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The Influence of Leadership Style on Teacher Job Satisfaction

Ronit Bogler

The article examines the effects of principals’ leadership style (transformational or transactional), principals’ decision-making strategy (autocratic versus participative), and teachers’ occupation perceptions on teacher satisfaction from the job. More specifically, it attempts to find out how much of the variation in teachers’ job satisfaction can be attributed to their perceptions of their occupation, as compared to their perceptions about their principals’ leadership style and decision-making strategy. A quantitative questionnaire using Likert-type scales was administered to 930 teachers in Israeli schools, of whom 745 responded. Path analysis was used to explain teacher job satisfaction by the exogenous variables. The most salient finding was that teachers’ occupation perceptions strongly affected their satisfaction. Principals’ transformational leadership affected teachers’ satisfaction both directly and indirectly through their occupation perceptions. Implications of the study are discussed in relation to supervisors and principals, as well as to policy makers at the government level.

How do teachers perceive their principals? Do they regard them as transformational or transactional leaders? Do they evaluate them as participative or autocratic? How does the behavior of principals relate to teacher job satisfaction? A number of researchers have investigated the relationship between principals’ leadership style and decision-making processes and teacher satisfaction and performance (Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Silins, 1992) and teacher efficacy (Hipp, 1997; Hipp & Bredeson, 1995). However, a crucial factor has not been incorporated in these investigations, namely the perceptions of the teachers regarding their

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occupation. This variable entails a number of aspects that relate to the concept of teaching as a profession: professional prestige, professional identification and status, sense of self-fulfillment, scope for self-expression and personal development, job autonomy, and centrality of the vocation. The goal of the current study is to examine the effects of three factors on teacher satisfaction from the job: principals’ leadership style (transformational or transactional), principals’ decision-making strategy (autocratic versus participative), and teachers’ perceptions of their occupation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

During the past decade, schools have undertaken fundamental changes in areas such as curriculum development, students’ and teachers’ roles, and learning strategies. These changes have brought about a shift in the philosophy that dominated the realm of educational leadership. As Leithwood (1992, 1994) indicated, the form of instructional leadership corresponded well to the era of the 1980s and the 1990s because it met the expectations of the public’s and the decision-makers’ expectations from the principal. However, the changes undertaken during the 1990s could not be dealt with when the principal was functioning as an instructional leader. The concept of transformational leadership gradually moved to the center of the discourse as principals were expected to bring the visionary leadership to the organization—a task that was not taken care of by instructional leaders. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) showed that school principals who succeeded in their job have used a wide range of mechanisms to motivate and activate their staff to bring about changes in their school culture.

Referring to transformational leadership, Burns (1978) described followers and their leaders as inspiring each other to achieve “higher levels of morality and motivation” such as justice and equality (p. 20). The transactional image of leadership refers to exchange relationships between the leaders and their followers: Each enters the transaction because of the expectation to fulfill self-interests, and it is the role of the leader to maintain the status quo by satisfying the needs of the followers. Silins (1994) indicated that transformational leadership “bonds leader and followers within a collaborative change process” (p. 274) and thus contributes to the performance of the whole organization. Transactional leadership, on the other hand, “does not bind leaders and followers in any enduring way”; therefore, it results in “a routinized, non-creative but stable environment” as compared to the “responsive
and innovative environment” that the transformational leadership brings about (p. 274). This perception of leadership styles contains a value judgment where transformational leadership is described more favorably than transactional leadership.

