CHAPTER 5
Discussion
This chapter comprises of a discussion of the findings of the study on the three variables, of leadership effectiveness, school organisational climate and job satisfaction.

5.1: Hypothesis 1
There will be significant main and interaction effects of location and school type on teachers’ perception of leadership effectiveness of their principals.

The results of the analysis confirmed this partly as the location of schools had significant effect on communication component of leadership effectiveness while school type had significant effect on communication, nurturing orientation and conventional personality. The interaction effects of location and school types were significant for overall leadership effectiveness and its dimensions except communication.

The rural school principals were perceived to be more communicative than their urban counterparts. The mixed schools principals followed by girls’ schools were also found to be more communicative than boys’ school principals. Interaction effect of location and school types was not significant on communication. A closer look at the means revealed that although the interaction was not significant, rural mixed and rural girls’ school principals had higher scores on communication while urban girls and urban boys’ school principals communicated least. The urban mixed and rural boys’ schools principals had medium communication.

These findings could be due to various reasons which pertain to the culture of the community, the cultural nature of men and women in communication, the student and teachers’ personnel needs as well as the availability of information. To start with, the rural community is cohesive compared to the urban one. It is bound by common language (Kembo-Sure, 2002), shares the same values and attitudes and is influenced by the collectivistic spirit (Kenyatta, 1979). The community members, therefore, are more open to one another as collectivism and their socialisation demands. They may trust and share information freely without fear of repercussions. By extension, school governance benefits from the values of the community surrounding them. It is, therefore expected that the cohesive, trusting and sharing values would affect the communicative behaviour of the rural school principals. Principals in urban schools could be dealing with a heterogeneous school
community which has different values due to its earlier socialization. Feelings of mistrust could be prevalent among the members of such a community. The principals could therefore be hesitant in sharing information and may therefore seem to be less communicative.

Another reason for the differences could be because of the fact that women are more sharing and consultation oriented. Female principals may not find it difficult to consult with their teachers unlike the male principals who head boys’ schools. The socialisation of women was such that they had the role of teaching and advising their children (Kenyatta, 1979). In carrying out this role, they had learnt to be communicative. Men were not expected to talk too much in case they divulged information to “Mundu Muka”, meaning the woman who did not really belong and could inform her brothers in turn and come and take the man’s property (Kabira, 1994). They also were discouraged from talking to strangers. The cultural leaning of each group may have influenced how they communicated. The female principals, therefore, communicated more to their personnel than the male principals.

It is also possible that the principals in rural schools had access to most of the information that the teachers required. The rural school teachers hardly have time to go to towns in the administrative offices in the Ministry of education or the TSC where they could get information. They do not even have access to newspapers and they do not meet people from the education offices who can keep them informed. Due to this limitation, they are therefore, dependent on the principal who has more access to information and is willing to share it with them. On the other hand, the principals in the urban schools might not be the main source of information as the teachers have access to the audio and visual media as well as the Government offices which release policies in education. The principals may, therefore, not feel the need to communicate what could already be part of common knowledge. Teachers are not dependent on them. The urban principals may, therefore, be perceived to be less communicative.

Mixed school principals had need to communicate because they had both sexes which could be more difficult to manage perhaps because of the relationships that might thrive between the boys and girls at their age. The principals in mixed schools had the role of looking after both boys and girls. Each of these groups has different challenges so the principal had to communicate to them to ensure that there was no misunderstanding in the
school community. When the schools were mixed and rural, there was even more reason for the principal to be communicative.

When the schools were girls and also rural, there was need for the principals to be more communicative because girls have unique challenges of growing up and do not have other sources of information in the rural areas due to poverty and limited information sources. They lack of communication facilities. The principals in rural girls' schools had, therefore, to be more communicative in order to inform their student personnel. At the stage the girls are in life, they require a lot of communication. They have just attained puberty and they require to be informed of their maturity and how to deal with it. The mother, traditionally, was expected to teach her children these qualities and in the absence of the mother, the principal took up the role in the girls' schools which would perpetuate more communication.

Boys' school principals may not have needed to communicate too much because boys are normally expected to learn from the community that men do not talk too much. The male principal acts as a role model. Boys were expected to be adventurous and find out what ever they needed to know. Perhaps that is why even in rural areas, boys schools had only medium communication from the principals.

The urban single sex schools had the least communicative principals. Although the urban girls needed information, they had other sources provided by the urban channels of communication. The principals may have found no need to over communicate. Principals in urban boys' schools were the least communicative because they combined the issue of the available information in the city coupled with the fact that boys did not need as much information as girls.

Other researchers and leadership theorists highlight the need for communication characteristic in effective principals (Blasé and Kirby, 2000; Fox and Schwartz, 1965; Brock and Grandy, 2004; Brock and Grady, 2000; Heck, Larsen and Marcoulides, 1990; Marcoulides, 1993; and Bass, 1985). Corroborating this study finding, Fox and Schwartz, (1965) found that teachers expect the principal to afford them recognition, current information and opportunity for growth and development among other things. Communicative principal is able to sell his/her vision to the teachers and significant others hence every one in the organization knows where they are headed. When there is
communication in an organization, mutual trust and respect are valued by the subordinates and the teachers become more committed and cooperative in trying to achieve the organisational goals. However, Shukla (1981) found that there was no difference between urban and rural school principals' leadership effectiveness.

There was no significant difference between urban and rural schools in nurturing orientation. Principals in girls' schools followed by those in mixed schools nurtured their school personnel most. Principals in boys' schools nurtured their people least. The interaction effect between rural and urban schools indicated significant difference in nurture. Urban mixed and rural girls' school teachers experienced maximum nurture while rural mixed and rural boys experienced the least nurture. The urban single sex schools experienced medium nurture.

