspects. First of all, teachers of elementary learners have to be experts in literacy education, and competent in all subjects taught at this level. However, secondary school teachers need to master the subject they wish to teach. In some cases they may need to teach a minor subject besides their major.

The second difference lies in the fact that different age groups of learners studying in these different types of schools urge teachers to follow different pedagogical approaches. Difference in learners’ age groups requires elementary school teachers to master child psychology in order to be able to understand children’s cognitive, affective and psychomotor needs from ages of 4-5 through adolescence. Secondary school teachers, on the other hand, need to be familiar with psychology of adolescence, which is the transition period from childhood to adulthood. The job of a secondary school teacher may seem more difficult at this stage since adolescence may bring turbulent physical, social, and emotional changes. Teaching the subject area and at the same time dealing with learners who may be confused, trying to establish a new self-concept, may affect the needs and expectations of a secondary school teacher.
The last but not least difference is the difference in the size of the school the teachers work in. Secondary schools are relatively larger than elementary schools in terms of student numbers and teacher numbers they embody. In such environments, it might seem more difficult for school principals to build communication and interaction. Furthermore, it might not be possible to attend to all teachers’ needs and wants. In a large school, the school leader may not find time to work directly with each and every teacher; moreover, the complexity of the organization may limit his/her influence (Luis at. al., 2010). However, he/she might create a school culture in which teachers teaching the same subject can communicate their wants and needs to the school principal through a group leader.

Accordingly, the research was aimed to investigate whether secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels differed from those of elementary school teachers’.

To date, there has been a large body of research relating to school leadership and teacher job satisfaction, however, most studies either took only one type of school into consideration (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Cascadden, 1998; Friedkin & Slater, 1994; Goddard, Sweetland, & Hoy, 2000; Harris, 2002; Saeed, et al. 2011; Yılmaz, 2011); or a few of them used samples from all levels (namely Marks and Printy, 2003) but took a small number of cases; or some studies employed large number of cases and drew results form single districts of specific states in the US (Leech & Fulton, 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). The present study attempted to involve both elementary and
secondary schools to reveal comprehensive results in the difference (if any) in teachers’ perceptions’ of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels.

1.3.2 Leadership and English Language Teaching

The study involved the English language teachers’ perceptions of the leadership behavior of their school principals in relation to their expressed job satisfaction levels. The reason for doing so was to be able to account for contextual or situational effects on teachers’ differing perceptions and expressed job satisfaction levels.

Before the study was conducted and the results were analyzed, it was assumed that the English language teachers would differ from other subject area teachers in their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels. This was assumed on the grounds that as Hammadou and Bernhardt, (as cited in Borg, 2006) stated, not only becoming a foreign language teacher but also teaching a foreign language differs from the teaching of other subjects in many ways. This is mainly because the content to be taught (English) and the medium of instruction are the same. Hammadou and Bernhardt proposed five factors that distinguish the experience of foreign language (FL) teachers from that of teachers of other subjects: the nature of the subject matter itself; the interaction patterns necessary to provide instruction; the challenge for teachers of increasing their knowledge of the subject; isolation; and the need for outside support for mastering the subject.
Hammadou and Bernhardt (as cited in Borg, 2006) argue that effective language instructors are obliged to use a language of instruction which their students do not yet fully understand. This poses an important barrier in the teaching learning process. Because mastery of their subject area requires effective communication, language teachers need to use many interaction patterns and techniques such as group work, pair work, games, role play, etc. which may be desirable, but not necessary for the teaching of other subjects. Because language teachers teach communication, neither they nor their students can increase their subject knowledge through books. They need to be in contact with people who actually use the language which is rather difficult, opportunity wise, for them and their students.

Foreign language teachers may also experience a feeling of isolation because in many cases, especially in small scale schools, they might be the only one teaching the subject and may be deprived of sharing with colleagues teaching the same subject. Creating naturalistic learning environments (creating contexts, building up situations, bringing in realia, etc.) is another quality of teaching, unique to language teachers. It is a subject area in which applying merely the presentation strategy does serve the aims and objectives of producing communicative results. Grossman and Shulman (1994) too, argued that foreign language is an ambiguous subject in which content is less hierarchically organized including a variety of sub-domains. This requires more teacher autonomy than any other subject when curriculum design is concerned.

The ideas put forth by Hammadou and Bernhardt (as cited in Borg, 2006) and Grossman & Shulman (1994) suggest that foreign language teachers’ needs and expectations may
be different from teachers of other subject areas. First of all, they need to be supported in their endeavors in practical communicative activity design. They need to have access to technology (TV, video, DVD/VCD players, CD players, other audio/visual materials). Their leaders/administrators need to have an understanding that their subject area requires a different teaching methodology, techniques and materials, therefore, they should be more flexible when monitoring and mentoring. It might be difficult for school principals with a different subject area background but still they should be open to suggestions coming from language teachers and should listen to them with respect.

There is plentiful research into job satisfaction at different educational levels and in different institutions. However, there is very little research particularly aiming at the relationship between specific subject teachers’ job satisfaction levels in relation to their school principals’ leadership behaviors. Yılmaz (2011) investigating the effects of subject areas of teachers as one of the variables affecting teacher job satisfaction concluded that different subject area teachers tended to perceive their principals’ leadership behaviors differently. Some teachers are able to meet their needs better than others in their work environments, thus feel more satisfied. In his study Yılmaz (2011) found social sciences teachers to be the most while the English language teachers the least satisfied.

The distinctive characteristics of the subject matter and the differing needs of foreign language teachers recently led to studies in leadership in English language teaching. Stephenson (2011) argued that the increasing interest in learning English has brought
many challenges to curriculum design, materials development and professional teacher practices to ensure quality. In this respect, she argues that there is a rapidly growing need for quality leadership in the field of English language teaching to ensure quality and best practice. She argues that the changing times and the changing needs in English language teaching is making the school principals’ job more complicated and what they know might not apply to ELT professionals.

In recent years, there has been a special emphasis on the significance of the need for leadership in ELT. Murray (2009) adopting the situational leadership in the context of English language teaching discussed that language teaching is context sensitive involving user groups, social practices, attitudes towards the language and the people who actually use the language, cultural and ethnic aspects and so on and so forth. Language teaching, especially in the contexts in which it is taught as a foreign language involves introduction of a new culture and a new philosophy together with a foreign language into an already established way of thinking and communication. Therefore, the challenging nature of ELT, in its intercultural and cognitive sense calls for leaders who actually practice in the profession to be able to properly meet the demands, needs and expectations of the English language teachers.

When the above arguments are considered, therefore, within the general concept of this study, it is assumed that the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels may be
significantly different from those of other subject teachers. Therefore, it would be a significant dimension to consider.

1.4 Assumptions of the Study

Based on the review of literature and taking the social structure in TRNC the following assumptions were made:

1. School principals in TRNC would be perceived to display high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors as appointed administrators, operating in a centralized education system, and in small communities (districts), in which people tend to know each other well and have close relationships;

2. There would be a significantly positive relationship between principals’ perceived leadership style and expressed teacher job satisfaction;

3. Relating to the type of school (elementary or secondary), secondary school principals would be perceived to display higher consideration and initiation of structure behaviors than elementary school principals, as the nature of their school required them to so;

4. Secondary school teachers would express higher levels of job satisfaction, based on the fact that they had specific subject areas, which they might have consciously chosen to teach, they have teaching teams in their schools to have more collegial interactions, and school principals may be more aware of their specific needs and wants;

5. The English language teachers’ perceptions would differ significantly from those teaching other subjects since the nature of their subject required different areas of
attention relating to improvement of their competence and performance in the
language they taught, teacher development, teaching methods, techniques,
materials and classroom interaction patterns; and

6. The English language teachers would express lower levels of job satisfaction on
the grounds that most schools did not have especially designed language classes
and were deprived of most of the technological equipment needed, and the
school principals (if they did not come from an ELT background) were foreign to
the demands, needs and wants of language teachers.

1.5 Significance of the Study

In the TRNC, during the 2002-2003 academic year, in which the research was carried
out, there were 93 elementary (K-5) and 29 secondary schools (12 solely middle schools
- grades 6-8-, and 17 lycéums, 11 of them embodying 6th through 12th and six of them
comprising 9th through 12th grades).

The total number of students studying in the 93 elementary schools was around 7,300,
and the total number of teachers teaching at these schools, including school principals,
was around 1,250.

The total number of students studying in the secondary schools was around 8,800, and
the total number of teachers working in these schools, including school principals and
deputy principals, was around 1,150. Total population of teachers working at state
elementary and secondary schools, excluding kindergartens, technical vocational schools and private schools, was around 2,400 in 2002-2003 academic year.

Significantly, the study involved all teachers working in both types of schools in all five districts of TRNC (Lefkoşa, Girne, Mağusa, Güzelyurt, and Yeni İskele). It envisaged collecting comprehensive data, which would allow the researcher to investigate the leadership behaviors of school principals in TRNC, as perceived by the teachers, and the impact of leader behavior on teacher job satisfaction. This, in turn, would enable the researcher to draw reliable conclusions, and make useful recommendations for future practices.

The study was unique in that it was the first of its kind done in TRNC and was expected to initiate studies in the field of educational administration, management and leadership, especially in ELT as a novice area, which would lead to positive changes in the area towards local and global needs.

1.6 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was multifold: to survey leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of state elementary and secondary school principals in TRNC as perceived by the state school teachers; to investigate the relationship between school principals’ perceived leadership behavior and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels; to find out the difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job
satisfaction levels; and specifically explore the difference between the English language teachers’ perceptions of the same phenomenon in relation to their expressed job satisfaction levels. Accordingly, the researcher intended to conduct a semi-structured interview with the school principals to reveal why they were perceived to behave in a certain way; analyze teachers comments put at the end of the pack as a separate section; and to draw conclusions and make recommendations for further studies and for the changes required in the field of educational administration, management and leadership, leadership in ELT, and if need be in related practices.

Since the study focused on leadership behaviors of school principals in the TRNC in relation to teachers’ job satisfaction, it would examine the relationship between leadership behaviors of school principals as perceived by teachers and the expressed job satisfaction levels of the teachers in TRNC.

Similar studies had been conducted, however, the distinctive quality of this study is in its investigation of the teachers’ perceptions of the school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, where such a study had never been done before.

1.7 Research Questions

Based on the purpose of the study, which was to investigate the relationship between leadership behaviors of school principals in relation to teachers’ job satisfaction in TRNC, the study attempted to answer the following research questions:
1. How is the leadership behavior (consideration or initiating structure) of the state school principals in TRNC perceived by the school teachers?

2. What are the expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the state school teachers in TRNC?

3. Is there a significant difference between the elementary and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

4. How do school principals account for the difference (if any) between the elementary and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

5. Is there a significant difference between the English language teachers’ and the other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

6. How well does the state school principals’ perceived leadership behavior help predict the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC?

Analysis of data and findings related to each research question will be supported by qualitative data collected during the semi-structured interview and comments made by teachers on the last section of the packs.
1.7.1 Independent Variables

The independent variables in the study were leadership behaviors of school principals (consideration and initiation of structure) as perceived by teachers and measured by LBDQ.

1.7.2 Dependent Variables

The dependent variables were teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation levels as measured by MCMJSS.

1.8 Definition of Terms

The study used the following operational definitions:

1. **Perceived Leadership Behavior**: The term was used to express the reported dominant leadership behaviors of the school principals as perceived by teachers working in state schools in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus which were measured by Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957), identifying two leadership behaviors as ‘Consideration’ and ‘Initiating Structure’.

2. **Job Satisfaction**: The term defined the degree of personal gratification one receives from one's work. Throughout the study job satisfaction will be addressed as the amalgamation of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Brown, 1967; Fast, 1964; Greenfield, 1968; Lunenberg & Ornstein, 2000).

3. **Overall Teacher Job Satisfaction**: The term defined teachers’ job satisfaction level as extrinsic, intrinsic and overall as will be measured by Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSC) (Mohrman, A.M., Cooke, R.A., & Mohrman, S.A., 1978).
4. **Intrinsic Motivation**: The term in its used sense in the study could be defined as referring to the pleasure and happiness driven by a self-interest or joy in the job itself existing in the individual rather than depending on external factors such as rewards or approvals of others (Mohrman, A.M., Cooke, R.A., & Mohrman, S.A., 1978).

5. **Extrinsic Motivation**: The term used in this study was referred to the pleasure or joy of doing the job coming from outside the individual in forms of acceptance, support, respect and fair treatment in work environments and not being related to the job itself (Mohrman, A.M., Cooke, R.A., & Mohrman, S.A., 1978).

6. **State School Teachers**: The term identified grades 1-12 teachers working at the chosen schools (n=599). The sample consisted of 274 elementary school teachers and 325 secondary school teachers employed at state elementary and secondary schools in TRNC.

7. **Packs**: The term meant the stack of questionnaires prepared by the researcher and given to teachers containing the Demographic Information Questionnaire, the LBDQ, the MCMJSS, and a section asking for teachers’ additional comments on their school principals’ leadership behavior and their job satisfaction.

8. **Content Analysis Approach**: This term identified the approach to the analysis of documents and texts that sought the quality content in terms of predetermined categories in a systematic and replicable manner (Bryman, 2004).
1.9 Scope, Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The scope, delimitations and limitations of the study are as follows:

1. It was based on Ohio State leadership studies employing LBDQ developed by Ohio State leadership study group, which aimed at investigating the two leadership behaviors as consideration and initiating structure, and the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJS), which investigated job satisfaction levels of teachers as extrinsic, intrinsic, motivation and overall job satisfaction.

2. It was aimed to examine the existence of the relationship between school principals’ perceived leadership style and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels. It involves elementary and secondary state school teachers and principals excluding the technical-vocational and private schools in all five districts of TRNC.

3. The instruments employed for the study actually measured what was intended to be measured.

4. The responses were genuinely given by the participants.

5. Many of the studies investigating such relationships have produced weak and inconsistent results in terms of leadership effectiveness as Bass (1990), and Fisher and Edwards (1988) put it. Some of the studies revealed that subordinates were more satisfied with initiating structure (task-oriented) leaders whereas others indicated just the opposite or no significant relationship at all. Moreover, it is noted that behavior description questionnaires were susceptible to several types of bias and error (Bass, 1990).
6. Moreover, errors might result from different sources such as ambiguous items that could be interpreted in different ways by different respondents.

7. Furthermore, a fixed response format could require the respondents to think on one item for a long time, thus the respondent would never be certain on the accuracy of the response.

8. Another source of error might result from biases depending on whether the respondent liked or disliked the leader. Therefore, when these sources of error are considered the results of the research might not allow the researcher to make generalizations but may allow some indications of respondent perceptions of leaders and leadership.

9. The study was limited in that, the questionnaire was distributed to teachers who were working in state schools in major cities of TRNC. Private schools and technical and vocational schools were not included in the study.

10. Consequently, research findings might not allow the researcher to make generalizations, but the analysis of the available data might provide valuable insights into the field and may allow inferences for further discussion.

11. Another limitation of the study was that it only employed one instrument for each variable: The LBDQ for perceived behaviors of school principals, and the MCMJSS for examining teachers’ job satisfaction level. If the study were to be carried out at a different time span employing different instruments the results could be different or controversial.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The earliest word for leader (seshemu), for leadership (seshement), and for follower (shemsu) were found in Egyptian Hieroglyphics dating back 5000 years (Bass, 1990). Leadership as a serious concept is also observed in classical Greece, in the literature of the period such as that of Homer’s Iliad (1995, Wordsworth ed.) and Odyssey (1975, trans. R. Lattimor). Characters, commonly regarded as classical heroes naturally displayed qualities such as justice, wisdom, valor, courage, self-confidence, determination and foresight and consequently drew other men after them into many adventures. Moreover, the same culture propounded concepts such as the philosopher king of Plato (1945, trans. Conford) and the Magnanimous Man of Aristotle (1963, trans. J.L. Creed and A.E. Wardman).

The idea of the hero bearing special status was first articulated and prescribed by Aristotle in Poetics (1988, trans. Bywater, pp. 45-47). The special status given the hero (though the concept is referred to by Aristotle as the ‘tragic hero’) persisted for centuries well into the twentieth century and the term hero came to be almost synonymous with the term leader. Bass (1990) emphasizes that after the classical age the word leader(ship) came to mean ‘head of state’, ‘military commander’, ‘proconsul’, ‘chief’, or ‘king’. All
these words emphasized are used, at the same time, to denote the hero. These words differentiated the ruler (hero) from other members of the society.

The word leadership appeared in most other languages much later than it appeared in countries with an Anglo-Saxon heritage. It was in 1300 that the English word ‘leader’ was used for the first time. The word leadership, on the other hand, was first officially pronounced in 1821 in written form concerning the British Parliament, its power and authority (Bass, 1990). Hence, by the mid-nineteenth century the concept and the function of leader and leadership was not clear, still used in conjunction and often confused with the concept of hero, regarded as a natural leader. Until the mid-twentieth century leaders were regarded as akin to the idea of the hero (Bass, 1990). Thus, such theories as the great man theory and the trait theory maintained a popular acclaim.

The great man theory assumed leaders were born, not made. They were believed to be sent by gods. Divinely inspired, these great men inspired common people to follow them into many adventures. Since leaders were born, it would be useless teaching ordinary people about leadership. Thus, it was believed that education and experience would not change one’s fate with regard to leadership. It is commonly stated that history is shaped by the leadership of great men (Bass, 1990).


Although Plato in *The Republic* argues that leaders are ought to be put through an education beginning from an early age, it does not conflict with the idea that leaders are born, and not taught to become leaders. This is because Plato fundamentally maintained the idea that human beings were born with all knowledge and that they were not taught but trained to recall that innate knowledge. Hence, when at youth, certain qualities were recognized in individuals, such as the quality of leadership, they would be selected and trained to be made leaders.
The trait theory, following the great man theory, assumed that potential leaders possessed certain traits such as bravery, intelligence, strength, courage, determination, and so on. People with such qualities were capable of leading others because others admired their personal traits. Therefore, this theory presupposed that a leader is endowed with superior qualities.

Until the mid-twentieth century, most research about leaders and leadership focused on the individual traits of emerging leaders. It is not surprising, therefore, that political leaders such as Churchill in England, Lenin in Russia, De Gaulle in France and Mustafa Kemal in Turkey emerge in history as national heroes. However, as research in the field increased, it became difficult to find consistent results indicating the differences between who leads and who follows, or the differences between an effective leader and an ineffective leader depending on personality traits.

Stogdill (1948, quoted in Bass, 1990) in his critique of the trait theories concluded that personality traits alone were not enough to explain the emergence of leaders and the idea of leadership. In order to come to a better understanding of the nature of leadership, Stogdill claimed that both personal qualities and the situation in which the leader emerges should be considered, and neither one nor the other factor should be disregarded. Therefore, it was more than a half a century ago that leadership focused on situational demands, insisting on the fact that situational factors may determine the emergence of a leader. Situationalists put forward the idea that rather than being the heir of a previous leader, it is the situation that determines the emergence of a true leader.
(Stogdill, 1974). Situationalists continue to argue that the emergence of a great leader is the result of time, place, and circumstances. For Murphy (1941, quoted in Bass, 1990) leadership was not an inherent personal quality but was a role arising as a result of an occasion.

Bass (1960) argues that when a leader’s role is analyzed, factors affecting the variables influencing a leader’s function may depend on the situation or the person’s inherent qualities or a combination of both. Thus, personal-situational theorists such as Bass (1960) argue that leadership cannot arise in a vacuum, but must contain elements about the person as well as elements about the situation. Any theory of leadership must take account of the interplay between the situation and the individual.

Moreover, Stogdill (1948) introduced another idea to the discussion of leadership by asserting that the leader’s traits must bear some relevance to the characteristics of the followers. The emergence of the idea of followers and its inclusion into the discussion of leadership influenced other theories to follow. Greth and Mills (1952, quoted in Bass, 1990) argue that leadership arises as a group need as soon as one is formed as a result of a need to interact. As the group emerges each member assumes a suitable role within the group based on the interrelation of individuals within the group. For Greth and Mills, this role, or position distribution is necessary to engage in the pursuit of common goals. Therefore, for a true perception of leadership, focus must be turned to (1) the qualities and the motivators of a leader as a person, (2) the impression that the leader has
left on the followers that motivates them to pursue his/her ideals, (3) the characteristics required by the undertaken role, and (4) the features of the institution in which he/she and his/her followers operate.

The above argument led Stogdill and Shartle (1955, cited in Bass, 1990) to suggest that leadership necessarily involved position, perceptions, relationships, and the attitude of individuals while interacting with other members of a structured group. Therefore, based on this suggestion, it may be stated that in the mid-twentieth century leadership began to be considered as an interactional phenomenon among persons, rather than as a characteristic of a single person.

Ohio State leadership research (Shartle, 1950; Fleishman, Harris & Burtt, 1955) is considered as a prominent study in leadership behavior research regarding the interpersonal relationships between a leader and the followers. In the 1950’s and 60’s researchers at Ohio State University focused on the actual behavior of leaders. In their work they measured leader behavior using consideration and initiation of structure concepts, which were identified through factor analysis. The former concept described the extent to which a leader exhibits concern for the welfare of the other members of the group and the latter showed the extent, to which a leader initiated an activity in the group, organized it and defined the way work was to be done. A leader exhibiting consideration for subordinates would display sensitivity, respect others’ ideas and feelings, and would establish trust. A leader exerting initiation of structure would rule with an iron hand, employing strict schedules and valuing task over people.
Following the Ohio State studies, Michigan leadership studies at the University of Michigan involved slight modifications classifying leader behavior into two dimensions as employee – centered (considerate, relations-oriented) versus job-centered (initiating structure, task-orientated). An employee-centered leader focuses on the human needs of subordinates, strives for position interactions, and minimizes conflict. A job-centered leader focuses on efficacy of work, scheduling and minimizing cost.

Ohio State University studies also influenced Misumi’s (1985) P-M leadership theory, in which ‘P’ stands for performance and ‘M’ stands for maintenance. Misumi’s P-M theory carries some similarities with the Ohio State leadership research. Misumi named initiation of structure as performance-oriented behavior and consideration as maintenance-oriented behavior.

As the leadership studies gained momentum, theories, which basically tried to match the various behaviors of leadership together with the situations, were blended with the ideals of democracy and individual freedom. This brought about the humanistic theories, which were concentrated on the progression of the individual within an effectively functioning and cohesively organized institution. These theories were grounded in the idea that the human being, by nature, was a motivated organism and the organization, by nature, structured and controlled. Therefore, as Bass (1990) put it, the leader’s function within an organization is to provide freedom for individuals to realize their motivational potential for the fulfillment of their needs and to contribute to the accomplishment of

McGregor (1960, 1966) leading the path in the development of humanitarian theories of leadership put forward two theories of leadership referred to as theory X and theory Y. Theory X assumed that people preferred to be passive and they resisted acting towards achievement of organizational needs, thus they needed guidance, supervision and external motivation to act in accordance with organizational needs. On the other hand, theory Y, presupposed people as already possessing the internal drive and a willingness to take on responsibility. For McGregor, therefore, conditions within an organization had to be created so as to enable people to fulfill their needs and at the same time channel their efforts for the achievement of organizational goals.

Parallel to McGregor’s theories, Argyris’ (1957, 1962, 1964) put forth the theory that a basic conflict existed between the organization and the individual. The organization’s endeavor was to structure roles and control performance of the individuals towards achieving institutional objectives, while the individual sought personal satisfaction by taking initiative and responsibility. Argyris’ notable contribution to the field was the argument (presupposition) that an organization would be most effective when its leadership provided the means for the followers to make a creative contribution as they were fulfilling their developmental needs, speaking their minds and making self-progress. Argyris (1964) also proposed the maturity theory related to leadership. With maturity theory, Argyris discussed leaders’ behavior in relation to the maturity level of
the followers, which was defined in terms of the subordinates’ experience, motivation towards achievement, and willingness and ability to accept responsibility. It suggested that as the maturity level of the subordinates increased, less emphasis should be given to task structuring and more emphasis should be directed towards human relations that would be regarded as consideration. As followers’ maturation level increases, the need for supervision decreases because subordinates need autonomy and free space to fulfill their personal needs and the organizations purposes.

Likert (1961, 1967), on the other hand, viewed leadership as a relative process in which leaders needed to consider the expectations, values and interpersonal skills of those with whom they were interacting. In this process, followers needed to receive and perceive supportive behavior of their leaders in order to feel self-worth. They felt the need to be involved in decision-making processes for self-fulfillment and the feeling of efficacy. Leaders’ involvement of group members in decision-making processes would influence their task performance and their personal welfare at work. Thus, the cohesiveness of the group would be enhanced and the followers’ motivation to be more productive would be increased through the responsibility and initiative of decision-making.

Following the Ohio State University studies and the Michigan studies on leadership, Blake and Mouton (1964, 1982), at the University of Texas, plotted leadership on a grid called the Managerial Grid. On the vertical axis they had a 1-9 scale for concern for people and on the horizontal axis they put a 1-9 scale for concern for production. Leadership scoring low on both scales was labeled impoverished. High concern for
people but low concern for production indicated country club leadership. High concern for production coupled with low concern for people meant authority/compliance leadership. High concern for people coupled with high concern for production indicated team leadership meaning that the leader was firm, but friendly. The leader who scores high on both axes developed followers who would be committed to the accomplishment of organizational purposes. Thus, relationships of trust and respect between the leader and the followers would be accomplished.

Maslow’s Eupsychian management (1965) which was a product of his observations and research at work in industry in relation to human needs combined humanitarian approaches with situationalism. He stressed the importance of subordinates’ needs for self-esteem and psychological health. Referring to self-actualization, he also emphasized the importance of the opportunity for everyone to become for what one had the capacity for. According to Maslow’s theory, the unconscious and the depths of personality played a great role in the process of a person’s leadership. Different situations required different leadership. Hence, he argued that power should be given to a leader only on an ad hoc (complete suitability) basis for the situation in which it was warranted. Consequently, leadership should be given to those who were best suited for the designated situation, those who could set things properly, and who could do what needed to be done.

Following the situational theories came the path-goal theory (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974), according to which, it was the responsibility of the leader to clarify the
goals and objectives of the subordinates, just as it was to identify the ways by which these goals could be achieved. It was suggested that clarification of personal goals and objectives of the subordinates helped improve the psychological state of the subordinates and motivated them towards increasing their efforts to perform at a high standard. Thus, followers achieved self-satisfaction while doing the work. When leaders combined such an approach with extrinsic motivators such as pay increase or promotions could enhance subordinate satisfaction and quality of work. The leader, in order to provide effective extrinsic rewards, had to have a clear understanding of the rewards the subordinates’ valued. House (1972) proposed that the effectiveness of a path-goal theory leader is contingent in three kinds of moderator variables: (1) task variables such as role clarity, routine, and imposed controls, (2) environmental variables, and (3) individual differences such as preferences, expectations, and personality.

Majority of leadership studies in the 1970s were centered around Fiedler’ contingency theory (1964) just as they were on House’s (1971) path goal theory. Fiedler’s contingency model, known as LPC (Least Preferred Co-worker), was a combination of the trait theories and situational theories (Shirakashi, 1996). For Fiedler, situation was the key to determine how a leader behaved in a work environment. Being task-oriented or relations oriented was a matter of the requirements contingent in the work itself. The leader decided to be task-oriented or relations-oriented by comparing the demands of the situation and the least preferred worker (LPC). Fiedler proposed that high LPC scores (favoring the least preferred co-worker) indicated a relationship-oriented person,
whereas a low LPC score (rejecting the least preferred co-worker) was conceived to indicate a task-orientation. Hence, Fiedler suggests that a high LPC person has a strong need to attain and maintain successful interpersonal relations, whereas a low LPC person has a strong need for successful task performance. The LPC score was determined by asking a leader to think of all past and present co-workers, select the one with whom the leader could work least well, and rate this person on a bi-polar adjective scales (friendly-unfriendly, co-operative, un-co-operative, efficient-inefficient, and so on). The LPC score was the sum of the ratings on these bi-polar adjective scales. A person who was generally critical in rating the least preferred co-worker would obtain a low LPC score, whereas a person who is generally lenient would obtain a high LPC score. Fiedler (1967) also argued that the relationship between leader LPC score and effectiveness depends on a complex situational variable called situational favorability (or situational control). He defined situational favorability as the extent to which the situation gives a leader control over subordinates. Situational aspects affecting leader effectiveness were leader member relations (supportive, friendly and co-operative relationships), position power (leader’s authority in evaluating subordinates’ performance and administer rewards or punishment), and task structure (operating procedures to accomplish the task, detailed description of the product or service, and indicators of task evaluation).

Most person-situation theories, as discussed above, focus on how the person can best fit the situation. Thus, if need be a person should be developed to fit the needs of the organization. However, Fiedler’s research and theory (1964, 1967) tended to emphasize
the need to place the person in the situation for which he or she is suited rather than developing the person to adapt to the situation. It, more or less, complies with Maslow’s (1965) argument that leadership should be given to people who are best suited for the designated situation.

Studies on leadership have shown that for a full account of leader-subordinate relationships a multi dimensional perspective involving personal, cognitive and interactional transactions is needed. Thus, effectiveness of a leader cannot be judged without considering the quality of human relations taking place with the organization. Thus, it is obvious that in studies on leadership focus has shifted from traits and is evolving around human interactions, job requirements and situational/contextual factors combined with personal preferences or perceptions of the concept. Hollander (1986) argued that leadership was contingent in a condition of traits and situations involving a transaction or exchange between the leader and the followers.

Burns (1978) discussed leadership with a point of view that change was inevitable and there was a need for leaders to conduct this change. Those who were able to lead the group effectively and efficiently during this process were considered to transformational, and those who could be considered more stagnated were referred to as transactional. This paradigm was modified by Bass (1985) suggesting that transformational leadership, successfully implementing major organizational changes by getting people to work towards an articulated realistic shared vision, increases the effects of transactional leadership, described as managerial leadership focused on basic management processes.
of controlling, organizing, and short-term planning. Tichy and Devenna (1986) viewed transformational leadership as a conceptual phenomenon and a behavioral process to be learned and practiced. They stressed that it was a systematic process essentially consisting of purposeful and organized search for changes, systematic analysis and the capacity to move resources from lesser to more productive areas in order to bring about strategic transformations. It required constant planning and determination of strategies, goals, objectives, vision, mission, organizational (institutional) strengths and weaknesses and a well-organized team work and allocation of resources.

Current theories, in the twenty first century discuss the subject of leadership by mainly focusing it on the relationship between the leader and the other people working under the same roof. It is depicted as a dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, global and a complex social dynamic (Avolio, 2007; Yukl, 2006). One of the first theories to be discussed came out as a product of transformational leadership. It was named as authentic leadership (Avolio, 1999; Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Cooper, 2005; Frederickson, 2001; Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Avolio, 2003, Sparrowe, 2005) based on the suggestion by Bass and Steidlmeyer (1999) that there were pseudo versus authentic transformational leaders. What theories of authentic leadership were trying to do was to offer a more positive way for conceptualizing leadership development through examining what constituted genuine leadership and by providing psychological resources (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009).
Luthans and Avolio (2003, p. 243) define authentic leadership as “a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development.” This is a multilevel definition including all aspects of leadership; the leader, the subordinate (follower), and the context or the situation in which leadership is conceptualized and observed. There are four mainly agreed factors that cover all aspects of authentic leadership: (1) balanced processing; objectively analyzing relevant data before making a decision; (2) internalized moral perspective; self-regulated moral standards for positive behavior; (3) rational transparency; presenting one’s authentic self without masks and openly sharing information and feelings as appropriate, avoiding inappropriate displays and emotions; (4) self-awareness; one’s understanding of his/her strengths and weaknesses and the way he/she makes sense of the world.

Contributions of psychological research on leadership studies continue with focus on the way leaders and followers think and process information. Such studies include self-concept theory, meta-cognition and implicit leadership theory (Avolio et. a., 2009). Lord and Hall (2005) worked on a leadership development model and emphasized the leader’s cognitive attributes and abilities. Mumford et al. (2003) on the other hand examined how shared thinking contributed to leader creativity. These two studies show difference in focus. While the first focuses on the individual leader, the latter focuses on the interaction between individuals.
Although the concept of leadership has long been considered as a subject to be studied, serious research on leadership did not begin until the first half of the twentieth century. The main focus has been on effective leadership, and it has been approached as a relationship between the leader and the followers. Scientists have attempted to discover leadership traits, abilities, behaviors, sources of power, or aspects of situation to deduce what factors determine leader effectiveness in influencing others to accomplish group objectives. The determinants for some people to emerge as leaders was another area of research concern but the main question of investigation has been the effectiveness of the person in the leader position and his/her influence on the others.

Studies of leadership at the end of nineteenth and in the first half of the twentieth century mainly stress “the great man” theory (Bass, 1990, p. 38; Bennis & Nanus, 1997, p. 5) and attempt to identify the personality traits of successful leaders. Later studies broadened their approach including the factor of situation and considered the behaviors of leaders as reflected by two dimensions of leadership style – “task” versus “people” (relations) orientation (Green, 1988, p. 3).

2.2 The Meaning of Leadership

There is extensive literature on leadership in all areas of social sciences such as philosophy, sociology, psychology, management, education, and so on since it is a subject embodying many different conceptions. At the beginning of the twentieth century the concept and the studies seemed to be rather general and abstract. J. B. Nash’s definition (1929, quoted in Bass, 1990, p.13) sounded like a behaviorist
approach: “leadership implies influencing change in the conduct of people” suggesting that a leader may act like an educator bringing about change in the behavior of people. Ted (1935, quoted in Bass, 1990, p.13) defined the term as: “the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable”. Stogdill (1950, quoted in Bass, 1990, p.13) defined it as: “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement”.

As research in the field of leadership mounted, studies in this field became more specific. The interactive aspect of leadership became more evident in the studies done in the mid-twentieth century. Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961, quoted in Bass, 1990, p.13) defined the term as “interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals”. This definition incorporated the context in which leadership is performed and the communication process involved.

According to Hemphill (1949) and Bass (1960), leadership was an individual’s endeavor to change the behavior of others positively toward the job they are doing. Bass (1990) stated that if a leader was successful in his attempt to change the behavior of others towards the attainment of a goal and if this change was followed by reinforcement and reward, it was regarded as effective leadership. Thus, effective leadership could be defined as “a successful influence by the leader that results in the attainment of goals by the influenced followers (Bass, 1990, p.14)”. This definition suggests that followers’ behavior and attitude should also be studied in order to analyze effective leadership.
While studying a leader’s influence on others to change their attitudes, researchers have also attempted to analyze the result of a leader’s influence on others. All along, it has been concluded that the influence of a leader on others may have two distinct results; enthusiastic commitment by followers, or indifferent compliance or obedience (Yukl, 1998). Erez and Arad (1986) noted that involvement resulted in commitment and the combination of both heightened productivity. Locke, Latham, and Erez (1987) concluded that in some cases commitment did not need to be achieved through involvement because studies conducted in the United States (Latham & Blades, 1975; Locke, 1968; Sulzer-Azaroff, 1985) have shown that commitment could also be achieved by a friendly and supportive behavior of the leader displayed towards the followers. Thus, followers’ perception of and attitude towards their leader and toward their job were also indicators of leader effectiveness. Followers’ perception of and attitude towards their leader and their job were affected by the leader’s potential to satisfy the followers’ needs and expectations, his/her ability to gain credibility and trust, and his/her style in exerting power to attain commitment. Follower attitudes towards their job were usually measured with questionnaires or interviews consisting of points such as absenteeism, voluntary turnover, grievances, complaints to higher administration, request for transfer, work delay, and deliberate sabotage of equipment and facilities. Such factors were indirect indicators of follower satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job and became evident when combined with perceptions of their leader’s behavior.
Amongst others, studies conducted by Hemphill (1949, quoted in Bass, 1990) and Carter (1953, quoted in Bass, 1990, p.14), focusing on leader behavior and attitude, define leadership as “the behavior of an individual involved in directing a group activity”. Moreover, Fielder (1967, quoted in Bass, 1990, p.14) proposed that leadership behavior meant “particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members”. Such acts may involve structuring work relations, praising or criticizing group members, and showing consideration for their welfare and feelings.

