

SATISFACTION WITH LEADERSHIP:  
TESTS OF A DISCREPANCY MODEL

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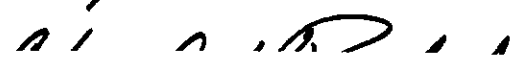
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## SUMMARY

Leadership research has increasingly been concerned with theories of leader-follower interaction and its effects on group outcomes. Yukl (1971) hypothesized that follower satisfaction with leadership is a function of the discrepancy between observed leader behavior and the behavior preferences of the followers. This hypothesis, although supported by previous research, is of limited predictive usefulness since it relies on measures only obtainable after a group has met. Current research suggests that attitudes of the leader have implications for follower satisfaction and that they can be measured prior to the first meeting of a group. The present study tested Yukl's original discrepancy hypothesis as well as a variation that replaced observations of leader behavior with the leader's attitudes about leadership. Obtained relationships were also analyzed to determine their dependence on constraints inherent in the use of discrepancy scores.

One hundred eighty nine municipal police officers answered questions about themselves, their leader's behavior, their expectations of leadership and their job satisfaction. The self-report data were transformed into two kinds of discrepancy scores: 1) in accordance with Yukl's hypothesis, observed leader behavior was subtracted from expectations of leadership, and 2) follower expectations of leadership were subtracted from the leader's expectations of leadership. Both sets of discrepancy scores were then correlated with satisfaction scores.

The first type of discrepancy scores were significantly related to

satisfaction with leadership on one dimension of leader behavior. Further analysis revealed that this relationship was determined entirely by the relationship between the observed behavior component of the discrepancy scores and satisfaction. The second set of discrepancy scores were unrelated to satisfaction.

Although Yukl's discrepancy hypothesis was partially confirmed, a more parsimonious explanation of the obtained relationships can be developed in terms of methodological considerations about the discrepancy scores. It was concluded that a rigorous test of Yukl's model, and other discrepancy formulations, must wait until evaluative methods are developed which are not subject to the methodological limitations noted here.

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The present study is an attempt to evaluate the predictive significance of a recently proposed model of satisfaction with leadership. The first chapter establishes a conceptual framework for the study of leadership based on leader behavior. In addition, selected studies of leader-follower interaction and methodological issues are discussed. Finally, testable hypotheses about satisfaction with leadership are presented.

#### Overview of Problem Area

Various definitions of leadership have been presented in the scientific literature. Some writers have been concerned with the identification of the leader as the primary agent in group processes (Krech and Crutchfield, 1948). Katz and Kahn (1966) and Bass (1961) have sought to specify the characteristic form of the practice of the leader. These latter definitions emphasized the exercise of influence in leadership. Fiedler (1967) attempted to avoid a particular value implication and defined leadership in terms of behavior or acts. For the purpose of theory development, however, Stogdill (1974) has noted that a definition of leadership should account for the processes and structures in its emergence and maintenance. For this reason, Stogdill favored those definitions that have emphasized concepts such as role, reinforcement, and expectation as basic processes in leadership. A definition offered

by Stogdill is an example of the kind of comprehensive view that he advocated: "Leadership is defined as the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction in group settings (p. 411)."

Stogdill's definition implies that theories of leadership should attempt to explain the factors in the emergence and in the nature of leadership. Although there are at least six general types of theories of leadership, three, as discussed by Stogdill, are of historical interest only. Great-man or trait theories attempt to explain leadership on the basis of inheritance. Situational theories, equally restricted in their viewpoint, propose that leadership is exclusively a function of the occasion. The obvious limitations of these theories lead to personal-situational orientations in which leadership is regarded as a relationship between persons rather than the result of isolated characteristics.

More recent theories attempt to describe the specific nature of the interaction between people in the emergence and maintenance of leadership. Argyris (1962), Blake and Mouton (1964) and others have been called humanistic theorists by Stogdill. They deal with the difficulties involved in the coordination of individuals in structured organizations. Thus their emphasis has been on the maintenance of leadership. Exchange theories focus on cost-return ratios as the basis for social interaction in a group. They attempt to describe leadership in terms of the mutual rewards received by group members through interaction (Stogdill, 1974).

Lastly, there are interaction-expectation theories, on which Stogdill's definition of leadership is based. They have probably been the most widely researched of those reviewed. Stogdill (1959) formulated an expectancy-reinforcement theory of leadership. In this theory, the

dynamics of leadership and the differentiation of roles within the group are dependent upon the fulfillment of member expectations about interaction. Fiedler (1967) proposed a contingency theory of leadership. Briefly, this theory explains leader effectiveness in terms of the interaction between the demands of the situation and the leader's behavior.

The trend in current leadership research is toward theories that explain the interplay between individuals and situations in the emergence and nature of leadership. Interaction-expectation theories hypothesize that the leader maintains the structure of the group through interaction that fulfills the group members' expectations. Another reason for the popularity of interaction-expectation approaches is their reliance on several classes of variables: leader characteristics as behavior in interaction, follower characteristics as expectations, an outcome measure, and usually situational characteristics. Stogdill (1974) has suggested that these classes of variables should be represented in all studies of leadership.

The present study is based on an interaction-expectation theory of leadership as proposed by Yukl (1971). Before discussing Yukl's work, however, it is useful to review the relevant leadership literature.

#### Leader Behavior: A Conceptual Framework

The theoretical positions discussed above leave the operationalization of variables up to individual researchers. Various approaches have been taken in the description of the leader. Stogdill (1948, 1974) conducted two extensive reviews of the available literature on leadership traits. Both surveys found that leaders could be described with traits, such as drive for responsibility, venturesomeness, originality, and

self-confidence. Stogdill (1974) concluded, however, that only when personality is characterized by groups of such traits are they of predictive significance. According to Stogdill, this weakness is primarily due to the subjective nature of trait identification and definition.

Other attempts have been made to adequately conceptualize and measure the leader. Stogdill (1974) summarized the results of 52 factor analytic studies of leadership. Twenty-six unique factors were identified by these studies. The most frequently identified factors were descriptive of the skills of the leader, including technical skills, administrative skills, and intellectual skills. The second most frequently occurring factors were those that dealt with the leader's relationship with the group. Next most frequent were those concerned with personal characteristics of the leader. Stogdill noted that although 26 might seem to be a large number of factors, it is far fewer than the almost infinite list of leader characteristics that appear in the literature.