In attempting to validate the leadership concepts of Burns, Bass (1985) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). By conducting a factor analysis, Bass was able to identify three subfactors of transformational leadership that he labeled charisma, personal consideration, and intellectual stimulation and two subfactors of transactional leadership that he labeled contingent reward and management by exception. According to Bass, charisma is the ability of individuals to arouse people and bring them to follow the leader’s mission and vision, personal consideration is the leader’s ability of paying personal attention to the followers, and intellectual stimulation is the ability of the leader to motivate the followers to think of innovative and extraordinary solutions to problems. Later on, Bass and Avolio (1990) added another factor, inspiration, to describe transformational leadership. The ability to inspire is perceived as closely related to charisma and is therefore often regarded as the same constituent. Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) identified six main characteristics of educational leaders who are transformational: building school vision and goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, symbolizing professional practices and values, demonstrating high performance expectations, and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. Contingent reward, one subfactor of transactional leadership, pertains to a situation where the leader rewards the follower on completing an agreed-upon task. Management by exception, the other subfactor describing transactional leadership, relates to a situation where the leader responds only in instances when things go wrong. Later on, this factor was conceived in two forms: passive and active (Bass & Avolio, 1990). This subfactor, management by exception, appears to be a negative attribute of leadership (Geijsel, Sleegers, & Berg, 1999; Silins, 1994). This is especially true with regard to active management by exception that is defined operationally “in terms of looking for mistakes or enforcing rules to avoid mistakes” (Yukl, 1999, p. 289). The items composing this scale underscore “intrusive, controlling forms of monitoring” without indicating strategies that the leader adopts to correct followers’ mistakes whenever they are detected (Yukl, 1999, p. 289). In relation to the educational settings, transactional leadership has been described as having four dimensions: staffing, instructional support, monitoring school activities, and community focus (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).
Autocratic and Participative Decision Making

Although extensive literature has been published on participative leadership, there is, to date, no general agreement about the taxonomy of decision procedures (Yukl, 1994). Nevertheless, there are four styles of decision making that most researchers agree on: autocratic decision, where the manager does not consult any of the group or organization members and comes up with the final decision alone; consultation, where the manager gets advice from other members but, after taking the suggestions into consideration, makes the final decision alone; joint decision, where the manager discusses the problems with other members and together they come up with a final decision, in which each has had some influence; and delegation, where the manager gives one or a group of members the authority to decide. The “delegated” decision maker (or makers) carries the responsibility for the decision, even if the manager demands prior approval for it (Vroom & Yetton, 1973, pp. 10-38; Yukl, 1994, p. 157). It is hypothesized that the greater the involvement of teachers in decision-making processes, the higher their level of job satisfaction. This hypothesis is based on research on the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and involvement in decision making (e.g., Imper, Neidt, & Reyes, 1990; Rice & Schneider, 1994; Schneider, 1984). In an open climate, where principals are perceived as democratic managers who maintain open channels of communication with the staff, teachers would be more satisfied with their job as compared to schools where principals exhibit a harsh and authoritative attitude (Kottkamp, Mulhern, & Hoy, 1987).

Teacher Job Satisfaction

The education mission seems to be dependent on the way teachers feel about their work and how satisfied they are with it. Therefore, it is not surprising that researchers suggest that “schools must give more attention to increasing teacher job satisfaction” (Heller, Clay, & Perkins, 1993, p. 75).

Most research on teacher job satisfaction is rooted in the pioneering work of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) who identified the satisfying and dissatisfying factors. Herzberg’s “two-factor theory” associates the satisfying factors, the “motivators,” with the higher order needs and the dissatisfying factors, the “hygiene factors,” with the lower order needs (Dinham & Scott, 1998). The higher order needs, the satisfiers, apply to the intrinsic aspects of work, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and opportunity for advancement. The lower order needs, the dissatisfying factors, correspond to extrinsic matters of work, such as working conditions, supervision, work policy, salary, and interpersonal relationships.
Extensive literature supports the claim that job satisfaction is positively related to participative decision making and to transformational leadership (e.g., Maeroff, 1988; Rossmiller, 1992). Overall, teachers report greater satisfaction in their work when they perceive their principal as someone who shares information with others, delegates authority, and keeps open channels of communication with the teachers. A low level of teachers’ involvement in decision making is related to a low level of satisfaction from work (Imper et al., 1990; Rice & Schneider, 1994).

Teacher job satisfaction is also associated with higher autonomy at work (Hall, Pearson, & Carroll, 1992; Poulin & Walter, 1992) and with aspects related to the teaching profession. Goodlad (1984) found that teachers who reported that they chose this occupation because of inherent professional values expressed higher levels of satisfaction and greater commitment than did their counterparts who went into teaching for economic reasons. Hall et al.’s (1992) study revealed that teachers who were planning to leave the profession expressed less job satisfaction and more negative attitudes toward teaching as a career and toward the school administration (p. 225). Teacher job satisfaction is also linked to teacher retention through aspects such as satisfaction with principal leadership (Betancourt-Smith, Inman, & Marlow, 1994) and satisfaction in general (Zigarelli, 1996). Reyes and Shin (1995) found that teacher job satisfaction is a determinant of teacher commitment and that it “must be present before the individual develops organizational commitment” (p. 36). The relationship between job satisfaction and commitment is not necessarily a characteristic of teachers only. More general research on worker job satisfaction and commitment has shown that conditions at work such as role conflict, autonomy, support from peers, and adequacy of resources are related to job satisfaction (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Spector, 1997).