As the present study inquires school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors in TRNC in relation to teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels, throughout the study (a) concept of leadership behavior, (b) concept of job satisfaction, (c) relationship between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction in general and in the field of education will be reviewed.

### 2.3 Leadership Behavior

The earliest studies on leadership were mainly concerned with identifying leaders, rather than leadership as an act. Thus, studies sought to examine the qualities of leaders (traits that leaders commonly exhibited) such as courage, determination, foresight and willpower as they emerged. There was a common belief that leaders were born, not made as the great man theory suggested.
Such studies had taken place before World War II. However, as concluded by Jenkins (1947) and Stogdill (1948), attempts to identify leaders in terms of traits had not been very successful, because there were numerous traits differentiating leaders from followers and they were not consistent. The traits demanded of a leader varied from one situation to another, and Bass (1990) found the trait approach inadequate arguing that it ignored the interaction between the leader and the group (p. 511).

Taking the ignored interaction between the leader and the members of the group into account, Shartle, whose background had been the study of ‘job requirements and job performance’ (Bass, 1990, p. 511) initiated the Ohio State Leadership studies which was set out to study behaviors of leaders rather than their traits in 1945. The Ohio State leadership studies brought the dimension of task-orientated behavior and relations-orientated behavior of leaders into discussion. These two dimensions enabled scholars to give other descriptions of leadership behaviors in relation to the combinations of people and task orientation. Identification of relationships among leader behavior, group processes, and measures of group performance, revealed some differences among task-orientated behavior and relations-oriented behavior (Elis, 1980; Likert, 1962, 1967; Yukl, 1998). These differences were investigated in terms of effective behaviors of people in managerial positions, and differentiated management from leadership. They viewed managers as task-oriented and leaders as relations-oriented, inspiring and motivating their subordinates.
Since Ohio State Leadership Studies, research in the field of leadership (Bales, 1954; Bass, 1990; Campbell & Gregg, 1957; Certo, 1997; Halpin, 1966; Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Bechard, 1996; Kouzes & Posner, 1997; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980; Stogdill, 1974) were centered around perceptions of subordinates of the leadership styles prescribing basically two distinct types; one focusing on production as the task and organizational goals and the other on interactional and interpersonal relationships. Task-oriented and relations-oriented behavior were reviewed in the light of definitions given by Likert (1962), Elis (1980), and Yukl (1998).

2.3.1 Task-Oriented Behavior

Likert (1962), Elis (1980) and Yukl (1998) argued that effective managers did not spend their time and efforts doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, they did things that were primarily related with accomplishing tasks, utilizing resources and personnel efficiently, maintaining stable and reliable operations, and paying effort to improving quality and productivity. They were concentrated on task-oriented functions, such as planning and scheduling the work, coordinating subordinate activities, providing necessary supplies, equipment and technical assistance, and monitoring operations. Moreover, effective managers guided subordinates in setting performance goals that were high but realistic.

2.3.2 Relations-oriented behavior

This type of behavior, as discussed by Likert (1962), Elis (1980) and Yukl (1998) was found to be correlated with effective leadership, which included showing trust and
confidence, acting friendly and considerate, trying to understand subordinates’ problems, helping subordinates to recognize themselves and further their careers, keeping subordinates informed, showing appreciation for subordinates’ ideas, and providing recognition for subordinates’ contributions and accomplishments. It involved doing things that were primarily concerned with improving relationships and helping people, increasing cooperation and teamwork, increasing subordinate intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, and building a sense of belongingness to the organization. Goals are established together with the subordinates and general guidelines are given to them, but subordinates are allowed autonomy in deciding how to do the work and how to pace themselves.

2.4 The Ohio Leadership Studies

The Personnel Research Board of the Ohio State University, as one of the Ohio State Leadership Project studies, developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963, 1970; Yukl, 1998). It would serve the purpose of collecting descriptive data on how group members in formal organizations perceive their designated leader to behave. The instrument was made up of items describing the manner in which a leader might behave, along with the respondent rating of the way in which the leader is perceived to engage in each type of behavior (Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963).

The LBDQ was based on the respondents rating a leader on a descending five point Likert scale which was listed as (5) always, (4) often, (3) occasionally, (2)seldom,
never, to indicate the frequency or amount of the particular behavior displayed by the leader (Hemphill 1950; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). Such items were descriptive of the leader behavior being rated. In order to determine the leader’s behavior, responses to items were simply scored and added to describe the leader’s area of concern (task or relations or both) through his style of leadership (Halpin, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Fleishman, 1951; Fleishman, 1953). The questionnaire consists of 40 items. Fifteen of the items correspond to consideration, and another 15 to initiation of structure. Therefore, of the 40 items only 30 are scored. The 10 un-scored items in the instrument were retained to maintain the conditions of administration utilized in standardizing the questionnaire (Halpin, 1959). Therefore, the most influential research in the field was pioneered by the Ohio State University in the 1950s and 1960s (Bensimon, et al., 1989; Yukl, 1998).

A preliminary study employing LBDQ questionnaire was used by the military and civilian personnel to describe the behavior of their supervisors. Factor analysis of the questionnaire responses indicated that subordinates perceived their supervisors’ behavior primarily in terms of two broadly defined categories, which were subsequently labeled ‘consideration’ and ‘initiating structure’ (Halpin, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1963, 1970; Yukl, 1998, p.46), also known as people (employee or relations) oriented and task oriented behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977). Consideration and initiating structure referred to the process by which decisions were made, and to the structuring of tasks, goals, and role relationships within an organization.
Bass (1990) suggested that consideration described the extent to which a leader exhibited concern for the welfare of the other members of the group. He continued to argue that considerate leaders expressed appreciation for good work, stressed the importance of job satisfaction, maintained and strengthened the self-esteem of subordinates by treating them as equals, and made special efforts to help subordinates feel at ease. A considerate leader, for him was easy to approach, and tried to obtain the subordinates’ approval of and contribution to important matters and decisions regarding the organization or the staff. A leader displaying considerate behavior was oriented towards relationships, friendship, mutual trust, interpersonal warmth, as well as participation and group maintenance (Atwater, 1988). Yukl (1998) stated that consideration included doing personal favors for group members, finding time to listen to their problems, backing them in professional issues, consulting with them on important matters, being willing to accept their suggestions, and treating them as his/her equals. Considerate leaders were concerned about the human needs in their subordinates (Newstrom & Davis 1993). Such behavior was observed in pro-social behavior in the form of helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering. The main aim was to produce and maintain the well-being and integrity of others (Bass, 1990).

On the other hand, initiating structure was the degree to which a leader defined and structured his or her own role and the roles of the subordinates towards attainment of the group’s formal goals (Yukl, 1998). According to Bass (1990), initiating structure showed the extent to which a leader initiated activity in the group, organized it, and defined the way work was to be done. Orientation was towards the task and its efficient
completion. A task oriented leader acted directly without consulting the group. Such a leader believed that they could get results by keeping people constantly busy and urging them to produce (Newstrom & Davis, 1993); and they displayed behaviors such as insisting on maintaining standards, meeting deadlines, and deciding in detail as to what should be done and how it should be done (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1998).

The two behaviors of leadership, consideration and initiating structure, although seemed to be somewhat independent of each other, should actually be approached as two types of behavior that could be applied whenever needed depending on the situation. Thus, a leader who is perceived to be more considerate would not necessarily less structured, or a leader who was perceived to be more structured would not necessarily be less considerate (Bass, 1990; Newstrom & Davis, 1993; Yukl, 1998). Newstrom and Davis (1993) stated that if consideration existed alone, production could be bypassed for superficial popularity and contentment. They also added that the most successful managers were those who combined relatively high consideration and high initiation of structure, but giving somewhat more emphasis to consideration.

Similarly, Halpin (1966) indicated that initiation of structure and consideration were both essential constituents of leader behavior. According to Halpin (1966) a leader could display four leadership behaviors as a combination of consideration and initiating structure:
Quadrant I: Low structure/high consideration: The leader emphasizes the structuring of employees’ tasks less while concentrating on satisfying employee needs and wants more;

Quadrant II: High structure/high consideration: The leader provides a lot of guidance about how tasks can be completed while being highly considerate of the employee needs and wants;

Quadrant III: Low structure/low consideration: The leader fails to provide necessary structure and demonstrating little consideration for employee needs and wants; and

Quadrant IV: High structure/low consideration: The leader places primary emphasis on structuring employee tasks while demonstrating little consideration for employee needs and wants.

Task-oriented and relations-oriented behaviors of leaders were also examined by Blake and Mouton (1964). They introduced the Managerial Grid Theory which was a slightly modified version of the Ohio State studies, classifying leader behavior into employee-centered behavior (instead of consideration) versus job-centered behavior (instead of initiating structure). It described managers in terms of their concern for people and their concern for production, and proposed that effective managers have a high concern for both (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The Managerial Grid was developed as a useful tool for the managers to identify their own style instead of their style being described by the perceptions of the subordinates.
The Managerial Grid was based on the concept that managers and leaders vary from 1 to 9 in their concern for people and from 1 to 9 in their concern for production (Bass, 1990). The measurement of these concerns was based on a manager’s approval with the statements about management assumptions and beliefs, which were interactive rather than independent of each other. These assumptions and beliefs were manifested in five styles:

1. **Authority-Obedience Management, Style I, 9:** Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree (Blake and Mouton, 1985, p.12). The leader’s maximum concern for production (9) is combined with a minimum concern for people (1). This is based on the manager’s assumption that the leader concentrates on maximizing production by dictating to subordinates what they should do and how they should do it (Bass, 1990, p. 483).

2. **Country Club Management, Style II, 9, 1:** Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo (Blake and Mouton, 1985, p.12). The leader shows a minimum concern for production (1) but a maximum concern for people (9). For such managers, fostering good feelings is primarily important, even at the expense of achieving results (Bass, 1990).

3. **Improvised Management, Style III, 1, 1:** Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership (Blake and Mouton, 1985, p.12). The leader has a minimum concern for both production and people and puts forth the least effort required to remain in the organization.
4. ‘Organization Man’ Management, Style IV, 5, 5: Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level (Blake and Mouton, 1985, p.12). The leader goes along to get along, which results in conformity to the status quo (Bass, 1990).

5. Team Management, Style V, 9, 9: Work accomplishment is from committed people; independence through a “common stake” in organizational purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect (Blake and Mouton, 1985, p.12). The leader integrates the concern for production and the concern for people at a high level; is goal centered; and seeks results through participation, involvement, and commitment of all those who are involved (Bass, 1990).

The management style prescribed by 9,9 was attained through participation of the followers, openness in relations, mutual trust and respect, consensus, empowerment of followers, mutual understanding and support, and personal and professional improvement, development and change through feedback offered by the leader within the organization (Blake & Mouton, 1981).

The above discussions displayed the fact that studies while trying to distinguish task-oriented behavior from relations-oriented behavior were actually concerned with establishing a distinction between management and leadership focusing on managerial and leadership characteristics and attributes of people in administrative positions (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Posner & Kouzes, 1988; Sashkin, 1988; Sashkin & Huddle, 1988).
The two functions were often referred to as ‘transactional’ as opposed to ‘transformational’ leadership (Bass, 1990, p. 218), or ‘management’ versus ‘leadership’ (Kouzes and Posner, 1993). While these two terms, which possessed different behavioral aspects, were used in the literature in conjunction, there continued to be controversy about the differences between them.

2.5 Situational Leadership

Newstrom and Davis (1993) argue that an important factor determining the style or behavior of a leader, the situation in which he/she functioned was being undermined by just focusing on his/her task or relations orientation. They believed that the positive, participative, considerate leadership style may not always be the best style to use. There might be situations in which managerial or task-oriented styles would be more appropriate. Based on this assumption, researchers (Blake & Mouton, 1982; Sashkin & Fulmer, 1988; Yukl, 1998) argued that survey studies on leadership behaviors of managers and leaders fail to take into account the situations in which effective leaders function. Yukl (1998) pointed out that there was another controversy concerning leadership behavior which was the ‘universal’ versus ‘situational’ models of leadership effectiveness (p.56). For Yukl, the universal model presupposed that particular personal, attitudinal, behavioral, and professional leadership attributes are optimal in all situations, whereas situational models could require different attributes in different situations.

As a result, the five different leadership styles described by Blake and Mouton’s (1964) Managerial Greed began to be considered as a mile stone in the development of Hersey
& Blanchard’s (1969) Situational Leadership theory, which was intended to account for leadership depending on situations. The most significant determinant factor of the situation was the subordinates’ maturity level. The leadership style of a leader depended on the maturity level of the individuals. The two related components of maturity were job maturity and psychological maturity. The former referred to the subordinate’s task-relevant skills and technical knowledge, and the latter to the subordinate’s self-confidence and self-respect. According to the theory, the higher the subordinate’s level of maturity, the lower is the leader’s task behavior and the higher is his/her relations behavior.

Hersey and Blanchard’s (1969) situational leadership model was not a completely new theory. It was a combination of what had been stated before and based on several presuppositions taken from earlier research, such as:

1. Leadership behaviors vary considerably from leader to leader (Stogdill & Coons, 1957);
2. Some leaders’ behaviors primarily involve initiating structure to accomplish tasks, other leaders behave to build and maintain good personal relationship, and others do both or neither (Halpin, 1956);
3. The most effective behavior style of leaders is one that varies with the situation (Fiedler, 1967, Korman, 1966);
4. The best attitudinal style is a high task and high relations orientation (Blake and Mouton, 1964);
5. Maturity relates to the stage in a group’s life cycle or to the previous education and training of the followers (Argyris, 1962); and

6. The job and the psychological maturity levels of the subordinates are the most crucial factors in determining which leader behavior will result in most effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969).

Hersey and Blanchard (1974, 1977) indicated that leaders, in order to determine which leadership style is most appropriate, must first determine the maturity level of the group, or each group member. Hersey and Blanchard’s (1974) Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory (later named as Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) provided an outline of subordinates’ level of maturity, leader behavior orientation and prescribed leadership behavior. According to this outline:

1. If the subordinates were unable and unwilling to do the task, the leader should display low relations, high task orientation by telling them what to do and how to do it.

2. If the subordinates were unable but willing to do the task, the leader should initiate both high relations and high task orientation by engaging in friendly interaction, making whatever possible to make the group feel important, besides emphasizing the importance of meeting deadlines.

3. When the subordinates were able but unwilling to cooperate, the leader should employ high relations, low task orientation, allowing the group to participate in decision making, or in formulating its own direction, and by redefining goals and supervising carefully.
4. When the group was both able and willing to do the task, the leader should be low both on relations and task orientation. He/she should only be concerned with delegating work and leaving the group alone and being most careful of not hurting leader-follower relations by being too directive or too friendly (Bass, 1990, p.489-490).

Fiedler’s (1964, 1967) contingency model of leadership combined leadership styles with situations. This theory defined the suitable leader to match a given situation. Just like the Ohio Studies, Fiedler’s study was first conducted primarily with the military to investigate styles of many different leaders in different situations. The study was based on LPC (Least Preferred Coworker) which was developed to measure the leaders’ styles to determine whether they were task-motivated or relations-motivated. The leaders were asked to describe their most preferred and least preferred coworkers. Through this study, it was observed that the leaders described their most preferred coworker in more or less the same way but the comments made for least preferred coworker varied quite widely. Therefore it was concluded by Fiedler that the only variable that contributed to the determination of the leadership style was the least preferred coworker score. If the comments made by leaders favored least preferred coworker, they were considered to be relations-motivated; however, if evaluations of least preferred coworker were not supportive, the leader was identified as a task-motivated leader. There were three factors determining the favorability of the situation: good leader-follower relations, well defined tasks, and strong leader position power. The theory posited that task-motivated individuals were more effective in extremes; very favorable and very
unfavorable situations. Relationship- motivated individuals, on the other hand, were more effective in moderately favorable situations.

2.6 Transformational Leadership and Charisma

Studies in leadership continued with the development of “charismatic leadership” (House, 1977) discussing that charismatic leaders were able to communicate on a very powerful, emotional level combined with their personality traits that people were naturally drawn to them. Their personal image and communication skills could get people to do whatever was required of them. “Transformational leadership” (Burns, 1978) emerged around the same time of charismatic leadership. Burns, described transformational leadership as a process in which “leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation” (p. 20). The ideas behind transformational leadership are liberty, justice, equality, peace and humanitarianism. Burns describes leadership as “a stream of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational responses from followers and modifying their behavior as they meet responsiveness or resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counter-flow” (p. 440). Bass (1985) defines transformational leadership in terms of the leader’s effect on the followers to make them feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader so that they are motivated to do more than they are originally expected to do. Transactions are entered in order to fulfill self-interest which is thought to be in line with the organizational interest. While transformational leadership is bonding, activating, and innovative, transactional leadership creates a routinized, not creative but stable work environment.
In order to distinguish transformational leadership from charismatic leadership, Bass (1985) added three sub-factors of transformational behavior, one being charisma, to the original formulation of the transformational theory. These sub-factors were charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Later, Bass and Avolio (1990) added inspiration as the fourth factor. Charisma is the ability of an individual to arouse people and to bring them to follow the leader’s mission and vision; intellectual stimulation is the ability of the leader to stimulate people to think of creative and extraordinary solutions to problems; and individualized consideration is the ability of the leader to pay individual attention to the followers; and inspiration as a factor added later refers to the ability of the leader to inspire people. For Bass (1990) “Charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership, but by itself it is not sufficient to account for the transformational process” (p. 31).

Charismatic theory of the 70’s and transformational leadership of the 80’s, combined together changed the approach in leadership studies (Burns, 1978; Conger, 1989; House, 1977; Kotter, 1996; Shamir, 1995). Researchers, basing their studies on these theories attempted to measure successful implementation of major transformations of organizations and neglected looking at trivial differences in employee satisfaction and performance during the implementation process of such major changes within the organization and production process.
2.7 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work. It is an affected attitude that can be viewed as an individual attitude or an overall attitude (Newstrom & Davis, 1993). Employees, at every level form impressions regarding whether they are valued and respected from important cues originating in work environment, especially those that come from their leaders to whom they are directly accountable (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993, Fryer & Lovas, 1991). These impressions are translated into feelings, either positive or negative, that become the principal component of a worker’s morale.

Morale is the key factor in determining an employee’s commitment to work and the degree of job satisfaction to which he or she professes (Fryer & Lovas, 1991). Newstrom and Davis (1993) defined morale as the “level of job satisfaction within a group” (p.558). Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes of a single employee, whereas morale is used to describe the overall group satisfaction.

A comprehensive literature review suggested that job satisfaction studies began with George Elton Mayo (Gallmeier, 1992) who was in charge of certain experiments on human behavior carried out at the Hawthorne Works of General Electric Company (HWGEC) between 1924 and 1932. The study was initially aimed at investigating what effect fatigue and monotony had on job productivity and how to control them through such variables as the amount of light, rest breaks, work hours, temperature, and humidity. The Hawthorne Studies (or experiments), showed no clear connection
between productivity and the amount of light but it gave way to other research areas such as what kind of changes influenced output. Mayo’s research findings contributed to organization development in terms of human relations and motivation theory. It was concluded from the findings that work was a group activity; the need for recognition, security, and sense of belonging were more important in determining workers’ morale and productivity than the physical conditions under which the group worked; and group collaboration did not occur by accident, thus it had to be planned and developed. If group collaboration was achieved, human relations within a work plant would reach cohesion, which resisted the disturbing effects of adaptive society (Bass, 1990; Mayo, 1945; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

During the experiments, six women were taken from the assembly line, segregated from the rest of the factory and put under the eye of a supervisor who was more a friendly observer than a disciplinarian. Frequent changes, with prior discussions and explanations in advance, were made in their working conditions such as the hours in the working week, the hours in the workday, the number of rest breaks, and the time of lunch hour. Throughout the series of experiments, an observer sat with the girls noting what went on, keeping them informed about the experiment, asking for advice and information and listening to their complaints.

As a result of these experiments it was concluded that the six girls became a team and this team gave itself wholeheartedly and spontaneously to co-operation. The consequence was that they felt themselves to be participating freely and without
afterthought and were happy in the knowledge that they were working without coercion from above or limitation from below. It was an important fact that medical checks showed no signs of cumulative fatigue and absence from work declined by eighty per cent. It was also noted that the group felt freer since they were not pushed around or bossed by anyone. Under these conditions they developed an increased sense of responsibility, which came from within the group itself instead of being imposed by higher authority.

Through these experiments, a fundamental concept that seems obvious today was discovered; work places are social environments and within them, people are motivated by much more than economic self-interest, and that all aspects of an industrial environment carried a social value.

Thus, it can be stated that the concept of job satisfaction is based on the theoretical framework of the realm of motivation towards work. Satisfaction of an employee mainly depends on whether the conditions of the work provide for the needs of the individual. Abraham Maslow (1943) theorized that certain needs experienced by the individual were the primary influences on an individual’s behavior. When a particular need emerged, it determined the individual’s behavior in terms of motivations, priorities, and action taken. Accordingly, motivated behavior was the result of the tension - either pleasant or unpleasant - experienced when a need presented itself. The goal of the behavior was the reduction of this tension or discomfort, and the behavior itself, would be appropriate for facilitating the satisfaction of the need.
Maslow (1954) conceived self-actualization as the need at a higher level of maturity. He believed that the attainment of self-actualization is revealed in characteristics of psychological health and well-being, such as perceiving reality efficiently, accepting oneself, tolerating uncertainty, being problem-centered rather than self-centered, and trying to identify one’s defenses with the courage to give them up (Maslow, 1965). Maslow (1954) also called attention to the importance of the need for esteem. Just as people would like to occupy valued positions, most also desired to be valued as persons, particularly by those they value. People were more satisfied with situations and groups that provided esteem. Van Zelst (1951) indicated that highly esteemed workers were more satisfied with their jobs and with their organizations. Thus, participants who felt they were accepted were more satisfied and happier in their work organizations.

Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman (1959) proposed that in order to understand an employee’s motivation to work, attitudes representing motivation or demotivation should be observed. What they meant was that an attitude was a representative of a state of mind and when it was probed it could reveal valuable information on the levels of motivation for the managers (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). As a result of their study, Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman (1959) developed two distinct lists of factors about the attitudes of the employees. One set of factors was related to happy feelings within the worker or a good attitude displayed by the worker, and they were, on the whole, task-related. The other set was related to factors that caused unhappiness or bad attitude, which were not related to the job itself, but to the conditions that surrounded that job. The first group which was directly related to job requirements was called ‘motivators’
and the latter, which was environmental, was called ‘hygiene’ factors. Factors intrinsic to the job itself were recognition, achievement, possibility for growth, advancement, and responsibility; and factors extrinsic to the job were salary, status, job security, interpersonal relationships, supervision, quality of administration, working conditions, and factors in personal life (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). According to Herzberg et al. (1959) motivators caused positive job attitudes because they satisfied the workers’ need for self-actualization (Maslow, 1959). It was stated that, only motivators could have a lasting impression on a worker’s attitude, satisfaction, thus productivity at work.

These studies affected practicing managers in that during the early 1960s, they began to recognize that money, working conditions, and punishment were not effective long-term motivators. Therefore, studies began to be directed towards investigating the emotional climate at work places. Douglas McGregor (1960) conducting such a study postulated two opposing theories; theory X, as viewing people as lazy and unmotivated by nature, and theory Y, stating that people were motivated by the work itself and were happy to be productive were gratified by it. Theory X argued that people naturally avoid responsibility, and therefore, needed to be controlled and directed whereas theory Y emphasized that people would use self-control to achieve goals, and they would accept (and even welcome) responsibility. Since theory Y type of worker would appear to be more of a mature and an already motivated worker, Drucker (1974) argued that most modern managers favor this type of worker.
Another discussion about worker motivation was related to worker expectations. Vroom (1964) introduced the expectancy theory by which he argued that people actually expected to get something out of what they did thus their actions were mostly directed by the magnitude of their expectance. Vroom’s theory included three variables: motivation to pursue a particular course of action (force); degree of attractiveness of the outcome (valence); and, the probability of the expected outcome to occur (expectancy) and expectancy. Expectancy theory was set to explain motivation as a process where self-directed decisions were made by workers as to how much effort to devote to a job at any given time (Porter & Lowler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Thus commitment to work in the form of devoting effort and energy to pursue the foals of the organization was explained by the way a worker weighed desirable outcomes against the undesired outcomes and acted accordingly.

Another factor contributing to job satisfaction was investigated in terms of values (Locke, 1970). For Rand (1964), values, material or conceptual were important for people so they acted to gain and/or to keep them. They were different from needs in that values have more in common with goals than with needs (Locke, 1970; Tietjen & Myers, 1998). With regard to finding satisfaction in and commitment to one’s job, the employee needed to be self-directed in the decision to accept the values related to the goals of the organization. When goals of the organization were accepted and regarded as one’s own his/her commitment to work naturally increased. Yılmaz and Çokluk (2010) affirmed that belief in and acceptance of organizational goals increased commitment to work.
Self-esteem derived from valuing the job led to studies relating job satisfaction of workers to doing a job that they thought was worthwhile (Collins & Porras, 1989). They believed that motivation came from the belief that the job was worthwhile doing and it arose as a natural outcome of believing in the mission, the vision, and the goals of the organization so it could not be nurtured directly. When the purpose and the mission of the organization was clearly understood and equated with personal aims, objectives, skills and competencies, motivation would naturally arise. Equation of personal vision with organizational vision was also important for Collins and Porras because it meant by “creating the future by taking action in the present” (p.67). Therefore, it could be concluded from what they argued that people were motivated to take action only when the mission and the vision of the organization matched their vision, skills and competencies to contribute to the future.

Besides acceptance of organizational goals, the impact of participation in decision making process was also a concern for investigation in non-educational settings. Researchers (Morse & Reimer, 1956; Powel & Schlacter, 1971; Seashore & Bowers, 1963; Vroom, 1959) attempted to discover the relationship between participation of the employees in the process of decision-making and work outcomes in forms of employee job satisfaction, effectiveness, and productivity. These studies, in general indicated that job satisfaction of an individual working in an organization was related to and directly affected by how much that individual was involved or participated in the decision making process.
Blumberg (1969) in summarizing the literature concerning the relationship between decision involvement and job satisfaction stated that no literature in the field could be found that failed to demonstrate that job satisfaction of a worker was increased by a genuine increase in his/her participation in the decision making process. When workers were participating the work became an extension of themselves and with the decisions they were taking they were creating their work, modifying and regulating it (p.12).

2.8 Leadership and Job Satisfaction Studies in Education

A variety of leadership studies have been conducted in the field of education to determine the leadership behavior of school administrators and school principals in terms of their task and relations orientation (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Brown, A.F, 1966; Brown, J.S. 1970; Cerit, 2007; Fast, 1964; Flocco, 1969; Halpin, 1956; Keeler & Andrews, 1963; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Mulford, 2003; Said, 2011; Sancar, 2012; Seeman, 1957; Stromberg, 1967; Yılmaz, 2011; Yukl, 1999). Halpin (1956) stated that superintendents (in the U.S) were rated as effective leaders by both their staff and school board members since they employed both high consideration and high initiating structure. School administrators studied by Flocco (1967) were considered to be effective and were described as high in consideration and initiating structure by staff subordinates. Mulford (2003) and Bull (2005) discussed that effective leadership behavior of school principals positively affected school effectiveness because of its positive effects on teachers and students. Stromberg (1967) found that there was a significant relation between teachers’ morale and the attitudes of their principal towards consideration and initiating structure. According to Fast (1964) consideration and
initiation of structure by principals, as described by teachers, were positively related to teachers’ job satisfaction.

A review of literature in the field has shown that leader behavior is dominated by two broadly defined categories, task (initiating structure) and relations (consideration). Many studies have been conducted to measure how concentration on each of these categories correlated with or affected leader effectiveness. Findings in leadership research indicated that different leadership behaviors may have different results. Thus, the results of these studies were inconclusive or sometimes contradictory, yet what they were consistently arguing was that the subordinates of considerate leaders were more motivated and more satisfied.

Studies concerning teacher job satisfaction were based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and earlier studies regarding job satisfaction in the field of organizational management. Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman (1959) placed recognition and achievement as the most powerful satisfiers for teachers. Behaviors of educational administrators contributing to teacher job satisfaction were listed as empowerment of teachers, demonstration of belief in teachers’ skills, abilities and dignity, and emphasizing the positive rather than the negative. Miskel, et al. (1980) focused on internal factors and stated that when teachers were made to believe that they have the capacity and competence to do the job and when they actually experienced expected outcomes realized, they felt satisfied and spent further efforts for even better results.
Additional research findings also indicate that teachers felt more satisfied with their work when they were directly involved in formulating school goals, given autonomy, valued as professionals, and respected. In contrast to such positive behavior, extensive bureaucracy, administrative hierarchy and centralization of power resulted in teacher dissatisfaction (Blasé & Blasé, 1997; Carnes & Boutte, 1998; Fowler, 1991; Hall, 1994; Krook, 1989; Marks & Louis, 1999; Quinn & Troy-Quinn, 2000; Rise and Schneider, 1994; Sashkin, 1988; Short, 1998; Vroom, 1964).

As it was emphasized by Herzberg (1966), participation and performance played a crucial role in teacher job satisfaction (Katz, 1964; Milstein, & Belasco, 1973; Sergiovanni, 1991, 1992). While sometimes participation was related with the amount of pay received for the amount of work put in, it would be considered as an extrinsic motivator. However, performance tended to be voluntary since it involved the interaction between students and teachers and would be boosted with rewards like recognition, student achievement, feelings of competence, empowerment, and meaningful work opportunities and considered to result from intrinsic motivation (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Studies since 1990s have concentrate on educational reforms which strongly advocate increased teacher participation and involvement in school decision-making. It is believed that teacher involvement in decision making will create opportunities for growth and development by paying attention to teachers’ needs and managing by satisfying each (Barnet, et al., 2005; Blasé & Blasé, 1997; Bull, 2005; Carnes & Boutte,
Hoy and Miskel (1987) reported that when teachers participated in the process of decision-making, they had increased morale and enhanced job satisfaction, whereas as reported by Holdaway (1978) when teachers’ lacked the opportunity to participate in decision making it was found to be the most powerful source of teacher dissatisfaction with their job. Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman (1978) also found that teacher participation in decision making improved teacher job satisfaction.

Research in the field of education had the dependent variable of job satisfaction being the focus of many studies (Barnett, at. al., 2005; Bull, 2005; Cerit, 2007; Chissom, et.al., 1987; Holdaway, 1978; Kreis & Milstein, 1985; Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991; Saeed at.al., 2011; Surgent and Hannum, 2005; Wanous & Lawler, 1972). These studies showed that teacher satisfaction was influenced by school policies that promoted teacher satisfaction by focusing on goals such as fostering a communicative and collaborative work environment in which teachers would be able to communicate their feelings and thoughts about policies and decisions and cooperatively work with administrators and other teachers.

Related to above discussion, Rice and Schneider (1994) found that there was a significant relationship between the teachers’ level of decision involvement and job
satisfaction. They also stated that teachers with low perceived involvement had a significantly lower level of job satisfaction than those who had medium or high levels of perceived involvement. Correlational analyses in their study indicated a significant relationship between teachers’ perceived levels of influence in school-wide decisions, their perceived level of decision involvement, their expressed interest in decision issues and their job satisfaction levels.

Similarly, Blasé & Blasé (1996) stated that teachers’ sense of involvement in decision-making (empowerment) existed at three levels; affective level, school-wide level, and classroom level. Affective level of teacher involvement in decision making was associated with job satisfaction, motivation, esteem, confidence, security and inclusion. The school-wide level of involvement in decision making corresponded to free expression, ownership of school goals and decisions taken, commitment, sense of team, and efficacy. Involvement in decisions to be taken at classroom level was linked with autonomy, reflection, professional growth, and efficacy. For Blasé and Blasé (1996) job satisfaction for teachers meant possession of positive feelings such as motivation and enthusiasm; confidence in the form of competence; security, meaning comfort and peace at work; and inclusion promoting their sense of belonging. These would result in teacher empowerment and their positive orientation towards involvement in school-wide decisional structures (p.146).

More recent studies in the field reported worthwhile accomplishment, making meaning out of work, opportunities for development and growth, collaborative and collegial
relationships, quality of supervision, involvement in decision making, taking on responsibility, a positive work environment, and effective manager/leader behavior to be contributing to teacher job satisfaction (Akman, 2006; Barnett, et.al. 2005; Çevik, 1998; Dönmez, 1998; Ngang, 2010; Richter, et al., 2012; Saeed at.al., 2011, Surgent and Hannum, 2005; Umur, 2011).

It has been clearly stated in researches that teachers’ sense of empowerment (inclusion, involvement, etc.), ownership, worth, recognition, autonomy, and commitment to work are all related to school policies, thus to leadership style of the school principal leading to positive or negative sense of these factors in the form of teacher job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Leader behavior and teacher job satisfaction, teacher performance, thus group efficacy are strongly related. Blasé and Blasé (1997) listed eight micro-political strategies for school principals to influence teachers’ sense of empowerment: demonstrating full trust in teachers; developing shared governance structures; listening to and encouraging individual input; encouraging individual teacher autonomy; giving rewards; providing support; and displaying a caring, enthusiastic, optimistic, honest, and friendly behavior.

2.9 School Principals’ Consideration and Initiating Structure Behavior and Teacher Job Satisfaction

Just as initial job satisfaction studies mainly centered on business management, first, studies attempting to demonstrate the relationship between job satisfaction and manager behavior and their subordinates were also based on businesses. Ohio leadership studies
in late 1950s and in the 1960s were directly focused on leader behaviors and many of
research was conducted utilizing the LBDQ produced by the scholars at Ohio
University. Trieb and Marion (1969), using LBDQ, for example, as a result of their
study of two grocery store chains came to a conclusion that consideration behavior of
the supervisor positively affected productivity, cohesiveness, and satisfaction in both
chains. House, Filley, & Kerr (1971) studying the same businesses found that the
supervisors’ consideration in both companies related significantly to the subordinates’
satisfaction. Evans (1968) reported that not only consideration but also initiation of
structure behavior of the manager influenced the way workers valued the goals of the
organization and their level of job satisfaction. High supervisory behavior resulted in
high group performance and high consideration of people’s needs and wants resulted in
job satisfaction. Weis (1977) argued that consideration behavior displayed by the
supervisor initiated opening of communication channels and subordinates tended to be
more likely to share their values with their supervisors. Beer (1964) using the LBDQ to
test McGregor’s (1960) assumption that employees became motivated and were enabled
to satisfy their higher-order needs (autonomy, esteem, and self-actualization) only when
supervisors allowed them freedom from organizational structure and pressure, found that
the employees’ satisfaction of the need for autonomy, esteem and self-actualization was
actually positively related to the supervisors’ consideration behavior and tolerance of
freedom.

Accordingly, studies in the field of education, carried out in the 1960s had also shown
the relationship between leadership behaviors of school administrators and teachers’ job
satisfaction. In a research conducted by Rooker (1967) using LBDQ, school teachers described the school principals who had a strong need for achievement as exerting high tolerance for freedom and reconciliation of demands. According to Fast (1964) consideration and initiation of structure by principals, as described by teachers, were positively related to the teachers’ satisfaction. Stromberg (1967) obtained support to state that there was a significant relation between teachers’ morale and the attitudes of their principals toward consideration and the initiation of structure. Fast (1964) and Mansour (1969), combining leader behavior with Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory studied the discrepancy between the expected and actual behavior of principals and stated that in order for teachers to be fully satisfied, school principals behaviors should match with how teachers expect them to act. When there were discrepancies, expectations of the teachers could not be fulfilled and the greater the discrepancy between the teachers’ expectations and their perceptions of their principals’ behavior, the lower the level of teachers’ satisfaction would be.

When consideration behavior of school principals was concerned, Bailey (1966) found that since teachers expected their principals to be concerned in their needs and expectations, consideration behavior of a leader was significantly related to teacher satisfaction. The most important need for teachers as mature, knowledgeable and self-directed professionals would be their need for recognition and self-actualization. Related to this, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) emphasized the importance of understanding the relationship between the phenomena of higher order human needs, effectively attending to them and thus ensuring teacher satisfaction.
Sweeny (1982) working on the relationship between teacher expectations, satisfaction of their higher order needs and their leaders’ behaviors, conducted a research on 1,300 teachers from 23 secondary schools. His aim was to show the extent to which the teachers’ expected and received satisfaction in Maslow’s hierarchy met. He called the discrepancy between the expected need satisfaction and the displayed behavior, a need deficiency. The results of the findings demonstrated that there was a great need deficiency in areas of self-esteem and self-actualization needs, suggesting that teachers felt a lack of respect, prestige and accomplishment in their jobs.