Although interesting and important relationships have been revealed in the above studies, leader descriptions based on actual leader behavior rather than traits are more objective. One very fruitful approach grew out of the Ohio State leadership studies in the 1950's. In an analysis of a 130-item Leader Behavior Questionnaire developed by Hemphill and Coons (1957), Halpin and Winer (1957) identified two factors of leader behavior: consideration (C) and initiation of structure (S). These two factors were relatively independent and together accounted for approximately 83% of the variance in followers' descriptions of their leaders. Halpin (1957) developed a Likert-type 40-item form to measure C and S, called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Respondents to the LBDQ are

asked to indicate, on a five point scale, the frequency with which their leaders engage in the 40 behaviors listed. Responses are scored on 15 C and 15 S items. A complementary form, the Ideal-LBDQ, was developed to measure expectations about what a leader ought to do.

Fleishman and Peters (1962) defined the C and S factors of leader behavior as follows:

**Consideration:** Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and consideration of their feelings. A high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the supervisor is likely to be more impersonal in his relations with group members.

**Initiating Structure:** Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a more active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, trying out new ideas, etc. (p. 128).

The C and S dimensions have been studied extensively in industrial settings. Fleishman (In Hemphill and Coons, 1957) found that in both productive and non-productive groups, absenteeism tended to be lowest in groups supervised by individuals high on the C dimension. The reverse was found to be true in productive groups only. Fleishman and Harris (1962) reported that grievance and turnover rates were negatively related to supervisory C but positively related to supervisory S. Furthermore, the effects of supervisory S were found to be moderated by the level of C. Subsequent studies have both supported and refuted the Fleishman and Harris findings (Fleishman and Simmons, 1970; Skinner, 1969), but in general, the importance of these two factors in supervisory behavior is well supported.

Consideration and structure have also been related to other

"employee-centered" and "production-centered" factors of leader behavior. Graham (1968) found that leaders high on Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker scale were described as higher in C than leaders low on that scale. Yukl (1968) found that leaders designated as task-oriented tended to be high in structure and low in consideration. Bass (1960) found similar relationships.

Research has also investigated the properties of descriptions of expected or ideal leader behavior. Hemphill, Seigel, and Westie (as cited by Stogdill, 1974, p. 136), using the Ideal-LBDQ, found that discrepancies between group members' expected leader behaviors and their observed leader behaviors were more highly related to criteria of group performance than the expectations or the observations alone. Bass (1956) found that the attitudes of 53 foremen toward consideration were significantly related to ratings of them completed by superiors. In a replication (Bass, 1958), these findings were supported. In another study, however, (Lawrie, 1966) similarities between observed and expected leader behaviors were not related to ratings of leaders.

Korman (1966) reviewed industrial research on C and S. He concluded that the relationship of leader behavior to subordinate productivity and satisfaction with the leader is still not very clear. Although relationships have often been found, their predictive significance is unknown. Researchers have proposed two main reasons for this state of affairs. First, leadership studies have neglected characteristics of the situation and of the followers (Korman, 1966; Peters, 1971; Yukl, 1971). Second, studies often fail to include a theoretical framework as a basis for causal relationships in leadership situations (Yukl, 1971).

### Leader-Follower Interaction

In the aforementioned studies, it was shown that C and S dimensions of leader behavior have often been studied without adequate attention to other variables, such as characteristics of the followers. Probably the earliest discussion of the complexities in studying leader-follower relationships was presented by Hemphill (1949). His emphasis on the situation is a dominant theme in leadership research today.

Emphasis in the usual study of leadership has been almost exclusively placed upon the personal characteristics of the individual designated as a leader. This is but one of the aspects of the problem. The social situation in which the leader functions has not been systematically studied (p. 96).

Fiedler (1967) has attempted to follow these suggestions. He has developed a theory of leadership effectiveness based on the interplay between the leader and the situation. The "Contingency Model" postulates that leadership effectiveness depends upon the ability of the leader to utilize a style of interaction appropriate to the influence which the group situation provides. The influence variable, operationalized as "situational favorableness," has been manipulated along with leadership style by Fiedler in studying follower response. Fiedler (In Fleishman and Hunt, 1973, Ch. 2), found that relationship-motivated leaders became more concerned with the interpersonal relationships in the group in difficult interpersonal situations. Alternatively, task-motivated leaders tended to focus on the task in such situations. In favorable situations, the reverse was found to be true. Fiedler concluded that the extent to which leaders exhibit their dominant style depends upon variables in the situation.

Although Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker measure of leadership style and his contingency model have generated a large body of research,

there have been dissenting voices. Vroom and Yetton (1973) agreed that situational variables are critical but objected to Fiedler's reliance on a single measure of leader characteristics. They proposed a "normative model" of leadership style (vis., democratic, permissive, authoritarian) for different social situations in the group. It assumed that leaders could differentiate between their actual behavior and ideal behavior for particular situations. The effective leader could then draw upon a repertoire of leadership styles as the situation demanded.

Yukl (1968) also found Fiedler's use of the LPC measure lacking. Yukl found that leader behaviors, as measured by C and S more closely reflected situational variables than did a single measure of leader personality, as measured by the LPC. In a subsequent study, Yukl (1971) focused on expected vs. actual leader behavior discrepancies. In any discrepancy model, satisfaction is a function of the difference between an individual's preferences and his or her actual experiences. Satisfaction is optimal, according to such a model, if the two are the same. Yukl hypothesized that follower satisfaction with leadership is a function of the size of the discrepancy between actual leader behavior and the expectations of the followers. This hypothesis was not tested by Yukl, although his review of the available literature on satisfaction with leadership found studies consistent with a discrepancy model.

There are several studies that have implications for Yukl's model. Probably the earliest is Hemphill et al. (1951, as cited by Stogdill, 1974) discussed above. These authors found that discrepancies between member observations and expectations of leadership were negatively related to selected group performance measures. Stogdill, Scott, and Jaynes (1956),

using a large naval organization, asked subjects to fill out both the LBDQ about their own leaders and the Ideal-LBDQ about their expectations of leadership. Discrepancy scores were computed by subtracting the Ideal-LBDQ scores from the LBDQ scores. These discrepancy scores were correlated with several criterion scores. Although satisfaction with leadership was not investigated, discrepancy scores were related to level in the organization, rate of leader interaction, integrative behavior of the leader, and interpersonal skills of the leader. In another study, Bass (1956) attributed his failure to obtain a significant relationship between leader opinions and member satisfaction to the fact that he neglected to account for the expectancies of the group members.

Mannheim, Rim, and Grinberg (1967) found that for S, conformance by the leader to follower expectations was unrelated to the support given by the followers. Conformance on C, however, was found to be important in follower support of the leader. Hunt and Liebscher (1973), using the LBDQ and the Ideal-LBDQ, computed algebraic and absolute value discrepancy scores. Along with raw C and S scores, these were correlated with scores on the Supervision scale of the Job Description Index, a satisfaction measure. Although raw C and S scores were most highly related to satisfaction, absolute value discrepancy scores were also significantly related to the criterion.