Principals in girls' schools nurtured their teachers and students most and they were followed by principals in mixed schools while the boys' school principals afforded least nurturance for their school community. The nurturing principals were good listeners, understood teachers and students problems, were not hasty in making decisions and were considerate. They were also friendly, warm and caring, kind, respected others and supported their people in all ways. Moreover, they did not discriminate in sharing resources, maintained rapport with everybody and were honest in dealing with people and resources. Principals in girls' schools, who were mainly women, were just themselves in care and nurture. This was learnt in childhood in their socialisation of looking after others. They were the directors of food supply, had the role of hospitality and rendering assistance to their neighbours, were the provider for their family (Kenyatta, 1979 and Kabira, 1994). They were expected to care and protect their girl child as she was seen as "lacking in depth, foolish and forgetful and had self destructive tendencies" (Kabira, 1994, pp. 81-81). This ingrained training may still be in the minds of the principals in girls' schools. It was natural for them to continue nurturance.

Although mixed schools took the second position in nurture, interaction revealed that it was not all mixed schools that nurtured their personnel. The rural mixed schools principals were actually the least nurturing while the urban mixed principals were the opposite. The urban mixed schools were in a more economically unstable situation, being in the city and not able to manage while everybody else was managing. Most of these schools were located
in the slum regions of the city and usually the students from less economic status families joined them. Some students could not even afford a mid-day meal. The students needed to be nurtured more than other students. Dufour (2004) pointed out that such schools had problems of attracting and retaining principals and teachers and had students who engaged in drug abuse and violence. The teachers posted to teach in these schools felt condemned as pointed out by those interviewed (PC). The mixed schools principals were more nurturing may be because of the difficulties experienced by their subordinates in teaching in challenging conditions. As Ginsberg (1966, p. 115) posited, the principal has to alleviate their fears and promote security in the insecure and hostile world.

The principal had to maintain rapport with every body, be very honest in dealing with them but with kindness and care without favouritism. Nurturing was necessary in order to help the students to be better than the community they came from. Mixed rural schools had completely different conditions from the urban mixed schools. They came from socially stable homes and though economic stability may have been lacking, at least they could afford a meal once a day and their parents were available for them unlike in the city where the parents engaged in dubious activities to earn a living and left their children to fend for themselves. Their parents were their role models. Nurturing rural mixed schools students was not therefore as necessary as in the case of urban mixed schools students. Nurturing students and teachers in urban mixed schools ensured a better working and learning environment.

On the other hand, teachers in boys schools did not need to be nurtured as the nature of their student body did not need nurturing. Teachers in urban and rural boys’ schools had perceived low level nurture. There is a possibility that boys’ schools experienced most indiscipline challenges emanating from their adventurous nature. Culturally, men and boys were supposed to be independent and courageous (Kenyatta, 1979; Kabira, 1994; Chesaina, 1994; Kipury, 1983). They were expected to find their way and not to cry like women. Boys are expected to be sturdy and strong so as to be able to defend their families (wife and children) and the country (Kenyatta, 1979). They, therefore, received minimum nurture from their principals. The boys may have been disciplined more than the girls.

Several other researchers supported nurturing subordinates. Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) found that successful principals were authentic helpers who were human beings first
and principals second, engaged in helping relationships between teachers and students. The success of the principals seemed to depend largely on the ability to listen and dialogue as well establish and maintain rapport. Noddings (1992) posited that leaders should adopt the ethic of caring, thus encouraging schools to become nurturing communities for children of all races, classes and gender. Sinha (1980, 1995) found that to be effective, a leader had to be nurturing and task oriented. Brock and Grady (2000) had placed on their checklist of effective principals the following characteristics: fair, helpful, collaborative, accessible, encouraging, welcoming, reliable, supportive, insist on respect and place teachers where they shine. These lists and findings on effective principals are similar to those presented in the nurturing dimension in the present study. There is agreement, therefore, that nurturing subordinates is an important factor in school leadership. In the present study, nurturing orientation was the most important factor. However, not all leaders in the sample nurtured their subordinates as shown. Although Shukla (1981) found that consideration was more dominant in principals of his study, he also found that teachers in girls’ schools perceived their principals as more initiating structure than those in boys’ schools.

The findings of the present study negated earlier findings by Njuguna (1998) and Asunda (1983) who found female principals to initiate structure more than male principals. This difference in findings could be due to the fact that more and more female teachers are getting into positions of leadership and are doing a better job in administration than their male counterparts (PC). This was conveyed to the researcher through discussions with educational managers and teachers. The female principals may have gained confidence and exercise what is in their nature as they no longer have to prove that they can manage (Shakeshaft, 1989). According to many theorists, females were more considerate due to their upbringing and socialisation.

There was no significant difference between urban and rural schools principals in conventional personality but principals in boys’ schools followed by those of mixed schools exercised maximum conventional personality. Teachers in girls’ schools perceived the least conventional personality in their principals. Further analysis revealed that it was the rural mixed schools followed by urban boys’ and urban girls’ principals who had superior conventional personality. Rural girls and urban mixed schools principals were lowest in this dimension. Rural boys’ school principals were medium. Conventional personality represents
being a disciplinarian and no nonsense person. The leader works hard, is available in schools to deal with issues, leads by example and is visionary. The leader knows students by name and is accessible to the school community.

Principals in rural mixed schools were high in conventional personality for two reasons. These schools were placed where culture of the Gikuyu community is still rife. The boys in the schools were expected to develop into dependable, self-managing and sturdy people who could protect their community and their families against attacks (Kenyatta, 1979; Kabira, 1994). These schools are community schools so they perhaps inculcate these values in their boy students. The training needed the principals to exercise conventional personality. The schools had both boys and girls. There could be indiscipline in the school community due to the presence of the two sexes emanating from their relationships. The principal had to be a disciplinarian and a no nonsense person in order to maintain discipline while at the same time being a role model. Most of these schools were also day schools and the principal had to work hard by being in the school early in order to increase contact time.