Since teachers were intellectuals performing in the field of education, the amount of mental challenge seemed to be one of the factors affecting teacher job satisfaction. Locke (1970) emphasizing the importance of mental challenge for teacher job satisfaction described mental challenge of work as involving variety, allowing autonomy, and providing contexts and experiences for achievement of institutional and personal goals. Such challenge would enable personal needs to be satisfied while attaining organizational goals. Lowler (1969) believed that assuming considerable amount of responsibility would contribute to mental challenge of work. Teachers assuming responsibility would believe in meaningful and worthwhile outcomes and feedback for attaining high job satisfaction.

Therefore, as discussed before, participation in decision making would mean taking on responsibility of the decisions made and would hold teachers accountable of their decisions and actions (Bass, 1990). The only way to get teachers participate in decisions
would be by exercising democratic leadership because autocratic leadership would be suppressive and would block channels of communication. It was also argued by Stogdill (1974) that democratic leadership style was relatively related to member satisfaction. Many elements of consideration as described on LBDQ were part of democratic, thus participative decision-making leadership behavior: asking subordinates for their suggestions before taking any action, getting the approval of subordinates on important matters, treating one’s subordinates as equal, making subordinates feel at ease when talking with them, putting subordinates’ suggestions into operation, and remaining easily approachable.

Barnett, McCormick, and Conners (2000) dealing with principal behavior in relation to job satisfaction also stressed the fact that teachers viewed themselves as a professional work force who regarded autonomy to be important in their professional activities. They concluded that there was a direct effect of the leadership behavior on outcomes related to job satisfaction and efficacy. Their findings indicated that the two variables, individual concern for each teacher and management of tasks both had a significant effect on teacher outcomes. They also suggested that teacher outcomes in forms of extra effort, satisfaction, and effectiveness, were more likely to occur when a principal showed respect towards teachers and had concerns about their personal feelings and needs. These findings also supported the idea that individual concern was motivational in that teachers were reassured of their efforts being valued by the principal and the principal would endeavor to assist them in their efforts (Leithwood, at. al., 1999).
Similarly, Elizabeth Tuettemann (1991) concluding from the responses of 574 full-time classroom secondary school teachers to a survey conducted in Western Australia during 1984 concluded that 90% of teachers considered acknowledgement and appreciation from superiors as an important factor in job satisfaction. Other factors regarded as important motivators were success with students which was rated higher than salary and promotion.

Besides individual factors, and behaviors of school principals, Chen and Miller (1997) reviewing 67 studies on teacher stress conducted in countries such as Australia, Finland, Israel, Japan, Nigeria, and New Zealand, found that organizational characteristics could have positive or negative effect on satisfaction. They listed the negative factors causing stress as: a negative or no sense of school community; rigid administrative bureaucracy; lack of involvement in decision making; and lack of collegiality. Accordingly, Terry (1999) argued that teachers felt demoralized when there was too much top-down management, a lack of trust, support, coaching and feedback, poor communication, and insistence on following rigid, bureaucratic policies. Erlandson and Bifano (1987) also cited several conditions that contribute to teacher frustration and disappointment such as lack of teacher input into decisions that affect their work, administrative decisions that undermine teacher judgment and expertise, lack of opportunities for collegial exchange, and lack of recognition for accomplishment.

During the 1990s bureaucratic management was viewed as a barrier to effective leadership. During those times when the focus was on transformational leadership, it
was theorized that educational reforms and fundamental change in schools could not occur under the structural and procedural constraints inherent in the bureaucratic models of management (Çelik, 1998; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Dönmez, 1998; Allen & Glickman, 1998; Schlechty, 1997). Reformers in school management advocated that schools be organized as democratic communities to offer flexibility and creative potential for innovative school improvement (Hosman & Cline, 2002). Since 1990s, school reform movements have been implemented in forms of Site-Based Management (SBM) and Shared Decision-Making (SDM) as potential force for empowering educators and educational communities (David, 1994; Noble, at. al., 1996).

Therefore, a paradigm shift is taking place in educational leadership toward consideration local issues (contexts / situations) and human factor in accomplishing goals and tasks. Such a movement is referred to as ‘decentralization / localization’ and ‘teacher empowerment’ in recent studies. In order to empower teachers and school principals, more often now, governments are restructuring schools to involve school principals and teachers in the decisions regarding their schools and school principals are now practicing teacher involvement in decision making more often than ever (Terry, 1999). Diane George (1999) says that effective school principals foster teachers’ sharing and learning from each other. They provide time to collaborate and share expertise. Thus, once the teachers begin to have the sense of collegiality, ownership of the decisions and the missions and goals teacher outcomes such as job satisfaction, efficacy, organizational climate, and organizational commitment are enhanced (Akman and Kelecioğlu, 2006; Çelik, 1998; Dönmez, 1998; Higgins, 1993; Holley, 1995; John &

Rutherford’s (1985) five-year study of leadership skills of school principals in regard to participatory decision making in elementary and secondary schools revealed that in effective schools, principals created a joint commitment to goals and a supportive environment to maximize teacher talent and effectiveness. When teachers were able to participate in as many decisions as desired, teacher satisfaction was optimized and job tension was minimized (Davis & Wilson, 2000). Liontos (1994, cited in Lashway, 1996) emphasized that shared decision-making resulted in improved student achievement as the outcome increased teacher job satisfaction. Griffin and Weiss (1993, quoted in Lashway, 1996) stated, as another effect of shared-decision-making, that teachers were pleased when their views influenced school decisions, leading them to feel both respected and empowered.

Davis & Wilson (2000) discussed that empowering teachers increased their intrinsic motivation. They found that teachers’ intrinsic motivation was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job stress. The higher the teachers’ intrinsic motivation (impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice) the more satisfied the teachers were with their jobs and the less stress they experienced. The empowering behavior of the school principal (PEB) significantly affected teacher motivation (p. 352) The higher the PEB score in a school, the higher was the teachers’ intrinsic motivation. This meant that the more principals engaged in empowering behaviors, the greater the
impact teachers felt they were able to make by fulfilling work-related tasks, and more likely they were to see that they had choices in selecting actions that would lead toward positive outcomes.

Empowering behavior of school principals was also believed to lead to professional development and growth. Short (1998) argued that teachers felt to grow and develop professionally when they felt empowered within the school were working because it provided them with opportunities to learn continuously, and to expand their own skills (Akman and Kelecioğlu, 2006; Çelik, 1998; Dönmez, 1998; Surgent and Hannum, 2005; Saeed at. al., 2011). Short (1998) stated that teachers felt even more empowered when they believed that they had greater involvement in decision-making on issues of critical concern to them and to their work. When this belief was coupled with the notion that their involvement is genuine and their opinions are critical to the outcome of the decision, they feel greater responsibility towards the outcomes and responsibility brought commitment.

Many other research investigating the relationship of the school principals’ leadership behavior with teacher job satisfaction also argued that involving teachers in matters relating to their job and to their school created a conductive and supportive environment in which teachers also felt a social bond to each other besides a professional connection (Akman and Kelecioğlu, 2006; Higgins, 1993; Holley, 1995; John and Taylor, 1999; Surgent and Hannum, 2005; Yılmaz and Çokluk, 2010; Withrow, 1993). John and Taylor (1999) as a result of a study conducted in Philippines concluded that in an
educational setting, the considerate behavior of the school principal created and open climate in which teachers felt socially and professionally engaged in school life and were happy to work in such favorable climate.

The importance of open climates in schools was also mentioned in National Center for Educational Statistics report (1997) on job satisfaction among American teachers. Other factors stressed in this report as factors affecting teacher job satisfaction were adequate administrative support, a positive school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy. Lumdsen (1998) also concluded teacher morale and satisfaction were boosted when they felt supported and valued. Others discussed that supportive behavior in the form of opportunities for teachers to display their professional skills and abilities (Akman and Kelecioğlu, 2006) would not only contribute to teacher job satisfaction but also to teacher commitment (Yılmaz and Çokluk, 2010)

Another considerate behavior necessary for school principals was discussed by Kouzes and Posner (1995). They stressed the importance of practicing good listening skills as effective communicators since it could build trust and credibility in group members. Not only listening but also giving consistent and accurate information and constructive feedback is important. According to Whaley (1994), a principal’s communication effectiveness was directly related to teacher job satisfaction. Teachers felt the need to have accurate, useful, consistent, and constructive information and feedback from their principal. They needed to know how well they were doing their jobs, and to discuss their professional or personal problems with the principal in a non-judgmental,
professional and friendly atmosphere. They wanted the principal to listen to and show interest in them as individuals.

In other similar studies, factors relating to teacher job satisfaction were: leadership behavior of the person in charge (the most important of all since presence or absence of the others depended it); feeling of self-worth; warm relationships; open communication; autonomy; independence; recognition; collegiality opportunities for professional development; and participation in decision making processes (Bull, 2005; Ferik, 1997; Saeed, 2011; Umur, 2011; Yılmaz, 2011). The factors contributing to dissatisfactions of teachers were said to be workload; poor pay; lack of respect; isolation; directive and pressurizing behavior; and inefficient and insufficient materials (Akman and Kelecioğlu, 2006; Barnett, at. al. 2005; Saeed et. at. 2011; Surgent and Hannum, 2005).

Since consideration and initiating structure within a school requires positive human relations within a positive environment, school principals might need to develop their interpersonal skills in order to build positive relationships and a positive work environment. According to Howard Gardner (1983), some people have ‘interpersonal intelligence’ allowing them to be more effective in their relationships with other people which can be considered as a quality that adds charisma to a leader if he/she has it. Goleman (1995) calls this ability ‘emotional intelligence’ and describes it as a series of learned abilities, such as being able to motivate one’s self and persist in the face of difficulties, to control impulse and control gratification, to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to empathize and hope. For him, people with
high level of emotional intelligence are more skillful in managing others. They know how to give criticism artfully, and they understand that leadership is not dominating, but persuading people to work toward a common goal through interpersonal relations.

Therefore, it could be assumed that effective school principals who can create favorable school climates through such behaviors as open communication, friendly relationships, recognition of worthwhile work, supportive attitude and so on which were believed to contribute positively to teacher job satisfaction possess such intelligences and they would most probably be perceived to display high consideration behavior.

Similarly, Rihter at. al. (2012) suggested that school principals should be able to create socially positive environments in which people communicate openly and freely concerning their personal or professional thoughts and opinions. Saeed et al. (2011) stressed the importance of a peaceful, secure and trustable work environment for people to effectively function in. School leaders could provide such environments only if they have effective behavior management skills by which they manage their own and others’ behavior (Richter, at. al. 2012).

Recent research in the field linked with leader behavior and teacher job satisfaction has shown that when both initiation of structure and consideration behavior were combined and effectively exercised leader behavior was significantly positively related to teacher overall job satisfaction. However, when taken and analyzed separately, initiation of
structure behavior had no relevance to intrinsic motivation but was correlated with extrinsic motivation expressed by teachers. Consideration behavior on the other hand significantly positively related to both intrinsic (feeling of worth, recognition, achievement, responsibility, enjoying the job) and extrinsic (feeling supported, involved, autonomous accompanied with the feeling of collegiality, development and growth) motivation of teachers (Akman and Kellecioğlu 2006; Karadağ at. al, 2009; Nngang, 2010; Richter, 2012; Surgent and Hannum, 2005; Yılmaz, 2011; Saeed at. al., 2011; Yılmaz and Çokluk, 2010). Barnett (2005) investigating three styles of leadership behavior; visionary, individualized consideration and laissez-faire (lenient, let them be, let them do type of behavior) on teacher job satisfaction concluded that individualized consideration was positively significantly and laissez-faire negatively significantly related with teacher job satisfaction whereas visionary had negative or positive relevance to teacher job satisfaction. The same conclusion was reached in studies conducted in Turkey stating that the centralized bureaucratic structure of the education system forced the leaders to be stagnated and transformational or visionary leadership was not something applied by school principals in school environments (Çelik, 1998; Dönmez, 1998). It could probably be suitable to conduct transformational or visionary leadership
research now that there is a considerable change in the education in Turkey to analyze how the process of change is being managed by the school principals.

Consequently, it may be stated that there are many factors affecting leader effectiveness and in return teacher job satisfaction. A comprehensive literature review in the field has shown that task-orientation (initiation of structure) together with people-orientation (consideration) significantly positively affected teacher job satisfaction. The present study will add to literature in the fields with findings peculiar to teachers and school principals in TRNC.

2.10 Leadership and English Language Teaching

Global economical, social and technological changes have affected peoples’ needs for foreign language learning and skills acquisition for a more effective communication and a wider understanding of other cultures. Accordingly, English language teaching in a variety of different contexts such as English programs at school settings, intensive English programs of various commercial language teaching institutions, preparatory schools and English departments of universities, EFL departments in non-English-speaking countries all have been affected by this. This new paradigm in English language teaching and learning has brought an inevitable need for contemporary leadership in ELT. Leaders in ELT are faced with the same concerns of a school principal and their jobs are just as complicated. Just like in other areas of educational
leadership, leadership in ELT has also begun to benefit from leadership theories and approaches from business and industry. Benefitting from such theories and approaches, practicing ELT leaders should begin to change their approach to management and leadership and provide opportunities for the ELT teachers they are supervising in order to gain necessary skills and knowledge to adapt to the changing needs of their learners.

Accordingly, Stephenson (2011) said:

To meet the changing imperatives (Portin, 1995), responsibility for leadership is required for all the English language teachers in the profession. The same issues that are making the principalship more complicated apply to ELT professionals. All necessitate a different set of skills. Change begins with the individual and requires developing the leadership skills of everyone. … This individual and collective learning inspires reform and provides ELT teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to adapt to multiple changes. (p. 7)

Looking at the issue form Stephenson’s perspective, it is, therefore, the responsibility of the ELT leader to foster the learning of the team in order to develop their capacities to cope with change. Senge et al. (1999) argued that when people increased their capabilities to endure changes, they could better contribute to organizations, with greater levels of commitment, skills and variety. Peter Senge (1990) in his book *The Fifth Discipline* discussed that, a learning organization unites people and systems within the organization during processes of adaptation and helps bringing out human potential. For
Watkins and Marsik (1999), a learning organization has the capacity to continually learn and transform itself. The people in a learning organization have the capacity to interpret change, generate new knowledge and entrench this into practice to attain new products and services. Therefore, the ELT leader, with such rapid global changes, and new knowledge and skills requirements of the time, needs to develop capacities and provide opportunities to help individuals learn, work more devotedly, and turn the organization into a learning organization.

Another factor for the ELT leader to deal with is the social setting in which language is being taught. The emerging issues within the social setting are the people, the purpose of teaching English and the values of the community devoted to the language. The concept of social setting makes the job of the ELT leader even more complicated because such issues are beyond reach and may be difficult to alter. It is within the cultural background that people perceive the need for learning and putting a language into practical usage. It needs a collective understanding and experience of its necessity. Individuals may interpret the changing needs in their own way differently from each other, however, it is probably the responsibility of the ELT leader to do his/her best for a collective interpretation and shape the change in a social setting.

Related to issues in social settings, Murray (2009), exploring the “ecology of leadership” (p. 13) adopts a situational leadership approach suggesting a type of ELT leadership that is context sensitive. The most important factor affecting ELT today is the constant
change in its intercultural nature which must be incorporated into English Language education institutions.

… while global issues impact on language and teaching programs and their management, all leadership is local in its needs to be responsive to and support and sustain the environment (home) in which the leadership occurs. (Murray, 2009, p. 14)

For Murray, there are two aspects of the context that ELT leader needs to be aware of: the challenge of constant change; and the intercultural nature of the job of the English language educator. Thus, ELT leaders need to deal with complexity of the context, teacher commitment and credibility of the organization with the society in which the organization is operating.

2.11 English language teachers’ Job Satisfaction

One of the most often disregarded or neglected issues in language teaching and learning is probably the motivation and job satisfaction levels of language teachers. There is plentiful research on learner motivation, however, data and material on language teacher motivation is rather scarce. Whereas there are many factors such as school principals’ leadership behaviors, the teachers’ home culture and values of the society in which they operate, are rarely discussed in research. Recognition and appreciation of the English language teachers is undermined in schools as well as in most of the cultures in which science and technology are regarded as primary and where English is taught as a foreign language that might be of use.
Appreciation and recognition of the talents, skills of the English language teachers actually begins within the school they work. Leadership skills of the person in leading position are key factors for motivating and engaging others in the job they are doing. Developing an environment that promotes motivation and job satisfaction is not a simple task. As it was discussed before, it requires comprehensive knowledge in leadership theories and a solid understanding and experience in the teaching context coupled with personal qualities and skills. The leader needs to enhance his/her communication skills, organizational skills and develop an understanding of the needs and interests of the people he/she is working with and hence, develop appropriate behavior and strategies for the context teachers are functioning in.

Similarly, the ELT leader besides having a comprehensive idea of the context and the needs and the interests of the the English language teachers may also need improve competencies and provide opportunities for the teachers to use their potential at a maximum level. It was discussed earlier that developmental opportunities for teachers adds to their job satisfaction and get them more engaged in and committed to what they are doing (Bolger, 2001).

Oga-Baldwin & Praver (2007) researched what second language teachers perceived to be motivating for them. They found that second language teachers perceived their job to be getting more difficult due to other tasks they had to carry on and the increasing responsibilities they were given by the school administrators. This affected their intrinsic motivation and this was reflected in their classrooms. They also found that intrinsically
motivated teachers were more inspirational, dedicated and found it easier to help pupils understand the language being taught.

According to Oga-Baldwin and Praver (2007) foreign language teachers’ job motivation was influenced by six factors, which in turn was related to the levels of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These factors were: intrinsic motivation; extrinsic motivation; autonomy; relationships; self-realization; and institutional support. The most important factor was found to be intrinsic motivation. This is not surprising since it is the driving force for teachers to choose the profession in the first place. Davis and Wilson (2000) argued that this inspiration did not seem to change even when there were negative external situations. Dowson, and McInerney (2006) believed that most teachers were aware of the difficulties of the teaching job when they entered the profession, however, those who continue to be in the profession were able to overcome the difficulties with positive factors such as extrinsic motivation (provided within the context), autonomy, institutional support, professional development or relationships besides their intrinsic motivation. Teachers who found intrinsic motivation to be the most important motivator in their job also pointed out that they enjoyed their job and believed that they were helping their students to enjoy the language, in return contributing to their overall job satisfaction (Oga-Baldwin & Praver, 2007).

On the other hand Hammadou and Bernhardt, (as cited in Borg, 2006) pointed out that teaching of English was quite different from teaching of other subject areas. They stressed the fact that, not only becoming a foreign language teacher but also teaching a
foreign language was different from the teaching of other subjects in many ways. This was mainly because the content to be taught (English) and the medium of instruction were the same. This forced the teachers to use a language which the students have not yet mastered while giving instruction. Hammadou and Bernhardt proposed five factors that distinguished the experience of foreign language teachers from that of other subjects teachers: the nature of the subject matter itself; the interaction patterns necessary to provide instruction; the challenge for teachers for increasing their knowledge of the subject; isolation or their subject matter from a real context; and the need for outside support for mastering the subject.

Hammadou and Bernhardt (as cited in Borg, 2006) argued that effective language instructors were obliged to use a language of instruction which their students do not yet fully understand. This poses an important barrier in the teaching learning process. Because mastery of English requires effective communication being supported with different interaction patterns and techniques such as group work, pair work, games, role play, etc. which may be desirable, but not necessary for the teaching of other subjects. Because language teachers teach communication, neither they nor their students can increase their subject knowledge through books. They need to be in contact with people who actually use the language which is rather difficult, opportunity wise, for them and their students.

Foreign language teachers may also experience a feeling of isolation because in many cases, especially in small scale schools, an English teacher might be the only one
teaching the subject and may be deprived of sharing with colleagues teaching the same subject. Creating naturalistic learning environments (creating contexts, building up situations, bringing in realia, etc.) is another quality of teaching, unique to language teachers. It is a subject area in which applying merely the presentation strategy does not serve the aims and objectives of producing communicative results. Grossman and Shulman (1994) too, argued that foreign language is an ambiguous subject in which content is less hierarchically organized including a variety of sub-domains. This requires more teacher autonomy than any other subject when curriculum design is concerned.

The ideas put forth by Hammadou and Bernhardt (as cited in Borg, 2006) and Grossman & Shulman (1994) suggest that foreign language teachers’ needs and expectations may be different from teachers of other subject areas. First of all, they need to be supported in their endeavors in practical communicative activity design. They need to have access to technology (TV, video, DVD/VCD players, CD players, other audio/visual materials). Their leaders/administrators need to have an understanding that their subject area requires a different teaching methodology, techniques and materials, therefore, they should be more flexible when monitoring and mentoring. It might be difficult for school principals with a different subject area background but still they should be open to suggestions coming from language teachers and should listen to them with respect.

Accordingly, there is plentiful research into job satisfaction at different educational levels and in different institutions. However, there is very little research particularly
aiming at the relationship between specific subject teachers’ job satisfaction levels in relation to their school principals’ leadership behaviors. Yılmaz (2011) investigating the effects of subject areas of teachers as one of the variables affecting teacher job satisfaction concluded that different subject area teachers tended to perceive their principals’ leadership behaviors differently. Some teachers are able to meet their needs better than others in their work environments, thus feel more satisfied. In his study Yılmaz (2011) found social sciences teachers to be the most while the English language teachers the least satisfied.

The distinctive characteristics of the subject matter and the differing needs of foreign language teachers recently led to studies in leadership in English language teaching. Stephenson (2011) argued that the increasing interest in learning English has brought many challenges to curriculum design, materials development and professional teacher practices to ensure quality. In this respect, she discussed that there was a rapidly growing need for quality leadership in the field of English language teaching to ensure quality and best practice. For her the changing times and the changing needs in English language teaching was making the school principals’ job more complicated and those principals coming from a non-ELT background might not be able to meet the needs of the English language teachers.

To sum up, literature discussing the English language teachers’ motivation and job satisfaction is many folded. A single study may only look at the subject matter from a single perspective and measure the elements to a certain extent. One finding in one
teaching context may considerably differ from others obtained in other contexts. However, what is common in most literature reviewed is the importance of teachers’ intrinsic motivation for their self-esteem, maintained and supported by leader behaviors, autonomy, relationships, and opportunities for self-actualization. For Oga-Baldwin and Praver:

Teachers whose teaching situations have all of the above factors appear to be the most satisfied. …, it would appear that all of these factors are quite important, and should be cultivated in the teaching environment by administrators, supervisors, and most importantly, by teachers themselves who wish to increase their motivation and improve the quality of their teaching. (2007, p. 895)
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter provides the research methodology applied in the investigation of the relationship between leadership behaviors of school principals as perceived by teachers in relation to teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC. The research design, the selection of sampling, measuring instruments, data collection, analysis procedures and statistical techniques utilized in the study are explained in detail.

3.2 Data Collection Procedures

3.2.1 Research Design

The study is a mixed research possessing characteristics of both quantitative and qualitative research. The study also applies a methodological strategy of triangulation since it employs more than one method and uses different sources of data (Brayman, 2004). The quantitative aspects involved were designed to gather numerical data from a relatively large number of cases to determine the relationship between leadership behaviors (Consideration and Initiating Structure) of state school principals in TRNC (as measured by LBDQ and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction in their current positions (as measured by MCMJSS. For qualitative aspects of the study a semi-structured interview was designed to be held with to discover their opinions on the difference found between
elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ leadership behaviors. An open ended question was also posed at the end of the pack of instruments given to teachers asking for their opinions on the study, their school principals’ leadership behavior, their level of job satisfaction and the system in which they are operating.

The study, therefore, used procedures drawn from sequential and concurrent forms of data collection. The first phase of the research involved sequential data collection procedures (Creswell & Clark, 2006) by which qualitative data collection was followed immediately after quantitative data collection. The pack of instruments prepared in order to collect quantitative data on school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior, and on their job satisfaction levels was followed by a qualitative question asking for opinions of the participants on the areas related to the study. Although quantitative data collection was given more priority, the data collected from teachers’ comments had the quality of supporting perceptions of teachers of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels. Thus, at the first phase of the study, quantitative and qualitative data were collected in sequence (Creswell and Clark, 2006).

The second phase of the research, the semi-structured interview held with the school principals involved embedded concurrent data collection procedures (Creswell and Clark, 2006) which are mainly important in triangulation. The purpose of this phase is to collect data for comparing elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of
their school principals’ leadership behaviors and on school principals’ accounts for school teachers’ perceptions.

### 3.2.2 Population and Sampling

Research was conducted during the 2002-2003 academic year spring semester, and it aimed at involving an adequate sample of all the state school teachers, excluding the kindergarten, technical -vocational schools and private schools, in TRNC. There were 93 elementary schools and 32 secondary schools, with 1,250 elementary and 1,150 secondary school teachers, adding up to around 2,400 teachers employed in these state schools in TRNC. The schools, the teachers and the school principals in each district to be included in the study were selected by a stratified cluster sampling method based on geographical regions.

In order to obtain desired statistical results, the study employed probability sampling approach. Sampling procedures for the study were carried out in two different ways: sampling of schools and sampling of teachers. The sampling of schools was carried out for the selection of elementary schools, because the number of elementary schools was high. Thus, a stratified cluster sampling method based on geographical regions was used to randomly select representative schools in each district. The names of schools to be included in the study were drawn from among all schools in each district; Lefkoşa, Güzelyurt, Girne, Mağusa, and Yeni İskele respectively. There were 24 elementary schools in Lefkoşa, 12 elementary schools in Güzelyurt, 13 elementary schools in Girne, 30 elementary schools in Mağusa, and 14 elementary schools in Yeni İskele
adding up to 93 elementary schools in total. The total number of teachers working in these schools was around 1,250. As it is shown in table 3.1, for the purpose of the study, eight elementary schools in Lefkoşa district, four elementary schools in Güzelyurt district, four elementary schools in Girne district, nine elementary schools in Mağusa district and four elementary schools in Yeni Iskele district were selected, adding up to 29 representative schools.

There were a total number of 406 teachers, including the school principals, working in the 29 elementary schools selected as the representatives. When school principals of the selected schools were excluded, because they would not be given the questionnaires, there were 385 teachers (31% of the total number of elementary school teachers) to whom the packs containing the research instruments were given. Of all the packs given, 284 were returned indicating 71% response rate. This number also comprised 22% of all the teachers working in elementary schools. A return rate of 71% (271 out of 385 teachers, school principals excluded), at 95% confidence level, with 2.81 confidence interval, was way above the required sample size calculations (181 teachers), and indicates a great deal of certainty that responses given by the whole population would fall within the parameters set by the confidence interval.

The total number of elementary schools, the number of randomly selected elementary schools, the total number of teachers working in these schools, who were given the packs, and the number of packs returned in each district are summarized in Table 3.2.2.1.
Table 3.2.2.1

*Number of Elementary Schools and Teachers Participating in the Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Total number of elementary schools</th>
<th>Number of elementary schools selected for the study</th>
<th>Number of packs Given</th>
<th>Number of packs returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lefkoşa</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8(33%)</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>57 (61%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Güzelyurt</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4(33%)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>51(71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girne</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4(31%)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>59(72%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mağusa</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9(30%)</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>62(82%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yeni İskele</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4(29%)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>45(74%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>29(31%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>385</strong></td>
<td><strong>274 (71%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of elementary schools, due to the high number of elementary schools in the TRNC a random selection of schools to be included in the study was made and all the teachers working in these schools were given the packs. However, despite fewer numbers of secondary schools, when compared to elementary schools, there was a large number of teachers working in these schools. Hence, instead of randomly selecting the secondary schools, all the schools were included, but the teachers to be selected, as representatives of the population were randomly selected by a stratified cluster sampling procedure, based on both geographical regions and the subjects teachers were teaching.

In TRNC, apart from the technical/vocational and private schools, there were three types of state secondary schools. One type of school was only middle schools from 6th to 8th
grades, the second type was only high schools comprising 9\textsuperscript{th} to 11\textsuperscript{th} grades, and the third type was the combined middle and high schools, providing education for 6\textsuperscript{th} through 11\textsuperscript{th} grades.

At the time of the study, there were a total of 29 secondary schools in TRNC: twelve middle schools (grades 6 through 8); seven high schools (grades 9 through 11); and 10 mixed high schools (grades 6 through 11).

At the time of the study, the total number teachers working in 29 secondary schools was around 1,150. Excluding the ones that were not included in the study because of some constraints, 26 out of 29 secondary schools were included in the study. Specifically, the study involved nine out of 10 secondary schools in the Lefkoşa District, because one of the schools did not have an appointed principal; four in Güzelyurt District; three out of four in Girne District, because one of the schools was used for piloting purposes; seven out of eight in Mağusa District, because one of the schools could not be reached due to time constraints; and three in Yeni İskele District. In the twenty 26 schools to be included in the study, there was a total number of one 1,148 practicing teachers.

Since the number of the secondary schools was small, but the number of teachers working in these schools was large, a cluster sampling approach was used depending on the subject areas of teachers. The number of the teachers of the same subject was considered while drawing names, thus on a school based draw, the names of the teachers teaching the same subject were put together and names were drawn. If there were four or
fewer teachers of the same subject, only one was sent the package of questionnaires. If there were five to eight teachers of the same subject, two were sent a package each. If there were more than eight teachers of the same subject three of them were sent questionnaire packages. Accordingly, 442 questionnaire packages were given to teachers working in 26 schools involved in the study. Thus, 38% of the total number of around 1,150 was reached. Of the total number of the teachers who were given the packages, 325 returned the packages, providing a return rate of 74%. A return rate of 74% (325 out of 442) at 95% confidence level, with 3 confidence interval, was above the required sample size calculations (313 teachers) which indicated a high certainty that responses given by the whole population would fall within the parameters set by the confidence interval. Table 3.2.2.2 illustrates the information related to the number of secondary schools, the number of teachers selected in each district, and the number of the questionnaires returned.
### Table 3.2.2.2

**Number of Secondary Schools and Teachers Participating in the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number of Secondary Schools Included in the Study</th>
<th>Total number of teachers in schools</th>
<th>Number of questionnaires given</th>
<th>Number of questionnaires returned</th>
<th>Percentage of returned questionnaires in relation to total number of teachers in each district</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lefkoşa</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>168 (57%)</td>
<td>121 (72%)</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Güzelyurt</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>64 (34%)</td>
<td>41 (64%)</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girne</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>50 (36%)</td>
<td>40 (80%)</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mağusa</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>113 (30%)</td>
<td>85 (75%)</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yeni İskele</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>47 (30%)</td>
<td>38 (81%)</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>1148</strong></td>
<td><strong>442 (38.5%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>325 (74%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>28%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the given numbers in tables 3.2.2.1 and 3.2.2.2 indicate, there were around 1,550 teachers involved in the study and 827 were reached (50%). A return rate of 50% plus one (Babbie, 1973; Best & Kahn, 1993) from each type of school (193 +1 for elementary schools, and 226 +1 for secondary schools) was sought prior to the analysis of data. The return rate for the elementary schools was \(\frac{274}{385} = 71\%\), and the return rate for secondary schools was \(\frac{325}{452} = 72\%\) exceeding the required number. The sample size \(n = 599\) was indicative of the high accuracy of results at a confidence interval of 3, at 95% confidence level, because the sample size was quite larger than the required sample size, which was calculated to be 230. Those 599 teachers also made up 36% of the total number of the teachers working in the state elementary and secondary schools.
3.2.3 Demographic Data

As it was stated before, the population sample consisted of $n=599$ state school teachers. This number greatly exceeded the 50% plus 1 return rate (Babbie, 1973; Best and Kahn, 1993) sought prior to the study. The return rate from the elementary school teachers was $274/385$ (71%) and the return rate from the secondary school teachers was $325/452$ (72%) amounting to a total of $599/837$ (71.5%).

This population sample of $n = 599$ was a representative of around 2,400 school teachers working in TRNC in the academic year of 2002-2003 spring semester. This comprised 29 % of the total teacher population in TRNC at the time of study.

The Demographic Information Questionnaire (Appendix A) was used to collect demographic data pertaining to teachers’ gender, age, years of experience in teaching, type of school, educational background, and position at school, duration of work with the present school principal and the subject area from the respondents. The second section of the Demographic Information Questionnaire collected data pertaining to school principals’ gender, age, years of experience in teaching before becoming school principal, years of experience in school principalship, years of experience as the principal in the presently employed school, educational background, and subject area. The following section contains the descriptive data collected through the Demographic Information Questionnaire.
3.2.3.1 Information on the Teachers

Information on participants was collected through the demographic information questionnaire. Table 3.2.3.1 on the next page summarized the data collected through this questionnaire.
Table 3.2.3.1

*Information on Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants’ Category</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-27</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-37</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38-42</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43-48</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49-53</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54-60</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Experience in Teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 years</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.A / B.S</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.A / M.S</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics &amp; Science</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling &amp; Guidance</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As numbers table 3.2.3.1 above shows of the 599 respondents, 222 were male teachers, comprising 37%, and 377 were female teachers, comprising 63% of the total participants.

As for age range, 121 of the 599 respondents were between the ages of 22-27, one 180 were between the ages of 28-32, 155 of them were between 32 and 37, 87 were between the ages of 38-42. The teachers below the age of 42 comprised the majority of the respondents (543/599, 91.1%). There were 45 teachers between the ages of 43-48, six teachers between the ages of 49-53, and five teachers between the ages of 54-60. These teachers comprised around 10% of the total participants.

The majority of teachers participating in the study (55.8%) had less than 10 years of teaching experience. One hundred and forty-six (24.4%) had 1-5 years of experience.
and 188 of them had 6-10 years of experience. 265 (44.2%) of the teachers participating in the study had 10 years or more experience in the teaching profession.

Secondary school teachers participating in the study, with 325 respondents, comprised the majority of the participants (54.3%). The number of elementary school teachers participating in the study was 274, comprising 45.3% of the total participants.

A great majority of the participants, 563 had bachelor's degree. Thirty-four of the participants (5.7%) had master’s degree and only two of the participants (.3%) had doctoral degrees.

Of the 599 teachers participating in the study 92.8% were just teachers at schools and had no additional duties. Eight of them (1.3%) were department heads, 31 of them (5.2%) were vice principals and four of them (.7%) were school counselors.

A little more than half of the teachers participating in the study had one to three years of experience with their present principal. The number of these teachers was 303, which comprised 50.6 % of the total participants. Seventy one teachers (11.9%) had less than one year, 147 (24.5%) had four to six years, 44 teachers had seven to nine years, and 34 teachers had more than 10 years of experience with their present principals.
One hundred and sixty-one of the teachers (26.9%) participating in the study were in the area of mathematics and science. Two hundred of them (33.4%) were in the area of social sciences (history, geography, psychology, Turkish Language and literature, etc.), 101 (16.9%) taught English, 41 (6.8%) practiced physical education, and eight (1.3%) acted as school counselors.

3.2.3.2 Information on the Principals

Data related to the school principals whose leadership behaviors were investigated through teachers’ perceptions were collected through a demographic information questionnaire employed together with the other two instruments. Table 3.2.3.2, on the next page, depicts the data collected about the school principals.
Table 3.2.3.2

*Information on School Principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prinicipals(^1)</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33-37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38-42</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43-48</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49-53</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54-60</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Experience in teaching</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 10 years</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School</td>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>B.A / B.S</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M.A / M.S</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PhD.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Area</td>
<td>Mathematics &amp; Science</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience Before Becoming a School Principal</td>
<td>6 – 10 Years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More Than 10 Years</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.2.3.2 shows that, although the majority of the teachers seemed to be females, when it came to school principalship the majority of the school principals were males. Thus, male principals (31) comprised 66% percent of the 45 schools subject to study. There were only 16 female school principals comprising 34%.

Of the 47 principals, including the ones whose schools were used for piloting purposes, was only one school principal between the ages 28-32; One principal was between the ages of 33-37; eight were between the ages 38-42; 21 principals were between the ages of 43-48; 11 school principals were between the ages 49-53; and there were five school principals between the age 54-6.