Teachers derive their job satisfaction from their relationships with current and past students who keep in touch with them and from relationships with parents and colleagues (Dinham, 1995). Dinham (1995) found that these interpersonal relationships were among the main sources of teachers’ job satisfaction, whereas the sources of teachers’ job dissatisfaction were related to structural and administrative factors. Another indication to the importance of teacher-student relationship is found in Gay’s (1995) study, which revealed that most effective teachers put great emphasis on the student-teacher relationship. As Shann (1998) concluded, “What the middle school teachers liked first and foremost about their jobs was their students. Teachers felt that teacher-pupil relationships were most important and reported that they were more satisfied with this aspect of their job than any other” (p. 72). “Reaching” the students and watching them learn from their experience, in addition to
using the skills that they had acquired, were the principal sources for job satisfaction among teachers in the greater area of Chicago (Plihal, 1982). Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) found that teachers use descriptions of job satisfaction that deal with how they feel about coming to school every day and their feeling of success, or lack of it, that they carry with regard to their performance with students.

Student achievement is identified as a very critical source of teacher satisfaction, a finding that draws implications on teachers’ competence and efficacy (Dinham, 1995). The importance of student achievement to teachers’ job satisfaction is found in another study that reveals that satisfaction in meeting students’ achievement needs explained 28% of the variance in teacher satisfaction (Heller, Rex, & Cline, 1992). Ostroff (1992) found positive relationships between teacher satisfaction and indicators of student quality (reading and math skills, discipline problems, and attendance rates).

**Teachers’ Occupation Perceptions**

The term *teacher’s occupation perception* refers mainly to the intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of the teachers’ occupation. Intrinsic properties relate to aspects of teaching such as autonomy at work (Pearson, 1995), professional prestige and status, personal development, and self-esteem. Extrinsic properties refer to the physical aspects of the working place and to its benefits (e.g., salary). Obviously, both types of aspects are concerned with issues that relate to the teaching occupation as a profession.

In relation to job satisfaction, it is hypothesized that teachers’ descriptions of their occupation as one that provides high status, promotion opportunities for talented individuals, possibilities for self-development, and personal growth (among other things) will positively affect their satisfaction from the work. Sergiovanni (1967) too, in attempting to test Herzberg’s two-factor theory, confirmed the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959). In studying the factors that affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction of teachers, Sergiovanni found out that the “satisfiers” accounted for achievement, recognition, and responsibility, and the “dissatisfiers” included the interpersonal relationships with peers and subordinates, supervision (technical), school policy, and personal life (pp. 75-76). In a study that examined the effects of leaders’ behavior, consideration, and initiating structure, it was found that occupational status was a crucial factor in predicting job satisfaction among research and development workers (House, Filley, & Kerr, 1971).

The effect of teachers’ perceived autonomy in the classroom was also examined and was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction (Kreis & Brockoff, 1986). Teacher empowerment is another facet of teachers’
perceptions of their occupation. It refers to professional growth, autonomy, self-efficacy, impact (the teachers’ perceptions about their ability to influence school life), professional respect, and involvement in decisions that directly affect their work (Sheppard, 1996). Sheppard (1996) found positive relationships between the instructional leadership behaviors of principals, that is, behaviors that are directly related to teaching and learning, and professional involvement, which was defined as “the degree to which teachers are concerned about their work, are keen to learn from one another, and committed to professional development” (p. 335). Dinham and Scott (1998) found that teachers were most satisfied with intrinsic matters of their job, such as self-growth, mastery of professional skills, and supportive environment (p. 375). These findings imply that the teachers valued greatly the professional facets of their occupation.