The studies above have focused on the importance of member expectation-leader behavior discrepancies in satisfaction with leadership. Other research has included a related variable: leader expectations or attitudes. In general, leader-follower agreement in values and goals tends to encourage satisfaction of the members with the leader (Stogdill, 1974). Greer (1961)

found that ineffective performance of the group was associated with leader-follower dissimilarity on authoritarianism. Moreover, he found that the effects of leader authoritarianism were moderated by the task, the authoritarianism of the followers, and the type of performance criterion used.

Foa (1957) reported three factors that contribute to determine the satisfaction of the group members with the leader: the members' expectations about the behavior of the leader, the prevailing expectations of the members, and the attitudes of the leader. Subjects with authoritarian expectations, or subjects in a group with such expectations, were more likely to be satisfied with whatever behavior the leader adopted. Ignoring characteristics of the followers, leaders with permissive attitudes about leadership were more likely to have satisfied followers. Foa concluded:

The results seem to indicate that, in the analysis of the relationship between supervisor and worker, one should consider the expectations of the worker as well as the attitudes of the supervisor (p. 167).

Foa also suggested ways in which knowledge of follower expectations and leader attitudes could be applied in the assignment of individuals to leaders for maximum satisfaction.

The above studies imply that the attitudes of the leader can have a significant influence on the satisfaction of the followers. In general, leader-follower agreement on attitudes tends to have a positive influence on satisfaction of the group. Foa's suggestion that expectations of the followers and attitudes of the leader be included in leadership studies is particularly relevant for the present study. Since both leader and follower attitudes can be assessed before a group has met, these variables have potential as predictors of satisfaction with leadership. In addition,

a discrepancy model, makes it possible to locate both leader and follower attitudes in a single conceptual framework. No attempt has yet been made, however, to investigate such an issue.

#### Methodological Issues in the Use of Discrepancy Scores

Satisfaction with leadership studies were done by Hunt and Liebscher (1973) using discrepancy scores based on the C and S dimensions. They investigated four indices of satisfaction with leadership: behavior perceptions alone, algebraic discrepancy scores, absolute discrepancy scores, and behavior multiplied by expectations. Each of these were correlated with scores on the JDI-Supervision scale. Although Hunt and Liebscher found that with C, both kinds of discrepancy scores were significantly related to satisfaction, the strongest relationships were found for the behavior perceptions alone. On the S dimension, discrepancy scores were not found to be related to satisfaction while again, behavior perceptions were. These authors concluded that perceived behavior of the leader is as good a predictor of satisfaction with leadership as any of the models investigated. A similar finding in the job satisfaction literature was reported by Wanous and Lawler (1972). They found that of nine predictive models of job satisfaction, the best prediction was based simply on reported existing level of job facets.

The fact that behavioral measures and discrepancy scores are at least equally related to satisfaction cast doubt on the usefulness of models based on discrepancy scores. There has been much research on the topic of "change" or "difference" scores as related to growth, in the education literature (Harris, 1963; O'Connor, 1972; Cronback and Furby, 1970). A recent study by Wall and Payne (1973) deals directly with the problems

encountered in using discrepancy scores in the study of satisfaction. These authors pointed out two constraints inherent in the use of discrepancy scores. The first, a logical constraint, is a result of subtracting an existing level of a variable from a desired level. Discrepancy scores for individuals with high-perceived existing levels will tend to be smaller than discrepancy scores of those with lower perceived existing levels. In general, this will result in a negative relationship between existing level scores and discrepancy scores. According to Wall and Payne, it follows that any variable positively related to existing level scores will be negatively related to discrepancy scores simply because of its original positive relationship with existing level scores.

The second constraint is labeled the psychological constraint. It is found that subjects rarely state that there should be less of a desirable characteristic than they perceive as already existing. This fact implies that where perceived existing levels are high, discrepancy scores will fall within a more restricted range than those where existing levels are lower. It also implies that the logical constraint will still operate with either algebraic or absolute discrepancy scores. Predominantly positive discrepancy scores in research that has used them is evidence in favor of this reasoning.

Wall and Payne noted that relationships involving discrepancy scores must be evaluated differently than those involving raw scores. Specifically, they recommended that the usual zero correlation null hypothesis be replaced by a null hypothesis that reflects a correlation expected if discrepancy scores were randomly generated from existing level scores in a way consistent with the two constraints. Using examples,

these authors demonstrated that failure to evaluate discrepancy score relationships in this way can result in both Type I and Type II errors.

Rather than computing expected correlations to evaluate findings, Wall and Payne illustrated that partial and semipartial correlational techniques can be used for the same purpose. In such analyses, the influence of existing level is removed from both discrepancies and the dependent variable (partial correlation) or only from one of them (semipartial correlation). The choice between partial and semipartial methods depends upon the data being analyzed. Wall and Payne suggested that semipartial correlation is more likely to be appropriate where the influence of existing level is removed from the discrepancy scores. In this way the unique contribution of discrepancy scores to account for variance in the dependent variable can be evaluated.

#### Approach and Purpose of the Present Study

Follower expectations of leader behavior have been shown to be important variables in follower satisfaction. Korman (1966) has noted, however, that predictive relationships between followers and leaders have not been satisfactorily revealed by leadership research. Basing his comments on the C and S dimensions of leader behavior, Korman attributed this failing first, to the lack of a theory with which to focus leadership research, and second, to inadequate recognition and control of variables beyond those directly under study. Stogdill (1974) has made similar comments with respect to the inadequacy of two-variable studies in leadership.

The present investigation attempts to contribute to the knowledge on both issues raised by Korman. First, a model proposed by Yukl (1971) was tested. This discrepancy model of satisfaction with leadership includes

the observations and expectations of group members with regard to leadership. Second, an extension of the model using leader expectations in place of member observation was evaluated.

In addition, although the present study is designed to test discrepancy notions of satisfaction with leadership, methodological issues in the use of discrepancy scores are also considered. Specifically, the data were analyzed to determine the degree of support for Wall and Payne's argument against the use of discrepancy or difference measures.

### Hypotheses

Two major hypotheses were tested. The predictions and a rationale for each are given below.

H<sub>1</sub>: Discrepancies, computed from member expectations of leadership behavior minus member observations of leadership behavior, are negatively related to satisfaction with leadership.