Twenty (43%) of the 47 state school principals subject areas were mathematics and science teachers; nine (19%) of them were from the area of social sciences; nine (19%)
were from arts background; there were 6 (13%) state school principals who had foreign languages as their subject areas; 3 elementary school teachers reported as teaching all subjects.

Forty-one (87%) of the 47 school principals had B.S. or M.S. degree. There were six (13%) school principals with an M.A or M.S degree and no school principals with a Ph.D. degree.

Most of the school principals had more than 10 years of experience before becoming a school principal; 38 of them (80.85%). Only nine (19.14%) of the school principals had less than 10 years of experience.

There was only one school principal (2%) who had less than a year of experience in school principalship; 15 (32%) had been in school principalship between 1 to 3 years; 16 (34%) had been in school principalship between 4 to 6 years; 8 of the school principals had between seven and eight years and seven of them more than 10 years of school principalship experience.

Only one (2%) of the 47 school principals, subject to study, had less than one year of experience in the current school he was working. The majority of these school principals; 22 of them (47%) had an experience between one to three years in their current schools. Sixteen (34%) of the school principals had been working in their schools for four to six years. There were six (13%) school principals with an experience
of seven to nine years in their present positions; and two (4%) school principals had more than 10 years of experience in their current positions.

For the purpose of the study, only two of the variables will be considered; the type of school in which the teachers are working and the subject areas of the teachers.

There were a total of 26 responses to the open ended question, asking for additional comments of the respondents on their school principals’ leadership behavior and management style. Five of these personal opinions came from the elementary school teachers and 21 one of them from the secondary school teachers.

Further, 10 school principals took part in the semi-structured interview during which they commented on their leadership and management styles, and on why secondary school principals might have been perceived to display higher consideration and higher initiation of structure behavior compared to elementary school teachers’ perceptions. Two school principals from each district, one elementary school and one secondary school principal, were invited and interviewed in a comfortable environment. The school principals were randomly selected from among those with more than five years of experience acting as school principals.

Hence, the participants involved in the study were elementary and secondary school teachers who not only provided quantitative data on their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their job satisfaction levels, but also gave written
comments on their school principals’ leadership behaviors, the education system and
their job satisfaction levels; and school principals who commented on their leadership
styles and on why there were differences in elementary and secondary school teachers’
perceptions of their leadership styles. The school principals’ articulated comments
together with the teachers’ written comments constituted the qualitative data of the
study.

3.2.4 Data Collection Methods and Ethics

As the study aimed at collecting data without restraints and compromises, the best
strategy was to work with a network of contacts to get in touch with the teachers without
having to go through the school principals. For this purpose, permission from the
Ministry of Education and Culture was obtained, and the two teacher unions, Cyprus
Turkish Teachers Union and Cyprus Turkish Secondary School Teachers Union (KTÖS
and KTOÖS) were contacted and asked to participate in the distribution of the
questionnaire packs to the teachers. The cooperation of both teachers unions was
attained once the goals and benefits that would arise as a result of the study were
explained and the consent of the Ministry was produced. The involvement of both
unions in the distribution of the packs ensured that the contents of the packs were not
accessed by the school principals. Questionnaires were distributed to teachers by
representatives of both unions who watched over while responses were given, and who
collected the questionnaires immediately upon completion. Networking method in this
study proved to be rather useful since it helped considerably to reach all the participants
and collect data faster and more efficiently ensuring confidentiality.
Moreover, anonymity and confidentiality of the data collected through teachers’ written and school principals’ articulated comments were ensured by not disclosing either the names of the schools or the participants in any form and by making sure that the information provided by the participants could not be traced in any way (Cohen, et al., 2007).

3.2.5 Instruments

The study employed self-reported questionnaire survey procedures (Best & Kahn, 1993; Kerlinger, 1986; Tuckman, 1994); an open ended question and a semi-structured interview format to collect data. Specifically, the study administered the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by the Ohio State leadership study group (Halpin, 1957), and the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan & Zaltman, 1977). The LBDQ was used to identify leadership behaviors of state school principals, as perceived by school teachers; and the MCMJSS was used to measure expressed job satisfaction (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and overall job satisfaction) level of state school teachers in TRNC. Further, ancillary data were collected through a separate questionnaire, the Demographic Information Questionnaire, designed and used by the researcher to collect personal and demographic information related to the teachers and the school principals. All the instruments were compiled in a pack (Appendix A) and sent to the participants as one file of documents. The pack included, in order, a cover letter, the Demographic Information Questionnaire (Personal Information), the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), and the Mohrman, Cooke,
Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (MCMJSS). The final page of the pack included a section asking the participants to voice their additional comments on their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their job satisfaction levels.

The LBDQ was originally developed by Hemphill and Coons (1957) and later revised by Halpin (1957, 1959) to measure leadership behavior. The instrument is comprised of a forty-item questionnaire consisting of two sub-scales, Consideration and Initiating Structure, that measure different patterns of leadership behavior. The LBDQ contains short, descriptive statements, which describe a certain way in which a leader may behave.

In this study, the respondents rated their leaders by using one of the five alternatives to indicate the frequency of the particular behavior that is descriptive of the leader being rated. The scale was as follows: A = always, B = often, C = occasionally, D = seldom, E = never. Of the 40 items, only 30 were scored; 15 items measuring consideration, and 15 items measuring initiation of structure dimensions. The 10 items that were not scored were retained in the instrument in order to maintain the conditions of administration utilized in standardizing the questionnaire as discussed by Halpin (1959). In this regard, Stogdill (1959) proposed the 10 additional patterns of behavior involved in leadership to be conceptually independent of Consideration and Initiating Structure, but which could be considered as additional factors affecting leadership effectiveness.
In the Ohio State studies of LBDQ, mean scores were derived from a sample of educational administrators. Factors such as gender of the school principal and type of school were not considered as areas relevant in the sampling of the mean scores. The mean score for Consideration behavior was 44.7 (2.98 on a five point Likert Scale, 4 being the highest and 0 being the lowest) and the mean score for Initiating Structure was 37.9 (2.53 on a five point Likert Scale, 4 being the highest and 0 being the lowest). Thus it was concluded that administrators who scored on or above the mean in either dimension were considered to be high on that dimension of leader behavior (Halpin, 1957).

Items in the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) scale were as follows:

Items related to measuring Consideration (listed by their original question numbers on the instrument):

Q1. Does personal favors for group members.
Q3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.
Q6. Is easy to understand.
Q8. Finds time to listen to group members.
Q12. Keeps to himself/herself.
Q13. Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.
Q18. Refuses to explain his/her actions.
Q20. Acts without consulting the group.
Q21. Backs up the members in their actions.
Q23. Treats all group members as his/her equals.
Q26. Is willing to make changes.

Q28. Is friendly and approachable.

Q31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.

Q34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation.

Q38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.

Items related with measuring Initiating Structure (listed by their original question numbers on the instrument):

Q2. Makes his attitudes clear to the group.

Q4. Tries out his new ideas with the group.

Q7. Rules with an iron hand.

Q9. Criticizes poor work.

Q11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.

Q14. Assigns group members to particular tasks.

Q16. Schedules the work to be done.

Q17. Maintains definite standards of performance.

Q22. Emphasizes the meaning of deadlines.

Q24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.

Q27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by group members.

Q29. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

Q32. Lets group members know what is expected of them.

Q35. Sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.

Q39. Sees to it that the work of the group members is coordinated.
Other 10 items related to conditions of administration (listed by their original question numbers on the instrument):

Five items related to role retention:

Q5. Acts as the real leader of the group.
Q10. Gives advanced notice of changes.
Q19. Keeps the group informed.
Q30. Fails to take necessary action.
Q36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group.

Two items related to representation:

Q15. He is the spokesman of the group.
Q33. Speaks as the representative of the group.

Two items related to influence with supervisors:

Q25. Gets what s/he wants from his/her superiors.
Q37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.

One item related to integration:

Q40. Keeps the group working as a team.

The estimated reliability by the split-half method for the LBDQ is .83 for the initiating structure score, and .92 for the consideration scores (Halpin, 1959). The instrument’s validity as a measure of leadership behavior has been long established and it has been used in various studies (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Schriesheim, 1979; Schriesheim, House, & Kerr, 1976; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1974; Stogdill, 1963; Philipsen, 1965; Taylor, Crook, & Dropkin, 1961;). As Taylor, Crook, and Dropkin (1961) and Philipsen
(1965) noted, description of the consideration and initiation of structure by leaders are highly stable and consistent from one situation to another. According to Schriesheim and Kerr’s (1974) review of the psychometric properties of LBDQ, the descriptions maintain high internal consistency. That is, the items on the consideration-behavior scale of the instrument correlate highly with all the other consideration items and do not correlate with the items on the initiation-of-structure scale. Conversely, the items on the initiation of structure scale, independent of the consideration items, are highly correlated with all the other structuring items.

Job satisfaction of the state school teachers in TRNC was evaluated utilizing the Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (MCMJSS). The MCMJSS was designed to measure self-perceived intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and overall job satisfaction (Mohrman et al., 1977). The instrument is divided into two sections as ‘intrinsic motivation’ and ‘extrinsic motivation’, with four items in each. Each item is measured on a 6 point scale, from 1 to 6, 1 indicating the lowest and 6 the highest level of satisfaction. The cut off point for each section is 12 points, however the mean scores for overall job satisfaction (27.5), intrinsic motivation (14.5) and extrinsic motivation (13) indicate that people scoring on or above these points are considered to have high overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. Each item was connected to the opening statement; “please, indicate your level of satisfaction with various factors of your job by selecting a number on the six point scale after each statement”.

Items measuring intrinsic motivation are:
1. The feeling of self-esteem or self-respect you get from being in your job
2. The opportunity of personal growth and development in your job
3. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job
4. Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job

Items measuring extrinsic motivation are:
1. The amount of respect and fair treatment you receive from your school principal
2. The feeling of being informed in your job
3. The amount of supervision you receive
4. The opportunity of participation in the determination of methods, procedures and goals

Intrinsic and extrinsic perceptions of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1991) that are measured by the MCMJSS relate to the motivation-hygiene theory of Herzberg (1966). Intrinsic satisfiers, also called motivators, are those aspects of an individual’s job that impart feelings of self-esteem, achievement, personal development, accomplishment, and fulfillment of expectations (Hardman, 1996; Herzberg, 1966; McKee, 1988; Profitt, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1991).

The theories related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have been applied in the field of education (Profitt, 1990). In keeping with the idea of intrinsic and extrinsic factors being important to the field of education, Mohrman established reliability coefficients for the MCMJSS using educators (McKee, 1988; Profitt, 1990). Reliability on the
intrinsic motivation scale ranged from .81 to .87, the reliability on the extrinsic motivation ranged from .77 to .82 (McKee, 1988; Mohrman et al., 1977; Profitt, 1990). Although validity was not directly addressed by Mohrman et al., the scale has been widely accepted and frequently used by researchers (Hardman, 1996, McKee, 1988; Mohrman et al., 1977; Profitt, 1990).

To supplement the data generated by the LBDQ and the MCMJSS a personal information collection sheet, the Demographic Information Questionnaire, was developed. The Demographic Information Questionnaire was used to obtain descriptive data about school teachers and school principals in TRNC.

In order to be able to provide a deeper insight to teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors, and as a final response, the teachers were asked to write their opinions on their school principals’ leadership behavior and their job satisfaction levels. These data were to be used in discussing why school teachers perceive their school principal to behave in a certain way. All the instruments used in the survey were combined as a pack and submitted to each participant.

A semi-structured interview was designed and conducted after the teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors were analyzed. A series of questions and prompts were prepared as follows:

Question 1: School principals in TRNC are perceived to display high ‘consideration’ and high ‘initiation of structure’ behaviors. How is this made possible?
Prompt 1: How do you find time to delegate work, comply with daily work related routines and yet be able to consider group members’ needs and wants?

Question 2: Secondary school principals are perceived to display significantly higher ‘consideration’ and ‘initiation of structure’ behaviors than elementary school principals. What do you think the reason(s) for this might be?

Prompt 2: Why do you think secondary school principals were perceived to be more considerate and more structured than elementary school principals?

For the semi-structured interview, one randomly selected state elementary school principal and one randomly selected secondary school principal from the central town of each district were selected and invited to be interviewed in relation to their leadership behaviors and managerial styles.

It should be noted that, this study was not concerned with the characteristics of individuals, but rather with generalized statistics that resulted when data were abstracted from a number of individual cases.

In order to evaluate the validity of the qualitative phase of the study, as Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Guba and Lincoln (1994) proposed, four areas of concern, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability were addressed. The study carried out the quality of member/respondent validation because when findings were submitted to the teachers, the school principals and the Ministry of Education, they were accepted as accurate and depicting the truth by all parties. Another factor adding to the credibility of
the study was that it was carried out according to the standard procedures involved in
qualitative research design, collection and analysis of data.

The findings from the qualitative data analysis revealed the school teachers’ and school
principals’ perceptions, opinions on leadership behaviors, job satisfaction and the
education system in TRNC. Importantly, the findings represented accounts of details
(Geertz, 1973) of a professional group (teachers and school principals in TRNC which
could form a data base for making judgments about the possible transferability of
findings to other milieux (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) unless the education system in which
these parties operated was changed.

Further, dependability (establishing the merit of research in terms of trustworthiness )
and confirmability (ensuring complete objectivity and good faith) of the qualitative
phase of the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) were established by going over the
recorded and transcribed data, collected from the semi-structured interview and the
written comments of the school teachers, related to their opinions on their school
principals’ leadership behavior, their job satisfaction levels and the education system
together with the supervisor and a colleague who has conducted qualitative research and
experienced in doing so. This was particularly important for analysis of data, and
identification of categories and themes present. Moreover, complete records for all
phases of the study were kept so that they could be accessible if need be.
Additionally, the study possesses authenticity, concerning the political impact of the research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) in that it objectively and fairly represented different viewpoints among members of the group (fairness); it helped the members of the group to come to a better understanding of their context (ontological authenticity); it helped the teachers, the school principals and the Administrators at Ministry of Education to better understand and appreciate the perspectives of each other (educative authenticity). Importantly, the study acted as an initiation of an action towards change since the Ministry of Education changed the by-law relating to school principal appointment procedures in 2005 after the results of the research were submitted to them in 2004 (catalytic authenticity); and it encouraged the union members, as stakeholders in this study helping the researcher collect the data, to work in collaboration with the Ministry of Education to make amendments to the by-lows mentioned above (tactical authenticity).

Finally, the study has complete validity meeting all the criteria discussed by Guba and Lincoln (1994), Geertz (1973) and Bryman (2004) even though dependability and authenticity criteria are difficult to meet (Bryman, 2004).

3.2.6 Translation Procedures of the Instruments

Since the study took place in TRNC, where the mother tongue of the participants is Turkish, both questionnaires (LBDQ and MCMJSS) were translated into Turkish by the researcher and first edited a professor, Prof. Dr. Sabri Koç, a member of staff of the ELT department at EMU at the time of study, and a prominent figure in Linguistics and TEFL
in Turkey. Following revision, the translated and the original versions of the instruments were printed. Then, five lecturers working in the Educational Sciences Department of EMU who were proficient both in English and Turkish were selected for testing the accuracy of the translated work. These colleagues were given the English version of the questionnaires first, and they were asked to respond and return them to the researcher.

Fifteen days later, the same colleagues were given the Turkish version of the questionnaires. The reason for waiting for about two weeks was to ensure that the participants would not recall their previous responses. After collecting both the translated and the original versions, the responses to each item on each version of the questionnaires were compared. During this process, it was observed that there were a few items which were vague in meaning and ambiguous on the LBDQ Turkish version. This resulted from the nature of the Turkish language where double negatives in a sentence resulted in a positive meaning. For example item no. 1: “Does personal favors for group members” – “Grup üyelerinden kişisel yardımını esirgemez”. This item could be answered as “always” meaning “her zaman” or “never” meaning “hiçbir zaman” both connoting a positive response. A similar item was item no. 30: “Fails to take necessary action” – “Olaylar karşısında gerekli tepkiyi vermekte başarılı değildir”. Thus, those two items being negative in structure were difficult for the participants to answer. After revision, for re-testing the accuracy of the translation, correlation was run for answers given to each item and it was observed that there was high (significant) correlation between the scores for each item, and the total score (average correlation was .89). The lack of correlation would be indicative of controversial meaning in the English and
Turkish versions of the questionnaires, implying a revision of the Turkish translation. However, since there was high correlation between each item of the questionnaires the need for revision did not arise.

Even though the above mentioned procedure seemed accurate enough, the translated version of the instruments was back translated into English by Can Sancar (Ph.D.), who is a bilingual scholar (English and Turkish) working in the Department of English Literature which was later transformed into Literature, Arts Humanities and Social Sciences Department. Even though some of the items lacked exact wording there were no discrepancies in the meaning, eliminating the need for amendments,

3.2.7 Pre-testing and Piloting

The study was piloted in one elementary and two secondary schools in order to test clarity in meaning and openness to interpretation of each item. Piloting was done in an informal setting (in teachers’ lounge of each school), and the researcher was present to observe participants’ reactions while responding, noting behaviors such as long pauses, scribbling or answer changing which could be indicative of confusion. Another reason for the researcher to be present was to be available should the participants need to ask for clarity. Before collecting the completed work, the participants were asked to comment on each item and offer suggestions for possible improvements. The piloting process was completed smoothly without the need to change anything in the instruments.
After the piloting process, an explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis was carried out and it was found that the reliability coefficient for ‘consideration’ behavior was .90 (.92 in the original study); for ‘initiation of structure’ behavior .82. When the reliability tests were run for MCMJJS, the Cronbach’s Alpha value was calculated as .90 for all eight items. When scales measuring intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were tested separately, the Cronbach’s Alpha value for the scale measuring intrinsic motivation was .85 and for extrinsic motivation it was .8, both above the cut-off point .70, suggested by Nunnally (1978); thus, the instruments were considered to be highly reliable.

Upon the successful completion of the piloting process, the questionnaires were printed and administered in their final forms to the sample representative of the school teachers in TRNC, with the permission of the Ministry of National Education and Culture in TRNC, and the consent of the school principals (Appendix B).

### 3.3 Data Analyses

Some of the research questions required quantitative data analysis and some qualitative data analysis. Questions requiring quantitative data analysis were questions 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 listed below:

1. How is the leadership behavior (consideration or initiating of structure) of the state school principals in TRNC perceived by the school teachers?

2. What is the expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the state school teachers in TRNC?
3. Is there a significant difference (if any) between the elementary and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors; and their job satisfaction levels?

5. Is there a significant difference (if any) between the English language teachers’ and the other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

6. How well does the state school principals’ perceived leadership behavior help predict the teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC?

In order to answer these questions, first quantitative data collected through LBDQ and MCMJSS were tabulated for frequencies of perceived leadership behaviors of school principals, and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels. The mean scores were taken for both perceived leadership behaviors of school principals, and the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels. The responses from LBDQ were examined to distinguish between two subscales of leadership behavior (consideration and initiation of structure). Descriptive statistics were run for analyzing the frequencies and means of each. Then, the items on both behavior scales were ordered in descending order to display what behaviors of school principals were perceived to score the highest and the lowest points.

The scores were, then, compared to reveal the difference between ‘consideration’ and ‘initiation of structure’ behaviors to account for the difference between perceived ‘consideration’ and ‘initiation of structure’ behaviors of school principals. On the MCMJSS, first, the mean score for all eight items was calculated to explore teachers’
expressed overall job satisfaction levels and then, separate mean scores for four items on each section were determined in order account for the teachers’ expressed intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

In order to account for the difference (if any) between the EL teachers and the teachers of other subject areas the same procedures were applied only by separating the English language teachers from the teachers of other subject areas. Tabulations and t-tests were applied for statistical analysis and the results were analyzed.

Furthermore, research question 6 which investigated the relationship between perceived leadership behaviors of school principals and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels required multi-linear regression analysis. The question was stated as:

6. How well does state school principals’ perceived leadership behavior help predict teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC?

In order to answer question 6, a multi-linear regression analysis was run using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 18). The perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of school principals were the independent variables and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels were the dependent variables. A scatter plot was constructed to determine the nature of relationship; positive linear, negative linear, curvilinear or no discriminate relationship. Next, to be able to test the significance of the relationship, the value of the
correlation coefficient was calculated. An Alpha level of 0.05 was used as the level of significance for the study. Since the value of correlation coefficient revealed a significantly positive relationship, the equation of the regression line was determined as the data’s line of best fit.

Research question 4 inquired school principals’ opinions on teachers’ perceptions, and the open ended question that was posed for the teacher to give their opinions on the study, their school principals’ leadership behaviors and/or the education system as a whole sought qualitative data to support the findings for the first and the second research question. There were two types of qualitative data to be analyzed. One was teachers’ written comments which were collected to support and enhance the qualitative data collected through the LBDQ and the MCMCSS; and the other type of data to be analyzed was the data collected through the semi-structured interview held with the school principals. These data were collected to answer research question 4 given below was:

4. How do the school principals account for this difference (if any) between the elementary school and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

For qualitative analysis purposes of the study, data were collected from the open ended comment section of the package and through recordings of the semi-structured interview with the school principals. These were analyzed using a content analysis approach. It was arranged into segments of material based on an organization system derived from
the issues raised in the teachers’ comments during the interview. A careful analysis of
the transcribed interview texts revealed the possibility of identification of categories in
responses. Next, the categories were separated into key concepts that were recorded on
cards which helped identification of the tentative themes. Later, words used in certain
contexts helped placing phrases into typologies, and finally, each typology was
examined and prepositions were generated.

3.4 Summary
The methodological procedures described in this chapter were applied in accordance
with the requirements of mixed research. The aim was to determine school teachers’
perceptions of their school principals’ perceived leadership behavior and then
investigate the relationship between principals’ perceived leadership behaviors (as
measured by the LBDQ) in TRNC and the level of job satisfaction (as measured by the
MCMJSS) expressed by the school teachers. A randomly selected sample of state
school teachers in TRNC was surveyed. For quantitative data collection, three
instruments were used: The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, LBDQ, the
Mohraman, Cooke, Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale, MCMJSS and Demographic
Information Questionnaire. For qualitative data collection, and open ended question was
administered for the teachers to comment on their school principals’ leadership
behavior, the system and their job satisfaction levels. After required statistical analyses
were carried out and the results were obtained, school principals were invited for a semi-
structured interview to comment on their leadership behaviors and account for their
teachers’ perceptions. The data collected were analyzed using content analysis approach.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSES OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

The study, whose aim was to determine whether there was a significant relationship between perceived leadership behaviors of school principals in TRNC and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels in their current positions, specifically examined the perceptions of elementary and secondary state school teachers regarding their principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels. In relation to this main aim, the study also analyzed the difference in elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions besides the difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels. This chapter presents research findings and comprehensive answers to the research questions posed in the introduction chapter of the study. The descriptive statistics, calculated for the sample are also presented under related questions and supported by qualitative data obtained through teachers’ comments given in the last section of the packs. The data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the LBDQ and the MCMJSS, are summarized by means of calculations of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the data obtained can clearly be understood and the overall picture can be depicted. Therefore, in this chapter, statistical analysis of quantitative data and content analysis of qualitative data generated for the assumed relationship between teachers’ perceptions of their school
principals’ leadership behavior and their job satisfaction levels are presented and discussed.

4.2 Major Findings

Major findings of this study are presented in this section of the chapter. The findings are arranged and presented in relation to each of the research questions given in the introduction chapter. Some of the research questions required quantitative data analysis and some qualitative data analysis. Research questions were listed as follows:

1. How is the leadership behavior (consideration or initiating structure) of the state school principals in TRNC perceived by the school teachers?

2. What are the expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the state school teachers in TRNC?

3. Is there a significant difference (if any) between the elementary and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels?

4. How do the school principals account for the difference (if any) between the elementary and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

5. Is there a significant difference (if any) between the English language teachers’ and the other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?
6. How well does the state school principals’ perceived leadership behavior help predict the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC?

In order to answer the research questions 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 quantitative data collected by LBDQ and MCMJSS were tabulated descriptive statistics (for frequencies of perceived leadership behaviors of school principals and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels). The mean scores were taken for both perceived leadership behaviors of school principals and teachers expressed job satisfaction levels. Responses from LBDQ were examined to distinguish between two subscales of leadership behavior (consideration and initiation of structure). The scores were compared to reveal the difference between teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ ‘consideration’ and ‘initiation of structure’ behaviors to comment on the difference between perceived ‘consideration’ and ‘initiation of structure’ behaviors of school principals.

Moreover, statistical analyses of the data collected through MCMJSS were conducted. First, the mean score for all eight items was calculated to expose teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction levels and then, separate mean scores for four items on each section of ‘intrinsic motivation’ and ‘extrinsic motivation’ sections were determined to reveal findings and discuss the difference between expressed intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction levels of teachers.
In order to answer question 6, a multi-linear regression analysis was run using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 18). Perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of school principals were the independent variable (constant) and teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels were the dependent variables. A scatter plot was constructed to determine the nature of relationship; positive linear, negative linear, curvilinear or no discriminate relationship. Next, to be able to test the significance of the relationship, value of the correlation coefficient was calculated. An Alpha level of 0.05 was used as the level of significance though out the study. Since the value of correlation coefficient revealed a significantly positive relationship, the equation of the regression line was determined as the data’s line of best fit.

The first statistical analysis run was coefficient alpha to measure the reliability of the two instruments, LBDQ and MCMJSS. The instruments were statistically proven to be reliable but since the instruments were translated into Turkish and were used in a different culture at a different time span, the reliability of the instruments was needed to be tested again. In the original studies, the estimated reliability For the LBDQ by the split-half method was stated to be 0.92 for the consideration scores and 0.83 for the initiating structure scores (Halpin, 1959). For the MCMJSS, Mohrman established reliability coefficients using educators (McKee, 1988; Profitt, 1990) and the reliability on the intrinsic scale ranged from .81 to .87, the extrinsic reliability ranged from .77 to .82 (McKee, 1988; Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan, Zaltman, 1977; Profitt, 1990).
In order to avoid response bias some of the items on the LBDQ were reverse scored. The consideration items, which were reverse scored were Q12, Q18, and Q20. The three items related to initiating structure behavior were Q7, Q9, and Q11 and the only item pertaining to administrative behavior was Q30 adding up to nine items all together. Another technique used to avoid response bias was to mix consideration, initiating structure and administrative matters on the instrument.

For reliability coefficients for the translated instruments, LBDQ and MCMJSS, internal consistency estimates were computed. The results proved the instruments to be highly reliable. The alpha values for LBDQ were .90 for consideration, .82 for initiation of structure and .83 for conditions for administration. When the two behaviors were combined with the items measuring conditions for administration, the alpha value for consideration was .91 for both consideration and initiation of structure behaviors. The alpha values for MCMJSS were: total satisfaction, .85; intrinsic motivation, .85; extrinsic motivation, .83, all of which were above the cut-off point .70 suggested by Nunnally (1978).

The mean scores of the items on the LBDQ were compared to reveal the teachers’ perceptions of the leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of the school principals in TRNC and overall mean scores for the eight items on the MCMJSS were calculated to measure the total job satisfaction levels of the teachers in TRNC. The next step was to analyze teachers’ intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation with the four items on each section on the MCMJSS.
After that the mean scores of initiation of structure and consideration behaviors as perceived by elementary and secondary school teachers were compared to find out the difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors. Then the mean scores obtained from elementary and secondary school teachers’ expressed intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels were compared to calculate the difference between these two groups’ levels of job satisfaction. In order to test the significance of these differences, pair-sampled $t$-test analyses were conducted.

The next statistical analyses to be conducted were multi-linear regression analysis to see how much school principals’ perceived leadership behaviors helped predict teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

For qualitative analysis purposes of the study, in order to be able to account for teachers perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels, data collected through the open ended comment section of the package and through recordings of the semi-structured interview with the school principals were analyzed through content analysis approach. They were arranged into segments of material based on an organization system derived from the predetermined criteria included in the LBDQ and MCMJSS the issues raised in teachers’ comments during the interview. A careful analysis of the transcribed interview texts revealed the possibility of identification of categories in responses. Next, the categories were separated into key concepts (themes) that were recorded on cards which helped
identification of tentative themes (sub-themes). Later, words used in certain contexts helped placing phrases into typologies, and finally, each typology was examined and prepositions were generated.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for various dimensions assessed by the LBDQ and the MCMJSS. The results are presented in accordance with the research questions.

4.3.1 Research Question 1: How is the Leadership Behavior (consideration or initiating structure) of the State School Principals in TRNC Perceived by the School teachers?

This question was addressed by taking the mean scores and the standard deviations of the items describing teachers’ perceptions of the school principals’ leadership behaviors (consideration or initiating structure). To begin with, in order to be able to determine the perceived leadership behaviors of the school principals in TRNC the mean scores of the 15 items related to each behavior and the mean score of the 10 items measuring conditions for administration on the LBDQ were calculated. The mean score for the 15 items related to consideration behavior of the school principals was $M = 56.26$ and the standard deviation was $SD = 13.17$; the mean score for the 15 items related to initiation of structure was $M = 55.67$ and the standard deviation was $SD = 13.07$; the mean score for the 10 items concerning conditions of administration was $M = 36.57$ and the standard deviation was $SD = 12.78$ as shown in table 4.3.1.1 below:
Table 4.3.1.1

*School Principals’ Leadership Behaviors as Perceived by Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behavior</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>55.67</td>
<td>13.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating Structure</td>
<td>52.55</td>
<td>13.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>36.57</td>
<td>12.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3.1.2 below shows clearly that correlations between the three areas measured by the instrument (LBDQ) are very highly positively correlated with each other:

Table 4.3.1.2

*Correlation Coefficients between Perceived Consideration, Initiating Structure and Administration Behaviors of School Principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Consideration</th>
<th>Initiation Structure</th>
<th>of Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.781**</td>
<td>0.802**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating Structure</td>
<td>0.781**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.893**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>0.802**</td>
<td>0.893**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

### 4.3.1.1 Perceived Consideration Behavior of School Principals

The descriptive statistics of each item on each scale of the LBDQ were conducted to be able to account for detailed perceptions of the teachers related to consideration, initiating
structure and administrative behaviors of their school principals. The perceived consideration behavior of elementary and secondary state school teachers in TRNC as scored by 599 participants are depicted in Table 4.3.1.1, from the highest scoring to the lowest scoring behavior, on the next page.

Table 4.3.1.1

Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Consideration Behaviors of School Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>General Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q28.</td>
<td>Is friendly and approachable.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.</td>
<td>Finds time to listen to group members.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.</td>
<td>Does personal favors for group members.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q21.</td>
<td>Backs up the group members in their actions.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q26.</td>
<td>Is willing to make changes</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6.</td>
<td>Is easy to understand</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13. Looks out for the personal welfare of the individual group members.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q34. Puts suggestions made by the group into action.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q23. Treats the group members as his/her equals.</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18. Refuses to explain his/her actions.</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20. Acts without consulting the group.</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12. Keeps to himself/herself.</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3.1.1.1 shows the distribution of scores of the items pertaining to the consideration behaviors of the school principals in TRNC. The bar graph in Figure
4.3.1.1.1 represents the questions pertaining to consideration behavior, as they were listed in Table 4.3.1.1.1, from the highest scoring behavior to the lowest scoring behavior. The last three questions, q18, q20 and q12 were the reverse scored questions, meaning that scoring low on these items actually indicates a positive behaviors rather than negative ones.

![Consideration Behavoir of School Principals](image)

**Figure 4.3.1.1. Distribution of Scores of Each Item on Consideration Scale of LBDQ**

As it can clearly be seen from Table 4.3.1.1 and Figure 4.3.1.1 above, if not always, the school principals are perceived to display friendly and approachable attitude most of the time, meaning that teachers felt they could easily communicate with their school principals without hesitation. Contributing to their communication skills, school principals were perceived to find time to listen to the group members, did personal favors, and backed them up in their actions. The school principals were perceived to be willing to make changes, but within the centralized education system, unless the changes
are imposed on top-down process bases, how much change can be implemented is the question. When there were things to be done, the teachers felt that their approval was sought and the school principals seldom acted without consulting the group since they cared for the welfare of the teachers. Adding to their positive communication skill, the school principals were perceived to be open and could clearly explain themselves, because they were perceived to be easily understood and the group members felt at easy when talking with them. The school principals’ score for putting the suggestions made by the group members into operation were not as high as their communication behaviors; however, as it was state, how much innovation could be brought into the school system in a static state governed system is questionable. However, the school principals were perceived to do little things for the group members so that they could enjoy a sense of belonging within the body of the school. The school principals scored the lowest on the items that were reverse scored on the instrument. Scoring low on the reverse scored items was again an indication of positive behavior of the school principals because they seldom refused to explain their actions or kept to themselves.

The positive scores attained by the school principals pertaining to their consideration behavior clearly proved that school principals in TRNC were perceived to display high consideration skills as it was assumed. The reason for this, as it was discussed before, could be that they came from the same background as the other members of the group and moreover, they were all members of a small community in which social bonds were tight and people, although it might hinder professionalism at times, depended very much on close relationships with each other. However, positive communication skills
and considerate behaviors of school principals in a school environment seem to add to teachers’ job satisfaction.

One of the categories revealed by content analysis of qualitative data was related to consideration behavior of school principals. Comments made by the teachers pertaining to their school principals’ consideration behavior clearly shows that consideration behavior of their school principals can positively or negatively affect their level of happiness in the work place.

4.3.1.1 Sub-Theme 1: Communication Behaviors of School Principals

The following are examples of positive comments made by teachers who scored their school principals rather high on the consideration scale of the LBDQ:

Respondent 275: “…Our school principal is such a good listener. He helps us get rid of our problems. Colleagues do the same. This is because we are like a big family…”.

Respondent 651: “Our school principal is a harmonious leader. He tries to behave openly to everyone and keeps everyone informed”.

Respondent 176: “Our school principal has effective interaction with staff. He works in harmony with all of us.”
However, there are cases in which the respondents perceive their school principals highly considerate yet do not find them effectively communicating. For example, another respondent 78 perceived the school principal highly considerate with a score of 55 but complained about the way communication is taking place in the work place.

Respondent 78: “We are experiencing communication difficulties in our school. The experienced are not respected and understood. School principals should address group members ... in a more respectful way and communicate at an appropriate level. They should not treat everyone as their friends.”

This comment made by respondent 78 clearly states that poor communication behaviors displayed by the school principal directly affected his/her extrinsic motivation, in the sense that he/she felt that the experienced were not respected and were underestimated within the work environment. He/she probably thought that the too friendly attitude displayed by the school principal affected the professional relationship between the school principals and the teachers. Being respectful to more experienced and the elderly is another social factor affecting communication styles within a society. When the specific case of respondent 78 was analyzed it was observed that the school principal was much younger and much less experienced than the respondent. The respondent was between 43-48 years of age with more than 20 years of experience and the school principal was between 33-37 years of age with a little over 10 years of experience. Therefore, the school principal behaving on very friendly bases towards the participant
probably gave the impression that he/she was not being respected enough by this younger and less experienced school principal.

Although the respondent was not clearly pointing to the school principal as displaying this kind of behavior, it could be deduced from this comment that the school principal in this case could be acting as friendly as possible and the respondent observing this or being subject to such behavior did not approve with it, but still sees the school principal high on consideration behavior may be because of this friendly attitude.

4.3.1.1.2 Sub-Theme 2: Decision Making Behavior of School Principals

Decision making as a sub-theme of consideration behavior was addressed by a few respondents. Some were positive and some were negative. The two example comments were taken from a respondent scoring the school principal high on consideration behavior and another one scoring the school principal rather low on the consideration behavior.

Respondent 392: “…Our school principal listens to and gets the opinion of teachers before making a decision…”

Respondent 492: “…I believe it would be more effective if decisions were taken collaboratively rather than just taking the view points of the administrative staff into consideration…”
Responded 392 perceived the school principal to display high consideration behavior with the score of 58 and expressed a 5.75/6 average of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. On the other hand respondent 382 perceived the school principal to display low consideration behavior with the score of 36 and expressed a rather moderate levels of overall job satisfaction (3.88/6), intrinsic motivation (4/6) and extrinsic motivation (3.75/6) levels, extrinsic motivation being the lowest. Thus, it can be stated that the way a school principal prefers to make decisions affects teachers’ perceptions of the consideration behavior of their school principals which in return affect their job satisfaction levels.