Most researchers who study teacher job satisfaction examine the effects of variables such as principals’ leadership style and principals’ decision-making strategy on the contentment of teachers and the rate of teacher burnout from this occupation (Kirby et al., 1992; Koh et al., 1995; Silins, 1992). The present study, however, was set out to examine, among other things, the influence of teachers’ occupation perceptions on their satisfaction from the job. Teacher’s occupation perception is hypothesized to directly affect job satisfaction, but it is also hypothesized to be affected by principals’ behavior (leadership style and decision-making strategy). Principals who demonstrate transformational behavior, such as paying personal attention to the needs and interests of the teachers, providing for intellectual stimulation and challenges, raising teachers’ expectations and motivation to devote, and investing extra efforts, are assumed to encourage teachers to view their occupation as more rewarding and central to their lives.

Such a relationship will also pertain to principals’ decision-making style, as teachers who take part in the decision-making processes in school will feel more involved and committed to their jobs. Therefore, principals’ behavior (leadership style and decision-making strategy) will be examined through its direct and indirect effects on teachers’ satisfaction.

It is assumed that teacher satisfaction will be less influenced by the participative decision-making style adopted by the principal and more by his or her transformational type of leadership. Earlier research indicates that teachers’ burnout is significantly related to “consideration behaviors,” which refer to paying attention to the needs and expectations of others (a transformational type of behavior), rather than to “initiating-structure behaviors.” Initiating-structure behavior emphasizes task-oriented activities, where concerns and interests of people are only secondary in their importance scale (Halpin, 1966; Mazur & Lynch, 1989).
To summarize, the purpose of the study was to examine the effects on job satisfaction of (a) teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ leadership style (transformational/transactional), (b) teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ decision-making strategy (autocratic/participative), and (c) teachers’ occupation perceptions. It should be noted that the study was aimed to examine the teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ behavior rather than the principals’ actual behavior. Therefore, throughout the article, when these concepts are discussed, the references are to the teachers’ views rather than to the observed behavior of the principals or to their self-reported assessments.

METHOD

Participants

From a sample of 930 teachers, 745 responded and returned usable questionnaires (80% return rate). The teachers in this study were from elementary (51%), middle (20%), and high schools (26%)—a total of 98 schools located in the northern part of Israel. Although it was not possible to select a random sample of all the schools in this region, care was taken to select urban, suburban, and rural schools from diverse populations that represent the composition of teachers in Israel with regard to gender and religion. Sixty-six percent were women, 62% were Jewish, and the rest were non-Jewish (mostly Muslim). Of the Jewish teachers, almost 90% were women. Of the non-Jewish teachers, the majority (70%) were men.

Research Instrument

A quantitative questionnaire using Likert-type scales was administered in 1997 to 930 teachers. The respondents were instructed to refer to their current school principal and to fill out a questionnaire that asked a range of questions about that principal’s leadership style and decision-making strategy, their perceptions about the teaching occupation, and their satisfaction from various issues related to the school work.

The first section of the questionnaire was about transformational and transactional leadership. It was taken from the MLQ (Bass, 1985), which was translated into Hebrew and adapted to the Israeli milieu. It was a 27-item question with a 5-point scale (scored from 1 = not at all to 5 = very typical), which asked the respondents about the leadership style of their principals, according to the three categories of transformational leadership (charisma/inspiration, personal consideration, and intellectual stimulation) and the two
categories of transactional leadership (contingent reward and management by exception). The MLQ was tested by Bass in a number of studies. One of these studies was conducted on a sample of 256 U.S. supervisors and managers from a Fortune 500 firm (Bass, 1985, pp. 225-229). In this study, the coefficient α reliabilities per scale were as follows: charisma, .94; individual consideration, .87; intellectual stimulation, .89; contingent reward, .83; and management by exception, .70. (More about the structural validity of the MLQ can be found in Tepper & Percy, 1994). The MLQ has been used also in K-12 educational settings. Ingram (1997) used the MLQ to study transformational and transactional leadership behaviors of principals as perceived by teachers in inclusive educational settings. In this study, Ingram reported the high validity found for the overall transformational and transactional leadership constructs in three studies that used the MLQ in the general K-12 settings (King, 1989; Koh, 1991; and Hoover, Petrosko & Schultz, 1991, as cited in Ingram, 1997). In another study, T. J. Evans (1996) asked teachers and principals to respond to the MLQ to study the relationship between elementary principals’ use of transformational leadership strategies as determined by teacher reports and the presence of five social-organizational factors within the schools: shared goals, teacher collaboration, teacher learning, teacher certainty, and teacher commitment.