Urban boys’ and girls’ school principals exercised a high conventional personality. These schools were situated in the city where there are many attractions that could influence the students negatively. The students needed a disciplinarian and nonsense person to assist them. The urban boys were needier than the girls. This is because of the adventurous nature of boys coupled with city life which could influence the student into socially unacceptable behaviours. Dufour (2004) quoting Noguera about schools in urban neighbourhoods in the United States of America (USA) said that “schools are plagued with violence, bullying, vandalism, gang activity, poor attendance, low teacher morale, and inability to attract and retain strong principals”. Although, the situation in Kenyan schools may not have deteriorated to that level yet, particularly for the single sex schools, there are pointers to difficult situations. The principals had, therefore, to exercise conventional personality most in order to be effective. The teachers could also be influenced by the city and enticed to do business for extra earnings at the expense of the students due to the expensive city life. Only a leader who is considered to be a disciplinarian and a no nonsense person could be effective in these schools.

The rural girls and the urban mixed schools were in the lowest category in conventional personality. These schools were receiving maximum nurture from the principal.
Perhaps it was not possible to be very nurturing and at the same time be no nonsense and disciplinarian. The dimensions may be conflicting. Students in rural girl schools may have been submissive and more open to directions and suggestions by their superiors as the old Gikuyu customs and traditions demanded (Kenyatta, 1979: kabira, 1994). Indeed, Muranga, the rural district in the study was the “heart” Gikuyu land where cultural traditions were still rife. There was no cause for excessive discipline and control in these schools as the girls may have kept to the rules. Their needs were more advisory and any principal who was a no nonsense person and disciplinarian would not have been effective in these schools. However, all the other values such as hard working, availability and accessibility to the school community, role modeling and leading by example and being a visionary leader were required in the rural girls’ schools. The urban mixed schools had students with low entry points and may not have been very good performers. Their parents were not available for them and they may have been involved in antisocial behaviours such as alcohol consumption and drug abuse which is due to the influence of the community they came from. The girls in the urban mixed schools could be involved in sleaze and just like the boys may not have cared about education because their parents did not insist on it. Their parents gave them little or no support and were also not role models. Life outside school influenced their socialisation in school. They could be violent and undisciplined (Dufour, 2004). Over disciplining them could perpetuate further violence and perhaps make them drop out of school. The principals then had to nurture and encourage them, appreciate them by communicating with them while still disciplining them a little.

Teachers in these schools may have felt demoralised because of the conditions in which they taught and also due to the fact that the students were not attentive in their studies and their performance in examinations was low (PC). They felt condemned especially since transfers to better schools were not forthcoming. Disciplining and controlling such teachers who may have disengaged and suffered from ‘burn out’ could be a worthless exercise. Principals in these schools could also be demoralized by the conditions in their schools and since transfer may not be forth coming, they could also have disengaged. It was therefore not possible for them to work hard and come early to their stations, know their students by name, lead by example and be visionary.
Rural boys’ school principals were medium in their exercise of discipline. Perhaps these schools did not have too many challenges as their rural counterparts. Although they were in the rural areas where the community was still strong culturally, the community does seem to have influenced them.

Supporting conventional personality, Ramsey (1999) in his book “Lead follow or get out of the way”, emphasized that effective principals had to be visible, available, accessible and in touch with the students and the organization. According to him, face to face feedback, support, clarification and reinforcement were prerequisites to achieving the dream of the organization. Other studies on leadership influence included vision (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1986; Champy, 1995: Fullan, 1995; Terry, 1993; Wheately, 1992; Bhindi and Duignan, 1997; Patil, 2001) as central in leadership effectiveness. Hard work was cited as essential by Bezzina (2001). Johnson, (1984), Blasé and Roberts (1994) indicated that personal example favourably influenced teachers positively.

There was no significant difference between the overall leadership effectiveness, decision making, ethical leadership, and empowerment across location and school type. The principals’ behaviour was perceived to be almost the same in all schools in these dimensions. However, the interaction effect between location and school type was statistically significant for overall leadership effectiveness, decision making, ethical leadership, and empowerment, an indication that both location and school types were inter-dependent. Urban boys’ and girls’ school principals were superior in decision making as they were decisive, involved teacher in decision making, were strict and firm in implementation of decisions and implemented decisions made by the team. They consulted and accommodated others ideas and were organized. They also empowered their teachers, trusted the heads of departments in their work, delegated authority and provided assistance to the delegate. They were helpful to the delegatee and they also put teachers where they could shine. They were followed by rural mixed and rural boy’s schools. The least effective in these dimensions were the urban mixed and rural girls’ school principals.

This could be because urban boys and girls principals led in an environment of informed people and that they realized that they could not manage the schools alone due to the challenges involved in managing urban schools. In fact it would be safe to say that they shared leadership with their teachers so that the best could be done for their school.
community and also because they wanted their schools to favourably compete in performance with other schools. Most of the best performing schools were urban single sex schools.

Rural mixed school principals also shared leadership with their teachers because they had come from a community that practiced democratic leadership. The community formed small cells which they called “Kiama” which means council. There were councils for the family with the father as the head, councils for young men whose head was the most qualified in terms of their capabilities, the “Atumia” women council, the “Itwika” or the rulers of the clan who were responsible of giving guidance to the community, and “Athuri” council of elders. There were village councils (Kiama gia itura”, district council. “Kiama kia rogongo” sometimes referred to as committee. “Njama ya ita” or the council of war was supposed to take care of the security of the people and the national council “Ndundu” represented the entire population of the Gikuyu tribe. There were no inheritable positions and a person got the position of leadership by merit based on his/her individual behaviour to their group and the community at large (Kenyatta, 1979). The community had the right to recall, dismiss or suspend any of its representatives whose behavior was contrary to well established rules or conduct. It was the voice of the people or public opinion that ruled the Gikuyu country. Individualism and self-seeking were ruled out for every representative spoke in the name of his/her particular group in the name of the tribe. The principals in these community schools had to be democratic in leadership, hence upholding the community’s values. The community would question if the case was otherwise.