4.3.1.3 Sub-Theme 3: Creating a Positive Work Environment

Creating positive work environment by creating opportunities for a harmoniously working group, and treating everyone fairly and equally is another important factor affecting teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ consideration behavior. There a few comments that could fit into the sub-theme of creating a positive work environment:

Respondent 176: “Our school principal has very good intentions. He works in harmony with all of us...”

Respondent 203: “…Our school principal has a bonding and unifying behavior among members which creates a sense of unity…”
Respondent 402: “Our school principal is a harmonious leader in all aspects. He tries to behave with sincerity to everyone...”

Respondent 451: “…Our school principal provides all the convenience he can to create a peaceful and comfortable working environment...”

The total scores of the perception of these respondents of the consideration behavior of their school principals are given respectively: R176= 72; R203=58; R651=46; and 492=58). These respondents, besides scoring their school principal high on consideration scale also expressed high overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels (R176: Overall job satisfaction=5.75/6; intrinsic motivation=5.50/6; and extrinsic motivation=6/6; R303: Overall job satisfaction=4.50/6; intrinsic motivation=4.5/6; and extrinsic motivation= 4.5/6; R402: Overall job satisfaction=5.75/6; intrinsic motivation=5.75/6; and extrinsic motivation=5.75/6; and R:451: Overall job satisfaction=5.75/6; intrinsic motivation=6/6; and extrinsic motivation= 5.5/6). Positive comments on school principals’ efforts to build a positive work environment thus may be stated to positively affect teachers’ job satisfaction levels. This may be due to teachers perceptions of the school principals’ high consideration behavior, because when negative comments are considered, participants commenting negatively on the work environment perceive their school principals displaying low consideration behavior.

Respondent 190: “…Disputes and unsolved conflicts among school administrators and teachers indirectly affect the teaching/learning process, so school principals should do
their job enthusiastically, act as moderators and stay away from divide and rule policies. Those who operate with rumors in a humiliating manner should not become school administrators.”

The respondent (R190) scoring the school principal rather low (38) on the consideration scale also expressed rather low overall job satisfaction (2.5/6), intrinsic motivation (2.5/6) and extrinsic motivation (2.5/6) levels. The respondent may not be directly emphasizing his school principal’s behavior but may be implying that this principal is behaving this way may be closing communication channels within the context and rather than being open, direct and honest with people, operating on rumors. This type of behavior, as reported by the respondent, contributes to unhappiness and dissatisfaction of the members of the group within the work environment.

Another comment in line with the above comment came from respondent 419 with a perceived consideration behavior score of 45 which is very close to the border line of the mean score of 44.7 acceptable for a school principal to be considered as displaying high consideration behavior.

Respondent 419: “Our school principal is very supportive of teachers whom he trusts...”

This comment may also be made to refer to the discriminating behavior of the school principal because it may be implying that the school principal is not supportive of everyone but only of those who may be in his circle of trust. This kind of behavior may
contribute to dissatisfaction of others and may hinder their perceptions of fair and equal treatment by their school principals. The respondent making this comment expressed an overall job satisfaction level of 4/6, an intrinsic motivation level of 4.5/6 and an extrinsic motivation level of 3.5/6, implying that when the feeling of trust is hindered within the work environment extrinsic motivation is the most negatively affected job satisfaction area.

The above given comments, together with teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ consideration behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels, clearly indicate that when teachers perceive their school principals to display high consideration skills in terms of positive communication, collaborative decision making and creating a positive collegial work environment their job satisfaction levels are positively affected. When school principals are perceived to display low consideration behaviors, teachers’ job satisfaction levels, especially their extrinsic motivation levels are negatively affected.

### 4.3.1.2 Perceived Initiating Structure Behavior of School Principals

The perceived initiating structure behavior of school principals was also analyzed applying descriptive statistics analysis for of each item on the initiating structure scale of the LBDQ. The perceived initiating structure behavior of elementary and secondary state school teachers in TRNC as scored by 599 participants are depicted in Table 4.3.1.2.1, below, from the highest scoring to the lowest scoring behavior.
Table 4.3.1.2.1

*Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Initiating Structure Behaviors of School Principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>General Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q16. Schedules the work to be done.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q22. Emphasized the meaning of deadlines.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q32. Lets group members know what is expected of them.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q29. Asks the group members to follow standard rules and regulations.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14. Assigns group members to particular tasks.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17. Maintains definite standards of performance.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>0.35</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item</td>
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<td>%</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>General Level</td>
</tr>
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<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q39. Sees to it that the work of the group members is coordinated.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by the group members.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q35. Sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>Between often and occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9. Criticizes poor work.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>Between occasionally and seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7. Rules with an iron hand.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bar graph in Figure 4.3.1.2.1 shows the distribution of scores of the items pertaining to the initiating structure behavior of the school principals in TRNC. The bar graph in Figure 4.3.1.2.1 represents the questions pertaining to initiating structure behavior, as they were listed in Table 4.3.1.2.1, from the highest scoring behavior to the lowest scoring behavior. The last three questions, q11, q9, and q7 were some of the reverse
scored questions on the instruments, meaning that scoring low on these items actually represented positive behaviors rather than negative ones.

Figure 4.3.1.2.1. Distribution of Scores of Each Item on Initiating Structure Scale of LBDQ

As it can clearly be seen from Table 4.3.1.2.1 and Figure 4.3.1.2.1 above, the school principals are perceived to display high initiating structure behaviors. As appointed administrators, operating within a centralized education system, they were assumed to be perceived to display high initiating structure behavior, because besides keeping human relations as positive as they could, they should deal with day to day routines and comply with the directives of the higher authorities, yet not neglecting school achievement. The scores on directly calculated items ranged from 4.34 to 3.59, thus indicating high initiating structure behavior of the school principals.
The highest scoring items on the scale were that school principals scheduled the work to be done and emphasized the importance of deadlines more than often. They also let group members know what was expected of them so that the work could be carried out smoothly. Of course, carrying out scheduled work within deadlines also required following standard rules and regulations maintaining definite standards of performance, as they were dictated in the by-laws. Thus, school principals also scored high on these behaviors. Since teachers were informed of what was expected of them, they were assigned to particular tasks, most probably depending on their areas of expertise, abilities and skills. Well organized institutions also required application of uniform procedures so that equality and fair treatment could be applied. The school principals, as perceived to be highly initiating structure, also encouraged the usage of uniform procedures by the members of the group and made sure that the group was coordinated and working up to capacity while acting. In order for a school principal to be able to succeed in his/her endeavor needs to make sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by the group members. The school principals, although scoring lower than they did on the other items, were perceived to make their position clear to the group members. The inversely scored items on the scale, q11, q9 and q7 displayed that school principals were perceived to seldom speak in a manner not to be questioned, and criticized poor work. The school principals, who were perceived to have high consideration behavior with positive communication skills that represented open and direct communication, were naturally perceived to rarely display behaviors as ruling with an iron hand, criticizing poor work and speaking in a manner not to be questioned. Such behaviors were perceived to be displayed by administrators who underestimated
the knowledge, abilities and experiences of the members of the group as McGregor (1960) stated in his theory X.

One of the low scoring items on the initiating structure scale was q4 which was related to the school principals trying out new ideas within the group. This was again a natural outcome of the system by which all procedures and ideas to be applied by dictated by higher authorities.

Positive perceptions of the teachers of their school principals’ initiating structure behaviors clearly proved that school principals in TRNC were perceived to display high initiating structure behavior as it was assumed at the beginning of the study. The reason for the assumption was that the school principals were appointed administrators in a centralized and ministry governed education system. Therefore, they would need to comply with the rules and regulations and standards of performance indicated or dictated by the ministry. However, high initiating structure behavior does not only help school principals do carry out their duties and responsibilities effectively, but it also helps to make the organization function at its best, leading to higher institutional achievement (Bass, 1990; Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Newstrom & Davis, 1993; Yukl, 1998). In such an orderly functioning organization, job satisfaction of the members of the group is more likely to occur since they are aware of their responsibilities, what is expected of them and the standards of performance they have to display.
The second category, that was revealed through content analysis data collected from teachers written comments pertaining to school principals’ leadership behaviors was initiating structure behavior of the school principals’ leadership behavior. It was also evident in teachers’ comments that the perceived initiating structure behavior of their school principals, too affected their happiness in the work place. Content analysis of the comments made by teachers revealed two sub-themes under the more generalized theme of management: management of daily routines; and management of standards and procedures of performance.

4.3.1.2.1 Sub-Theme 1: Management of Daily Routines by the School Principals

Teachers who tended to have a high score on their perceptions of their school principals’ initiation of structure behaviors made positive comments about their school principals. The following are examples of some of the positive comments made about school principals’ daily routine management skills.

Respondent 175: “…Our school principal expects the teachers to fulfill their duties and responsibilities without pressurizing them... Maintenance of the building is also important for him and he tries to keep the school and the school environment nice and neat.”

With the above comment, the respondent stressed the importance of not putting too much pressure on the shoulders of the members of the group, yet making it clear that everyone was expected to fulfill their duties and responsibilities. In order for the school personnel to function effectively, the physical conditions under which they were
working also seemed important for this participant and appreciated the efforts of the school principal in this respect.

Respondent 273: “...I am working with a school principal who is very efficient at his work. For me the most productive work environments are those in which everybody, especially the school principal is aware of their responsibilities and execute their work with enthusiasm. I believe I am working in such an environment...”

The above comment clearly showed that, besides expecting the members of the group to fulfill their duties and responsibilities, the school principal should also be aware of his/her responsibilities and perform his duties willingly and enthusiastically in order to encourage the group members to do the same.

Respondent 452: “... he contributes a lot to work to be done and gives a lot of supervision when necessary. He has all the qualities expected of an administrator.”

For respondent 452 contributions and supervision provided by the school principal contributed to his/her effectiveness of the work to be done and such behavior was valued by the respondent.

All of these respondents scored their school principals high on the initiating structure items of the LBDQ. Respondent 175 and respondent 273 both scored their school principals on the same average point of 63, and respondent 452 had the score of 59 for
the initiation of structure behavior of his/her school principal. These respondents also expressed high levels of job satisfaction: R175: overall job satisfaction=5.5/6; intrinsic motivation=6/6; and extrinsic motivation=5/6; R273: overall job satisfaction=5.88/6; intrinsic motivation=5.75/6; and extrinsic motivation=6/6; R452: overall job satisfaction=5.13/6; intrinsic motivation=4.50/6; and extrinsic motivation=5.75/6.

Some teachers may prefer an orderly work environment in which everything is run by the rules and everybody does what their job description requires them to do. Such people perceive their administrators to be highly initiating structure and probably feel comfortable to function in such working environments, thus attain job satisfaction.

There were no negative comments made on teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ management behavior, therefore, how school principals who are perceived to display low initiating structure behavior contribute to teacher job satisfaction cannot be discussed based on the findings of the study.

4.3.1.2.2 Sub-Theme 2: Management of Procedures and Standards of Performance

Some teachers were concerned about the quality of work produced in their work environment and the positive or negative effect of their school principals’ behaviors relating to this matter.

Content analysis of comments made on initiation of structure behavior of school principals as appointed administrators working in state schools in TRNC clearly show that school principals in TRNC allocate work, expect everyone to perform at high
standards, pay attention to how work is done, and give supervision when necessary. Since teachers express high levels of job satisfaction and extrinsic motivation it may be stated that they are content with such behavior.

A positive comment made for applying standards of performance by the school principal came again from participant 452.

Participant 452: “…Our school principal tries hard to be an effective administrator. He allocates work and expects high standard of work to be completed on time. He is very strict with deadlines and tries to go by the rules and regulations.”

Respondent 452 scored his school principal rather high on initiation of structure with an average of 59 points, but when the score for this participant’s perception of his/her school principal’s consideration behavior was analyzed, it was observed that he/she scored his/her school principal rather low (32) which was quite lower than the M=44.7 mean score of the original study which was accepted as the cut-off point. This could be an indication that school principals who heavily rely on rules and regulations and standards of performance might neglect the human side of their organizations and disregard positive communications within the organization.

On the other hand, there were participants who scored their school principals high on their consideration behavior but low on initiating structure behavior. Respondent 96 is an example of such participants:
Respondent 96: “Our school principal does not have a very effective way of communicating with staff. He shows fluctuations in his communication with group members when it comes to applying rules and regulations regarding measures to be taken for inadequate performance. He does this just because he does not want to upset anyone. He is a compassionate and loyal person.”

Respondent 96 scoring his/her school principal at an average point of 55 on the consideration scale of the LBDQ made a negative comment on his/her school principals’ behavior related to applying rules and regulations or standards of procedure. This respondent’s perception of consideration behavior of the school principal might indicate that the school principal is too sensitive when it comes to consideration in the sense that he/she might not prefer to tell people what is wrong with their performance or what is expected to be a standard performance just because he does not want to hurt people’s feelings or does not want to seem to be an unreliable or an undependable leader. In small communities such relationships in work environments seem to be important that people operate on friendship bases rather than on professional bases. When people are warned or informed about professional issues they might feel offended and may consider this as an unfriendly or hostile behavior.

Conversely, it was discussed that an effective school principal should display both high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors (Bass, 1990; Blake & Mouton, 1985; Halpin, 1966; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Some teachers who perceived their
school principals to display both behaviors at high levels made comments that could support this judgment.

Respondent 275: “...our school principal is open to innovation and is appreciative of people who bring in new ideas and project for the school. He expects good quality of work from everyone and is very enthusiastic to make a good reputation for the school...”

This respondent scored an average of 58 points on consideration behavior section and 56 on initiation of structure scales of the LBDQ, indicating that he perceived the school principal displaying high consideration and high initiation of structure thus very effective. Being willing to make changes and putting suggestions made by the group members into action were qualities of considerate leaders (Halpin, 1957). On the other hand expecting quality work from group members in accordance with the standards was an initiating structure behavior displayed by leaders (Halpin, 1957). Therefore, respondent 275 perceived the school principal to be an effective leader displaying high consideration and high initiating structure behavior.

4.3.1.3 Administrative Skills of School Principals

Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted for the analysis of state elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ administrative behavior in TRNC. Analysis of behaviors of elementary and secondary state school principals in TRNC regarding conditions for administration at their work place as scored
by 599 participants are depicted in Table 4.3.1.3.1, from the highest scoring to the
lowest scoring behavior, on the next page.

Table 4.3.1.3.1

*Conditions for Administration Scores of School Principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>General Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q33</td>
<td>Speaks as the representative of the group.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>He is the spokesman of the group.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>0.48</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>Acts as the leader of the group.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>0.07</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
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<td>0.17</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q40</td>
<td>Keeps the group working as a team.</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>56</td>
<td>0.09</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
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<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19</td>
<td>Keeps the group informed.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>Gives advance notice of changes.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q25</td>
<td>Gets what he/she wants from his/her supervisors.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>0.41</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q37</td>
<td>Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>0.14</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>Often</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>0.34</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Level</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>General Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q30. Fails to take necessary action.</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bar graph in Figure 4.3.1.3.1 shows the distribution of scores of the items pertaining to the administrative behavior of the school principals in TRNC.

![Conditions for Administration Scores of School Principals](image)

Figure 4.3.1.3.1. *Distribution of Scores of Each Item on Administrative Behaviors Scale of LBDQ*

Items measuring teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ administrative behaviors pertained to a few areas of concern such as representation, integration, role retention, and supervision. The school principals were perceived to score high in all
these areas, representation being the highest. State elementary and secondary school principals in TRNC were perceived to represent the group well and speak as the representative of the group when necessary and act as the spokesman of the group. The school principals, being aware of the requirement of their positions, were perceived to act as the leader of the group and keep the group integrated working as a team. As another aspect of their role, they were perceived to be informing people well and giving advance notice of changes. They occasionally got what they wanted from their superiors or got their superiors to act for the welfare of the group members; however, they rarely failed to take necessary action because they strongly held on to their leadership roles (the reasons why will later be discussed within the analysis of teachers comments related to the education system and the scarcity of resources).

Contents analysis of the comments made by the teachers regarding the education system fell under a few themes such as the economic situation of the country, budgeting of education, and inadequate infrastructure.

TRNC has a centralized and bureaucratically structured education system. The school principals are appointed bureaucrats who are expected to comply with rules and regulations and the directives given by the Ministry of Education. In such systems, there is a top down rule-driven structure and the Ministry of Education controls the education policy and agenda (Sancar, 2012; Soars and Soars, 2002). The Teachers’ Legislation of 1985 and the amendments made to it set the rules and regulations, list the duties and responsibilities of the teachers and the school principals. The systems in which the
teachers operate affect their perceptions of the school principals’ leadership behaviors and their job satisfaction levels. The themes under this category are grouped according what teachers centered their comments on: The economic situation of TRNC; inefficient infra-structure of schools; and intrusion of politics in education. The scores for teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their job satisfaction levels will be disregarded while discussing the analyzed data since there are comments made by teachers scoring high and low on these scales.

4.3.1.3.1 Theme 1: The Effects of the Economic Situation of TRNC on Educational Institutions

Most of the inadequacies and inefficiencies in the education system in TRNC were attributed to the poor economic conditions TRNC is ahs been going through as a result of being an unrecognized entity.

Sub-theme 1: Budgeting Education

Most of the comments made by the respondents concentrated on inadequate budgeting of education and disregarding some of the needs of schools while planning the budget:

Respondent 382: “We are living under inadequate and insufficient economical conditions so, just like all other state institutions, education and schools are not regarded as important issues when budgeting is done…”
Respondent 427: “...our school is poor, just like all other state schools, in materials and resources. When budgets are prepared more money should be spent on educational purposes so that school principals would not feel the need to seek external sources of revenue. Only then they will be able to spare time to deal with academic matters...”

These comments clearly show that school principals do not only deal with educational matters, they also need to struggle with inadequate funds and resources and to their best to meet the needs of the teachers and the students. The external resources of money, mentioned in this comment, probably refer to the grants sought from parents and community members or companies. School-Family Cooperation associations within the bodies of the schools pay a lot of efforts, organize tea parties and charity bazaars to collect money to help schools to supply resources and materials needed by teachers and students.

Sub-theme 2: Inadequate Infra Structure of the Schools

The inadequate infrastructure of schools is basically related to the poor economic situation of the country. Just because the government is short of money and economical resources, they cannot spare money for the maintenance of buildings or building new schools even though there is urgent need. The comments made by teachers rightfully touch this issue:

Respondent 382: “... our school administration works like the municipality in that it mainly deals with maintenance of the building and hygiene matters of the school. Just
because of this the school principal does not find enough time to deal with the needs and wants of the teachers and students. I believe the other schools are no different than ours…”

Respondent 427: “I believe the most important problem with our education system is the inadequate infra-structure. Number of schools and number of classrooms can’t meet the needs. There are too many students in each class... New schools and new classrooms need to be built so that the number of students in each class can be reduced…”

As such comments made by teachers indicate, there seems to be a considerable economical problem in the country that enough money cannot be allocated to needs such as maintenance of the existing resources, supplying additional materials and resources, keeping smaller class sizes and providing acceptable hygienic conditions. It was pointed out by teachers that school principals working under such poor conditions may not be expected to function at their potential and cannot spend enough time on academic matters.

4.3.1.3.2 Theme 2: Inefficient Appointment Procedures of School Principals

At the time when the research was conducted school principals were appointed regarding the regulations stated in Teachers’ Legislations for elementary and secondary school teachers. Elementary school principals were appointed regarding legislation 25/1985 with amendment 8.3/1995). According to this legislation, item 18. (1) (any elementary school teacher) having at least two years of experience as a deputy principal;
or having at least 10 years of tenured teaching experience; or having served for at least for one year at level 14 could be appointed as a school principal. Secondary school principals were appointed on similar bases. According to the legislation 25/1985, item 29. (1) (any secondary school teacher) having at least two years of experience as deputy principal or head of department or workshop; or having a tenure and at least fifteen years of teaching experience regardless of the duration served without tenure could be appointed as secondary school principals (Sancar, 2012).

Teachers commenting on the education system had quite a lot to contribute to the study regarding the appointment procedures of the school principals.

**Sub-theme 1: An Urgent Need for a System of Measurement and Evaluation of Teachers and School Principals**

The respondents were quite concerned with the appointment procedures of the school principals. They mainly voiced the inadequacies in the present procedures and mentioned the need for a system for evaluating teachers to be appointed as school principals or to be promoted:

Respondent 467: “We should develop a measurement and evaluation system, which can effectively be applied within the education system for promotion of teachers and appointment of school principals.”
Respondent 387: “*Our education system needs different methods of evaluating and investigating behaviors and attitudes of the school principals, so those who do not deserve to be sitting in those positions should be replaced.*”

The first comment made by respondent 467 pointed out the importance of evaluation of teachers before they were appointed as school principals; and the second comment regarded the importance of carefully monitoring of school principals after they are appointed so that effective performance can be attained.

Respondent 386: “*In an academic study, the priority should be given to the appointment and promotion procedures applied for school principals before evaluating their leadership behaviors. All the school principals should be monitored and those who are not doing their job properly should be demoted. A person should not have the right to stay as a school principal until he/she retires.*”

Respondent 286 pointed out the need for academic studies regarding to evaluation and appointment procedures of teachers and school principals in TRNC. It was pointed out that effective selection and appointment of school principals should be ensured before evaluating their perceived leadership behaviors.

Some teachers commented on inadequacies in the procedures of promotion and appointment and some others emphasize intrusion of politics into the system.
Respondent 15: “...The most important problem in our education system is the appointment of the school principals which is done according to the political views of the people. Appointments and promotions are not done objectively considering personal and professional skills and attributes of teachers. This results in school principals’ working in accordance with the directives and wishes of the politicians within the Ministry or the political party in government. Those with opposite political views are marginalized.”

Respondent 371: “...I do not believe any administrator in our country pays attention to or values feelings or opinions of group members. This is because those in higher administrative positions have political agendas and do not carry leadership qualities.”

Respondent 39: “...Politics should be kept out of education. When school principalship is concerned equality, neutrality and fairness is more important. Therefore, when appointing school principals their professional, educational and personal qualities should be considered rather than their political views.”

As it could clearly be deduced from the above given comments, the teachers were not happy with the intrusion of politics in education. They believed that all appointments made by the ministry and the actions carried out by the school principals were affected by people’s political views and the conflicts between the governing and the opposing parties.
These comments made by state school teachers, together with other findings of the study were submitted to the Ministry of Education in February 2004 upon their request. The permission to conduct the study was given under the condition that the Ministry would be informed about the findings. After the results of the study were submitted, the Ministry of Education Youth and Culture, together with the Public Service Commission and the teacher unions in TRNC constructed a new by-law named ‘2005 Examination By-Law for Teachers’ by which a completely new evaluation system was introduced. The criteria involved in promotions and appointments were agreed to be upon points achieved. Appointment of deputy principals or principals would be evaluated over 650 points, the highest point that a teacher could accumulate. The breakdown of points in this by-law is given in Table 4.3.1.3.2 (2005 Teachers’ Examination By-Law)

Table 4.3.1.3.2

The Breakdown of Points for Promotion and Appointment of Teachers in the By-law

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Maximum Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of the applicant</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean record</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific activities and publications</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural activities</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>650</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this by-law after files are submitted, the Public Service Commission together with authorized personnel from the Ministry of Education evaluates the documents submitted by the applicants, puts them in descending order according to achieved points, makes evaluations and final judgments about appointments and
promotions and announces the results on the web-site and the notice boards of the Ministry.

All the issues pointed out through teachers comments were actually connected to one main theme, the political situation in which we all are trying to operate at the moment. One of the respondents drew a clear picture of the country and touched issues such as teachers’ job satisfaction, self-respect and self-esteem and the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in their job. The respondent focused on the present situation of Cyprus in a dead-lock regarding negotiations for a settlement. The respondent seemed to have lost faith in what he/she is doing as a teacher:

Respondent 180: “The conditions under which we have to live in North Cyprus and the irreconcilable behavior of our administrators is killing the enthusiasm of all who serve the country. As long as conditions remain as they are with no hope of settlement of the Cyprus issue, I feel sorry with all my heart for all the efforts you are putting into this study just as much sorry I feel for the efforts that I am putting into my work to educate young generations who will soon after graduation feel compelled to leave the country.

The respondent preferred to draw attention to the larger picture rather than concentrate on a detail of the picture. In other words, according to the respondent, the problem lay not with the principals’ leadership behaviors in relation to teacher job satisfaction or motivation but rather with the behaviors of community leaders which reflect on members of the community including the school principals. The respondent seemed to
regard the school principals as the second last link in a chain starting from the president and the prime minister and continuing with ministers, bureaucrats in the ministries, union leaders, school principals and teachers. Therefore, it seems to be evident in the above given comment that as a part of the whole system of the country, educational leadership cannot be regarded as a separate entity but should be studied interconnected to the whole system.

In order to analyze data collected from this open ended comment section a content analysis approach was conducted to account reliability. Content analysis approach is considered to be an objective method since it is transparent with its coding scheme and sampling procedures and allows follow-up studies (Bryman, 2004). A coding manual containing a list of all the dimensions as categories, leader behavior – consideration; educational system in which teachers operate; teacher job satisfaction – overall, intrinsic motivation extrinsic motivation was designed. Afterwards, a list of themes related to each category was made and numbered. As the next stem sub-themes relating to each theme were analyzed. The categories, themes and sub-themes derived from the content analysis of collected data are displayed in Table 4.3.1.3.3.
Table 4.3.1.3.3 *Categorization of Teachers' Comments*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1</th>
<th>Leadership behaviors of school principals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 1</strong></td>
<td>Consideration Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Decision Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3</td>
<td>Creating a Positive Work Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 2</strong></td>
<td>Initiation of Structure Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Management of Daily Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Standards and Procedures of Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Category 2</strong></td>
<td>Teachers’ Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 1</strong></td>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub theme 1:</td>
<td>General happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 2</strong></td>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Feeling of self-esteem and self respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Feeling of worthwhile accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3</td>
<td>Expected and present job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 3</strong></td>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Amount of received respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Feeling of being informed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3</td>
<td>Amount of received supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 4</td>
<td>Opportunities to participate in decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Category 3</strong></td>
<td>Education System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 1</strong></td>
<td>Economic Situation of T.R.N.C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Budgeting of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Inefficient Infra-structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 2</strong></td>
<td>Appointment Procedures of School Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>A Need for a Measurement and Evaluation System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Intrusion of politics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analysis of collected data revealed that teachers’ comments centered around four main categories: Leadership behaviors of school principals, their job satisfaction levels, the educational system they are operating in, and critics about the study.

4.3.1.4 Consideration and Initiating Structure Behaviors Combined with Conditions for Administration

After calculating the mean scores of the 15 items related to each behavior and the mean scores of the 10 items measuring conditions for administration on the LBDQ, the 10 items related to administrative issues such as role retention, representation, relations with the supervisors, and integration were added to items related with consideration and initiation of structure and the mean scores of both perceived leadership behaviors were calculated again. The mean score for the 25 items related to consideration behavior of the school principals was M = 56.08 and the standard deviation was SD = 18.46; the mean score for the 25 items related to initiation of structure was M = 53.77 and the standard deviation was SD = 17.48. The mean difference (MD=2.31) calculated by a paired sample t-test in order to calculate the significance of this difference between the two perceived behaviors pointed that school principals were perceived to display significantly higher consideration behavior than initiation of structure behavior because the result was MD: 2.31 points to the advantage of consideration behavior, with a significance of p<0.1 as shown in table 4.3.1.4.1.
Table 4.3.1.4.1

Significance of the Mean Difference between Consideration and Initiating Structure Behaviors of School Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation of Structure</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>17.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlational analysis show that these two items were very highly and significantly correlated, the Pearson correlation being .912 at p < .01 as shown in table 4.3.1.4 below:

Table 4.3.1.4.2

Correlation Coefficients between Perceived Consideration and Initiating Structure Behaviors of Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration minus Initiation</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>7.62</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>.912**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation coefficients, .912, between the two perceived behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure), as shown in Table 4.3.1.4 above was significant, and allowed the researcher to comment that there was a very strong positive and significant correlation between the two perceived behaviors. Because of a positive mean difference to the advantage of perceived consideration style, 2.31, (t = 7.44 and p < .01), shown in table 4.3.1.4 above, the researcher could state that school principals in TRNC are perceived to display significantly more consideration behavior than the initiation of structure.
behavior although both are above scores accepted by high by the originators of the instruments: 44.7 for consideration and 37.9 for initiation of structure (Halpin, 1957, 1966). Thus, state school principals in TRNC could be said to display quadrant II behaviors which are high consideration / high initiating structure (Halpin, 1966, Stogdill & Coons, 1957) meaning that the state school principals in TRNC provide a lot of guidance about how tasks can be completed while being highly considerate of the employees needs and wants. Thus, such behavior showed that, state school principals in TRNC are effective and efficient in managing both people and tasks (Stogdill and Coons, 1957).

Findings proved the first assumption to be true which stated that school principals in TRNC would be perceived to display high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors as appointed administrators operating in a centralized education system and in small communities (districts) in which people tended to know each other well and have close relationships. Operating in small communities also seemed to affect their consideration behavior positively because they were perceived to display significantly higher consideration behavior than initiation of structure behavior.

4.3.2 Research Question 2: What are the Expressed Overall Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Levels of State School Teachers in TRNC?

This question was addressed by taking the mean scores of the items describing teachers’ job satisfaction levels in TRNC as measured by the MCMJSS (Appendix A). The sample consisted of 599 (N = 599) participants. Demographic issues such as age,
gender, educational background, type of school, etc., were not considered. The eight items comprised of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation issues were calculated to reach an indicated overall job satisfaction level of the participants. Then, the four items on each section were calculated to find the mean scores of the indicated intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the participants.

Teachers expressed a high level of overall job satisfaction with a mean score of $M=39.41$ and a standard deviation of $SD=5.30$. As the histogram in Figure 4.3.2.1, on the next page, shows, teachers overall job satisfaction level is leaned toward right, that means towards higher levels of performance.
When comments made by teachers concerning their job satisfaction levels in general were analyzed evidence indicating their happiness and satisfaction with their job was sought and found as in the examples comments given.

Respondent 268: “I am content. There is nothing to comment about.”

This respondent had an overall satisfaction score of 48 which was the highest score for a person to achieve. His/her scores for the perception of the school principal’s leadership behaviors were also high, 58 for consideration and 52 for initiation of structure.

Respondent 41: “I am as happy as I can be. It should not be forgotten that we serve in public schools and we are trying to teach students whose families do not have enough
money to send them to private schools. We should do our best under the inadequate conditions we have. We are all like a family living under poor economical conditions.”

Respondent 41 also had high overall job satisfaction score of 46. Based on the above comments it can be stated that this teacher was aware of the difficulties of the teaching job and the conditions under which state schools are operating in TRNC but still these did not break his/her enthusiasm and motivation for doing the job. This comment made by respondent 41 can also be discussed under intrinsic motivation sub-theme of self-respect and self-esteem a teacher has regarding his/her job.

Accordingly, as shown in Table 4.3.2.1 below, the mean score for the indicated overall job satisfaction was M = 39.42, SD= 5.31; the mean score for intrinsic motivation was M = 19.98, SD = 2.98; and the mean score for extrinsic motivation was M = 19.42, SD = 3.24).

Table 4.3.2.1

*Mean Scores for Expressed Overall Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Levels of Teachers in TRNC*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>39.42</td>
<td>5.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>19.98</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the mean scores clearly indicate, the majority of teachers’ overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are above the cut off point of 27.5 for overall job satisfaction, 14.5 for intrinsic and 13 for extrinsic motivation, meaning that teachers working at state schools in TRNC could be considered to have high overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Table 4.3.2.2

Correlation Coefficients of Expressed Overall Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Levels of Teachers in TRNC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Overall Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic Motivation</th>
<th>Extrinsic Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.820**</td>
<td>.768**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>.820**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.533**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>.768**</td>
<td>.533**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

As it can be seen in Table 4.3.2.2 above, teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation levels were very highly positively correlated. There was a very significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation (.820), and between overall job satisfaction and extrinsic motivation (.768), there is also a very significant correlation between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (.533).
The mean difference between the two expressed motivation levels was calculated to see in which area teachers’ expressed to be more motivated and whether the difference between the two expressed motivations was significant as shown in table 4.3.2.3.

Table 4.3.2.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic – Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.562</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>.564</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The compared mean score of the two expressed motivation levels (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) .024 points to the advantage of intrinsic motivation, as tested by Pearson’s paired sample t-test ($t = .578$ and $p > .05$) indicated that expressed intrinsic motivation levels of state school teachers in TRNC was not significantly higher than their expressed extrinsic motivation. This means that teachers in T.R.N.C were intrinsically motivated with a feeling of self-esteem, self-respect, personal development and growth, worthwhile accomplishment in their job, and extrinsically satisfied with a feeling that they are respected, well informed, well supervised and listened to in their work environment. The correlation coefficient of .820 between overall job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation and .768 between overall job satisfaction and extrinsic motivation suggested high intrinsic and extrinsic motivation would result in high overall job satisfaction level.
4.3.2.1 Intrinsic Motivations of Teachers

Descriptive statistics carried out for the frequencies, means, standard deviations of each item on intrinsic motivation scale show that the most satisfying area motivation for the teachers was the feeling of self-esteem and self-respect they get from being in their job (M=5.05; SD=1.07). The second highest scoring item on the scale was the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in their job indicating to the job that teachers in TRNC believed to be performing respected job within the society and contributing considerably to it (M=4.62; SD=1.16). The opportunity for personal growth (M=4.25; SD=1.31), and matching of their expectations when they took the job and the present conditions (M=4.24; SD=1.35) received almost the same mean score, meaning that teachers had average intrinsic motivation in these areas. On the next page, Table 4.3.2.1.1 below shows the frequencies, percentage of the frequencies, means, standard deviations and general satisfaction levels of the participants on each item; and the histogram in Figure 4.3.2.1.1 below illustrates the distribution of scores of all the four items on intrinsic motivation scale MCMJSS.
### Table 4.3.2.1.1

**Intrinsic Motivation Indicators of Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>General Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1. The feeling of self-respect and self-esteem you get from being in your job</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2. The opportunity of personal development and growth in your job</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4. Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When comments made by teachers relating to their intrinsic motivation levels were analyzed four levels of satisfaction emerged as sub-themes as stated in MCMJSS.

**Sub-theme 1: The Feeling of Self-respect and Self-esteem Teachers Have**

Under this sub theme teachers’ comments were analyzed to see how much they respect and valued themselves and the job they were doing and how motivated they were to do their job. There were some positive but mostly negative comments made by the respondents.

The comment made by respondent 41 which was analyzed under overall job satisfaction theme, as stated before can be analyzed to express respondent’s feeling of self-respect and self-esteem.
Respondent 41: “I am as happy as I can be. It should not be forgotten that we serve in public schools and we are trying to teach students whose families do not have enough money to send them to private schools. We should do our best under the inadequate conditions we have. We are all like a family living under poor economical conditions.”

Respondent 41 had an intrinsic motivation of 24 which was the highest score to be obtained. This means that the respondent was highly intrinsically motivated and regarded his/job worth respect. He/she, therefore, was highly motivated to work for the good of the community. However, the respondent was also pointing to the inadequate conditions under which they were working which were also discussed under school principals leadership behaviors.

Respondent 14: “I am an art teacher and I believe that art education is regarded as insignificant when other courses are considered. Administrators, teachers and students do not take art education seriously. This directly affects the cultural level of the people living in this country. Therefore, my motivation for work is very low. For me art is a source of life and plays a very significant role in restructuring communities.”

Respondent 454: “I do not believe English is valued as much as it was in the past in this country. Those who value English either send their children to private schools or to schools on the Greek part of the island. The Ministry does not have enough money to allocate for improving the conditions for teaching English. In state schools the only
support we get is from the British Council, the representative of publishers or the CTLTA. We need more but the Ministry does not have enough budget to allocate us.”

Respondent 14 had a high intrinsic motivation score of 21 which was way above the cut-off point of 14.5 meaning that the teacher might have high self-respect but might not believe that she/he is making worthwhile achievement.