The second section of the questionnaire dealt with autocratic and participative strategies of decision making. It was taken from Friedman’s (1985) questionnaire on the decision-making style of school principals. Friedman’s questionnaire, which is based on Vroom and Yetton’s (1973) concept of decision processes, entails four main forms: (a) manager makes own decisions without consulting with subordinates, (b) manager consults with subordinates but makes own decisions, (c) manager makes joint decisions with subordinates, and (d) manager delegates decisions to subordinates. According to Vroom and Yetton, the first form of behavior refers to autocratic management, the second one to consultative management, the third to group decision making, and the last to the delegation type of decision making.

The third section of the questionnaire dealt with teachers’ occupation perceptions. It was a 28-item question (scored from 1 = disagree strongly to 5 = agree strongly), which asked about various facets of the teaching occupation (Yaniv, 1982). From Yaniv’s questionnaire, five subscales were used in the current study: Perceived Status, Perception of the Profession, Professional Identity, Perceived Autonomy, and Professional Competence. Coefficient alphas ranged from α = .54 to α = .93, indicating that some subscales were relatively high and others relatively low in their internal reliability.
The last section of the questionnaire regarding teacher satisfaction was taken from a questionnaire on principals’ and teachers’ job satisfaction that had been previously administered and validated (Tarabeh, 1995). The question included 25 items with a 7-point Likert-type scale (scored from 1 = never to 7 = always). In his work on an Israeli sample of teachers and principals, Tarabeh (1995) identified four dimensions describing teachers’ satisfaction: fulfillment of expectations ($\alpha = .93$), guidance and assistance from the Ministry of Education ($\alpha = .88$), internal conditions of work ($\alpha = .81$), and relationship with students and parents ($\alpha = .72$). The coefficient alpha for the whole question was .94.

Although the research instruments were tested for validity and reliability by their authors, the factorial constructs were retested. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on each of the study scales on a random sample of the respondents to test for scale validity.

The questionnaire for the present study was pretested on a group of 35 teachers. After incorporating a number of changes (e.g., clarifying statements and omitting items that were ambiguous and/or not relevant), and a retest on 5 more teachers, the revised questionnaire was finalized. Table 1 lists a sample of items from each scale that was used in the questionnaire.

RESULTS

Dimensions of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the 30 items of the MLQ to determine if the various behavioral dimensions proposed by Bass and Avolio (1990) would replicate for this sample. The factor analysis yielded six factors. The first factor contained 15 items that referred to charisma, intellectual stimulation, and vision (item loadings ranged from .49 to .80). The second factor contained 2 items that referred to personal consideration (item loadings .60 and .72). Because in the current study emphasis has been given to the overall effects of the exogenous variables on the criterion teachers’ satisfaction, an overall scale was constructed for each of the factors using the mean score of each one: (a) Transformational Leadership, (b) Transactional Leadership, (c) Teacher’s Occupation Perception, and (d) Teacher’s Satisfaction (see Table 2). Therefore, the two factors that included 17 items were combined to create one scale of transformational leadership.

The third factor (five items) and the fourth factor (three items) reflected management by exception (passive) (item loadings from .61 to .75) and contingent reward (item loadings from .74 to .80). The fifth factor contained two
items that reflected management by exception (active) (item loadings .67 and .80). The third, fourth, and fifth factors were brought together to create one scale of transactional leadership (see the appendix for descriptive statistics of
The sixth factor (two items) was meaningless and therefore it was omitted from the analysis. The eigenvalues of the five factors were as follows: 9.89 (Factor 1), 3.34 (Factor 2), 1.71 (Factor 3), 1.24 (Factor 4), and 1.05 (Factor 5), explaining 61% of the total variance.

Dimensions of Teachers’ Occupation Perceptions

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the 28 items that composed this question. The factor analysis yielded six factors. The first factor contained 6 items that referred to occupational prestige (item loadings ranged from .47 to .72). The second factor contained 6 items that referred to the teachers’ self-esteem (item loadings from .42 to .70). The third factor contained 4 items that referred to autonomy in class (item loadings from .50 to .80). The fourth factor contained 4 items that reflected professional self-development (item loadings from .47 to .73). The fifth factor contained 4 items that reflected degree of consideration in the opinions of teachers (item loadings from .48 to .80). The sixth factor contained 4 items that reflected professional autonomy (item loadings from .46 to .79). The eigenvalues of the six factors were as follows: 9.58 (Factor 1), 2.07 (Factor 2), 1.5 (Factor 3), 1.22 (Factor 4), 1.14 (Factor 5), and 1.08 (Factor 6), explaining 59% of the total variance.