Rural mixed school principals exercised ethics most and were the overall most effective principals. They were followed by urban girls and urban boys’ schools. The least ethical and effective principals were the urban mixed and rural girls schools. The ethical and effective principals were disciplined, morally upright, held themselves with dignity commanded respect and were reliable. These were the qualities sought by the Gikuyu community in their leaders. It is no wonder that principals in the mixed rural schools were the most effective since these schools were started by the community and the community kept an eye on them. However, the girls mixed schools, which were mainly boarding schools kept to themselves as they did not want interference. Indeed, most of their school board members lived in the city and perhaps were not aware of a lot of what happened in the
schools. Urban mixed schools had multiple challenges which have been discussed earlier in this section.

To summarise this section, on overall leadership effectiveness, three models seem to be operating. The first model, formed by the most effective principals, comprised of the mixed schools, the urban girls’ and boys’ principals. They had low to medium nurture of their personnel and were superior in decision making, and conventional personality, ethical leadership and empowerment. The second model, which seemed to be the most ineffective in leadership, had rural girls and urban mixed school principals. These principals nurtured their personnel most, and had the least scores in decision making, conventional personality, ethical leadership, and empowerment. They were also the most communicative being only second to rural mixed in communication. The rural boys’ school principals had medium effectiveness. They were rated medium in all dimensions except in nurturing orientation and ethical leadership where they were a bit lower. The most effective principal in the sample was one who averagely nurtured his/her school personnel, one who was good in decision making and involved others, one who exercised conventional personality, ethical and empowered his/her staff by delegating and assisting them. Such a principal did not generally over communicate.

5.2: Hypothesis 2

There will be significant main and interaction effects of location and school type on teachers’ perceptions of school organisational climate.

The results of the analysis confirmed this hypothesis partly as there was a significant difference only in overall school organisational climate across the type of schools and interaction on humanized thrust, control and production emphasis. Location of schools had no significant effect on any of the school climate dimensions and overall school climate. Teachers in both rural and urban schools had nearly the same perception of the climates in their schools. Significant differences were found in overall school organisational climate across school types. The means indicated that boys’ schools had the most open climate while there was no significant difference between girls and mixed schools ($M_g = 123.74$, $M_b = 128.63$ and $M_m = 123.43$). Although there were no differences in school climate caused by location and school types in all the dimensions, humanized thrust, control and production
emphasis dimensions were significantly different when location and school types were considered together.

The urban single sex schools had superior humane climate compared to rural girls and urban mixed schools. The rural boys and rural girls had medium rating in the same dimension. The principals in the superior set used example by working hard themselves, were in the school before teachers arrived, had constructive criticism for which they explained the reason, and informed teachers of new ideas they had come across. They generally go out of their way to help teachers, look out for their personal welfare, evaluate the teachers strictly according to rules and invited their suggestions in scheduling activities. They prepare well before they speak in functions, inform teachers of results of a supervisor’s visit, and are easy to understand. The rural girls and the urban mixed schools had closed climate.

These results can be explained by the results of effective leadership. The single sex schools had the most effective principals while the rural girls and urban mixed had the least effective principals. This implies that effective leadership accounted for a high percentage of school climates. In the Kenyan schools, the principals who nurtured their teachers most (urban mixed and rural girls) were perceived by their teachers to create a closed climate while those who were ethical decision makers and exercised conventional personality as well empowered the teachers were seen to create an open climate. The open climate was authentic while closed climates were superficial and inauthentic. The open climate was encouraged culturally by the Kenyan Gikuyu community where public opinion was generally hailed (Kenyatta, 1979) rather than one man’s opinion. Decisions were made collectively and representatives in the councils were encouraged to make their contributions. If a person erred, it is the council or committee that made the decision on what punishment would be meted out rather than one person, the leader makes a decision. So the open climate was, therefore, very much in line with the upheld cultural values of Gikuyu community and other Kenyan communities in general. It is noted that although nurturance was encouraged in the family, too much of it created a closed climate in the institutions. Excessive communication acted detrimentally to open climate. It was actually ridiculed in the male Gikuyu species.

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Urban boys and rural mixed school teachers perceived a climate of control while teachers in urban girls and urban mixed perceived the least control in their schools. Teachers in rural girls’ schools perceived almost the same amount of control as those in urban girls’ schools which was relatively low. The findings can be explained from the effective leadership point of view. The urban boys’ schools and rural mixed schools principals were perceived as effective leaders and exercised maximum control of their institutions. This could be an indication that their effectiveness was coupled with control. Indeed as pointed out earlier, there was need for control in the urban boys’ schools due to the adventurous nature of boys who could be influenced into antisocial behaviour of the city life. The rural mixed schools exercised control so that they could be able to manage the difficult situation of having to deal with both sexes. Indeed, the principals in these schools were perceived as effective leaders because they controlled their students and teachers as upheld by the local community culturally.

Urban girls and urban mixed schools exercised the least amount of control. In urban mixed schools, control was required most because they had more challenges than any other type of school. These schools had laissez faire leadership whereby the principals seemed to let the schools be self managing. They did not do any thing unless when provoked and even then they nurtured instead of disciplining the culprits in case of eruption of violence. It is no wonder then that the schools were not sought by students and their parents and their students performed dismally in public examinations. In fact these schools were rife in abuse of intoxicating substances (drugs, alcohol, cannabis…). Although urban girls’ school principals were very effective leaders, they controlled their schools least. This could be because they did not find the need to exercise control as their students were already controlled, humble and submissive through their upbringing (Kabira, 1994; Chesaina, 1994; & Kipury, 1983). These schools were, however, top in humanized thrust which is an indication that a principal did not have to exercise tough control in order to have an open climate. Principals in these schools were moderate in nurturing and communication which could explain why they were effective. These schools, however, had high production emphasis.

Rural girls’ school principals seemed to control their schools to an extent considering that they were rated almost last in all leadership dimensions and in humanized thrust as well
as in production emphasis. There was no reason for these principals to control their personnel as their students were reticent and submissive culturally (Kabira, 1994; Kipury, 1983; & Chesaina, 1994). However there could be a possibility that the teachers could be using school time to do their personal chores at the expense of the students hence the need for control.