Respondent 454, who seemed to be an English language teacher, expressed a high overall job satisfaction (43), and a high intrinsic motivation (22) level, however, he/she was also complaining about the inadequate resources that might be affecting effectiveness of their job. In this comment, the factors contributing to the satisfaction of the teacher could be the result of the outside support the English teachers received from the British Council in Cyprus, the representatives of publishers and the CTELT A who were all in the endeavor of improving teaching and usage of English in TRNC.

**Sub-theme 2: The Feeling of Worthwhile Accomplishment**

This sub-theme was derived from what teachers wrote which matched item number three on the MCMJSS intrinsic motivation section. Comments were analyzed to find out how much teachers felt that they are making worthwhile accomplishment in their job. There was only one comment corresponding to this sub-theme.
Respondent 271: “…the level of students I am working with is very low. They lack some skills necessary for being a learner. They want to be spoon fed. I am trying to be content with the level of my students and the whole system in general.”

Respondent 271 had an average intrinsic motivation score of 13 points. The reason for this might be as he/she stated the level of students he/she is working with. Worthwhile accomplishment in teaching comes with accomplishments and achievements of students. Thus if he/she feels that the students he/she is working with are not achieving enough, he/she may lack the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment. This could also bring down his/her self-esteem.

**Sub-theme 3: Matching of Expectations with the Present Job**

When expectations match present conditions, it contributes positively to a person’s intrinsic motivation. When data was analyzed for information corresponding to this sub-theme, one comment, made by respondent 271 was found and analyzed accordingly.

Respondent 271: “There is a great gap between what we expected to find when we became teachers and the conditions under which we are working. I am trying to reduce this gap by my own means, materials and equipment.”

As it was discussed before respondent 271 had a low intrinsic motivation level with factors such as students’ levels and lack of materials and equipment in the teaching environment contributing to this. Therefore, it may be discussed that for high intrinsic motivation all factors such as a person’s self-respect and self-esteem, and the feeling of
worthwhile accomplishment, and the present sentiments matching the expectations should exist together.

4.3.2.2 Extrinsic Motivation of Teachers

Descriptive statistics carried out for the frequencies, means, and standard deviations of each item on extrinsic motivation scale show that the most satisfying area of extrinsic motivation for the teachers was the amount of respect and fair treatment they received from their school principals (M=4.76; SD=1.27). The second area they received high satisfaction from was the amount of supervision they received (M=4.57; DS=1.33). The feeling of being informed in their job followed this with a mean of M=4.47 and a standard deviation of 1.30. The opportunity of participation in the determination of methods, procedures, goals within the work environment received the lowest score (M=4.25; SD=1.29). The teachers seemed to be highly satisfied with the amount of respect and fair treatment and supervision they received from their school principals. They were not so highly satisfied with the amount of being informed and the opportunities that they had regarding their participation in the determination of methods and procedures to be applied within their work environment. This again seemed to be a natural outcome of the state governed centralized school system in which all the methods and procedures are determined by higher administration and the school principals only apply them in their schools. On the next page, Table 4.3.2.2.1 below shows the frequencies, percentage of the frequencies, means, standard deviations and general satisfaction levels of the participants on each item; and the histogram in Figure
4.3.2.2.1 below illustrates the distribution of scores of all the four items on intrinsic motivation scale MCMJSS.

Table 4.3.2.2.1

*Extrinsic Motivation Indicators of Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>General Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1. The amount of respect and fair treatment you receive from your school principal</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3. The amount of supervision you receive</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2. The feeling of being informed in your job</td>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Moderate</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q4. The opportunity of participation in determination of methods, procedures and goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Dev</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(6) Very high</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) High</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Average</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Adequate</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Low</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Very Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3.2.2.1. Distribution of Scores for Extrinsic Motivation Levels of Teachers

The above given figures and numbers clearly show that school teachers in TRNC have above average overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. Their extrinsic motivation level also comply with the finding that they perceive their school principals displaying high consideration and initiating structure behaviors. The high scores (an average mean of 4.45/6) on the two items of extrinsic motivation scale
pertaining actually to consideration behavior of the school principals, q1: the amount of
respect and fair treatment they receive and q4: the opportunities they have to participate
in decision making processes justify teachers perceptions. The other two items that
might represent initiating structure behavior of the school principal, q2: teachers’
feeling of being informed in their job and q3: their satisfaction with the amount of
supervision they receive also validate teachers’ perceptions of their school principals
consideration behavior. All these findings related to teachers’ perceptions of their school
principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels indicate that
school principals’ perceived behaviors does affect teachers’ job satisfaction levels.

Accordingly, the school principal as the leader of the group has a significant effect on
teachers’ extrinsic motivation levels. The way the teachers are treated, the amount of
information they give to the group members, the amount of supervision they provide and
the way they involve group members in the decision making process determines the
level of teachers’ extrinsic motivation.

When content analysis was applied to written comments made by teachers, sub-themes
to be discussed under this theme such as the amount of respect and fair treatment
received; the feeling of being informed; the amount of supervision received; and the
opportunity to participate in decision making processes were all discussed under the sub-
theme of teachers’ perceptions of consideration and initiation of structure behavior of
school principals.
4.3.3 Research Question 3: Is There a Significant Difference between Elementary and Secondary School Teachers’ Perceptions of their school Principals’ leadership Behaviors and Their expressed Job Satisfaction Levels?

It was assumed that secondary school principals would be perceived to display higher consideration and higher initiation of structure behaviors than elementary school principals as the nature of their school required them to so.

In order to test this assumption, an independent sample $t$-test was conducted. The test results were significant. Levene’s test results prove that the equality of variance assumption is violated. Thus, state secondary school principals were perceived to demonstrate significantly higher ‘consideration’ and ‘initiation of structure’ behavior as opposed to state elementary school teachers. (Consideration MD = -15, SD=14.95, $F=21.97$, $t = -10.81$, and $p = .000<.01$; Initiation of Structure MD = -12.14, SD= 13.70, $F=t = -9.02$, $p = .000<.01$). Table 4.3.3.1 illustrates the results of independent sample $t$-test.

Table 4.3.3.1

*Difference between Elementary and Secondary School Teachers’ Perceptions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elementary School Teachers’ Perceptions Minus Secondary School Teachers’ Perceptions</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Significance P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>-14.95</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>21.97</td>
<td>-10.81</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation of Structure</td>
<td>-12.14</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>30.75</td>
<td>-9.02</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The mean difference of -14.95 for consideration behavior and the mean difference of -12.14 for initiation of structure behavior for the disadvantage of elementary school teachers at p<0.01 significance level clearly proves that state secondary school principals in T.R.N.C display significantly higher consideration and initiation of structure behaviors than state elementary school teachers.

When state school teachers expressed overall job satisfaction (elementary school teachers’ M=38.08, secondary school teachers’ M=40.55), intrinsic motivation (elementary school teachers’ M=19.14, secondary school teachers’ M=20.45) and extrinsic motivation (elementary school teachers’ M=8.78, secondary school teachers’ M=19.70) levels are analyzed, it is also observed that elementary school teachers’ express significantly lower job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels than secondary school teachers. This information is displayed in table 4.3.3.2.

Table 4.3.3.2  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction Area</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>38.08</td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>-5.82</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>38.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>40.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>19.41</td>
<td>-1.04</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>-4.31</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>19.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>20.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>18.78</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>-4.54</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>18.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>19.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mean differences in all areas of satisfaction are minus to the disadvantage of the elementary school teachers. The mean difference of $-2.47$ ($t=-5.82, p<.01$) for expressed overall job satisfaction; the mean difference of $-1.04$ ($t=-4.31, p<.01$) for expressed intrinsic motivation; and the mean difference of $-1.19$ ($t=-4.54, p<.01$) for expressed extrinsic motivation levels all show that although they express high levels of overall job satisfaction ($M=38.08$, $SD=5.1$), intrinsic motivation ($M=19.41$, $SD=3.02$) and extrinsic motivation ($M=18.78$, $SD=3.23$) elementary school teachers in TRNC are significantly less satisfied than secondary school teachers.

4.3.4 Research Question 4: How Do School Principals Account for the difference in Teachers’ Perceptions of Elementary and Secondary School Principals’ Leadership Behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

Ten school principals took part in the semi-structured interview during which they commented on why secondary school principals were perceived to display higher consideration and higher initiation of structure behavior than elementary school teachers. Two school principals from each district, one elementary school and one secondary school principal, were invited and were interviewed in a comfortable environment. The school principals were randomly selected from among those with more than five years of experience acting as school principals. School principals were grouped as ESP (elementary school principal) and SSP (Secondary school principal). ESP1, ESP2, ESP3, ESP4, and ESP5 were elementary school principals and SSP1, SSP2, SSP3, SSP4, and SSP5 were secondary school principals. The whole interview was recorded for the analysis of data. Collected data was analyzed using a content analysis approach. It was arranged into categories, themes and sub-themes.
When school principals were asked during the interview what the reason(s) might be that secondary school principals were perceived to display significantly higher ‘initiation of structure’ and ‘consideration’ behavior than elementary school principals, after a long discussion, several categories and themes related to each category emerged from the interviewees responses. Secondary school principals thought that teachers’ perceptions could be related to size of schools and peculiarity of students related to their age level of students. Two most general categories were related to school principals’ (1) initiation of structure; (2) consideration behaviors related to large number of teachers, large number of students, and age peculiarities of students.

All secondary school principals interviewed agreed that the number of teachers and the number of students in secondary schools are quite higher requiring more time on structuring, time tabling, monitoring and paper work, and listening. Larger number of students means more groups, tedious time tabling, consideration of extracurricular activities and elective courses. Designing and offering extracurricular activities and elective courses needs careful consideration of student needs and interest and teacher qualifications, teacher needs and interest.

The age group of students they are dealing with also requires special attention and care. Because secondary school students (ages between 12 and 18) are adolescents who are at a transition period from childhood to adulthood. They need closer attention and monitoring because they are experiencing self-concept conflicts related to their physical, intellectual and emotional changes. Besides the challenge of a new self-concept and self-
esteem construction, there is the pressure university entrance examinations and career planning on their students’ shoulders. This also acts as an academic achievement pressure and prestige indicator for the school and indirectly for the school principal. Thus, they state that the process of taking students through secondary school needs close collaboration between teachers and school principals. They believe that these factors are important for a school principal to be highly structured and considerate of others needs and wants.

However, it was rather interesting that decision making procedures, or involvement of teachers in decision regarding school policies and measures to be taken regarding students or teachers were not mentioned during the discussion.

4.3.4.1. Category 1: Areas Requiring Initiation of Structure Behavior

This category is related to school principals’ administrative or managerial behaviors that they display as a requirement of their positions. They are mainly related with time tabling, grouping, and allocation of work.

Theme 1: Time Tabling

Sub-Themes: Making teachers’ time tables; allocation of courses to teachers; team building; dividing students into groups; timetabling courses for each group and matching these with the time tables of the teachers; allocating specific groups to specific teachers; allocating class teachers for each group.
Making complex time tables mainly refers to secondary schools since elementary schools have simpler structures with mainly one teacher teaching most of the subjects except music, information technology, art & music and physical education. It is a tedious process requiring a careful analysis of the year group of students, curriculum, and number of students, number of teachers, subject areas of teachers, availability of rooms, laboratories and workshops.

Below are given some examples of what school principals say about time tabling:

**SSP1:** "I do not want to be misunderstood by my colleagues who are working in elementary schools, but our job is more difficult than theirs. If you ask why, I can tell you that we have more teachers and more students than they do.”

**SSP3:** "Yes I agree with …. It is not easy to manage so many students and so many teachers. They all want different things”.

**SSP1.** “Our teachers are teaching different courses at different levels. It is not easy to make their time tables and allocate each to many different classes at many different levels”.

**SSP2:** ”Sometimes we are short of teachers or lack teachers in certain subjects so we have to consider teachers’ backgrounds and allocate that subject to teachers whose subjects are close”.

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SSP4: “Dividing students into appropriate groups is not easy either. If they are middle school students it’s a bit easier but at high school level there are many things to consider such as whether the students are to be put in science group or art group. If the students are put into science group whether they want to be in mathematics or natural sciences section, and so on...”

SSP5: “There is also the difficulty of matching teachers’ time tables with student time tables so that there will be no clashes. Allocating appropriate class teachers for each group is another difficulty because the class needs to get along with that teacher well. Class teachers are important for students because they are the ones who listen to them and attend to their needs.”

ESP2: ”When I listen to all this I should say that I agree that their job is a bit more tedious than ours but our job is not so easy either. Young children are not easy to deal with.”

SSP1: ”Oh, tell me about dealing with students. That is another issue to be discussed”.

After this comment school principals continued by discussing students’ developmental need which will be discussed later under the second category related to the theme of students’ needs.
The comments made by school principals and given above show that they spend a lot of
time and effort structuring the groups, arranging time tables and allocating work.

**Theme 2: Designing and Offering Extracurricular Activities**

*Sub-themes: Collecting information on students who want extracurricular activities, and teachers to whom such activities can be assigned to; appointing teachers to design the activity; registering students into activities; time tabling afternoon or weekend activities.*

The second theme to be drawn from the participants’ comments was related with designing and offering extracurricular activities.

*SSP2: “The formal curriculum is not the only thing we have to deal with. As young people need it as a part of their social development, we have do think about extracurricular activities and leisure activities”*

*ESP2: “We have to do the same. You think we do not have extracurricular activities in elementary schools.”*

*SSP2: “Of course you do but we have a lot more students than you do and plus they are adolescents who need to be kept away from risks. They need to be directed towards positive activities and kept busy so that they do not go into undesired directions.”*
SSP3: “Yes, for example we have to have as many sports activities as possible but we only have two PE teachers.”

SSP4: “Sports activities are not enough. We have to have clubs for students who are interested in cinema, theatre, folk dancing, photography, and so on but we do not have teachers to allocate to these clubs to supervise students. Then, we have to rely on the personal interests of teachers and they are voluntary work.”

SSP1: “We have the same problem. For example we are publishing a school newsletter but we do not have a teacher with media studies background and I cannot find a teacher to work with the students on voluntary basis because it requires a lot time for organization so I am working with the students myself. Thus, instead of publishing a weekly newsletter we consider ourselves successful if we can publish it once a month.”

SSP5: “Finding time is also difficult for extracurricular activities because most of the teachers do not want to come to work or spare their time in the afternoons or at the weekend. Since there is no budget allocated for such activities we also need to find finances. We ask for a little money from students who are registered in these activities or clubs. We know it’s not right but we have to. Some of our students who are interested in joining the clubs cannot do it because it might require money. Most of the time we give up some of the activities we initially offer.”
SSP1: “As you can see, we are not only dealing with curricular issues. There are many things to consider. Besides extracurricular activities we have to consider extra courses to be offered to students because they need them for their university entrance examination.”

The above discussion is a clear indication that secondary school principals besides grouping, time tabling and allocating courses related to the formal curriculum have to spend time structuring extracurricular activities for students and teachers. From this point onwards the school principals discussed the third theme drawn, which was designing and offering afternoon or weekend courses as university entrance preparation.

**Theme 3: Designing and Offering Afternoon or Weekend Courses as University Entrance Examination Preparation**

**Sub-Themes: Collecting information on the number of students who need such courses; deciding on the number of courses to be offered; time tabling the courses and allocating teachers on voluntary basis**

SSP1: “Our students, especially those in 10th, 11th, and 12th grades need extra courses to prepare for university entrance examinations. Of course students in big towns and those who can afford it can attend to private institutions to meet their needs but we have to consider those who cannot, otherwise we would be breaking the equality principle in education. Of course nothing is equal anymore with the development of private institutions in education but still we have to do what we can for our students.”
SSP5: “But we have a problem in that area, too. Again, it’s related with teachers. Because there is not extra payment or budget spared for this by the ministry of education and because we offer such courses on school based decisions, teachers have to work on voluntary bases. However, it is not easy to find voluntarily working teachers because they prefer to work at private institutions (dersanes) or give private lessons.”

SSP3: “Actually doing extra work is illegal. They should not be working in private institutions or give private lessons but there is no government control. In spite of this we still can find a few teachers, those who are novice mainly, to offer such courses. Novice teachers prefer doing it because they feel they need experience, they are more idealistic and they need to prove themselves.”

SSP4: “Yes, it’s the same in our school. We usually offer extra courses in the afternoon or on Saturday mornings with novice teachers. I think another reason for them to volunteer to do extra courses is because they are mostly not married and do not have children.”

SSP1: “So, the problem with extra courses mainly lies in the fact that are quite a few students who need extra courses but it is not easy to find volunteering teachers and also the fact that the type of course to be offered depends on the subject area of the volunteering teachers.”
The discussion among the school principals therefore derives sub-themes as the number of students to take the offered course, the number and type of courses to be offered, and allocation of teachers to teach the courses.

**4.3.4.2 Category 2: Areas Requiring Consideration Behavior**

When one of the ESPs said their job was not easy either because it wasn’t easy to deal with young children SSP1 had said that was another issue to be discussed. The discussion on students was mainly centered on secondary school students’ needs resulting from their age or academic needs.

**Theme 1: Students’ Needs and Wants**

*Sub-themes: Academic; developmental; leisure needs and wants*

While offering extra courses as university entrance exam preparation was being discussed, it could easily be understood that offering such courses was a result of student needs. Students who could not afford to take private tutorial or private lessons requested such courses form their schools so secondary school principals, although not in their job description nor in their duties and responsibilities had to deal with it. This was marked as students’ academic needs sub-theme.

The second area that needed close consideration of school principals was students’ developmental needs. It was discussed that secondary school students are at a very critical age which required close attention. They were in a transition stage from childhood to adulthood which caused confusions in their self-concept and self-esteem.
Besides dealing with fluctuations in the emotions, in their late years of high school they were faced with career selection which would affect their whole life. Needs of students falling under their endeavors to rebuild their self concept and making a career choice was sub-categorized as students’ developmental needs.

SSP1: “You are saying that dealing with young children is not easy. Come and see our students. Their problems are everywhere. Not all of them but quite a few of them have attitude problems. They need to be spoon-fed. You have to take care of them as if you are their mother or father.”

SSP5: “of course we do. They are our children. We have to watch over them. They are at such a critical age that if we don’ they might fall apart. Even though we live in such a small community, the problems are rather big. Our students might drift into unwanted habits or take on addictions.”

SSP4: “We try hard to make them acquire positive habits. We have students’ clubs for students to develop hobbies. We organize summer or winter camps in collaboration with the youth department in Kantara or Yenikonuk or Tatlısu. This strengthens friendship ties of students going to the same school and with students going to other schools. In these camps we have many activities. The most important of all, during the evenings the students sit in one large group or in smaller groups and discuss their future with young professionals who have recently graduated from university; psychologists or counselors.”
SSP2: “Although there numbers are not enough, for example we have only one for around 500 students, school counselors, too are, important at this point. As school principals we have to make sure that there are allocations in the time table for the students to go and see the school counselor individually or as a group. We also have to make sure that they are in close communication with other teachers so that they will be well informed about each student.”

SSP3: “From what I gather from the school counselors in our school, by the way we have two, (aren’t we lucky), most of the students who go to see them are mainly concerned with selection of university or a specific major to study in. They have skills and abilities assessment methods which they apply to students and guide them through their choices.”

SSP1: “We also need to work in collaboration with the parents. They have their expectations as well. We have to inform of their children’s development, academic and cognitive skills and also their attitudes towards school. We have to have a working communication ground on which we work together.”

SSP2: “Besides their expectations, parents are the first hand people from whom we get information about a child. Even though we wish to see them more often, we can only organize parents’ days only twice a week; Once during the fall and once during the spring semester. Their main concern is academic. They want to know whether their
children are getting high marks or not. We also inform them about their children’s attitudes in class, towards their teachers, and towards school objectives.”

SSP4: “Yes, they do not want to hear anything negative about their children. What they stress is the responsibilities of teachers to teach them positive attitudes. They also want the school to be a safe environment for them. What we ask from the ministry of education is walls or fences around our school so that going in and out of school would be provided form highly controlled gates. This way, strangers will be kept away from school and students won’t be able to go out of school premises without permission.”

SSP5: “Safe environment does not only mean going out of or coming into school premises. It is also related with what goes on within the school boundaries such as student gangs, bullying and so on. We also need to consider these and allocate duties for teachers, although they are not very happy with it, to watch over the students during the breaks.”

This last statement brought the conversation to consideration of teacher needs and wants which was the second sub-category related with consideration behavior of school principals.
Theme 2: Teachers’ Needs and Wants

Sub-themes: Teachers’ happiness; teachers’ developmental needs; communication

SSP2: “Keeping teachers happy is not easy, either. There many things you have to consider concerning their happiness. While time tabling for example; some do not want very early classes because they claim they do not have the energy. Some others do not want to teach particular classes because they do not get along with particular students in those classes. You would say they don’t have the right to refuse teaching some classes based on this reason, but when you come to think of it, they are right in a way. In a class, when they are stuck in a situation which they feel inefficient in solving, it affects their credibility.”

SSP1: “Seeking teachers’ consent at every step you take is not easy but if you don’t do it brings about conflicts. I am not saying I cannot solve conflicts. What I am trying to say is it kind of spoils the atmosphere, so, I prefer to seek teachers’ consent when I am time tabling, allocating courses, or offering extracurricular activities. That way they do not have anything to complain about.”

SSP4: “But sometimes you cannot get them agree on everything. I sometimes have difficulty understanding them. I have been in the teaching job for more than 15 years and I never asked for special treatment. I did whatever I was assigned to do. Today, generation of teachers is different. They are a bit more egocentric. They know the situation the county is in. We even lack teachers for teaching certain subjects. They are
appointed to one school and refuse to go and teach their subject in another. If they did, we would have proper teachers for each subject and we would not have to assign courses to teachers whose majors are not in that field.

SSP1: “It is the same in our school. Social studies teacher also teaches religion and morals. Schools are poor in resources, equipment and materials. The budget for education is very short and sometimes no matter how hard we try we cannot get the ministry to buy even smallest things.”

SSP3: “In cases where we are in between the teachers and the ministry we have to have good communication skills and listen to both sides carefully. We are more close to teachers since we share the same work environment so our communication lines should always be open. We should pay close attention to their needs and wants and may be have the ability to convince or persuade them on not being so demanding. We are all in the same boat and with such scarce resources we don’t know how far the boat can go.”

SSP5: “What teachers need is not only materials and resources. They are also in need of developing themselves professionally. They need to attend in-service seminars, training courses. They should be allowed to visit other countries sometimes. Our English teachers, for example, always voice their need to improve or refresh their English. Thanks to the British Council in Cyprus, English teachers have more opportunities to attend such training and development courses. They develop projects and apply them on both sides. I guess this is not enough because they also want scholarships at least once a
few years to attend training courses either in England or in the US so that they can improve or refresh their English and at the same time be acquainted with latest theories, methods and techniques in teaching English as a second or foreign language.”

SSP1: ”As an English teacher myself, I sympathize with their needs. The importance of English in the country is decreasing every day. I believe the teachers are not so efficient as they used to be in our time either. I don’t know if the newly graduated teachers are not educated well enough or they lack sound knowledge of the language.”

SSP2: “May be what should be done with teachers needs concerning development would be to get into contact with universities.”

SSP3: “Forget about universities. It all boils down to money problem again. Universities will ask for money, the ministry will say we don’t have any money and such projects won’t work. What I try to do in our school is have monthly staff meetings to listen to teachers’ needs and wants. During those meetings some teachers come up with ideas as to how we can develop ourselves within the resources we have at school. This is very rare but still we have teachers who volunteer to hold workshops to share experiences and knowledge.”

SSP4. “We try to solve such problems within teams. Teachers teaching the same subject hold meetings every two weeks and whenever there is a need to meet. I try to attend the meetings of each team so that I will be listening to and following what their needs are.
Sometimes, the meeting turns in such a way that the discussion becomes an informal developmental meeting because they end up discussion their experiences related to classroom management, teaching methods and techniques or even student counseling.”

SSP1: “It always works to have teachers discuss things as a group. They can actually share ideas and opinions and it also helps reassuring school goals and objectives. It also develops a sense of involvement and commitment from the teachers’ perspective. Since they gather around the same aims and objectives they pay more attention to achievement of those goals. Sometimes there are cases specific to individuals. There are always such people in all institutions. They sound like they have lost belief so see no effort in trying. In those cases I prefer to listen to such teachers individually and try to understand what the problem really is. It usually turns out that they do not actually see the teaching job as their ideal profession and they are accidentally in the job. But, listening and talking to them individually helps at least to make them see that there is someone who cares.”

SSP4: “As you can see there are many things that we have to consider and take care of. It is a fact that there are many tasks at school that require day to day processing. There is a lot of paper work required by the ministry but school principalship is not just management of daily routines. We share the same background with the people at work. We very deeply understand them and we sympathize with them in all their endeavors. So, top-down processing of work does not work in school environments because teachers
need to be more autonomous and they need to be respected as professionals who know exactly what they are doing.”

Table 4.3.4.1 displays the categories, themes and the sub-themes derived from this interview.

Table 4.3.4.1


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1</th>
<th>Initiation of Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme 1</td>
<td>Time tabling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Making teachers’ time tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Allocating courses to teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3</td>
<td>Team building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 4</td>
<td>Dividing students into groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 5</td>
<td>Time tabling courses for each group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 6</td>
<td>Matching students’ time tables with teachers’ time tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 7</td>
<td>Allocating specific groups to specific subject teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 8</td>
<td>Allocating appropriate class teachers for each group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 2</td>
<td>Designing and offering extracurricular activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Collecting information of students who want extracurricular activities and teachers to whom such activities can be assigned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Appointing teachers to design activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3</td>
<td>Registering students into activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 4</td>
<td>Time tabling activities as afternoon or weekend activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 3</td>
<td>Designing and offering afternoon or weekend courses as university entrance examination preparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Collecting information on the number of students who need such courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Deciding on the number of courses to be offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3</td>
<td>Time tabling the courses</td>
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<td>Sub-theme 4</td>
<td>Allocating teachers on voluntary basis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category 2</td>
<td>Consideration</td>
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<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 1</td>
<td>Teacher needs and wants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1</td>
<td>Keeping teachers as happy as possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Listening to teacher wants and seeking their consent while time tabling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Seeking teachers’ consent while allocating courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Seeking teachers’ consent while offering extracurricular activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Paying attention to and considering teachers’ needs related to teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2</td>
<td>Attending to teachers developmental needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Listening to teacher needs and wants related to their job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Based on their needs and wants requesting in-service training programs or scholarships from the ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Bringing teachers as teams so that experience teachers help novice teachers or novice teachers share up to date methodologies with experienced teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the transcribed and translated data collected from the semi-structured interview shows, secondary school principals have many reasons to exert high initiation of structure and high consideration skills. The reasons that make them to be perceived to display higher initiation of structure and higher consideration skills than elementary school principals is mainly the large number of teachers, the large number of students they have, the variety of subjects they offer, timetabling procedures, student needs and wants, and teacher need and wants. The analyzed data was organized into categories, themes and sub-themes as displayed above and summarized in table 4.3.4.1.
4.3.5 Research Question 5: Is There a Significant Difference Between the English language teachers’ and Other Subject Teachers’ Perceptions of Their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior and their expressed levels of job satisfaction level?

This question will be addressed under two sub-titles: Difference in teachers’ perceptions and difference in their expressed job satisfaction levels.

4.3.5.1 Difference between the English Language Teachers’ and the Other Subject Area Teachers’ Perceptions of Their School Principals’ Leadership Behaviors

As it was discussed in the introduction section, perceptions of the English language teachers of their school principals’ leadership behavior may differ from the perceptions of their colleagues teaching other subjects. Findings of a former study carried out by Yılmaz (2011) suggested that teachers teaching different subjects tended to perceive their principals’ leadership behaviors in different ways, thus their job satisfaction levels being affected differently. In his study he claimed that the English language teachers were the least satisfied among teachers of science, social sciences, mathematics, and other subjects such as physical education, music and arts. The reasons could be that both the subject the students are learning and the language of instruction the teacher is using are foreign to the students and this requires using special teaching methodologies and techniques, materials and classroom interaction patterns. Their subject also requires specially designed teaching/learning environments which will allow group and pair work and will include multi-media equipment (Hammadou and Bernhardt, 1987, cited in Borg, 2006).
In such a unique position, the English language teachers’ needs and expectations from their school principals are expected to be different from those of other subject teachers and might require special attention and care.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the difference between the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals as compared to other subject teachers. The independent variable, subject area of the teachers included two levels, teachers’ perceptions of consideration and initiation of structure behavior of school principals. The subject areas of teachers were, English, mathematics and science, social sciences, arts and music and physical education. The ANOVA for perception of consideration behavior was not significant, F=1.90, p=0.9, p>.05. The difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior was not strong as assessed by the eta square index, η²=.01, meaning that the subject area of the teachers accounts for only .01% of the variance of teachers perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior, consideration and initiation of structure. The results of one-way ANOVA support the null hypotheses that the English language teachers do not perceive their school principals’ leadership behaviors any different than other subject area teachers. Table 4.3.5.1.1 displays the results of this analysis.
Table 4.3.5.1.1

**English Language Teachers Perceptions of Their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior Compared to Teachers’ of Other Subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>F (P)</th>
<th>η²</th>
<th>MD (P)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
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<td>1.907</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.016</td>
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<td>1.28</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Initiation of Structure</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Since no difference in the English language teachers’ perceptions and other subject area teachers’ perception of their school principals’ leadership behaviors was when the English language teachers’ perceptions were compared to each group of subject area teachers separately, as a second step, the English language teachers were separated as one group and all others teachers teaching other subjects were put in another. The reason for doing so was that, when schools were visited to conduct the research, it was observed that the English language teachers had a separate teachers’ room in which they kept materials and equipment and prepared for their lessons. This could also make an effect on their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior. After separating the groups, an independent-sample t-test was run to analyze this difference as shown in table 4.3.5.1.2.
An independent-sample $t$-test was conducted to evaluate the assumption that the English language teachers’ perceptions of leadership behavior of their school principals would differ from that of other subject teachers. The test results were counter to the research assumption and indicated that the difference in mean scores (consideration behavior $t=95$, $MD=1.13$, $p=.34>.05$; initiation of structure $t=.09$, $MD=.11$, $p=.93>.05$) were not significantly different from those of others teaching other subject. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was quite narrow, -.21 to 3.47. The eta square index, $\eta^2=.02$ accounts for only .02% of teachers’ perceptions of their school principals leadership behavior.

The one-way ANOVA and the $t$-test results clearly show that teachers’ subject area does not have a significant effect on their perceptions of the leadership behavior of their school principal. This could be because the school principals treat everyone equally and does not differentiate teachers depending on their subject area when it comes to time tabling, allocating groups, allocating courses, considering their needs and wants and
building effective communication lines. It was assumed that the English language teachers would express lower levels of job satisfaction since they expected to perceive themselves in a different situation than other teachers. This was based on the idea that they are aware of the peculiarities of their subject area as requiring different methodologies, techniques and materials which may be desirable but not necessary for the teaching of other subjects.

4.3.5.2 Difference between the English language teachers’ and Other Subject Area Teachers’ Expressed Job Satisfaction Levels

In order to determine the difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject teachers’ expressed levels of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels as the three dependent variables a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. No significant difference was found between groups, meaning that the English language teachers did not express significantly different levels of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation than other subject area teachers which were set as mathematics and science, social sciences, arts and music, and physical education as shown in Table 4.3.5.2.1 displays the results of this analysis.
### Table 4.3.5.2.1

**English Language Teachers’ Expressed Levels of Overall Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Compared to Teachers’ of Other Subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>( \eta^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>39.78</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>39.61</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>39.23</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Music</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>39.62</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>39.87</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>20.03</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>20.06</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Music</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>19.87</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>19.98</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>19.48</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>19.59</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Music</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>19.65</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>19.17</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The independent variable, subject area of the teachers included three levels, overall job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The subject areas of teachers were, English, mathematics and science, social sciences, arts and music and physical education. The ANOVA results for expressed overall job satisfaction level was not significant, \( F = .89, p = .53 > 0.5 \). The difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ expressed level of overall job satisfaction was not strong as assessed by the eta square index, \( \eta^2 = .007 \), meaning that the subject area of the teachers accounts for only approximately \( .01\% \) of the variance of teachers expressed overall job satisfaction levels.
The ANOVA results for the English language teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation levels as compared to other subject area teachers were also opposing to the assumption that the English language teachers would express lower intrinsic motivation with $F=.57$, $p>.05$. The eta square index $\eta^2=.006$ means that subject area of teachers account only about .01% of the variance of teachers expressed intrinsic motivation.

The ANOVA results for the English language teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation levels as compared to other subject area teachers were also opposing to the assumption that the English language teachers would express lower extrinsic motivation as $F=1.10$, $p>.05$. The eta square index, the same as the eta square index for expressed overall job satisfaction levels, $\eta^2=.007$ means that subject area of teachers may account for only around .01% of the variance of teachers expressed extrinsic motivation.

The results of one-way ANOVA support the null hypotheses that the subject area of teachers working in TRNC does not affect their expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. Thus, the English language teachers’ expressed levels of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation do not differ from those of other subject teachers.

Because no difference could be found in the English language teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels when compared with each group of teachers of other subject areas, next, the English language teachers were separated as one group and all others teachers teaching other subjects were put in
another. The reason for doing so was that, the English language teachers could express different levels of job satisfaction at their work because they had a staff room of their own in which they kept materials and equipment and prepared for their lessons. After separating the groups, an independent-sample t-test was run to analyze this difference as shown in Table 4.3.5.2.2.

Table 4.3.5.2.2

*T-Test Results of the Difference in English Language Teachers’ Overall Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Levels*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Fp</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Tp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>39.78</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.664</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other subjects</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>39.39</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other subjects</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>19.97</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>19.48</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other subjects</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>19.45</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The independent-sample t-test as shown in table 4.3.5.2.2 above proves that the English language teachers’ levels of job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation does not differ from those of other subject teachers. The test results were opposed to the research assumption that the English language teachers’ job satisfaction levels would differ from other teachers’ job satisfaction levels. The difference in mean scores for expressed overall job satisfaction level, \( t(590) = .66, \) MD= .38, \( p > .05 \) was not significantly
different from that of others teaching other subject. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was quite narrow, -0.75 to 1.52. The eta square index, $\eta^2 = .007$ shows that subject area of the teachers’ accounts for only 01% of teachers’ express overall job satisfaction levels.

The results related to the second dependent variable, the difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ expressed levels of intrinsic motivation $t(590)=.44$, $MD=.14$, $p>.05$ reveal that intrinsic motivation levels of teachers in TRNC are not significantly different from each other no matter what their subject area of teaching is. At 95% confidence interval, the eta square, $\eta^2 = .006$ is a proof that subject area of teachers accounts for quite less than 01% of the variance of their expressed intrinsic motivation levels.

As it is also seen in the above $t$-test results in table 4.3.6.1.2, subject area of teachers does not make any difference in their expressed extrinsic motivation levels, $t(590)=.09$, $MD=.03$, $p>.05$. The eta square, $\eta^2 = .007$ at 95% confidence interval means that subject area of teachers accounts not even for 01% of the variance of teachers expressed extrinsic motivation levels.

The one-way ANOVA and the $t$-test results clearly show that teachers’ subject area does not have a significant effect on their expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. This could be because the centralized education system which they have to function in. The system treats everyone equally. As they had expressed, the
teachers view themselves as civil servants, so they naturally have self-respect and self esteem. They feel that they are doing a worthwhile job. They have a life time tenure guaranteed by the state; and their unions support them in all issues regarding their jobs (Sancar, 2012). They also feel their school principals treat them with respect, just because they are supported by their unions; they feel they have enough opportunities for the determination of procedures in their school environments.

4.3.6 Research Question 6: How Well Does State School Principals’ Perceived Leadership Behavior Help Predict Teachers’ Expressed Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Levels in TRNC?

A regression analysis, because, it is a statistical technique to determine whether a relationship exists between two or more variables (Newmark, 1983; Pavkov & Pierce, 1997; Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000; Runyon, Coleman, & Pittenger 2000) was used to test research question 6. Newmark (1983) argues that the correlation coefficient may not be enough by itself to determine whether two variables are related because it does not specify how they are related. Thus in order to be able to predict a straight line, which best presents the relationship between the two variables is needed to be fit on the scatter diagram. This fitted line is called the estimated regression line (the line of best fit). The question was attempted to be answered through the following procedure.