Testing of this hypothesis serves to replicate past findings that have demonstrated the viability of a discrepancy model. Empirical support of this hypothesis, however, does not aid directly in the prediction of satisfaction with leadership. Followers able to report the behavior of a leader would also be able to indicate their satisfaction with that leader on a suitable measure. Thus there would be no need to gather expectation-observation discrepancies in order to infer level of satisfaction. Research has shown, however, that attitudinal characteristics of the leader may be neglected but promising variables in the determination of follower satisfaction. In addition, these variables can be measured independent of any particular group. Placed in a discrepancy framework, such as the one presented by Yukl, these variables, along with follower characteristics,

could be used to predict satisfaction with leadership. This study investigated leader and follower expectations as attitudinal characteristics potentially useful in predicting satisfaction with leadership.

H<sub>2</sub>: Discrepancies, computed from leader expectations of leadership behavior minus member expectations of leadership behavior, are negatively related to satisfaction with leadership.

It should be emphasized that discrepancies computed under Hypothesis 1 are quite different than those computed under Hypothesis 2. Under Hypothesis 1, discrepancies were computed for all individuals whose perceptions or observations of leadership and whose expectations of leadership were measured. Under Hypothesis 2, discrepancy scores could only be computed for individuals whose expectations of leadership were known and whose leader's expectations of leadership were known. In such groups discrepancy scores under Hypothesis 2 were computed from the individual member's expectations subtracted from the leader's expectation, a constant over all members in a given group.

In addition, Stogdill (1974) has suggested that members' race, age, tenure, group size and assignment are of particular relevance in leader-follower relationships. According to Stogdill, these variables represent important situational and follower characteristics that may influence the relationship between predictor and criterion in leadership situations. These demographic variables were therefore measured and included in the above analyses. Specifically, tests were performed to determine the effect of selected categorical and demographic variables on any relationships revealed in Hypotheses 1 or 2.

Another factor in leader-follower relationships is the actual

autonomy that a leader possesses. Individuals evaluated as group leaders may actually have little freedom to be the kind of leaders they would like to be. This is particularly true where leaders experience organizational constraints on their behavior. Such a factor could potentially influence the relationship between the subordinates evaluations of the leader and their feelings about him; group members may evaluate the leader harshly yet express relative satisfaction about him. For these reasons, a measure of organizational constraint on the leader was included in the present study.

Following the testing of each hypothesis, the results were also analyzed with respect to the points raised by Wall and Payne (1973). These authors hold that any relationship between discrepancy scores and a criterion is entirely a function of the relationship between the raw scores on which the discrepancies are based and the criterion. By this argument discrepancy scores are an unnecessary and potentially misleading complication of obtained relationships. It therefore has important implications for any theoretical framework involving discrepancy scores as independent variables.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD AND PROCEDURE

#### Subjects

One hundred eighty-nine police officers (rank of patrolman to captain) voluntarily participated in the study. A questionnaire return-rate of sixty-three per cent was obtained. Return-rates were lowest among supervisory personnel.

#### Instruments

Each individual completed two forms of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957). The Ideal-LBDQ asks subjects to rate, on a five point scale, the frequency with which "the ideal leader should" engage in forty behaviors listed on the form. The observed or actual form of the LBDQ (known simply as the LBDQ) differs from the Ideal-LBDQ only in its instructions. It asks subjects to rate the frequency with which their "immediate supervisor actually" engages in the forty behaviors listed. Both forms contain fifteen items scored for consideration, fifteen scored for structure, and ten which are not scored. A Likert-type scoring system is used. Total scores may range from 0 to 60 on each dimension.

The Job Description Index (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969) was also administered to all individuals. This measure yields scores on five aspects of job satisfaction: work itself, supervision, coworkers, pay, and promotions. Although the study required only scores on the

Supervision subscale, scores for all subscales were of interest to the participating organization and thus the entire instrument was used. Also, research that has established the reliability and validity of the JDI is based on the use of all five subscales. Each subscale lists 18 adjectives (except Pay and Promotion which have nine). Subjects are asked to choose "yes", "no", or undecided with respect to the accuracy of the adjectives in describing the job component. Responses are scored with an empirically derived key that yields scores from 0 to 54 on each subscale (total scores on Pay and Promotion subscales are doubled).

In addition, as a rough indicator of situations where supervisors have little actual influence, yet are being evaluated as group leaders, each booklet contained the following question:

In your judgment, are supervisory personnel in your organization free to be the kind of leaders they'd like to be? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

This simple variable was called the "constraint" question.

Finally, the following categorical information was requested: sex, police department zone and sector, time with the organization (in years and months), highest education, age, race, rank and number of people in immediate work group. Unfortunately, group size was poorly defined in the participating organization. Unexpected variation in assignment made such a number impossible for the subjects to specify and it was dropped from all analyses. Tenure also proved to be a problem due to low response rate and was dropped from the major analyses.

### Procedure

#### Data Collection

The questionnaires were contained on one side of each of four pages.

The cover sheet contained a short introduction followed by the categorical variables and the constraint question. The second page was always the Ideal-LBDQ. The third and fourth pages were the LBDQ and JDI randomly ordered across subjects.

The experimenter was scheduled for five minutes during roll call for each watch in all five zones. After being introduced by the sergeant in charge, the E gave a short summary of the objectives of the study and explained each page of the questionnaire booklet. Officers were thanked and encouraged to find the 20-25 minutes necessary to complete the booklet during their watch. The E returned at the end of each watch to collect the returned booklets for that watch.

#### Data Reduction and Analysis

Raw scores on all variables were obtained in accordance with the literature on instrument construction (Halpin, 1957; Smith et al, 1969). Descriptive statistics were then computed in summary forms and by subgroups assignments. Raw scores were converted into discrepancy scores consistent with the hypothesis stated above. This procedure has also been utilized by Hunt and Liebscher (1973) in testing discrepancy models

Under the first hypothesis, discrepancy scores were computed from the LBDQ and Ideal-LBDQ. Discrepancy Score 1 (D1) is the difference between Ideal C on the Ideal LBDQ and observed C on the LBDQ. Discrepancy Score 2 (D2) was similarly computed for the S dimension of leader behavior. These discrepancy scores were correlated separately with JDI-Supervision scores. Education, age, race, rank, sex, and response on the constraint question were included in the regression and further analyzed using covariance procedures.

For the second hypothesis, discrepancy scores were computed from the leader's Ideal-LBDQ and the member's ideal-LBDQ. Discrepancy Score 3 (D3) is the difference between Ideal C of the leader and Ideal C of the member. Discrepancy Score 4 (D4) was similarly computed for the S dimension of leader behavior. Thus this analysis was performed only on individuals from groups where the leader had completed the Ideal-LBDQ. Twelve groups were found to be usable. Again, these discrepancy scores were correlated with and regressed on satisfaction with leadership scores.