Rural boys’ school principals applied a reasonably high control on their school personnel. As pointed out before, those principals in boys’ schools needed to exercise control because of their student body tendencies to be adventurous. These school principals also emphasized production most as the Gikuyu culture required. They also had a reasonable humane climate. This may be why these schools were rated second to urban boys’ schools in climate openness.

Rural boys’ and urban girls’ schools emphasised production most. These schools were medium in controlling their personnel. The principals who controlled their personnel most (urban boys and rural mixed) were medium in production emphasis although those low in control were also low in production emphasis. There was no clear pattern in control and production emphasis. The only schools that were consistent were the urban mixed schools and rural girls’ schools who were lowest in all cases. The other schools emphasised production and controlled their personnel interchangeably. Culturally, the Gikuyu community allowed everybody to excel to their ability. The leader was chosen according to how much he/she managed difficult situations and how well they handled outsiders and strangers (Kenyatta, 1979). Principals in urban boys’ schools followed by rural mixed seemed to be able to use their leadership to control the situations and therefore create an open climate for their school communities. Rural boys’ and urban girls’ exercised production most although urban girls’ school principals did not find any need to control their people. Control and production emphasis depended on the different state of the school personnel, the leadership effectiveness, and culture of the community.

Indeed, the Gikuyu community emphasised high production. Even children participated in production from a very early age so that they trained to look for material wealth in order to be economically independent (Kenyatta, 1979). These children were allocated plots to cultivate although they were assisted by their mothers in planting and harvesting. When the boys grow up, they retain their plots and even the married girls are
free to continue cultivating their plots. Production emphasis was, therefore, cultural especially for the rural Gikuyu community. Those who were rich due to their hard work were praised in song and dance, stories and drama so that the youngsters could emulate them (Kenyatta, 1979; Kabira & Mutahi, 1988; Lusweti, 1984; Kabira, 1994; Kipury, 1983 and Sanday, 1981). Production emphasis was, therefore, perceived positively by the Gikuyu community and other Kenyan communities in general. This could explain why it was most emphasized by rural boys' school principals as well as rural mixed schools.

Though the interaction effect for overall school climate was insignificant across school type and location, both urban and rural boys' schools had the most open climate contrary to Kumaran’s (2003) finding that mixed schools had more open climate. Rural girls and urban mixed schools had the most closed climate that may have been perpetuated by their ineffective leadership. Mehare (1977) and Pandey (1981) found differences in school climate. Mehare (1977) in a similar study found that colleges of greater Bombay had more open climate than colleges in towns, while Pandey (1981) found that urban schools had better climate than rural schools thus contradicting Mehare’s findings perhaps because of the difference in the type of institutions. The findings in the present study and these two studies were all conflicting perhaps because of the type of institutions and that each group had different dispositions. However, Joshi (1980) found no difference between the rural urban divide.

5.3: Hypothesis 3
There will be significant main and interaction effects of location and school type on the job satisfaction of teachers.

The results partially confirmed this hypothesis. Urban school teachers were found to be significantly more satisfied with their present pay than their rural counterparts. There was no significant difference in job satisfaction across school types and the interaction effect between location and school types was also found insignificant. Teachers' salaries were raised by 150-200% in 1997(MOEST, 2003, July). This meant that teachers could afford more of the goods available in the market. Compared to the rural teachers, the teachers in the urban schools received a minimum of an extra eight to ten thousand as house allowance depending on their job groups. They were also better paid than most civil servants and other people in the city. If they compared their pay with that of other people with the same
education in the government, they would find that they were better off. This could have raised their status and self esteem, which resulted in experiencing more satisfaction with their pay. In fact, most teachers in the urban schools confirmed this in saying that they received more respect from their neighbours than before. Their rural counterparts may not have experienced the same challenge of being the most poorly paid because they were usually the highest paid in the rural areas, even before the increment.

There was no significant difference in overall job satisfaction and its factors other than pay. This could be because the intrinsic part of the teaching job which is the same all over and the teachers enjoy autonomy in their work. The opportunities for promotion were the same across the school types and location.

Though the mean differences were not statistically significant, the mixed schools had the least overall job satisfaction than the other two school types. This could be due to challenges of handling both boys and girls and their attendant problems. These schools have poor intake because single sex schools are more preferred by the students and their parents. There are also the problems of indiscipline as cited by Dufour (2004) which could be responsible for bringing the morale of teachers down as well their job satisfaction.

Insignificant interaction effects meant that location and school types affected the dimensions independently especially for satisfaction with pay. However, teachers in urban boys’ schools had higher scores in job satisfaction than any other category of schools followed by urban mixed and rural girls. The rural mixed schools had the lowest satisfaction scores followed by the rural boys’ schools.

The urban boys’ schools had superior leadership effectiveness and open climate. This may have translated to higher job satisfaction. However, rural mixed schools which had superior leadership effectiveness had the lowest job satisfaction. Perhaps it is because teachers perceived less humane climate and more control and production emphasis. This indicates that rural mixed school principals emphasized production at the expense of human relations. Although the Gikuyu community upheld control, and production emphasis, a certain amount of humane climate was required for the teachers and students to achieve the goals of the schools. This could explain why despite the fact these schools had superior leadership, the performance of their students was not comparable to that of urban single sex schools.
Urban mixed schools and rural girl's school teachers may be more satisfied as they compare themselves with teachers in other schools in terms of their input and what they got out of the job. They may have found that they are better off because they receive the same salaries as those teachers who worked hard in other schools. They also benefited from accelerated promotions that the TSC gave all teachers and the huge increase in salaries despite the fact that their input was less. Although the leadership in their schools was poor and the climate was closed, they may have consoled themselves with the high salaries and accelerated promotion and, therefore, higher job satisfaction. This could be an early indication that job satisfaction either does not necessarily depend on climate and leadership. There could be other factors that affect job satisfaction. Njoka's (2002) finding was negated by the results of the present study in that she had found rural teachers more satisfied with their pay than urban teachers.