A multiple regression analysis was run using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS Version 18). The predictors in this analysis were the leadership behaviors of school principals (consideration and initiation of structure), which were used as one set
of predictors. Thus, these two independent variables were used to predict teachers’ overall job satisfaction.

On the basis of this analysis, a conclusion was reached about the relative importance of perceived leadership behavior (consideration and initiation of structure) of state school principals in predicting a criterion (overall job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) for expressed overall teacher job satisfaction. These adjustments were made based on the size of bivariate correlation between each predictor and the criterion, the standardized regression weight for each predictor within a regression equation, the partial correlation between each predictor and the criterion (partialling out the effects of all other predictors in the regression equation). A partial correlation between a predictor and a criterion variable could range in value from −1 to +1, a positive sign indicating a direct positive relation between the predictor and the criterion after partialling out the effects of the other predictors, and a negative sign showing that there is an inverse relation after the partialling process.

Analysis and results are discussed under three sub-headings for this question: The relationship between teachers perceptions of their school principals consideration and initiating structure behavior in relation to teachers’ overall job satisfaction; The relationship between teachers perceptions of their school principals consideration and initiating structure behavior in relation to teachers’ intrinsic motivation; and The
relationship between teachers perceptions of their school principals consideration and initiating structure behavior in relation to teachers’ extrinsic motivation.

4.3.6.1 The Relationship between Teachers’ Perceptions of their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior and Teachers’ Expressed Overall Job Satisfaction Levels

A multiple linear regression was conducted to evaluate how well the school principals perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) predicted state school teachers overall job satisfaction. Consideration behavior and initiation of structure behavior were the predictors, while overall teacher job satisfaction was the criterion variable. Table 4.3.6.1.1 is presented to indicate the relative strength of the individual predictors.

Table 4.3.6.1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Zero-order R</th>
<th>Partial r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONSTANT (overall job satisfaction)</td>
<td>30.55</td>
<td>.593</td>
<td>51.484</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONSIDERATION</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td>7.208</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INITIATING STRUCTURE</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>-.554</td>
<td>-.554</td>
<td>.498</td>
<td>-.023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R = .555, R² = .309

The bivariate correlations between the perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of school principals and expressed overall job satisfaction of
teachers in TRNC were positive as expected. The predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behavior) together indicated a high relationship to expressed overall job satisfaction (R = .555, R² = .309, p < .01). Thus it could be stated that, when the other variable was controlled, 31% of the total variance related to expressed overall teacher job satisfaction was explained in relation to perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in TRNC.

The beta coefficients, given in table 4.3.6.1 above, indicated that perceived consideration behavior of state school principals in TRNC made a great contribution of the prediction of teachers expressed overall job satisfaction; however, initiation of structure behavior of state school principals had no contribution to expressed overall teacher job satisfaction on its own. Therefore, if the predictors were to be relatively ordered in importance, it could be stated that perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in TRNC was more important in predicting teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction.

When significance of regression coefficients is considered, the only important variable in predicting teacher job satisfaction was consideration behavior (t = 7.21, p < .01). Initiation of structure behavior had no effect on predicting the overall teacher job satisfaction (t = -.434, p > .5). The relationship between teachers’ perceived consideration behavior of the school principals could be said to be inverse because the negative scores (t=-554; r = -.23).
As the histogram in figure 4.3.6.1 reveals, teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction residual is scattered almost normally. Moreover, as shown in the Normal P-P plot of regression statistics, figure 4.3.6.2, there is a direct positive relationship between the expected cumulative probability and the observed cumulative probability, the two almost match. The partial regression plot as shown in figure 4.3.6.3 also displayed that the effect of consideration behavior was significant in prediction overall job satisfaction levels of teachers even after partialling out the effect of initiation of structure behavior.

Figure 4.3.6.1.1. Histogram of Regression Standardized Residual for Overall Job Satisfaction
When the graphs given in Figure 4.3.6.1.1, 4.3.6.1.2, and 4.3.6.1.3 were analyzed, it was observed that the histogram for regression-standardized residuals had a normal distribution. The Normal P-P plot of regression-standardized residual of expected and
observed cumulative probability indicated that observed and the expected matched and displayed a linear relationship. The Scatter Plot of the two variables (consideration behavior and overall teacher job satisfaction) indicates that the two variables are linearly related \((r = .31)\) such that as consideration behavior increases the overall teacher job satisfaction increases. The scatter plot of the two variables (initiation of structure behavior and overall teacher job satisfaction) indicates that the two variables are not linearly related such that \((r = -.03)\) (almost 0) as indicated above there is no observed relationship between the two variables. Thus, the data in hand meets the assumptions for a multiple regression analysis.

4.3.6.2 Relationship between Teachers’ Perceptions of their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior and Teachers’ Expressed Intrinsic Motivation Levels

A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well the school principals’ perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) predicted state school teachers’ intrinsic motivation. Perceived consideration behavior and initiation of structure behavior were the predictors, while intrinsic motivation was the criterion variable. Table 4.3.6.2 above was presented to indicate the relative strength of the individual predictors.
Table 4.3.6.2.1

Relationship between School Principals’ Perceived Leadership Behaviors and Teachers’ Expressed Intrinsic Motivation Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Zero-order R</th>
<th>Partial r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONSTANT (intrinsic motivation)</td>
<td>15.89</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>44.620</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td>.458</td>
<td>.233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONSIDERATION</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td>5.861</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INITIATING STRUCTURE</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>-.750</td>
<td>.453</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R = .459, R² = .211
F(2,596) = 79.535  p = .000

When partial correlations between the independent variables – predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behaviors) and the criterion (teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation) were analyzed, it could be observed that there was a positively high correlation (r = .46) between perceived consideration behavior of state school principals and intrinsic motivation levels of state school teachers in TRNC. Even after partialling out the effects of initiation of structure behavior, the correlation (r = .23) between the two variables was still significant. Although the correlation coefficient between perceived initiation of structure behavior and expressed intrinsic motivations of teachers (r = .41) might have indicated a positive correlation between the two variables, the partial correlation (after partialling the effects of consideration behavior) between them (r = -.03) signified that, if not inverse because the number was almost zero, there was no relationship between the two variables.
The bivariate correlations between the perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of school principals and expressed intrinsic motivation of showed that school teachers in TRNC were positive (consideration r = .46; initiation of structure r=.41). However after partiailling the effects of one on the other the only predictor for teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation seemed to be the perceived consideration behavior of the school principal (R = .459, R^2 = .211, p < .01). Thus it could be concluded that when the effect of other variables are controlled 21% of the total variance related to expressed intrinsic motivation of teachers was explained in relation to perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in TRNC. The beta coefficients, given in table 4.3.6.2 above, indicated that perceived consideration behavior of state school principals in TRNC made a considerable contribution of the prediction of teachers expressed intrinsic motivation levels, however, initiation of structure behavior of state school principals had no contribution to expressed intrinsic motivation of teachers on its own (B = 0.01, β = -.015). Therefore, if the predictors were to be relatively ordered in importance, it could be stated that consideration behavior is more important in predicting intrinsic motivation of teachers in TRNC

When significance of regression coefficients is considered, the only important variable in predicting intrinsic motivation of teachers was consideration behavior (t = 5.86, p < .01). Initiation of structure behavior has no effect on predicting the extrinsic motivation of teachers. (t = -.750, p > .1).
As the histogram in Figure 4.3.6.2.1 reveals, teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation residual was scattered a little towards right. Moreover, as shown in the Normal P-P plot of regression statistics, Figure 4.3.6.2.2, there was a direct positive relationship between the expected cumulative probability and the observed cumulative probability, the two almost match. The partial regression plot as shown in Figure 4.3.6.2.3 also displayed that the effect of consideration behavior was significant in prediction overall job satisfaction levels of teachers even after partialling out the effect of initiation of structure behavior.

Figure 4.3.6.2.1. Histogram of Regression Standardized Residual of Intrinsic Motivation
Figure 4.3.6.2.2. *Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual of Intrinsic Motivation*

![Normal P-P Plot](image)

Figure 4.3.6.2.3. *Partial Regression Plot of Intrinsic Motivation*

![Partial Regression Plot](image)
Analysis of graphs given in Figures 4.3.6.2.1, 4.3.6.2.2, and 4.3.6.2.3 were conducted, and it was observed that the histogram for regression-standardized residuals was leaned a little towards right but showing almost a normal distribution. The Normal P-P plot of regression-standardized residual of expected and observed cumulative probability indicated that observed and the expected matched and displayed a linear relationship. The Scatter Plot of consideration behavior and overall teacher job satisfaction indicated that the two variables are positively linearly related (R = .46) such that as consideration behavior increased the level of teachers’ intrinsic motivation increased. The scatter plot of initiation of structure behavior and overall teacher job satisfaction indicated that the two variables were not linearly related such that (r = -.03, almost 0) as indicated above there is no observed relationship between the perceived leadership behaviors of school principals and teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation levels. Thus, the data in hand met the assumptions for a multiple regression analysis.

4.3.6.3 The Relationship between Teachers’ Perceptions of their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior and Teachers’ Expressed Extrinsic Motivation Levels

A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted again to evaluate how well the school principals perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) predicted state school teachers’ extrinsic motivation levels. This analysis was more significant in importance since one of the factors affecting teachers’ extrinsic motivation was thought to be principals’ behaviors. In the analysis, consideration behavior and initiation of structure behavior were the predictors, while extrinsic
motivation was the criterion variable. Table 4.3.5.3 above presents relative strength of the individual predictors.

Table 4.3.6.3.1

*Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Relationship between School Principals’ Perceived Leadership Behaviors and Teachers’ Expressed Extrinsic Motivation Levels*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Zero-order R</th>
<th>Partial r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONSTANT (extrinsic motivation)</td>
<td>15.24</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>38.682</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONSIDERATION</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>5.077</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.429</td>
<td>.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INITIATING STRUCTURE</td>
<td>-.0057</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>-.341</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td>-.013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R = .429, R² = .184

The bivariate correlations between the perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of school principals and expressed extrinsic motivation of state school teachers in TRNC were positive (R = .429). The predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behavior) together indicate a high relationship to expressed extrinsic motivation (t=38.68, p=.000<.01). However, when the effect of one variable was eliminated from the other the only variable predicting teachers’ extrinsic motivation was teachers’ perceived consideration behavior of their school principals (R=.429, R²=.184, p=.000>.01) Thus it can be stated that when the effect of other variables are controlled 18% of the total variance related to expressed extrinsic motivation was explained in relation to perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in
TRNC. The positive beta coefficients (zero order $r = .43$, and partial $r = .20$), given in table above, indicate that perceived consideration behavior of state school principals in TRNC made a considerable contribution of the prediction of teachers expressed extrinsic motivation, whereas, initiation of structure behavior of state school principals has no contribution to expressed extrinsic motivation of teachers on its own (zero order $r=39$, partial $r=.01$, $B = 0.057$, $\beta = -.03$). Therefore, if the predictors are to be relatively ordered in importance, it could be stated that consideration behavior is more important in predicting intrinsic motivation of teachers in TRNC than initiation of structure.

When significance of regression coefficients are considered, the only important variable in predicting extrinsic motivation of teachers is consideration behavior ($t = 5.07$, $p=.000 < .01$). Initiation of structure behavior had no effect on predicting the overall teacher job satisfaction ($t = -.341$, $p=.73 > .5$).

Although the correlation coefficient between perceived initiation of structure behavior and expressed extrinsic motivation ($r = .38$) may indicate a positive correlation between the two variables, the partial correlation (after partiailling the effects of consideration behavior) between them ($r = -.01$, almost 0) signifies that, there is no relationship between state school teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation and perceived initiation of structure behavior of state school principals.

As the histogram in Figure 4.3.6.3.1 reveals, teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation residual was scattered almost normally. Moreover, as shown in the Normal P-P plot of
regression statistics, Figure 4.3.6.3.2, there was almost one to one direct positive relationship between the expected cumulative probability and the observed cumulative probability. The partial regression plot as shown in Figure 4.3.6.3.3 also displayed that the effect of consideration behavior was significant in prediction overall job satisfaction levels of teachers even after partiailling out the effect of initiation of structure behavior.

Figure 4.3.6.3.1. *Histogram Showing Regression Standardized Residual of Extrinsic Motivation*
Figure 4.3.6.3.2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Figure 4.3.6.3.3. Partial Regression Plot of Extrinsic Motivation
Analysis of graphs given in Figures 4.3.6.2.1, 4.3.6.2.2, and 4.3.6.2.3 demonstrated almost a normal distribution put leaning towards more positive. The Normal P-P plot of regression-standardized residual of expected and observed cumulative probability indicated that observed and the expected almost with insignificant deviance from the straight line and displayed a linear relationship. The Scatter Plot of consideration behavior and overall teacher job satisfaction indicated that the two variables were positively linearly related \( (r=20, R = .46, R^2=.18) \) such that as consideration behavior increased the level of teachers’ intrinsic motivation increased. The scatter plot of initiation of structure behavior and overall teacher job satisfaction indicated that the two variables were not linearly related such that \( (r = -.01, \text{almost } 0) \) as indicated above there is no observed relationship between the perceived leadership behaviors of school principals and teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation levels. Thus, the data in hand met the assumptions for a multiple regression analysis.

In summary, analysis of data in hand indicated that there was a significant positive and linear relationship between teachers perception of state school principals’ consideration behavior and expressed teacher job satisfaction in TRNC. As findings presented in this chapter indicated, perceived initiation of structure behavior of state school principals had no significant correlation with teacher job satisfaction. Thus, it could be stated that the higher the teachers’ perceptions of their school principals consideration behavior the higher their expressed job satisfaction levels.
4.4 Summary

In this chapter, the questionnaire response rate, the demographic data and the findings related to the research questions were presented and discussed. Statistical analysis revealed that school principals in TRNC were perceived to display high consideration and high initiation structure behaviors making them effective educational leaders.

The linear regression analysis proved a significant relationship between teachers’ perception of state school principals’ leadership behaviors and teacher job satisfaction levels.

In this study variables such as participants’ and school principals’, age, years of experience, educational background and position at school were not included. The two variables concerning participants that were included in the study were the type of school –elementary or secondary- the participants worked in and the subject area of the participants. The results of the analysis carried out displayed a significant difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors. During a semi-structural interview held with them, the secondary school principals explained this difference with the large sizes of teachers and students they have to work with and the needs and wants of the teachers teaching different subject areas and the students who were at a transitional stage from childhood to adulthood.
Statistical analysis conducted to determine whether the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and accordingly their job satisfaction levels differed from teachers teaching other subjects, yielded the result that subject area of teachers did not make a significant difference in either of the areas, contrary to Yılmaz’ (2011) findings showed the least satisfaction levels in Turkish primary schools.

Comments made by the teachers to an open ended question regarding their sincere comments on the leadership behaviors of their school principals, their job satisfaction levels and the system in which they are operating were analyzed using content analysis approach and data was grouped into several categories, themes and sub-themes. Most of the comments made by teachers were in accordance with the scores they had on their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels. Positive comments were made by those who scored high and negative comments were made by those who scored low; high or low scores being determined by the cut off points suggested by the originators of the instruments.

Some of the comments displayed the relationship between politics and the education system in the sense that political views of the teachers accounted more than their personal and professional skills and attributes when promotions and appointments were concerned and that methods and procedures for objective evaluation of performance was needed. These comments led to changes in the evaluation system with the introduction of a new by-law in 2005.
The comments made by one of the respondents related to the political dead-lock TRNC is experiencing due to the attitudes and behaviors of the political leaders helped drawing a conclusion that the education system, leadership behaviors of school principals, teacher performance and job satisfaction levels should be studied in connection to the whole system.

In the next chapter, conclusions will be drawn and recommendations for further study will be made.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The aims of the research, as stated before, have been achieved. While addressing the assumptions and the research questions the perceptions of teachers of their school principals’ leadership behavior, their expressed job satisfaction levels and the relationship between the two have been depicted. Firstly the findings related to teachers’ perceptions of their school principals consideration and initiating structure behaviors were analyzed and the difference between the perceptions of teachers of these two leadership behaviors was investigated. After this was revealed, the difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions and the difference between the English language teachers and other subject area teachers’ perceptions were investigated. Finally, the relationship between teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction was analyzed. Therefore, in this chapter a summary of the study will be given along with the conclusions, recommendations and implications of the study. The summary section of this chapter will include the summary of the purpose, the summary of the procedures, and the summary of the findings. Conclusions, recommendations and implications of the study will be discussed separately.
5.2 Summary of the Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to survey elementary and secondary state school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) in relation to their expressed overall job satisfaction, as well as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. For this purpose, the study employed the translated versions of the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957; Hemphil & Coons, 1957) and the MCMJSS (Mohrman, Cook, & Mohrman, 1977). The two instruments, the Demographic Information Questionnaire, and the section eliciting open ended comments of teachers were put together as a pack sent to all teachers of the randomly selected elementary schools and randomly selected teachers working in all secondary schools in TRNC. The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. How is the leadership behavior (consideration or initiation of structure) of the state school principals in TRNC perceived by the school teachers?
2. What is the expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of state school teachers in TRNC?
3. Is there a significant difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels?
4. How do school principals account for this difference (if any) between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?
5. Is there a significant difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

6. How well does state school principals’ perceived leadership behavior help predict teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC?

5.3 Summary of Method

The study is a mixed research employing both quantitative and qualitative research methods and procedures. It is at the same time a triangulation because different methods and different sources of data collection were applied. For collecting data to be analyzed numerically in order to address research questions 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6, LBDQ and MCMJSS were used. Research question 4 was prepared to support and refer to the results of the quantitative analysis through conducting a semi-structured interview with the school principals and by asking teachers to comment, in written form, on the leadership behaviors of their school principals, their job satisfaction levels and the education system in which they were operating. Accordingly, the study obtained comprehensive quantitative and qualitative data through multiple resources, therefore, findings were enhanced and supported and conclusions were drawn through the aid of the ideas and opinions of people who were subject to the study.

The instruments used to collect quantitative data were found to be highly reliable concerning both the original and the translated versions. The reliability estimates the
two behaviors on the translated version of LBDQ were: .90 for consideration and .82 for initiation of structure behavior. The reliability estimates showing the Cronbah’s alpha values of MCMJSS were as follows: all eight items: .90; four items measuring intrinsic motivation: .85; and four items measuring extrinsic motivation: .83 which were all above the cut-off point of .70 suggested by Nunnally (1978).

The reliability of qualitative data collection and analysis were checked in accordance with by reviewing the five factors stated by Guba (1985), Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Bryman (2004) such as credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and authenticity. The data collected and findings drawn as a result of analysis of data were credible in that they were validated by the teachers and the school principals themselves. Since they were accounts of details of a representative professional group which could form a data base for other studies the data and the results carried the quality of transferability to other milieux. Furthermore, the data and the results were also dependable and confirmable since they were analyzed by the supervisor and a colleague of the researcher. Moreover, they carried the quality of authenticity because it made an impact on educational authorities; those involved in the study came to a better understanding of each other’s share, and initiated a change process in the examination, promotion and appointment procedures of teachers and school principals.

The population sampling for the study employed probability sampling approach. Population of the state elementary and secondary schools, at the time of study (2002-2003 academic year), were around 2400 – around 1250 elementary school teachers and
1150 secondary school teachers. These teachers worked in 93 elementary and 32 secondary schools. Three hundred and fifty-eight teachers working in randomly selected 21 state elementary schools, and 442 randomly selected teachers working in 26 state secondary schools were sent the questionnaire packages. The return rate from the state elementary school teachers was 71% (274) comprising 68.5% of the total population of the elementary school teachers, and the return rate from the state secondary school teachers was 74% (325) comprising 28% of the total population of the secondary school teachers. The state elementary school teachers who completed the survey comprised 45.7 %, and the state secondary school teachers completing the survey comprised 54.3% of the total number of 599 respondents.

The first statistical analysis to be performed on the data collected was coefficient alpha to measure the reliability of the instruments. Although the instruments were proven to be reliable and had been used since the mid-twentieth century, and although the reliability tests were conducted after the collection of the data from the pilot study, since the number of participants was quite large, there was a need to test the reliability coefficients again.

An internal consistency estimate was computed for both instruments, LBDQ and the MCMJSS. The alpha value for consideration was .90, for initiating structure it was .82, and .83 for conditions for administration on the LBDQ. For MCMJSS, the value for total satisfaction was .90, for intrinsic motivation .85, and for extrinsic motivation .83,
all of which were above the cut off value of .70 suggested by Nunnally (1978) and even exceeded the values of the original study.

The returned questionnaires were tabulated for frequencies of leadership behavior choices and job satisfaction scores. In order to answer research questions 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6, the statistical tests using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Version 18) were performed to determine the perceived leadership behaviors of the state school principals and expressed job satisfaction levels the state school teachers in TRNC. A linear regression analysis was performed to test research question 6 to depict the relationship between teachers’ perceived leadership behaviors of their school principals and their expressed job satisfaction levels.

For qualitative analysis, the mean scores of the totals of the items related to consideration and initiation of structure behavior were compared to examine the perceived leadership behaviors of the state school principals in TRNC and the mean scores for overall job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation were taken to determine the expressed job satisfaction levels of the state school teachers in TRNC.

In order to find the relationship between the state school principals’ leadership behaviors as perceived by the state school teachers and teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels a linear regression analysis was conducted.
Research questions 4 and 7 required qualitative data analysis for which content analysis approach was applied. The data collected were arranged into main categories which were driven from the essence of the study. Then, the data were categorized into themes related to each category and these themes were analyzed in more detail through sub-themes.

5.4 Summary of Findings

5.4.1 Research Question 1: How is the Leadership Behavior (consideration or initiation of structure) of the State School Principals in TRNC Perceived by the School teachers?

Teachers’ Perceptions of Their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior

The correlation coefficient .912 between the two perceived behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure), as tested by Pearson’s Paired Sample t-test, was significant, and indicated that there was a very strong positive and significant correlation between the two perceived behaviors. Because of a positive mean difference, 2.31 points to the advantage of the perceived consideration behavior, (t = 7.44 and p = 000 which is p < .01), it can be stated that the school principals in TRNC were perceived to display consideration behavior to a greater degree than initiation of structure behavior.

Thus, the state the school principals in TRNC were considered to display quadrant II leadership behavior – high consideration / high initiating structure (Halpin, 1966; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) - meaning that the principals in this study were perceived to be highly considerate of the teachers’ needs and wants, while providing a lot of guidance about how tasks can be completed. Thus, they were perceived to be effective and
efficient in managing both tasks and people. Therefore, the findings support the assumption that the school principals, as appointed administrators functioning in small communities would be perceived to display high initiation of structure and high consideration behaviors as the nature of their position and close relationships in small communities would require them to do so.

5.4.2 Research Question 2: What is the expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the state school teachers in TRNC?

Research question two concerning expressed job satisfaction levels of the state school teachers in T.R.N.C was addressed by taking the means scores of all eight items on MCMJSS, and then the four items, in each section, divided as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which were reported on a six point scale. The results indicated that school teachers in North Cyprus had high overall job satisfaction (M=39.42), intrinsic motivation (M = 19.98) and extrinsic motivation (M = 19.42) since the scores were above the mean scores of 27.5 for overall job satisfaction, 14.5 for intrinsic, and 13 for extrinsic motivation indicating the respondents’ high satisfaction. It may also be concluded from the results that overall job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation were very highly positively correlated. There was a very significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation (.820), and overall job satisfaction and extrinsic motivation (.768), further, there was also a very significant correlation between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (.533). The compared mean score of .24 points to the advantage of intrinsic motivation as tested by Pearson’s paired sample t-test (t = 4.50, p <.05), which indicated that the expressed intrinsic
motivation level of the state school teachers in TRNC was not significantly higher than their expressed extrinsic motivation levels. This might mean that the state school teachers seem to be motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically with a feeling of self-respect and self esteem, finding joy and pleasure in the job itself, and being accepted, respected and valued by others, especially by their school principals, in their work environment.

5.4.3 Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference between the elementary and the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

Because high school principals operate in a more complicated work environments regarding large number of teachers teaching many different subjects, large number of students, and the age level of their students, it was assumed that the secondary school principals would be perceived do exert significantly higher consideration and initiation of structure behaviors when compared to the elementary school principals.

The t-test results proved the assumption to be true (consideration MD = -.66, t = -10.80, and p < .01; and initiation of structure MD = -.45, t = -8.03, and p < .01). The mean difference to the disadvantage of the elementary school principals’ behavior evidently showed that the secondary school principals in TRNC were perceived to display significantly higher consideration and initiation of structure behaviors.

This seemed to reflect on the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic, and extrinsic motivation levels because the t-test results revealed that the elementary school teachers
were less satisfied than the secondary school teachers (overall job satisfaction MD = -2.47, \( t = -5.82, p < .01 \); intrinsic motivation MD = -1.04, \( t = -4.31, p < .01 \); extrinsic motivation MD = -1.19, \( t = -4.54, p < .01 \)).

5.4.4 Research Question 4: How do the school principals account for the difference between elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

The above findings were supported and enhanced by the analysis of the data collected through the semi-structured interview with the school principals. What they reported was categorized and schematized according to the predefined leadership behaviors and job satisfaction indicators investigated through the instruments.

The secondary school principals all agreed that the teachers perceived them as highly considerate and highly structured simply because they had to be. They needed to deal with a larger number of teachers and large number of students. The requirements of the context were quite more demanding and complicated than those in elementary schools. There were academic, personal and professional matters to be attended to. The courses were not easy to schedule, work was difficult to allocate unless the principals themselves were highly structured. Teachers and students had specific needs and wants. Thus, they needed to take the needs and wants of the students into consideration in order to create a positive and productive work environment in which some of the work could be done voluntarily. Dealing with students who were adolescents in the process of rebuilding their self-concept and self-esteem, and at the same time preparing for the decision of their future occupation required tedious work and coordination and communication with
the teachers. It was important to provide students counseling services, extracurricular activities and extra courses in order to prepare them for the university entrance examinations. This was an extra burden, but at the same time necessary for the reputation of their schools.

5.4.5 Research Question 5: Is there a significant difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed job satisfaction levels?

Conclusions from the findings related to this research question were drawn at two different levels of analysis: (1) the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors, and (2) the English language teachers’ expressed levels of job satisfaction.

**English Language Teachers’ Perceptions of Their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior**

It was assumed that the English language teachers would differ in their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership styles from the teachers of other subject areas on the grounds that both the subject they are teaching and the language of instruction were foreign to the learners, posing necessities for special training and development, application of different methodologies, techniques and materials peculiar to language teaching, and classroom interaction procedures such as group work, pair work, role play and so on which might be desirable but, not absolutely necessary for the teaching of other subjects (Hammadou & Bernhardt, 1987, cited in Borg, 2006). In this respect, Yılmaz (2011) found that the English language teachers among other subject area
teachers were the least satisfied group in elementary education in Turkey. Under such circumstances, the English Language teachers were expected to perceive their school leaders to display low consideration and low initiation of structure behavior, and in return, express lower overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

To evaluate the difference (if any) between the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors as compared to other subject teachers, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The effect of the subject area of teachers on teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior was examined at two levels; their perceptions of consideration behavior, and their perceptions of initiation of structure behavior of school principals. When all different subjects such as English, mathematics and science, social sciences, arts and music and physical education were considered, the ANOVA for perception of consideration behavior was not significant, F=1.90, p=0.9, p>.05. The difference between the English language teachers’ and other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior was not strong as assessed by the eta square index, η²=.01. This seemed to indicate that the subject area of the teachers accounted for only .01% of the variance of the teachers perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior, consideration and initiation of structure. Thus, the results of one-way ANOVA did not support the assumption that the English language teachers would have different perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior than the teachers of other subject areas. As a result, it can be stated that the English language teachers did
not perceive their school principals’ leadership behaviors any different than other subject area teachers.

However, because no difference was found when subject the areas of teachers were separately taken into account, another approach could be putting all other teachers in one group as teachers of other subjects and the English language teachers in another to examine if any difference would be found in these two groups of teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior.

After separating the groups, an independent-sample t-test was run to compare these two groups’ perceptions. The results of the independent-sample t-test did not confirm the assumption and indicated that the difference in mean scores for the perception of consideration behavior, $t(590) = .95$, $\text{MD} = 1.13$, $p > .05$ was not significantly different from that of others teaching other subject. The results for initiating structure perceptions of the English language teachers and the other subject are teachers were the same: $t(590) = .95$, $\text{MD} = .11$, $p > .05$. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was quite narrow, -.21 to 3.47. The eta square index, $\eta^2 = .02$ accounted for only 2% of the teachers’ perceptions of their school principals leadership behavior.

**Expressed Job Satisfaction Levels of the English language teachers**

Further, another assumption that the English language teachers would express lower levels of job satisfaction since they were perceived to be in a different situation than
other subject area teachers because of the peculiarities of their subject area was investigated

MANOVA was conducted taking the subject areas of teachers as the independent, and the teachers expressed overall satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as the dependent variables. For the test to be conducted, the teachers’ subject areas, English, mathematics and science, social sciences, arts and music, and physical education were analyzed as separate entities. The results of this test (F = .818, p = .53 > 0.5) revealed no significant difference in the overall job satisfaction between groups. The eta square index $\eta^2 = .007$ meant that the subject area of the teachers accounted for only about 0.07% of the teachers expressed overall motivation levels. Therefore, it could be stated that the English language teachers’ level of overall job satisfaction did not significantly differ from that of the teachers of other subject areas. The test results were similar for the expressed intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. It was also assumed that The English language teachers would express lower intrinsic motivation; however the $t$-test results (F = .57, p = .72 > 0.5) proved just the opposite, that the English language teachers did not have lower levels of intrinsic motivation than the other subject area teachers. The eta square index $\eta^2 = .006$ seemed to indicate that the subject area of the teachers accounted for only about 0.01% of the variance of the teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation. The $t$-test results for the English language teachers’ expressed levels of extrinsic motivation (F = 1.13, p = .34 > 0.5) were in line with other findings that the English language teachers did not differ from the other teachers in their expressed levels of extrinsic motivation. The eta square index, the same as the eta square index for expressed overall job
satisfaction levels, $\eta^2=0.007$ seemed to indicate that subject area of the teachers may account for only around 1% of the variance of the teachers expressed extrinsic motivation.

The results of one-way ANOVA, therefore, seemed to indicate that the subject area of the teachers working in TRNC did not affect their expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. Thus, the English language teachers’ expressed levels of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation did not differ from those of the other subject teachers.

After separating the groups into two main groups as the English language teachers and the teachers of other subjects, a $t$-test was run again. The results did not comply with the assumption that the English language teachers’ job satisfaction levels would differ from the other teachers’ job satisfaction levels. The difference in mean scores for the expressed overall job satisfaction level, $t=0.66$, MD=0.38, $p=0.51>0.05$ was not significantly different from that of the others teaching other subjects. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was quite narrow, -0.75 to 1.52. The eta square index, $\eta^2=0.007$ showed that subject area of the teachers accounted for only 01% of the teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction levels. The results for expressed intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the English language teachers were in line with the above results. The mean of expressed intrinsic motivation levels of the English language teachers did not significantly differ from those of the other teachers ($t=0.44$, MD=0.14, $p=0.66>0.05$). At 95% confidence interval, the eta square, $\eta^2=0.006$ indicated that the subject area of the
teachers accounted for quite less than 01% of the variance of their expressed intrinsic motivation levels of the teachers. The results for the expressed extrinsic motivation levels of the English language teachers, when compared to the other teachers, also demonstrated that the subject area of the teachers did not make any difference in their expressed extrinsic motivation levels ($t=0.09$, $MD=0.03$, $p=0.92>0.05$). The eta square, $\eta^2=0.007$ at 95% confidence interval was an indication that the subject area of the teachers accounts not even for 01% of the variance of the teachers expressed extrinsic motivation levels.

The one-way ANOVA and the $t$-test results clearly show that the teachers’ subject area did not have a significant effect on their expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

5.4.6 Research Question 6: How well does state school principals’ perceived leadership behavior help predict the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels in TRNC?

Bivariate correlations between the perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of school principals and expressed overall job satisfaction of the teachers in TRNC, as tested by multiple regression analysis, were positive. The predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behavior) together indicated a high relationship to expressed overall teacher job satisfaction ($R = 0.555$, $R^2 = 0.309$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.01$). The beta coefficients indicated that the perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in TRNC significantly contributed to the prediction of the teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction; however, initiation of structure behavior of
the state school principals had no contribution to the expressed overall teacher job satisfaction on its own. Therefore, if the predictors are to be relatively ordered in importance, it can be stated that consideration behavior is more important in predicting the overall teacher job satisfaction in TRNC. The Regression Standardized Residual, the P-P Plot of Regression-Standardized Residual, and the Partial Regression Plot contributed to the finding that the two variables were linearly related, and as perception of consideration behavior of school principals increased, the overall teacher job satisfaction increased.

When significance of correlation coefficients was considered, the only important variable in predicting the teachers’ overall job satisfaction was consideration behavior ($t = 7.21, p = .000, p < .01$). Initiation of structure behavior had no effect on predicting the overall teacher job satisfaction ($t = -.554, p = .55, p > .5$).

When partial correlations between the independent variables/predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behaviors) and the criterion (the teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation) were analyzed, it was observed that there was a positive correlation ($r = .46$) between perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals and overall job satisfaction of the state school teachers in TRNC even after partialling out the effects of initiation of structure behavior ($r = .23$). Although the correlation coefficient between the perceived initiation of structure behavior and expressed overall teacher job satisfaction ($r = .41$) indicated a positive correlation between the two variables, the
partial correlation (after partiaulling the effects of consideration behavior) between them
\((r = -.03)\) indicated that there was no relationship between the two variables.

The bivariate correlations between the perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and
initiation of structure) of school principals and expressed intrinsic motivation of the state
school teachers in TRNC were positive \((R = .459)\). The predictors (consideration and
initiation of structure behavior) together indicate a high relationship to the teachers’
expressed intrinsic motivation \((R = .459, R^2 = .211, p = .000, < .01)\). Thus, the
correlation coefficients displayed a significantly positive relationship between the
perceived consideration behaviors of the state school principals and the teachers’
expressed intrinsic motivation in TRNC. The beta coefficients \((B = .084, \beta = .519)\)
indicated that the perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in
TRNC made a considerable contribution to the prediction of the teachers’ expressed
intrinsic motivation, however, the perceived initiation of structure behavior \((B = .015, \beta
= -.066)\) of the state school principals had no contribution to the expressed intrinsic
motivation of the teachers on its own. Therefore, if the predictors were to be relatively
ordered in importance, it can be stated that consideration behavior was more important
in predicting intrinsic motivation of the teachers in TRNC.

When significance of correlation coefficients were considered, the only important
variable in predicting intrinsic motivation of the teachers was again consideration
behavior \((t = 5.86, p = .000, p < .01)\). Initiation of structure behavior had no effect on
predicting the intrinsic motivation of the teachers. \( t = -.750, p = .453, p > .5 \). When partial correlations between the independent variables/predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behaviors) and the criterion (the teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation) were analyzed, it was observed that there was a positively high correlation \( r = .458 \) between perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals and intrinsic motivation of the state school teachers in TRNC even after partialling out the effects of initiation of structure behavior \( r = .233 \). Although the correlation coefficient between perceived initiation of structure behavior and expressed intrinsic motivation \( r = .406 \) indicated a positive correlation between the two variables, the partial correlation (after partialling the effects of consideration behavior) between them \( r = -.031 \) signified that, there was no relationship between the two variables.

The bivariate correlations between the perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) of the school principals and the expressed extrinsic motivation of the state school teachers in TRNC were positive \( R = .429 \), as the results of multiple linear regression analysis indicated. The predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behavior) together indicated a high relationship to the expressed extrinsic motivation \( R = .429, R^2 = .184, p = .000, p < .01 \). The positive beta coefficients \( B = .084, \beta = .457 \) indicated that the perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in TRNC made a considerable contribution to the prediction of the teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation, whereas, initiation of structure behavior of the state school principals had no contribution to expressed extrinsic motivation of the teachers on its own \( B = 0.006, \beta = -.02 \). Therefore, if the predictors were to be relatively
ordered in importance, it can be stated that consideration behavior was more important in predicting extrinsic motivation of the teachers in TRNC than initiation of structure behavior.