In order to evaluate the methodological issues raised by Wall and Payne semipartial correlational techniques were used. By such analysis, variance due to existing level of C and S was extracted from the discrepancy scores which were based on them. The residual was then correlated with satisfaction. In this way the unique contribution of the discrepancy scores to the variance in satisfaction was evaluated.

Finally, tests for the effects of booklet order were performed and reliability coefficients for all scales were computed.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner and Bent, 1975) supplied routines used in the analyses.

## CHAPTER III

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Findings Relating to Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 followed directly from Yukl's model (1971), and predicted that differences between follower expectation and observations would be negatively related to satisfaction with leadership. This prediction appears to be supported by the data. As shown in Table 1, discrepancies between member expectations and member observations on the C dimension of leader behavior (D1) had a zero-order correlation of  $-.63$  with satisfaction scores. On the S dimension, discrepancies (D2) were correlated  $-.48$  with satisfaction. Both coefficients were significant at the  $.01$  level.

Table 1 also reveals, however, that D1 and D2 were highly inter-correlated ( $.66$ ). This was not surprising in view of the fact that raw C and S scores on the LBDQ were correlated  $.74$ . It was surprising in that much of the literature on C and S has found that these dimensions are relatively independent. In the present study, given the high correlation between the two dimensions, and of the discrepancy scores derived from them, simple correlation does not indicate the unique variance that each shares with satisfaction. For this reason, a semipartial correlation was computed. This type of correlation coefficient, as discussed above, is a measure of the common variation between two variables with the variation that one of them shares with a third variable removed. The semipartial correlation between satisfaction and D1, with the effects of D2 removed

Table 1  
Intercorrelation Matrix of Selected Scales and Discrepancy Scores  
(Points Omitted)

	IC	IS	C	S	D1	D2	D3	D4	JDI
Ideal-LBDQ C									
Ideal-LBDQ S	32**								
LBDQ C	16*	04							
LBDQ S	16*	21*	74**						
D1 <sub>a</sub>	37**	14*	-85**	-62**					
D2 <sub>b</sub>	03	36**	-68**	-84**	66**				
D3 <sub>c</sub>	17*	10	06	04	04	02			
D4 <sub>d</sub>	-12	-49**	-18*	-19*	09	-10	13		
JDI <sub>e</sub>	-05	04	69**	53**	-63**	-48**	10	-09	

\*p = .05 \*\*p = .01 (Note: Significance levels are taken from tables of independent correlations)

- a. (Member Ideal C) - (Member Observed C)
- b. (Member Ideal S) - (Member Observed S)
- c. (Leader Ideal C) - (Member Ideal C)
- d. (Leader Ideal S) - (Member Ideal S)
- e. JDI Supervision Subscale

from D1 was  $-.28$  ( $P \leq .01$ ). The semipartial correlation between satisfaction and D2 with the effects of D1 removed from D2 was  $-.08$  (ns). It appears then that only discrepancy scores based on C were uniquely related to satisfaction with supervision. Yukl's prediction is supported for the C dimension of leadership style alone.

As stated in the procedure, both absolute and algebraic discrepancy scores were computed. Previous research (Hunt and Liebscher, 1973) found that relationships between satisfaction and discrepancies were affected by the methods used in computing discrepancies. In the present study, however, transforming algebraic values into absolutes made no significant difference under  $H_1$  since expectation scores were almost always greater than observation scores. Under  $H_2$  relationships were also not significantly affected by the method used in computing discrepancies. All analyses are therefore based on algebraic discrepancy scores.

D1 and D2 discrepancy scores were also regressed on satisfaction with leadership scores. The C and S discrepancy scores accounted for approximately forty-six per cent of the variance in satisfaction ( $R=.68$ ). In addition, the effects of officers' sex, race, rank, age, education and response on the constraint question were examined. Using a covariance procedure outlined by Kim and Kohout (In Nie, et al., 1975, Cha. 21), variance in satisfaction attributed to these categorical variables was removed. It was found that these variables, both separately and together, had no significant effect on the relationship between D1, D2, and satisfaction.

#### Implications of Hypothesis 1

Yukl (1971) predicted that satisfaction with leadership is a function

of the discrepancy between actual leader behavior and the behavior preferences operationalized as expectations, Yukl's prediction was supported on the C dimension of leadership behavior. Before conclusions with respect to Yukl's model can be made, however, the methodological issues relating to the use of discrepancy scores must be resolved.

The results were analyzed following Wall and Payne's suggestions for testing hypotheses based on discrepancy scores. First, it should be noted that consistent with the logical constraint, discrepancy scores were highly negative in their relationship with existing level of behavior (-.85 for C and -.84 for S). Second, consistent with the psychological constraint, the use of absolute discrepancies had no significant influence on the obtained relationships. Third, a semipartial correlation, residualizing D1 on both D2 and existing level of C, lowered the correlation between satisfaction with supervision and D1 from -.28 to .06 (ns). With discrepancy scores based on S, the relationship was shown above to be nonsignificant when D1 was accounted for. It appears that as Wall and Payne hypothesized, a relationship between discrepancy scores and satisfaction reflects no more than an attenuation of the relationship between existing level scores and satisfaction. Furthermore, they suggested that discrepancy scores be avoided and raw scores only be used.

In light of the foregoing discussion, the results of the present study with respect to Hypothesis 1 are not obvious from the original correlations that were computed. Although a discrepancy model of satisfaction with leadership was supported at least on the C dimension, the use of discrepancy scores to test the model is suspect. Hunt and Liebscher (1973), Wanous and Lawler (1972), and others have found that existing

level measures are at least equal to the predictive significance of discrepancy scores. In addition, consistent with Wall and Payne (1973), the unique relationship between discrepancy score D1 and satisfaction in the present study was eliminated when the relationship between existing level C and satisfaction is taken into account. Operationally, discrepancy scores appear to be not more than the sum of their parts.

The present study has failed to support a discrepancy model when tested using an expected minus observed subtractive methodology. Although Yukl's prediction was at least partially correct, the obtained relationships could be accounted for without the use of discrepancy scores. The concept of a discrepancy model remains tenable, however. Methods for evaluating observations using expectations as an anchor while avoiding the use of discrepancy scores, are discussed in Chapter IV.

#### Findings with Respect to Hypothesis 2

Under the second hypothesis, the discrepancy framework was extended to include leader expectations in place of observations of leadership. Thus discrepancy scores were computed from leader-ideal and member-ideal C and S scores (D3 and D4, respectively). These discrepancy scores were correlated with satisfaction scores. Table 1 reveals that relationships were not significant. Discrepancy score D3 was correlated .10 with satisfaction while D4 was correlated -.09. The regression of these scores on satisfaction was also not significant ( $R=.17$ ).