5.4: Hypothesis 4
Teachers' perception of leadership effectiveness of principals and their schools' organisational climate depended on the principal's gender, age, educational level and administrative experience.

The results partly confirmed this hypothesis. Although Leadership effectiveness was not influenced by principal's personal variables, school organisational climate was affected by the principals' gender, age and administrative experience but not affected by educational level.

The gender of principals did not significantly influence their leadership effectiveness. Despite different orientation to their different roles, both male and female principals displayed effectiveness equally. This could be because the Kenyan communities handle public governance democratically (Kenyatta, 1979). Although the women were more nurturing in their families, they play a quiet role in governance. According to legends on the Gikuyu rule earlier, the community was believed to have been matriarchal until the women became too domineering. The women were overthrown by men at the time when they were all expectant with children. Since then, the male never allowed the woman to rule again (Kenyatta, 1979). The idea of women leadership in such institutions as schools is acceptable to the community especially because the woman was expected to be the teacher of her
family. As for the male principals, they were regarded as the natural leaders although it was also known that not all could lead.

Middlehurst (1997, p.10), observation supports the Gikuyu cultural perspective in leadership in saying that men have been regarded as the appropriate rulers and women who ruled must pass as men in order to rule effectively. Shakeshaft (1989) had a similar observation that women had to work harder in leadership in order to prove that they were capable of leading like men. Their male counterparts did not have the same challenge as they were the ‘appropriate and accepted’ leaders. The female principals may have felt the need to be autocratic and initiating structure because that is what was thought to be effective. However, the situation is changing and as women reach senior positions, they are able to demonstrate a mixture of approaches which combine masculine and feminine characteristics to good effect (King, 1993). Also, research has shown that different skills are now required of leaders (Kanter, 1983; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kotter, 1990) other than the traditional ones. The different skills include among others, ability to enthuse and empower others by building ownership and participation in decision making; to nurture and develop individuals; and to be willing to share information and operate in transparent manner; to be able to articulate values and develop culture through creation of shared feelings (Middlehurst, 1997, p.13). Middlehurst went on to say that the traditional masculine concepts of leadership are becoming outdated since they were too narrowly defined and that they may prove ineffective in future organizations. That future is now the present time. This could be why the leadership effectiveness shows no significant difference over gender in the present study.

Although there was no significant difference in effectiveness, female principals were perceived to be higher in nurturing orientation, ethical leadership and overall leadership effectiveness while male principals were higher in decision making, conventional personality, empowerment and communication. Bone (1997) pointed out that integrity featured as the key characteristic in surveys of employee expectation of their leaders. She went on to say that such integrity was understood as consistency and dependability, moral and intellectual honesty, with beliefs and values in evidence in day-to-day operation. She therefore supported the finding of the present study that female principals were higher in ethical leadership in saying that the characteristics were more female than male.
instrument and also that in the sample, there were few post graduate principals. There is need to replicate the study where there is a sufficient number of post graduate principals.

Experienced and inexperienced principals were by and large equally effective. The finding corroborated Singh’s (1978) findings. However, Njuguna (1998) had found more experienced principals higher on consideration dimension. It was expected that principals become more effective with the passage of time but some teachers pointed out that their principals did not change over the years and others said that their principals recycled their inefficiency instead of improving.

Male principals were found to significantly exercise control in their schools more than female principals. This means that male principals contacted the teachers every day, provided them with instructions for the operation of teaching aids, as well as with custodial service when needed and gave them sufficient time to prepare administrative reports. It was the role of men to ensure that their family members were doing as expected of them in the community (Kenyatta, 1979). At a very early age the male child in the community and indeed other Kenyan communities, were made aware, culturally, that they were responsible for the management of their community and had to control the actions of others to ensure that they did not shame the community (Kenyatta, 1979; Kabira, 1994; Chesaina, 1994; Kipury, 1983, Sanday, 1981). That is why they set up management councils at all levels. However, contribution in those councils and opinion sharing was democratic. When the male teachers show control dominance, they are doing what they have been socialised to do. It was noted that those schools, that were not controlled such as urban mixed and rural girls were not effective in performance. Control was a valued dimension in the community. However, this control had to be coupled with a humane climate for it to be effective.

Again it depended on the nature of the student body. The Male principals usually head boys’ schools and may have felt the need to exercise more control due to the fact that boys’ were seen to need a more firm control in order to follow the directions of their teachers than girls. The control in boys’ schools was needed even more in urban boys’ schools because schools in the city had a more challenging environment than in rural schools. In the city, there is an abundance of things that can be abused such as alcohol and drugs and other attractions that can affect the school communities. Girl’s schools may not have been affected in the same way as their socialisation was different. However, boy’s schools had been found
to enjoy a more open climate than girl's schools in this study. Supporting these findings, Middlehurst (1997) posits that common perceptions of appropriate leadership behaviours carry stereo-typically masculine overtones of command and control among others. Bone (1997) agreed with Middlehurst in saying that male principals base their leadership on position power and the right to compel compliance. Teachers' perception may be reflecting the societal value. However, Cheng (1991) had found that gender had no significant effect on schools' organisational climate while Pandey (1981) had found girls' schools better in organisational climate than boys' schools. These differences could be due to cultural differences.