When significance of regression coefficients was considered, the only important variable in predicting intrinsic motivation of the teachers was consideration behavior ($t = 5.077, p = .000, p < .01$). Initiation of structure behavior had no effect on predicting the expressed extrinsic motivation of the state school teachers in TRNC ($t = -.341, p = .733, p > .5$). Partial correlations between the independent variables/predictors (consideration and initiation of structure behaviors) and the criterion (the teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation) signified that there was a positively high and significant correlation ($r = .429$) between perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals and extrinsic motivation of the state school teachers in TRNC even after partialling out the effects of initiation of structure behavior ($r = .204$). Although the correlation coefficient between the perceived initiation of structure behavior and the expressed extrinsic motivation ($r = .386$) signaled a positive correlation between the two variables, the partial correlation (after partialling the effects of consideration behavior) between them ($r = -.013$) demonstrated that there was no significant relationship between the state school teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation and initiation of structure behavior of the state school principals in TRNC.
5.4.7 Teachers Comment on Their School Principals’ Leadership Behavior, Their Job Satisfaction Levels and the System in which They are Operating

Data collected through the teachers’ written comments as a consequent section of the quantitative data collection instruments were analyzed by employing content analysis approach. The comments made by the teachers were categorized and then schematized into themes and sub-themes related to each category.

A coding manual in the form of a list containing the predetermined categories driven from the qualitative data collection instruments was prepared to group comments made by the teachers. Thus, the main categories were leader behavior and job satisfaction. The first theme to emerge under the category of leadership was consideration behavior which was schematized into sub-themes of communication, decision making and creating a positive work environment. The second theme under leadership behavior of school principals was initiation of structure and this was analyzed under two sub-themes as management of daily work, applying standards and procedures for performance.

The second category was related to the teachers’ job satisfaction and divided into themes as overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Overall satisfaction of the teachers was determined by analyzing the comments corresponding to their general happiness at work. Intrinsic motivation of the teachers was observed in their comments related to their self-respect, self-esteem and their feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in their job. When data were analyzed into categories and themes, it was realized that the expressed extrinsic motivation of the teachers were reflected in their comments on their perceptions of the school principal’s consideration and initiation of structure behaviors.
The third category that the teachers commented on was the education system with themes such as the economic situation of TRNC, budgeting of education, inefficient infrastructure, a desire for fair appointment and promotion policies were voiced and intrusion of politics into the system was criticized.

The comments made by the respondents on consideration behavior of the school principals were mostly positive combining well with the teachers’ perception that the school principals in TRNC displayed high consideration behavior. They mostly perceived their school principals communicating effectively with staff in a friendly manner, but some found this friendly attitude unprofessional, preventing the school principal taking necessary action in cases of inadequate and inefficient performance.

The comments made on the decision making styles of the principals proved that the teachers wanted to be a part of the decision making process and when they did they felt empowered, and when they did not they expressed their desire to be involved in the process.

It was again inferred from the teachers’ comments that it was important to work harmoniously and productively with the school principal and other colleagues. Positive comments about the school principal, creating a positive and harmonious work environment came from those respondents who scored their school principal high on consideration behavior scale, and negative comments came from those who scored their principal low on the same scale.
The respondents giving negative comments made it clear that they were not very happy with their school principals who discriminated staff as trustworthy or not trustworthy; or operated on rumors rather than directly approaching people.

The comments made by the respondents pertaining to their perceptions of their school principals’ initiation of structure behavior indicated that the school principals in North Cyprus did their jobs effectively by managing the work and the people well. Since there were no criticizing comments about management skills of the school principals suggested that as appointed administrators, school principals were doing what was expected of them. The respondents also believed that working in a positive work environment in which things were well organized increased productivity which is in line with the humanistic approach to management (Everett, 1987; Fiedler, 1967; Griffin, 1979; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972, 1977). The analysis of comments made on initiation of structure behavior of school principals as appointed administrators working in state schools in TRNC suggested that they allocated work, expected everyone to perform at high standards, paid attention to how work was done, and gave supervision when necessary. Since the teachers expressed high levels of job satisfaction and extrinsic motivation it may be stated that they are content with such behavior.

It was discussed in previous chapters that an effective school principal should display both high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors (Halpin, 1966; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Positive comments made by the teachers who scored their school principals high on both scales supported this opinion.
The comments made by the teachers about their job satisfaction levels provided evidence that they did not have much to complain about when the present unfortunate economical and political conditions of the country were considered. The teachers perceived themselves as members of a family struggling under inadequate conditions who stuck closely to each other for support. The respondents felt like this probably because they were intrinsically motivated feeling self-respect and self-esteem in serving the country as civil servants. However, others were not very happy because extrinsically they were demotivated, since their subject area was viewed as not so significant whereas others found low levels of students contributing to their demotivation. As the respondents voiced, lack of materials and equipment also contributed to the teachers’ demotivation because it prevented them from performing at their highest potential.

The teachers criticized the education system in areas in terms of poor infrastructure, absence of a fair and objective appointment and promotion system, and intrusion of politics in education. Their main area of concern was that enough money was not allocated for education in the budget. This resulted in lack of materials and equipment, poor hygienic conditions, inadequate maintenance of buildings, large classes and inadequate number of the teachers. Because this was the case, the school principals could not allocate the desired amount of time to academic matters, but spent a lot of time dealing with problems resulting from inadequacies. The teachers’ second concern was that they did not believe appointment of school principals was done fairly and objectively. They stated that politics and political views of the people had a great role in teachers’ appointments or promotions. This even created a circle of trusted people in
work environments. Therefore, the teachers voiced an immediate need for a workable evaluation system for appointments and promotions which was actually realized by the Teachers’ Examination By-law which came to effect in 2005.

One political comment made by one of the respondents, which was focused on the present situation of Cyprus in a dead-lock regarding negotiations for a settlement, and it drew attention to the larger picture that the problem lay not with the principals’ leadership behaviors in relation to teacher job satisfaction or motivation, but rather with the behaviors of community leaders, which reflected on members of the community including the school principals. The respondent seems to regard the school principals’ behaviors being highly affected by the behaviors and attitudes of the people in higher administrative positions. It seemed evident in the comment that as a part of the whole system of the country, educational leadership could not be regarded as a separate entity, but should be studied within the whole political, economic, as well as cultural context.
5.5 Conclusions and Discussion

This part of the chapter will draw conclusions from the finding and discuss these in relation to the pertinent research.

1. When findings of the data were compared to the norm mean scores of 44.7 for consideration and 37.9 for initiation of structure, calculations of the mean scores of the state school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ consideration behavior (M=56.08) and initiation of structure behavior (M=53.77) indicated that the school principals in TRNC were perceived to display high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors. This corresponded to quadrant II type of behavior described by Halpin (1966) as the type of leader who provides a lot of guidance about how tasks can be completed while being highly considerate of the employee needs and wants. Moreover, the mean difference (MD=2.31) between the two perceived leadership behaviors to the advantage of consideration behavior suggested that school principals in TRNC exerted significantly higher consideration behavior than initiation of structure behavior.

2. The findings supported the first assumption which stated that school principals in TRNC would be perceived to display high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors as appointed administrators operating in a centralized education system and in small communities (districts) in which people tend to know each other well and have close relationships. The factor contributing to their demonstration of high initiation of structure behavior could be that they are appointed administrators who abide by the rules and regulations stated in the by-laws and operate within the expectations and directives of the Ministry of
National Education. Since the education system in TRNC is a centralized one, school principals are bureaucrats who are expected to concentrate on daily tasks and abide by the rules and regulations dictated by higher authorities for a smooth management of work which was also reported by Çelik (1998); Dönmez (1998) and Sancar (2012). Thus, the findings from the study seemed to indicate the school principals in TRNC were performing their duties effectively.

3. Operating in small communities which are closely knit with warm and intimate relationships also seemed to affect the school principals’ consideration behavior positively since they were perceived to display significantly more consideration behavior than initiation of structure behavior. The findings of studies conducted on different islands in Philippines (Andreas, 1981; Alegre, 1994; David, 1990) revealed similar results. This may be due to the fact that, as in the case of Filipinos, TRNC being an island state, with a very small population and a closely knit social structure urges people to have more friendly relations, and people expect to have this in their work environment. Therefore, consideration behavior of the school principals meets the expectations of the teachers in this regard.

4. Being both an appointed official and a teacher at the same time, the school principals might have come to realize that the two tasks, managing work routines and managing people (management and leadership) could overlap. The school principals might have developed a holistic concept of school culture that enabled them to perceive schools as complex phenomena, small pictures of the society embodying students, teachers, administrators, the community and the relations between them. Thus, based on the above discussion, the overlapping aspects of
the school principals’ duties might be forcing them to improve human relations, motivate teachers, as well as follow instructions and deadlines, and improve or at least maintain standards and quality while exerting fair, equal and objective behavior.

5. Findings showed that the state school teachers expressed high overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels related to the job they are doing. The teachers also expressed having significantly higher intrinsic motivation than extrinsic motivation throughout TRNC. They also pointed out that their job satisfaction levels were affected by their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior. The school principals’ initiation of structure behavior did not seem to have a significant relation to the teachers’ intrinsic motivation level since it was mainly related to self-directed feelings such as self-esteem, self-respect, and self-determined value of their job.

The perceived consideration behavior of the school principals, however, seemed to significantly affect the teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This might be due to the fact that the teachers accepted their school principals as administrators focusing on task as their natural responsibility, and not being directly affected by it. However, it was clear that their job satisfaction levels were indirectly related to working in organized and well ordered institutions. This was evident in their comments in that they felt more productive in schools where school principals were able to manage the institution in an orderly and organized manner. McGregor’s (1960,1966) theory
Y forms the basis for such a comment by the teachers. He had stated that people as professionals were already motivated and desired responsibility, and that, leaders just needed to create organized work conditions so that people would be able to fulfill their needs as they were endeavoring to achieve organizational goals. While McGregor was stressing professionals’ self-motivation, Argyris’ (1957, 1962, 1964) emphasized their maturity. He argued that in an organization peoples’ roles and responsibilities should be made clear so that everyone could perform them in the most effective way because they were mature enough to be self-directive and they sought fulfillment of needs through exercising initiative and responsibility.

Similar research carried out in different parts of the world (Akman & Kelecioglu, 2006; Celik, 1998; David, 1994; Donmez, 1998; George, 1999; Higgins, 1993; Holley, 1995; John & Taylor, 1999; Ngang et al. 2010; Noble et al., 1996; Rutherford, 1985; Saeed et al. 2011; Terry, 1999; Umur, 2011; Withrow, 1993; Yilmaz & Cokluk, 2010) reporting similar findings also discussed that leadership behaviors of school principals significantly contributed to or hindered teacher job satisfaction, depending on the teachers’ perceptions of the worth of their job, opportunities for development, achievement, and advancement, the amount of acceptance, recognition, inclusion, autonomy, freedom of speech, collegiality, and responsibility which are presented in their leaders’ behaviors.

6. Consideration behavior was mostly marked the school principals’ professional skills and attributed to communication, friendly attitude, fair and equal treatment,
unifying behavior, being open to new ideas and opinions of others, considering the members needs and wants seemed to be an important factor affecting the teachers’ levels of extrinsic motivation. Acceptance, support and respect displayed towards members seemed to increase the pleasure they attained from being a member of the group. Therefore, it may be concluded that the teachers in TRNC tended to be relations oriented and preferred consideration behavior, and when such behavior was practiced they seemed to have more overall job satisfaction, and extrinsic motivation. When the mean scores of the state elementary (consideration behavior M= 47.95, initiation of structure M=47.17) and secondary school teachers’ (consideration behavior M=62.94, initiation of structure behavior M=59.32) perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors were compared, it was observed that secondary school principals were perceived to display higher consideration and initiation of structure behaviors to a higher degree than the elementary school teachers. The mean differences (consideration behavior MD=-14.98, initiation of structure behavior MD=-12.14) were to the disadvantage of the scores attained by the elementary school principals’ perceived leadership behaviors.

7. Moreover, the secondary school teachers expressed higher levels of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation when compared to the elementary school teachers. The mean scores of the elementary school teachers expressed overall job satisfaction (M=38.08), intrinsic motivation (M=19.41), and extrinsic motivation (M=18.78) were significantly lower than those expressed by the secondary school teachers (overall job satisfaction M=40.55; intrinsic motivation
The mean difference between all variables (overall job satisfaction MD=-2.47; intrinsic motivation MD=-1.04, extrinsic motivation MD=-1.19) were all to the disadvantage of the expressed job satisfaction levels of the elementary school teachers displaying that the elementary school teachers had significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than the secondary school teachers. When these results were discussed with representatives of elementary and secondary school principals in a semi-structured interview format, a few points that might be contributing to such differences were discussed. It was argued by the secondary school principals that their work context is quite different from that of the elementary school principals. They have quite larger number of teachers teaching different courses which require a highly organized and structured work behavior which would also provide contentment for group members. The number of students they have to operate with was also large entailing quite a lot of time on considering their needs and wants and at the same time building communication lines with families and to act as a bridge between the school and the community. These reasons as stated by secondary school principals could well be related factors affecting the secondary school teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors to be more effective.

8. A multi-linear regression analysis, which was suggested to be the most appropriate technique to determine whether a relationship existed two or more variables (Newmark, 1983; Pavkov & Pierce, 1997; Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000; Runyon, Coleman, & Pittenger 2000) run to determine the relationship
between school principals’ perceived leadership behaviors and the teachers expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. The results vividly proved that there was a positive and significant relationship between school principals’ displayed consideration and initiation behavior and the teachers’ overall job satisfaction levels. Similar findings were reported by Barnet at. al. (2005), Surgent and Hannum (2005), Akman at. al. (2006), Karadağ at.al. (2009), Ngang (2010), Yılmaız and Çokluk (2010), Yılmaız (2011), Saeed et al. (2011), and Richter (2012). In order to be able to comment about how perceived leadership behavior of school principals helped predict teacher job satisfaction, the data in hand was fitted on a straight line on a scatter diagram which was considered to best present the relationship between the two variables. The overlapping fitted straight line clearly showed that school principals’ perceived leadership behavior was a variable which helped predict the teachers’ overall job satisfaction levels.

9. Conclusions could be reached about the relative importance of perceived leadership behavior of the state school principals in predicting the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels based on the size of bivariate correlation between each predictor (consideration – initiation of structure) and the criterion (overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation). The standardized regression weight for each predictor within a regression equation and the partial correlation between each predictor and the criterion (partiallying out the effects of all other predictors in the regression equation helped depict conclusions. A positive sign indicated a direct positive relationship between the predictor and
the criterion after partialling out the effects of the other predictors and a negative sign after the partialling out process meant there was no or an inverse relationship. Therefore, when relative strength of the predictors were analyzed the predictors (consideration and initiation of structure), it was observed that these predictors together were highly positively related to the teachers’ overall job satisfaction meaning that when school principals displayed high consideration and high initiation of structure behaviors, the teachers tended to express high levels of overall job satisfaction ($R = .555, R^2 = .309, p < .01$).

10. These results also indicated that, when the other variable is controlled, 31% of the total variance related to expressed overall job satisfaction of the teachers could be explained in relation to their perceived consideration behavior of their principals. Consistent with the beta coefficients, perceived consideration behavior ($\beta=.597$) of the state school principals in TRNC made a great contribution to the prediction of the teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, however, initiation of structure behavior ($\beta=-.046$) of the state school principals had no contribution to expressed overall teacher job satisfaction on its own. Therefore, if the predictors were to be relatively ordered in importance, it could be stated that perceived consideration behavior of the the state school principals in TRNC was more fundamental in predicting the teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction.

11. When significance of regression coefficients was considered, the only important variable in predicting teacher overall job satisfaction seemed to be consideration behavior ($t = 7.21, r=3, p=.000 < .01$). Initiation of structure behavior seemed to
have no effect or even inverse effect on predicting the overall teacher job satisfaction ($t = -.434$, $r = -.23$, $p = -.55 < .05$). The relationship between the teachers’ perceived initiation of structure behavior of their school principals may be said to be inverse because of a negative $t$ value and a negative $r$ value.

12. It can, therefore, be concluded that as consideration behavior of school principals was increased the teachers’ overall job satisfaction was increased in relation to this, however, as initiation of structure behaviors were increased this either had no effect or an inverse effect on the overall job satisfaction levels of the teachers.

13. The multiple regression analysis conducted to evaluate how well the school principals’ perceived leadership behaviors (consideration and initiation of structure) predicted the state school teachers’ intrinsic motivation levels clearly confirmed that, there was a positively high correlation ($t = 5.86$, $r = .46$, $p = .000 < .01$) between perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals and overall job satisfaction of the state school teachers in TRNC. Even after partialling out the effects of initiation of structure behavior, the correlation ($R = .459$, $R^2 = .21$, $F(2, 596) = 79.53$, $p = .000 < .01$) between the two variables was still significant. Initially, there observed to be a positive correlation coefficient between perceived initiation of structure behavior and expressed intrinsic motivation levels of the teachers ($r = .41$). However, this positive effect did not prove the variable to have significant relationship to expressed intrinsic motivation levels of the teachers ($t = -.750$, $p = .45 > .05$). The partial correlation (after partialling the effects of consideration behavior) between them ($r = -.03$) signified that, if not inverse, there is no relationship between the two variables.
14. Although multiple regression results proved that consideration and initiation of structures coupled together had a significantly positive relation to extrinsic motivation levels of the teachers ($t=44.62$, $p=.000<.01$) after partialling the effects of variables on each other the only predictor for the teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation was consideration behavior ($B=.08$, $\beta=.519$, partial $r=.23$, $R=.459$, $R^2=.21$, $p=.000<.01$). Thus it can be stated that when the effect of other variables are controlled 21% of the total variance related to expressed intrinsic motivation is explained in relation to perceived consideration behavior of the state school principals in TRNC. The beta coefficients was an indication that perceived consideration behavior of school principals made a considerable contribution of the prediction of the teachers expressed intrinsic motivation, however, initiation of structure behavior of the state school principals had no contribution to expressed intrinsic motivation of the teachers on its own ($B=-.01$, $\beta=-.06$, partial $r=-.03$). Therefore, if the predictors are to be relatively ordered in importance, it can be stated that consideration behavior is more important in predicting intrinsic motivation of the teachers in TRNC.

15. It was an expected result that school principals’ initiation of structure would not have a direct effect on the teachers’ expressed intrinsic motivation levels since accomplishment of daily tasks, abiding by rules and regulations and creating an orderly and organized work environments of the principals was not expected to affect the teachers’ internal feelings about the job they are performing because most teachers, when they close the doors of their classrooms leave the world outside and concentrate on doing their job in the best way that they can. It could,
thus, be concluded that external factors were not important on intrinsic motivation since it was internal resulting from the pleasure and the feeling of self-worth and self-esteem received from the job itself rather than external factors. However, consideration behavior of the school principal, although external seemed to be positively affecting teachers’ intrinsic motivation levels. This could be due to the fact that school principals attitudes such as displaying acceptance, respect and support to individual might be contributing their self-respect and self-esteem thus positively motivating their inner feeling about their and their jobs significance and value within the society.

16. The multiple regression analysis conducted to reveal the relationship between the teachers’ express extrinsic motivation levels and school principals’ perceived leadership behaviors, the two behaviors coupled with each other signify a positive and highly significant relationship \((t=38.68, R=.429, p=.000<.01)\) between the two variables. However, after partialling the effect of the predictors, it was evident that consideration behavior \((r=.429, \text{ partial } r=.20, p=.000<.01)\) had a direct and positively high relationship with expressed extrinsic motivation levels of the teachers but perception of initiation of structure behavior alone\((r=.386, \text{ partial } r=-.341, p=.733>.05)\) had no directly significant relationship to expressed extrinsic motivation levels of the teachers. Findings also indicated that when effects of other variables are controlled 20% of the total variance related to the teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation could be explained in relation to their perceptions of their school principals’ consideration behavior.
As can be concluded from the above given findings, perceived consideration behavior of school principals had a direct and highly positive relationship with the teachers’ expressed extrinsic motivation levels. This was an expected result as extrinsic motivation is directly related to external factors such as leaders making people feel important, involved, appreciated, accepted and respected in their work environment. Content analysis of comments put forth by the teachers also supported this. When school principals display a unifying, considerate, and respectful behavior taking views and opinions of people into consideration when taking decisions, backing them up in their endeavors, being fair and equal and standing at an equal distance to everyone with a friendly attitude the teachers tend to score their principals high on consideration behavior and express high levels of extrinsic motivation.

17. Findings on the relationship between expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels of the teachers and their perceived leadership behaviors of their school principals helped to come to the conclusion that perceived consideration behavior of school principals played a highly significant role in the teachers job satisfaction since 31% of the variance related to it could be explained by such behavior. Initiation of structure behavior alone, on the other hand, had no significant positive relationship and in the case of intrinsic motivation an inverse relationship with job satisfaction. It could therefore be stated that the state school teachers in TRNC expect to be exposed to considerate behavior in order to accomplish full job satisfaction.
18. The difference between the English language and the other subject area teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior was also investigated under the assumption that their perceptions of their school principals’ consideration and initiation of structure would significantly differ from those of the other subject area teachers. This assumption was drawn from the fact that both the subject the learners are learning and the language of instruction the teacher is using are foreign to the learners requiring special teaching methodologies and techniques, materials and classroom interaction patterns to be applied. There have been so many methods introduced for practical language learning such as the direct method the audio-lingual method, communicative language learning, computer assisted language learning and so on so forth, all entailing especially designed multimedia teaching/learning environments which will allow group and pair work (Hammadou & Bernhardt, 1987, cited in Borg, 2006). Owing to the specific requirements of their subject are, therefore, the English language teachers’ needs and expectations from their school principals were expected to differ from those of the other subject teachers and the English language teachers might be hoping for special attention and care towards their subject area to meet their professional needs, and to promote their job satisfaction levels.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) which was conducted to test whether a difference between the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals existed when compared to the other subject teachers provided
numerical evidence (consideration behavior F=1.90, p=0.9, p>.05; initiation of structure F=1.35, p=.24, p>.05) that no such difference existed. The eta square index ($\eta^2=.01$) indicated that the subject area of the teachers counted for only .01% of the variance of the teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors. It could, thus be concluded that when the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors were compared to the other subject area teacher, taking each as one independent variable, no difference could be observed meaning that the teachers of all subject areas (English, mathematics, science, social sciences, arts, music, physical education) perceived their school principals’ leadership behavior in more or less the same way.

Since these results did not support the assumption, as a second analysis, the English language teachers were identified as one group and all the other teachers teaching other subject areas as another, having only two independent variables. When mean scores for their perceived leadership behaviors of their school principals leadership behavior were compared by a paired sample $t$-test and a one-way ANOVA, the results (consideration behavior $t=95$, MD=1.13, $p=.34>.05$; initiation of structure behavior $t=.09$, MD=.11, $p=.93>.05$) evidently indicated a conclusion to be drawn that subject area of the teachers had no significant effect on their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behavior.
The reasons for this could be that the English language teachers perceived themselves as members of a group sailing in the same ship whose resources are scarce. Inadequate resources, besides heavy work load and suppressive behavior was established as one of the factors contributing to teacher dissatisfaction (Surgent & Hannum, 2005, Umur, 2011). Therefore, the English language teachers were dissatisfied just as much as other subject area teachers.

The possible existence of difference between the English language teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels were again tested by a paired sample t-test since two groups of variables (the English language teachers as one and the teachers of other subject areas as another) were involved in the analysis. The results in none of the areas were proven to be significant. The results for overall job satisfaction (F=29, Fp=.60>.05, MD=.39, t=.66 , p=.51>.05, η²=.007); for intrinsic motivation (F=.92, Fp=.34>.05, MD=.14, t= .44, p=.66>.05, η²=.006); and for extrinsic motivation (F=.01, Fp=.92>.05, MD=.03, t=.1, p=.92>.05, η²=.007) were obviously indicating no significant difference between the English language teachers’ and the teachers’ of other subject areas expressed overall satisfaction. The eta index less than .01 shows that subject area of the school principals have less than 01% effect on the variance of the teachers’ expressed job satisfaction levels.

Umur (2011) in a study investigating factors affecting the English language teachers’ job satisfaction at European University of Lefke found that one of the
factors accounting for teacher job satisfaction was the amount of opportunity they had for professional development. The English language teachers are very fortunate when it comes to teacher development because The British Council in Cyprus supports the teachers by providing frequent training and development programs for them as also mentioned by the school principals during the semi-structured interview. There are projects constantly applied through partnership with the Ministry of Education and CTLTA (Cyprus Turkish English Language Teachers Association). The British Council, CTLTA, and representatives of publishers equip them with materials and other resources. Most schools even have a separate lounge for the English language teachers in which they keep their materials and equipment supplied by these institutions and prepare for their lessons. This separate lounge may also allow them to build closer personal and professional relationships and improve collegiality. Therefore, they might be content with such services provided especially for them so they do not expect much to be done by their school principals.

Another reason for not finding a significant difference between the English language teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their expressed job satisfaction levels could be that, the issue of leadership in ELT was investigated through a global approach rather than a local or situational approach. Instead of taking the general leadership behaviors of being task-oriented or relations-oriented, when ELT was concerned, it could have been better to investigate the issue from a situational leadership perspective.
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1972, 1977). May be, then, through this approach, the social issues and the ecology of English language teaching, as mentioned by Murray (2009), could be analyzed.

The importance of taking the present situation of ELT, and the social and political values, in forms of educational policies, devoted to ELT in TRNC was mentioned by one of the respondents who pointed out that English was not valued as much as it used to be in the Turkish community. The respondent also mentioned the poor economic situation of the country by stating that the Ministry of National Education did not have enough money to allocate for the improvement of the conditions for teaching English and by adding that the only worthwhile support they received regarding their developmental needs and their needs for materials and equipment was from the British Council in Cyprus, the CTELTA and the representatives of publishers operating in North Cyprus. This issue was also discussed as factors that might be contributing to teachers intrinsic motivation levels.

Since many of the problems in education were discussed as relating to poor economic conditions by most of the respondents, through this study investigating the issue from a more global perspective, English language teachers should probably not be expected to differ considerably in their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors or in their expressed job satisfaction levels.
5.6 Recommendations

The findings obtained through the statistical analysis of quantitative data and the content analysis of qualitative data have formed the basis for the following recommendations for further research, school principals and education policy makers.

5.6.1 Recommendations for Further Research

1. The study excluded private schools, special education schools, and state technical vocational schools and revealed leadership behaviors (consideration and initiating structure) of state elementary and secondary school principals as perceived by the state elementary and secondary school teachers. It also divulged the state school teachers’ expressed overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. Thus, a replicated study using the same data collection and analysis methods could be conducted involving a representative sample of the teachers working in private, special education, and state technical and vocational schools to obtain data on their perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors and their levels of overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to be able to draw a full picture of TRNC in this respect.

2. The study took place only on one part of the island (TRNC) and revealed the perceptions and job satisfaction levels of the state school teachers in that part. It only discussed the findings on these teachers’ perceptions of their school principals’ leadership behaviors in relation to their expressed levels of job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation living in North Cyprus. It is
recommended that the study be replicated using a sample of Greek Cypriot the
state school teachers employed at Greek Cypriot state schools to find out if the
results would be consistent throughout the island.

3. When further research was concerned, a semi-structured interview was
recommended to be held with the English language teachers to verify the
assumptions made about their insignificant difference in their perceptions of their
school principals’ leadership behavior and their expressed overall job satisfaction
levels.

4. A similar study was also recommended to be carried out with students
investigating the phenomenon from their perspective.

5. It was also recommended to conduct a research involving school principals’ self-
perceptions of their leadership behaviors and their job satisfaction levels.

6. Another study would be recommended to be conducted to collect data on school
principal’s perceptions of the leadership behaviors of the educational policy
makers, their trainers, and mentors (if there are any) the findings of which could
be matched and compared with the findings of the present study to draw
conclusions and recommendations for educational administrators and policy
makers in TRNC from school administrators’ perspective.

7. A leadership study in English language teaching taking the situational leadership
approach as the focus of attention is recommended since it would investigate the
social and situational factors related to the field. Such a study is expected to
contribute to the understanding of the English language teachers and leaders
regarding the social context in which they are operating and their roles within this context.

5.6.2 Recommendations for School Principals

As Blanchard (2002) argued, the most important asset of an organization is their people. Organizations cannot perform without people. Thus school principals are recommended to:

1. Realize that people make the essence of their school, and in order for the institution via people to function well at its highest potential construct an environment free of conflicts, repression, unfair and unequal treatment, and rumors.

2. Develop their human relations through working on their emotional intelligence as Gardner (1983) suggested, to create a positive and caring work environment, and to build relationships based on mutual trust for high commitment and motivation.

3. Avoid unfair treatment and favoritism within the work environment.

4. Demonstrate trust in all staff, not only in those who share the same thoughts, opinions and political views with them.

5. Attend leadership training programs to raise awareness, increase achievement and motivation, and enhance their personal competencies vital to effective leadership (Cherniss, 1998).

6. Create an open and honest collegial climate for the teachers to freely express and share their feelings and opinions and to take part in decision making processes to
promote teacher satisfaction. Glanz and Neville (1997) argue that successful schools utilize shared inquiry and decision making.

7. Keep communication channels open to inform the teachers and to be informed by the teachers on issues concerning the institution or the individuals.

8. Trust the teachers’ choice and discretion, integrate collaboration, peer coaching, inquiry, collegial study groups, and reflection discussion as these promote professional dialogue, embrace personal and institutional growth and change.

9. Respect the teachers’ knowledge, abilities, expertise, and experiences, and be committed to only enhancing school improvement in all aspects.

10. Coach, support and guide people when there is need and help them reflect on their work by modeling, giving good suggestions, providing feedback and praise.

11. Turn the school into a learning organization in which learning from each other or from other resources becomes a natural part of everyday work.

5.6.3 Recommendations for Educational Policy Makers

As it was discussed by one of the respondents and concluded in this study, school principalship cannot be considered as a separate entity disregarding the system and general administrative policies in the country. Therefore, if recommendations are to be given, educational administrators at higher positions and education policy makers are recommended to:

1. Analyze the whole system in depth for its strengths and weaknesses and propose or design necessary changes in collaboration with all share holders; the community, the unions, the teachers, the students, and the job market.
2. Design and offer in-service or pre-service developmental programs for the teachers and school principals or create opportunities for them to attend programs offered by other institutions such as universities.

3. Encourage, especially the English language teachers to attend such programs to become better teacher leaders, leaders of their group, or the school they are working in. This need arises from the differing needs and expectations of the English language teachers. Such needs and expectations require leaders who are familiar to the job they are performing and recognize the importance of English as a second or foreign language in a globalizing world.

As argued by Christeson and Murry (2009) and Coombe et al. (2011) there is a growing need for leaders in English language teaching so the teachers of English should be trained and developed to become leaders to gain a better understanding of leadership roles and the requirements of their field.

4. Make sure that such leadership programs are based on andragogical (Knowles, 1984) principles taking the characteristics and the needs of these adult learners into consideration.

5. Keep in mind that the teachers and school principals who would be attending such programs are mature, self-directed and self-motivated professionals; they have a large reservoir of experience, so they are not complete beginners; they look for immediate application of what they learn so prefer practical issues rather than theories. Therefore, when designing and implementing such programs or when creating opportunities for the teachers and the school principals to attend such
programs learning outcomes, contents coupled with context and practicality, teaching / learning approaches and methodologies should be carefully designed to match the present and prospective school principals.

6. Give priority to the elementary school teachers and principals since the elementary school teachers perceived their school principals’ leadership behaviors to be significantly lower and expressed significantly lower job satisfaction levels.

7. Make the findings of the study available to all teachers and school principals for awareness raising purposes.

5.7 Implications of the study

The study suggests the following implications. Besides its limitations, since there were no available studies previously conducted in TRNC on this issue at the time when it was conducted, the study could be considered to be the starting point in discussing leadership behaviors of school principals in relation to teacher job satisfaction, teacher commitment, teacher empowerment, cultural climate of schools, teacher and school performance and any other subject relating to education.

Findings of the study together with the analysis of the comments made by the teachers were presented to the Ministry of Education. After meticulous study, they were considered and taken into consideration for the design of a new by-law regulating teacher examination and promotion procedures. This implied that, when taken seriously such research can actually lead to changes. Therefore, there should be constant research to address community issues for the betterment conditions.

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Accordingly, it would be interesting to use findings of the study as a the bases of reformed projects regarding the education system or school development.

Analysis of data implied that effective leadership behavior of school principals, especially consideration behavior, were important in assuring higher teacher job satisfaction in TRNC.

It was also implied the need for elementary school principals to be trained in educational leadership since they were perceived to display significantly lower levels of leadership behaviors and the teachers in elementary schools seemed to experience lower levels of job satisfaction.

The data and the findings did not suggest a desired leadership behavior for the school principals and there was no evidence apart from school principals’ comments as to measure how and why leadership behaviors of the school principals affected teacher job satisfaction. Findings supporting the argument put forth by Blasé and Blasé (1996, 1997) pointed to the affective dimension of job satisfaction to be external motivation and self-esteem. It was also in line with their discussion that leader behavior and teacher job satisfaction and teacher performance, thus group efficacy are strongly related.

Findings of the study pointed to the fact that consideration behavior of a leader was significantly related to teacher satisfaction as it was also reported by Bailey’s (1966). Research in the 1990s indicated that there is a movement towards consideration of
human factor in accomplishing goals and tasks. Such movement is referred to as ‘teacher empowerment’ in recent studies (Akman, Kelecioglu & Bilge, 2006; Celik, 1998; David, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Donmez, 1998; Glickman, 1998; Hosman & Cline, 2002; Noble, Deemer, & Davis, 1996; Schlechty, 1997). Therefore, the study together with others imply that school principals should assess their leadership behaviors together with the teachers’ expectations and their personal level of satisfaction and set goals for a higher level of teacher job satisfaction which will directly or indirectly influence teacher and school performance. Locke (1969) saw job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it is offering. Therefore, it could be stated that job satisfaction is a combination of the various factors a person feels necessary to exist together in a work environment. No matter how much of it a school principals’ leadership behaviors covered, it is evident in the findings of this study that school principals’ leadership behaviors as perceived by the teachers did significantly contribute to teacher job satisfaction.

As it was discussed above, perceived leadership behaviors of school principals could be explained to contribute to facet satisfaction of the teachers. However, as derived from the comments the teachers and school principals made during qualitative data collection phase, there are other sources, contributing to the teachers overall job satisfaction such as their classroom experiences, their relations with colleagues, collaboration and cooperation between them, their contribution and involvement in the decision making processes, the amount of autonomy they have, their job security, methods used to
evaluate them, methods used in their promotion, the amount and quality of resources they have, their teaching assignments, sense of achievement, and the opportunities they have related to professional development and improvement. Holdaway (1978) states that the highest rating among these was interpersonal relationships together with freedom of making instructional decisions and the autonomy in giving teaching assignments. The impact of social and political factors such as attitudes of society toward education system in the country, the attitudes of parents toward schools and education in general, status of the teachers in the society, and intellectual stimulation within the community, and politicians approach towards education, education system, the teachers and educational administrators.

In the light of these discussions, the study, therefore, implied a need for more research to be conducted to examine the relationships between teacher job satisfaction and teacher effectiveness.

The recommendation drawing attention to training and development programs and activities for the teachers, school principals and educational administrators was driven together with the findings of the study, from studies (Kirgy & Colbert, 1994; Thompson, 1992; Tucker & Mandel, 1986; Murphy, 1988) carried out earlier discussing the necessity of leadership training for school administrators for improving their attitudes towards and knowledge about leadership, for improving their self-perceptions, for raising their awareness of what contributes to teacher job satisfaction, thus high quality
performance, for improving their decision making skills and procedures, and for improving their motivation to lead and manage.

The study implied that there is a need to look ahead as we are have already turned the first decade and steering in the second decade of the twenty-first century. Thus, there is a need to look into the extrapolations from the past, societal changes that have taken or is likely to take place, new technologies, organizational trends, changes in personal practices and new paradigms in the field of education, educational administration, and leadership.
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APPENDICES
Appendix A

Pack of Instruments
Appendix B

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