Dimensions of Teachers’ Job Satisfaction

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the 25 items that composed this question. The factor analysis yielded three

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**TABLE 2**

Reliability Indices, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Five Scales

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<th>Scale</th>
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<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership (17 items; n = 682 teachers)</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>3.64b</td>
<td>.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership (10 items; n = 712 teachers)</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>2.34b</td>
<td>.67</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher’s Occupation Perception (28 items; n = 702 teachers)</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>3.19c</td>
<td>.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decision-Making Style (24 items; n = 601 teachers)</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>2.45d</td>
<td>.47</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher’s Satisfaction (25 items; n = 677 teachers)</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>4.73e</td>
<td>.99</td>
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a. Cronbach’s alpha.
b. Rating scale: 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *very typical*.
c. Rating scale: 1 = *disagree strongly* to 5 = *agree strongly*.
d. Rating scale: 1 = *autocratic decision* to 4 = *delegation*.
e. Rating scale: 1 = *never* to 7 = *always*. 
factors. The first factor contained 11 items that referred to self-fulfillment conditions (item loadings ranged from .62 to .82). The second factor contained 9 items that referred to the internal conditions of the teacher’s job (item loadings from .47 to .74). The third factor contained 5 items that referred to physical conditions of the job (item loadings from .41 to .78). The eigenvalues of the three scales were as follows: 12.48 (Factor 1), 1.78 (Factor 2), and 1.26 (Factor 3), explaining 62% of the total variance.

These findings of the factor analyses, and the values of the Cronbach’s alphas that were calculated for each factor and yielded very similar values to the ones found in the original studies, provide another confirmation to the content validity of the factors.

The correlation matrix of the independent variables and teachers’ job satisfaction revealed the following results: Teachers’ satisfaction was significantly correlated with teachers’ occupation perceptions ($r = .65$, $p < .0001$), transformational leadership ($r = .56$, $p < .0001$), participative style ($r = .35$, $p < .0001$), and transactional leadership ($r = -.21$, $p < .0001$). (See Table 3.)

The more the teachers perceived their occupation in terms of a profession, the more they perceived their school principals to be transformational leaders, the more they perceived their school principals to be transformational leaders, the more the principals were participative, and the less they exhibited transactional leadership, the greater their job satisfaction.

Path analysis was employed to test the model in Figure 1. This method, which assumes linear and nonrecursive relationships among interval variables, allows examination of the direct and indirect effects of the independent variables, principals’ leadership style, their decision-making strategy, and

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<td>2. Principal’s Transformational Leadership</td>
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<td>3. Principal’s Transactional Leadership</td>
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<td>4. Principal’s Autocratic-Participative Style</td>
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<td>5. Teacher’s Occupation Perception</td>
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NOTE: Numbers in parentheses are sample sizes.

**p < .0001.
teachers’ occupation perceptions, on the dependent variable, teachers’ job satisfaction. This technique allows the researcher to estimate the direct and indirect effects of variables in systems of structural equation models. Figure 2 depicts the results of testing the model reported in Figure 1 (using AMOS 3.61 of SPSS 8.0) with maximum likelihood as the method of estimation. The model shows an almost perfect fit with the data, \( \chi^2(1, N = 706) = .439, p = .51^{**} \).
The most salient finding is that teachers’ occupation perceptions strongly affect teachers’ satisfaction ($\beta = .51, p < .0001$). Teachers’ occupation perceptions are influenced by principals’ transformational leadership ($\beta = .33, p < .0001$) and by participative decision-making style ($\beta = .25, p < .0001$). Principals’ transformational leadership affects teachers’ satisfaction both directly ($\beta = .31, p < .0001$) and indirectly through teachers’ occupation perceptions ($\beta = .17, p < .0001$). The principals’ participative decision-making style affects teachers’ satisfaction only indirectly through teachers’ occupation perceptions ($\beta = .13, p < .001$). Principals’ transactional leadership affects teachers’ satisfaction negatively ($\beta = -.13, p < .001$). The model explains 54% of the variance of teachers’ satisfaction. It reveals that teachers’ satisfaction increases as they perceive their principals’ leadership style as more transformational and less transactional.