Humanized thrust and control components of school climate were found to be significantly different across age of the principals. Humanized thrust followed a 'U' shaped pattern implying that when principals were appointed, they started their work with steam and vigour, giving example and being role models to the teachers and working hard. They did not expect the teachers to give more than they gave. However as they progressed in age, this vigor decreased to the lowest level at 41-45 years of age before picking up again around the retirement age although not to the same level. The control dimension followed the same pattern although it decreased for the oldest principals, an indication that the principals had a lot of energy when they began their principalship which declined as they advanced in age. It could be possible that the principals at the beginning were learning the school culture and allowed the status quo. However as they continued, they found the need to 'freeze' some parts of the school culture that they did not like in order to put in their own according to their values and vision. This is likely to cause stress to the staff and in the process the climate could go low (Schein, 2004). Once the new culture was learned and accepted, the climate started improving. The principals passed the same enthusiasm to the teachers and students and they reacted in the same way. Sharma (1974) found that age affected the disengagement dimension of organisational climate while Mehare (1977) found no effect on organisational climate by age. The difference in findings could be due to the difference in the two cultures within which the schools are situated. Indeed, as stated earlier, control has to go with humane climate otherwise it will make teachers disengage. Culturally, a young person to whom leadership is bestowed upon has to establish himself/herself as the leader. In doing so, the leader may look like he/she is the more controlling type. However, at the same
time, the leader has a lot of energy and leads the organization by giving example of hard work and modeling among other things.

Administrative experience of principals was found to have significantly affected psychological hindrance and intimacy components of school organisational climate. The rating of schools on psychological hindrance dimension fluctuated over different years of principals’ administrative experience. The reason could be that principals tried different methods of administration in the process of looking for a balance that would best fit their schools. They would sometimes insist on tasks being undertaken on a certain way but then change if the method chosen was not effective. In the process, the teachers may have experienced a high level of hindrance at times and low level of the same at some other time. Perhaps, the psychological hindrance experienced depended on the teachers’ motivation towards work. If the motivation is high the teachers may feel that dealing with paperwork and non-teaching responsibilities hindered their performance in teaching. The youngest principals in administration exerted medium psychological hindrance. Mehare (1977) had also found significant relationship between principals’ administrative experience and school climate in Bombay colleges.

Intimacy was highest in the schools led by principals with the least experience and decreased with increasing experience of principals. The least experienced principals were friendly to the teachers and were in the process of getting to know the best way to handle them. They may therefore, have encouraged intimacy among their teachers but must have changed this approach as they gained experience so that the intimacy decreased. The most experienced principals may have realized that too much intimacy was unhealthy for their schools and, therefore, discouraged it hence, the lowest level of intimacy among the teachers in schools led by the most experienced principals. Indeed, too much intimacy could interfere with performance. However, as observed by Goodlad and McMannon (2005), teachers’ work life whether novice or veteran has been solitary. It could, therefore, be a lonely job and a certain amount of intimacy among the teachers could reduce the loneliness.

Level of education of the principal was found not to have a significant effect on school climate. This could be because most secondary school principals in the sample were graduates (73%) while only a few had higher degrees (Masters) or no degrees. There was
therefore, not much difference in educational qualification of principals hence no difference in school climate was found by educational level.

5.50: Hypothesis 5

Teacher’s perception of leadership effectiveness of principals, school organisational climate, and teachers’ job satisfaction will depend on teachers’ gender, age, and educational level.

The results of the analysis partially confirmed the hypothesis as gender of teachers affected their perception of school organisational climate but not leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction. The educational level affected leadership effectiveness and school organisational climate and age affected the schools climate and job satisfaction.

5.5.1: Gender of teachers

The gender of the teachers had no influence on their perception of leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction but the male teachers perceived significantly higher psychological hindrance than female teachers. The male and female teachers rated their principals equally in leadership effectiveness. They were not biased in their assessment of their principals. Middlehust (1997, p.12) pointed out that some studies had found that there was subjectivity in assessment by teachers of their principal’s effectiveness depending on gender of the teacher and the principal’s - male teachers evaluating the leadership of women principals rated them less favourably than did their female colleagues. Middlehust’s conclusion was not corroborated in the present study. There is evidence that there may have been a bias in earlier studies (Asunda, 1983; Kariuki, 1998) but the culture seems to be changing and accepting that women make effective leaders of organisations.

There was no difference in male and female job satisfaction. Kenyans valued work as the community insisted from the beginning that those who did not work should not be provided with meals (PC). Even small children are involved in economic activities by the family in order to assist them learn to value work and production (Kenyatta, 1979). Those who worked hard were praised in drama and song and they feature significantly even today in oral literature. The culture is strongly encouraged to this day as seen in drama and traditional dance competitions in schools and colleges (PC). Teachers were treated alike by the TSC and the Ministry of Education. They were given almost equal teaching load as spelt out in the regulations governing teaching. They were also promoted equally especially in the
recent past when they were given accelerated promotions as well as huge increases in salaries. Both men and women had equal chances of being allotted school houses. This could perhaps explain why male and female teachers were equally satisfied.

The results in job satisfaction could also be due to the fact that principals had been found to be equally effective in leadership. They would probably openly praise both female and male teachers for good performance and reprimand them in private where necessary. The principals empowered them almost equally and allowed them to participate in decision making. Indeed, teachers were involved in making decisions about their work, had autonomy in planning it, and generally participated in managing the school. Even when different leadership styles were used, as seen from the different factors of leadership effectiveness, teachers were still equally satisfied with their job. This finding shows that although leadership effectiveness was important to job satisfaction, it was not the only factor. The present findings were corroborated by Madera’s (1995), Macaria’s (1984) and Brief and Oliver (1976) findings. Njoka (2002) found that male teachers were significantly more satisfied than female teachers with overall job satisfaction in Embu district. However, Bogler (2001, 2005) got opposite findings that female teachers were significantly more satisfied with their teaching job than male teachers in Israel, reasoning that male teachers may have felt over qualified for the job, having entered the profession due to lack of other jobs. Borg and Falzon (1989) had similar results. Brookhart and Loadman (1996) found male teachers in elementary schools lowest in job satisfaction and female teachers in high schools highest in job satisfaction. Koustelios (2001) found gender a predictor of job satisfaction. The findings on effect of gender were therefore inconsistent. Schwab and Wallace, (1974) had also found female teachers satisfied with their pay than male teachers reasoning that perhaps the women teachers found themselves better off than others around them.