#### Implications of Hypothesis 2

Discrepancy scores based on leader ideals and follower ideals were not significantly related to satisfaction. In view of the discussion above,

on discrepancy scores 1, this is not surprising since neither component was itself significantly related to satisfaction. The real question then, is why these so-called expectation scores were unrelated to satisfaction. If Stogdill is correct in his belief that structuring expectations is central to the functioning of a leader, why were leader and follower expectations poor indicators of satisfaction? Several explanations may be offered.

First, in the present study, the words "ideal" and "expected" have been used interchangeably. This has been based on the fact that the Ideal-LBDQ is defined as a measure of expected leader behavior. It is conceivable, however, that an individual's ideal leader would be quite unlike the kind of leader expected. Furthermore, Wanous and Lawler have noted that preferences, which may be unlike ideals or expectations, are often used in place of these terms. Researchers need to consider carefully the cognitive variables on which they intend to focus. This is particularly true in quasi-military situations such as police departments.

Second, responses to the constraint question indicate that the great majority of police officers in the present study do not believe their supervisors are free in expressing leadership style. This attitude may have served to isolate the evaluation of satisfaction from evaluation of ideal leadership behavior: If leaders are constrained in their methods, officers may have felt it unfair to evaluate them with respect to an ideal leader. It also indicates that responses to the term "ideal" were probably inconsistent across subject. Some officers may have interpreted "ideal" in terms of expectations, others in terms of preferences.

### Instrument Reliability Estimates

Two reliability estimates based on internal consistency, were computed for all subscales used in the present study. Routines were supplied by SPSS subprogram Reliability (Bubolz and Specht, undated). Responses from sixty, randomly selected questionnaire booklets were used in this analysis. Two of these were found to have incomplete sections and were not used.

Split-half reliability coefficients were computed by dividing each subscale in half and correlating the scores on each half. The Spearman-Brown formula was used to estimate the reliability on the entire subscale. Coefficient Alpha was also computed for all subscales. Alpha represents the mean split-half coefficient based on all possible splittings of the subscale.

Table 2 presents the findings. In general, reliability coefficients were satisfactorily high. Standard errors of measurement are also given. These values are analogous to the standard deviation of obtained scores around the true score.

### Instrument Administration Order Effects

Two questionnaire orders were used in the present study. The categorical data and the Ideal-LBDQ were always first and second, respectively. The JDI and the LBDQ were randomly placed third or fourth. Subjects' responses were placed in two groups, depending upon which booklet order they received. T-tests were performed between the mean subscale scores of these groups as an indication of booklet order effects. Table 3 shows that one significant difference between means was found. It was concluded that the hypothesis that the order of questionnaire administration had no

Table 2  
Reliability of Selected Scales

	Alpha	Spearman-Brown	Standard Error of Measurement <sup>a</sup>
Ideal-LBDQ C	.71	.64	3.33
Ideal-LBDQ S	.76	.65	3.16
LBDQ C	.94	.92	2.81
LBDQ S	.91	.86	3.31
JDI-Supervision	.92	.89	3.74

(N=58)  
<sup>a</sup>.  $\sigma_{\text{measurement}} = \sigma_x \sqrt{1 - r_{xx}}$

Table 3  
A Test of Questionnaire Booklet Order Effects<sup>a</sup>

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean Group 1</u>	<u>Mean Group 2</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Tenure	48.80	54.64	.59
Education	1.86	1.98	.99
Age	2.85	3.14	1.42 <sub>b</sub>
Ideal C	45.77	46.61	.77 <sub>b</sub>
Ideal S	48.95	49.31	.42
Observed C	37.47	39.38	.97
Observed S	43.47	43.03	.26
JDI-Work	33.91	35.11	.89
JDI-Supervision	39.13	43.24	2.19 <sub>b</sub> <sup>*</sup>
JDI-Coworkers	40.03	40.29	.15
JDI-Pay	12.51	12.35	.09
JDI-Promotions	12.47	14.50	1.01

<sup>a</sup>T-test for significant difference between mean scores on variables

<sup>b</sup>These t-tests were adjusted for unequal variances in the groups

\* p=.05

effect on responses could not be rejected.

#### Descriptive Statistics on Study Participants

Table 4 summarizes the responses on variables in the study over all subjects. It is interesting to point out that those who answered "No" to the constraint question ("Are supervisory personnel in your organization free to be the kind of leaders they'd like to be?"), outnumbered those who answered "Yes" by almost 3 to 2. On the leadership scales, police officers appear to prefer more S behavior from their leaders than C. This finding is quite different from those in leadership studies on industrial personnel where C has traditionally been preferred. On the satisfaction subscales, officers appear to be distinctly dissatisfied with their pay and promotions. Police in the present study, however, reported a pattern of relative satisfactions among the five job areas highly similar to the worker norms presented by Smith et al. (1969). They conform even more closely, both in direction and magnitude, to the results obtained by Lefkowitz (1974) who administered the JDI to a sample of midwestern police officers. The relative satisfaction of the officers in the present study should be evaluated against these comparable findings.

#### Leadership Research in a Police Department

Much of the early research with the LBDQ was done in military settings. More recently, however, industrial leadership has been emphasized. As Stogdill (1974) has noted, situational factors can play a major role in the study of leadership. The present study is unusual in its use of the LBDQ in a police department. This setting was found to have several unique characteristics.

Table 4  
Descriptive Statistics on Selected Variables

(N = 189)

Variable	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation
Constraint:			
Yes, free to lead	69		
No, not free to lead	104		
Ideal C		46	5.88
Ideal S		49	5.78
Observed C		39	10.61
Observed S		44	9.55
JDI-Work		35	9.10
JDI-Supervision		42	11.83
JDI-Coworkers		40	11.31
JDI-Pay		15	10.80
JDI-Promotions		17	12.97

Research has shown that police officers, in general, tend to be particularly homogeneous on many characteristics, especially attitudes (Blum, 1964; Lefkowitz, 1975). The low standard deviation on the Ideal-LBDQ (Table 4) indicates that officer homogeneity also extends to attitudes about leadership. Given the responses on the constraint question, this fact probably reflects the influence of similar training and departmental environment. Expressions of "party line" attitudes about leadership could be a problem for researchers using instruments like the LBDQ.

Additionally, the majority of officers in the present study expressed a preference for leaders higher in S behaviors than C. Traditionally, research with industrial workers has shown that leaders high in C behaviors are preferred. This fact would probably not present difficulties in police related research but may be relevant in generating testable hypotheses. Consistent with past research, however, it was found that C accounted for the most variance in satisfaction.