Analysis of the model by gender and religion revealed that female teachers derived more satisfaction from their work than did their male colleagues ($\beta = .07, p < .05$), and Jewish teachers were more satisfied than non-Jewish teachers ($\beta = .06, p < .05$). With regard to transactional leadership, male teachers perceived their principals more as transactional leaders than female teachers did ($\beta = -.17, p < .0001$), and non-Jewish teachers viewed their principals more as transactional leaders than Jewish teachers did ($\beta = .23, p < .0001$).

**DISCUSSION**

The most interesting finding of this study is the effect teachers’ perceptions of their occupation have on their job satisfaction. Their perceptions of occupational prestige, self-esteem, autonomy at work, and professional self-development contribute the most to job satisfaction. This finding supports previous research that revealed a significant positive relationship between aspects of the teaching occupation and job satisfaction (Goodlad, 1984; Poulin & Walter, 1992). This variable serves as a mediating variable between principals’ leadership style and teachers’ satisfaction. In this study, teachers reported feeling highly or very satisfied when their work gave them “a sense of self-esteem,” provided them with “opportunities for self-development,” gave them “a feeling of success,” and allowed them “to participate in determining school practices.” Such expressions of feelings about their work support theories of teacher job satisfaction, such as the two-factor theory that originated in the work of Herzberg et al. (1959). These researchers argued...
that the motivators, which refer to intrinsic aspects of teaching such as teachers’ self-growth, personal development, and recognition, tend to promote job satisfaction. Hygiene factors, which relate to external aspects of work such as poor working conditions, tend to result in teachers’ dissatisfaction (Graham & Messner, 1998; Sergiovanni, 1967). Future studies should investigate the concept of teachers’ job satisfaction by distinguishing its constituents, as has been done in numerous studies, such as Dinham and Scott (1998). In the present study, overall job satisfaction, incorporating self-fulfillment aspects with both internal and physical aspects of the work, was examined. Further research should be pursued to clarify the concept of job satisfaction because as reported by L. Evans (1997), there is a “heterogeneity among teachers with respect to what they found satisfying and/or satisfactory” (p. 327).

Limitations

Like all research, this study has certain limitations. First, a couple of factor loadings were below .5 and thus considered weak. Therefore, it is recommended that future research use instruments based on items that have higher factor loadings. Second, as indicated earlier, researchers suggested that transactional leadership, and especially the subfactor management by exception, entails some negative connotation in its scale items (e.g., Silins, 1994; Yukl, 1999). This is evident also in the phrasing of the scale items that compose this subfactor (e.g., “The principal focuses his or her attention on finding exceptions, deviations, and weaknesses in teachers”; “The principal does not hesitate to remark on mistakes and errors that call for his or her intervention”). Consequently, the definition of transactional leadership may present a problem of face validity that may influence the reliability of this construct. It is suggested that future research take into account this shortcoming of the instrument to improve the construct’s reliability. Last, with regard to the generalizability of the sample, it should be realized that because the sample was carried out only in the northern part of Israel, any attempt to generalize the study’s findings, conclusions, and implications to the whole population of teachers in the entire country should be approached with caution. Further research that will incorporate factors that ensure that the sample is representative will contribute to studying teachers’ job satisfaction in relation to principals’ behavior.

The model of the study demonstrates that the teachers’ perceptions of their principals and of their occupation contribute significantly to the explanation of the variance in job satisfaction. However, teachers’ perceptions are subjective, and it may be that their perceptions are affected by variables that were not examined in this study. With regard to the dichotomies of the leadership
styles and of the decision-making strategies, it is important to note that the context within which each principal acts may affect his or her adoption of the leadership style and decision-making strategy. For example, principals might be autocratic on some matters and participative on others, or with certain individuals as opposed to others. It would also be interesting to examine whether the same principals adopt different approaches depending on the context within the school (e.g., a young, growing school versus an old, established one) and outside it (e.g., a stable and supportive environment versus a fluid and demanding environment).