## CHAPTER IV

### CONCLUSIONS

#### Discrepancy Models of Satisfaction

The present study tested an interaction-expectation theory of leadership outlined by Yukl (1971). A traditional analysis, based on the relationship between discrepancy scores and satisfaction supported Yukl's hypothesis on at least one dimension of leader behavior. A more rigorous investigation of the obtained relationships, however, revealed that an alternative explanation existed. It was found that the relationship between the discrepancy scores used to test Yukl's model and satisfaction with leadership, was determined by observations of leader behavior. The discrepancy measures themselves contributed no additional information to what was already contained in the scores from which they were computed.

An interpretive dilemma exists. Hypothesis 1 was supported on the C dimension of leader behavior. This implies that Yukl's discrepancy model, as tested in the present paper, holds some promise for the understanding of satisfaction with leadership. Previous researchers that have evaluated discrepancy models have made such a conclusion. The present study, however, further analyzed the techniques traditionally used to test discrepancy models. It was found that methods where existing level scores are subtracted from ideal scores do not in fact test discrepancy models of satisfaction. They simply reflect the degree of association between existing level scores and satisfaction. If the difference between

expectations and observations is hypothesized as central to the determination of satisfaction, the evaluation of such an hypothesis should not be based on a subtractive procedure. A higher degree of methodological sophistication is required.

Conceptually, the logic behind discrepancy scores as a rational reflection of attitude, has considerable appeal. Wall and Payne suggested several methods of operationalizing the concept without relying on a subtractive procedure. Items might ask, "How much more would you like than you have now?" Although less obviously a measure of satisfaction, such an item lets the individual use his or her own existing level perceptions as an anchor point. Alternatively, items could be structured allowing subjects to do their own arithmetic:

How much is there now?  
 How much would you like?  
 Having considered the above two questions, how  
 satisfied are you?

Exploration of these alternatives would allow the conceptual appeal of evaluating existing level in relation to the individual's expectations without the operational constraints of discrepancy scores.

With respect to Yukl's discrepancy model of satisfaction with leadership, it can be concluded that, presently, no evaluation can be made given the methods used to test it. Future research should investigate alternatives to discrepancy scores, such as those suggested by Wall and Payne. Adequate evaluation of discrepancy models, in leadership and in job satisfaction generally, can not take place until methods that avoid the constraints inherent in discrepancy scores are developed.

### Prediction of Leader-Follower Interaction

The objective of Hypothesis 2 was to explore a technique that could be used to predict satisfaction with leadership. It was therefore based on measures that could be taken prior to the establishment of a group: leader and follower expectations of leadership. Although Hypothesis 2 was not supported, the potential usefulness of these variables should be investigated further. Characteristics of the participating organization may have served to mask the relevance of the variables involved. In addition, follower expectations other than those about leadership (e.g. productivity, performance or other goals) may prove to be important in satisfaction. Similarly, the relationship between criterion variables other than satisfaction and follower expectation should be investigated.

It is obvious that a single study of leadership is severely limited in the number of variables that it can investigate adequately. The complexity of leader-follower interaction, however, makes it difficult to come to general conclusions based on anything less than a comprehensive analysis of the area. Stogdill (1974) noted that it is important for leadership studies to include variables from four major classifications: leader characteristics, follower characteristics, situational characteristics and outcomes. Although the present investigation included variables from each of these classes, no definitive conclusions can be made. The results support a growing trend away from the use of discrepancy scores, and toward the use of existing-level measures, in evaluating theories of leadership. Yet these results do not resolve theoretical issues about leader-follower interactions or add significantly

to the knowledge of its predictability. If advances are to be made, future research should focus on the following aspects of leadership.

First, situational factors that moderate relationships between leader-follower interaction and outcomes need to be identified. This is particularly true across experimental settings, although the relevance of situational factors within settings is also unclear. For example, the nature of the effect of quasi-military environments on leader behavior and follower response has not been studied. Second, the evaluation of leader behavior should be made on as many dimensions as possible. The LBDQ-XII (Stogdill, 1974), which includes twelve dimensions of leader behavior should be investigated. The dimensions of C and S, although useful and important, are recognized as incomplete indications of leadership style. Third, multiple theories of leadership should be evaluated in individual studies. A weakness of the present investigation lies in the fact that no particular approach to studying leadership can be recommended from the results. Additionally theories of leadership are often too general to form the basis of testable hypotheses. Investigators should be encouraged to deal analytically with specific aspects of leader-follower interaction.

The study of leadership has made rapid advances in the last three decades. The discussion of leadership traits has given way to the measurement of leader behavior. Important aspects of the situation have also been identified and studied. The next step in this progression is the development of formulations that can be used to predict group outcomes. It is only in this way that the usefulness of what has become a vast literature can be explored.

APPENDIX  
QUESTIONNAIRE BOOKLET

GEORGIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY  
SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Instructions

Ongoing studies at Georgia Tech. are attempting to learn more about employee opinions and supervisory behavior. You can help us and your organization by answering the brief questions contained on the next three pages.

For Statistical Use Only

Male \_\_\_ Female \_\_\_

Time With Organization: Years \_\_\_ Months \_\_\_

Highest Education:

High School Graduate \_\_\_  
Some College \_\_\_  
College Graduate \_\_\_  
Advanced Degree \_\_\_

Age:

Under 22 \_\_\_  
22-25 \_\_\_  
26-29 \_\_\_  
30-33 \_\_\_  
34-37 \_\_\_  
38-45 \_\_\_  
46-55 \_\_\_

Race:

White \_\_\_  
Black \_\_\_  
Latin \_\_\_  
Other \_\_\_

Zone \_\_\_\_\_

Sector \_\_\_\_\_

Rank \_\_\_\_\_

Number of people in your immediate work group: \_\_\_\_\_

In your judgment, are supervisory personnel in your organization free to be the kind of leaders they'd like to be? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_.

THINK about how frequently the leader *SHOULD* engage in the behavior described by the item.

DECIDE whether he *SHOULD* always, often, occasionally, seldom or never act as described by the item.

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

- A — Always
- B — Often
- C — Occasionally
- D — Seldom
- E — Never

What the IDEAL leader SHOULD do:

1. Do personal favors for group members..... A B C D E
2. Make his attitudes clear to the group..... A B C D E
3. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group..... A B C D E
4. Try out his new ideas with the group..... A B C D E
5. Act as the real leader of the group..... A B C D E
6. Be easy to understand..... A B C D E
7. Rule with an iron hand..... A B C D E
8. Find time to listen to group members..... A B C D E
9. Criticize poor work..... A B C D E
10. Give advance notice of changes..... A B C D E
11. Speak in a manner not to be questioned..... A B C D E
12. Keep to himself..... A B C D E
13. Look out for the personal welfare of individual group members..... A B C D E
14. Assign group members to particular tasks..... A B C D E
15. Be the spokesman of the group..... A B C D E
16. Schedule the work to be done..... A B C D E
17. Maintain definite standards of performance..... A B C D E
18. Refuse to explain his actions..... A B C D E
19. Keep the group informed..... A B C D E
20. Act without consulting the group..... A B C D E
21. Back up the members in their actions..... A B C D E
22. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines..... A B C D E
23. Treat all group members as his equals..... A B C D E
24. Encourage the use of uniform procedures..... A B C D E
25. Get what he asks for from his superiors..... A B C D E
26. Be willing to make changes..... A B C D E
27. Make sure that his part in the organization is understood by group members..... A B C D E
28. Be friendly and approachable..... A B C D E
29. Ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations..... A B C D E
30. Fail to take necessary action..... A B C D E
31. Make group members feel at ease when talking with them..... A B C D E
32. Let group members know what is expected of them..... A B C D E
33. Speak as the representative of the group..... A B C D E
34. Put suggestions made by the group into operation..... A B C D E
35. See to it that group members are working up to capacity..... A B C D E
36. Let other people take away his leadership in the group..... A B C D E
37. Get his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members..... A B C D E
38. Get group approval in important matters before going ahead..... A B C D E
39. See to it that the work of group members is coordinated..... A B C D E
40. Keep the group working together as a team..... A B C D E

Now, think about how frequently YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR ACTUALLY DOES engage in the behavior described by the item.

DECIDE whether he DOES always, often, occasionally, seldom or never act as described by the item.

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

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

**YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR ACTUALLY DOES:**

- 1. Do personal favors for group members..... A B C D E
- 2. Make his attitudes clear to the group..... A B C D E
- 3. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group..... A B C D E
- 4. Try out his new ideas with the group..... A B C D E
- 5. Act as the real leader of the group..... A B C D E
- 6. Be easy to understand..... A B C D E
- 7. Rule with an iron hand..... A B C D E
- 8. Find time to listen to group members..... A B C D E
- 9. Criticize poor work..... A B C D E
- 10. Give advance notice of changes..... A B C D E
- 11. Speak in a manner not to be questioned..... A B C D E
- 12. Keep to himself..... A B C D E
- 13. Look out for the personal welfare of individual group members..... A B C D E
- 14. Assign group members to particular tasks..... A B C D E
- 15. Be the spokesman of the group..... A B C D E
- 16. Schedule the work to be done..... A B C D E
- 17. Maintain definite standards of performance..... A B C D E
- 18. Refuse to explain his actions..... A B C D E
- 19. Keep the group informed..... A B C D E
- 20. Act without consulting the group..... A B C D E
- 21. Back up the members in their actions..... A B C D E
- 22. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines..... A B C D E
- 23. Treat all group members as his equals..... A B C D E
- 24. Encourage the use of uniform procedures..... A B C D E
- 25. Get what he asks for from his superiors..... A B C D E
- 26. Be willing to make changes..... A B C D E
- 27. Make sure that his part in the organization is understood by group members..... A B C D E
- 28. Be friendly and approachable..... A B C D E
- 29. Ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations..... A B C D E
- 30. Fail to take necessary action..... A B C D E
- 31. Make group members feel at ease when talking with them..... A B C D E
- 32. Let group members know what is expected of them..... A B C D E
- 33. Speak as the representative of the group..... A B C D E
- 34. Put suggestions made by the group into operation..... A B C D E
- 35. See to it that group members are working up to capacity..... A B C D E
- 36. Let other people take away his leadership in the group..... A B C D E
- 37. Get his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members..... A B C D E
- 38. Get group approval in important matters before going ahead..... A B C D E
- 39. See to it that the work of group members is coordinated..... A B C D E

You are to describe some features of your job. Five lists of words are to be rated. If the word does in fact describe some aspect of your job, circle "Yes". If it does not describe your job, circle "No". If you cannot decide, circle "U" for undecided. 41

My Work

Fascinating	Yes	U	No
Routine	Yes	U	No
Satisfying	Yes	U	No
Boring	Yes	U	No
Good	Yes	U	No
Creative	Yes	U	No
Respected	Yes	U	No
Hot	Yes	U	No
Pleasant	Yes	U	No
Useful	Yes	U	No
Tiresome	Yes	U	No
Healthful	Yes	U	No
Challenging	Yes	U	No
On your feet	Yes	U	No
Frustrating	Yes	U	No
Simple	Yes	U	No
Endless	Yes	U	No
Gives sense of accomplishment	Yes	U	No

My Coworkers

Stimulating	Yes	U	No
Boring	Yes	U	No
Slow	Yes	U	No
Ambitious	Yes	U	No
Stupid	Yes	U	No
Responsible	Yes	U	No
Fast	Yes	U	No
Intelligent	Yes	U	No
Easy to make enemies	Yes	U	No
Talk too much	Yes	U	No
Smart	Yes	U	No
Lazy	Yes	U	No
Unpleasant	Yes	U	No
No privacy	Yes	U	No
Active	Yes	U	No
Narrow interests	Yes	U	No
Loyal	Yes	U	No
Hard to meet	Yes	U	No

My Immediate Supervisor

Asks my advice	Yes	U	No
Hard to please	Yes	U	No
Unpolite	Yes	U	No
Praises	Yes	U	No
Tactful	Yes	U	No
Influential	Yes	U	No
Up-to-date	Yes	U	No
Doesn't supervise enough	Yes	U	No
Quick-tempered	Yes	U	No
Tells me where I stand	Yes	U	No
Annoying	Yes	U	No
Stubborn	Yes	U	No
Knows job well	Yes	U	No
Bad	Yes	U	No
Intelligent	Yes	U	No
Leaves me on my own	Yes	U	No
Around when needed	Yes	U	No
Lazy	Yes	U	No

My Pay

Income adequate for normal expenses	Yes	U	No
Satisfactory profit sharing	Yes	U	No
Barely live on income	Yes	U	No
Bad	Yes	U	No
Income provides luxuries	Yes	U	No
Insecure	Yes	U	No
Less than I deserve	Yes	U	No
Highly paid	Yes	U	No
Underpaid	Yes	U	No

My Promotions

Good opportunity for advancement	Yes	U	No
Opportunity somewhat limited	Yes	U	No
Promotion on ability	Yes	U	No
Dead-end job	Yes	U	No
Good chance for promotion	Yes	U	No
Unfair promotion policy	Yes	U	No
Infrequent promotions	Yes	U	No
Regular promotions	Yes	U	No
Fairly good chance for promotion	Yes	U	No

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