The data analysis indicated gender and religion differences with regard to both job satisfaction, though the magnitude was relatively low, and to teachers’ perceptions of the principal as a transactional leader. An analysis of the model revealed that female teachers expressed greater job satisfaction than did their male peers, thus supporting earlier studies (Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Kagen, 1983; Watson, Hatton, Squires, & Soliman, 1991). In addition, Jewish teachers expressed higher levels of job satisfaction than did the non-Jewish teachers. Perceptions of principals as transactional leaders were higher among male teachers and non-Jewish teachers and lower among female teachers and Jewish teachers. Before discussing the implications of these findings, it is important to note that there is mutual dependence between the two variables, gender and religion. As indicated, the overwhelming majority of the Jewish teachers (almost 90%) were women, whereas a very large majority of the non-Jewish teachers (about 70%) were men. Therefore, there is great similarity between the findings regarding gender and those related to the religion differences. These findings are not surprising as the poor infrastructure conditions of the non-Jewish schools, as compared to the Jewish schools, present a troubling reality of the school (Al-Haj, 1995). In addition, male teachers among the non-Jewish population choose this occupation as a last resort because of their inability to get a job that would fit their academic credentials and qualifications. Under these circumstances, the male, non-Jewish teachers feel frustrated and express greater dissatisfaction from their job. Support for the finding regarding the greater satisfaction of female teachers as compared to their male counterparts was also found in a study about the inner world of Israeli secondary school teachers (Kremer-Hayon & Goldstein, 1990). Examination of additional personal and school site variables in relation to the study variables is recommended for future research to deepen our understanding about teachers’ job satisfaction in Israel and in comparison with other countries.
Implications and Conclusions

The findings of this Israeli sample support the research work conducted elsewhere, which showed that teachers prefer to work with a principal who exhibits a transformational type of behavior rather than a transactional one. (This finding, however, should not be surprising because principals who act as transformational leaders seem to maximize the autonomy that teachers have long had. Given that the challenge for education is more in the area of how teachers can better coordinate their work rather than how they can maximize their autonomy, the finding regarding the teachers’ preference for transformational principals seems to reinforce organizational structures and functioning that may be becoming increasingly obsolete.) The study calls our attention to the inner world of teachers. It suggests that to increase teachers’ level of satisfaction at work, we need to pay attention to factors related to all aspects of the teaching occupation, especially those titled “professional,” as they refer to the characteristics of teaching as a vocation. Teachers’ perceptions of their occupation are highly significant in affecting their satisfaction from the job. This implication should be acknowledged by decision makers at the top level, such as governmental officers, and on the more local level, by supervisors and principals. The more the teachers perceive their teaching job as a profession and central to their lives, the more they will be satisfied with it. Moreover, to improve the general feeling of all teachers, school principals need to be more aware of how strongly their role and behavior affect teachers’ perceptions about their occupation—and their job satisfaction. Through transformational leadership and participative behavior, principals can develop and foster positive feelings and attitudes of teachers regarding their vocation. Viewing teaching as an occupation that confers a sense of self-esteem and professional prestige will lead the teachers to consider it as central to their lives and will thus increase their satisfaction from their work. Teachers’ satisfaction from the job is highly important for the nexus between teachers and students, for satisfied teachers will be more enthusiastic about investing time and energy in teaching their students. Hence, this study may provide the first step in a line of research relating principals to teachers to students. This could be accomplished through collecting data from the principals about their leadership styles, decision-making approaches, and demographics and how these variables affect the views of teachers about their satisfaction and, ultimately, the students and their learning as described in a self-reported survey. This next step in this line of research is especially valuable today, when the expectations of all the parties involved in the learning process are more elevated than ever before.
NOTE

1. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI), developed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1981), is based on the ratio of squared discrepancies to observed variances. It measures “how much better the model fits as compared to no model at all” (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993, p. 122). GFI range is between 0 and 1, where 1 indicates a perfect fit. The adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) takes into account the degree of freedom available for testing the model. The AGFI is bounded above by 1, which indicates a perfect fit. The root mean square residual (RMR) is the square root of the average squared amount by which the sample variances and covariances differ from their estimates obtained under the assumption that the model is correct. An RMR of 0 indicates a perfect fit. GFI and RMR are measures of goodness of fit per se, whereas AGFI is an index of parsimonious goodness of fit that takes into account the number of free parameters required to achieve a given level of fit (Loehlin, 1992, p. 75).

REFERENCES