Male teachers experienced more psychological hindrance than female teachers. They perceived that rules set by the principals were never questioned and principals exerted pressure for work to be done their way. They felt that administrative work was burdensome and that they were not allowed to participate in staff meetings which were principal’s reports and ran like business meetings. They were not allowed to participate in decision making as principals scheduled work for teachers and made all classroom schedules. Male teachers
been submissive and may not have minded others making decisions because such was their socialisation (Kabira, 1994). The Gikuyu community in Kenya was used to democratic leadership (Kenyatta, 1979). A Gikuyu man would, therefore, have been very much perturbed by the scenario in this case. While the woman would observe the same thing, she would not say or complain because her socialisation was such that she would prefer to talk less. In fact her name was “Mutumia”, referring to her state of not opening her mouth to say whatever she knew especially in public. Negating these results, Gandhi (1977) found no significant difference in teachers’ perception of school organisational climate by gender.

5.5.2: Educational level of teachers

Educational level of teachers significantly affected their perception of leadership effectiveness in decision making and overall leadership effectiveness of their principals. It also affected the psychological hindrance and control dimensions of school climate. Job satisfaction of teachers was not affected by their level of education. The teachers with the highest education rated their principals poorly in decision making and in overall leadership effectiveness while they perceived maximum psychological hindrance in the schools though the control was less. On the other hand, the middle education level teachers perceived maximum effectiveness in decision making and overall leadership, least psychological hindrance but maximum control. The lower level educated teachers perceived slightly lower effectiveness in decision making and overall leadership, maximum psychological hindrance and least control.

It looks like when teachers had higher education, there was a possibility that they expected more from the principals in their effectiveness but found them ineffective. Perhaps the principals did not involve them in decision making, and did not implement their suggestions. There is also a possibility that they did not empower them or delegate responsibilities to them but rather used the teachers with the same education with them. The lowest educated teachers may have been slightly involved but not at the same level with the middle level education teachers. Teachers experienced hindrance climate depending on how they perceived leadership effectiveness. Those with medium education perceived least hindrance while those with higher and lower education perceived maximum hindrance. The
highest and the lowest educated teachers were least controlled but the medium education teachers were maximally controlled. This could mean that principals had failed to harness all the resources they had in their teachers and had ignored those with the least education. The most educated teachers felt sidelined and, therefore alienated. The middle education level teachers were the most involved in the schools, hence they experienced least hindrance. One could say that they were the ruling class in the schools. However due to their closeness with the principals, they may have experienced that the principal was controlling them while the other teachers may have felt ignored or sidelined. The teachers with Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree did not properly fit in either group. They experienced maximum psychological hindrance and found the climate less controlled. As these teachers were not trained in teaching skills, they were probably not involved in many activities.

High education is sought in Kenya. Indeed, the first president of the nation stressed that the people should endeavour to learn in order to conquer ignorance, poverty and disease and be ready to take over from the colonialists (PC). The Gikuyu community started its schools to educate their children who were refused entry into the “Mzungu” meaning white people schools even before independence. Despite lack of jobs, the people still seek education. The current president has a penchant for the educated to be engaged in administrative matters. There are, therefore, many teachers who have for post graduate education in the local universities. The principals may, therefore, have felt threatened by those who had more education than them, perhaps fearing that their positions could be jeopardised. The principals may have felt that if they empowered the teachers with high education, they could be assisting them to climb higher than them.

The findings in job satisfaction were corroborated by Bogler’s (2005) and Njoka’s (2002) findings in Israel and Kenya respectively. However, Bogler had found Arab teachers in Israel less satisfied with their job because they were overqualified for the teaching job, having taken up teaching only because there were no other jobs. Mandera’s (1995) finding that there were significant differences in job satisfaction by educational level of teachers in Nairobi negated these results. Mandera contended that those teachers with higher education had better chances of promotion. Mandera’s study and the present study are about ten years apart since. At the time of Mandera’s study, there were fewer people with higher education and perhaps more places to fill. The case is different today. It was envisaged that those with
higher education would have higher opportunities of promotion than those with lower education.

5.5.3: Age of teachers

Age of teachers significantly affected their perception of school organisational climate and job satisfaction but not leadership effectiveness. There was no significant difference in teachers’ perception of leadership effectiveness of their principals by different ages. This may signify that both young and old teachers were treated equitably by principals. It could also mean that the young teachers did not know what to expect.

Age of the teachers affected their perception of production emphasis in their schools. The youngest teachers perceived that their principals insisted that they work to full capacity, giving them suggestions to correct their work, gave them extra duties and kept reminding them of their duties. This perception decreased with increased age to reach a minimum at 31-35 years before rising and stabilizing at the highest age. Job satisfaction followed almost the same “V” pattern but it was spoilt at the middle age so that a “W” pattern was formed. The youngest teachers started their job with enthusiasm at a high level but it soon diminished to a minimum only to pick up later. If age 36-40 years could be scrapped, the shape would be like that of production emphasis. These two dimensions are related. When teachers joined the profession, they were quite enthusiastic to work. They were overloaded by being given maximum load over and above the older teachers. At the same time, they were learning the job and induction may not have been so well carried out. They may therefore, have experienced maximum production emphasis climate. As they got used to the work, they may have perceived less emphasis on performing the job. At the same time, they may have observed that their expectations of the job were not met, hence reduced satisfaction with their work. As they continued teaching, they may have adjusted their expectations of the job in order to fit properly into the system with the consequent rise in job satisfaction. Older teachers may have slackened in their performance. Another reason could be that they were thinking of their retirement and spent less time on school work besides just slowing down due to age. They therefore have to be reminded now and then about their responsibility hence their perception of high production emphasis. Indeed, Goodlad and McMannon (2005) observed that new teachers were given the highest assignments where preparation was also required. These teachers were also not inducted properly and it was like
they were being punished for joining the profession. Herzberg et al. (1957) and Hunt and Saul (1975) found the “U”-shaped curve in satisfaction of male workers by age. It is possible that satisfaction with the job decreased because the young teachers could not cope due to lack of proper preparation in teaching colleges for their role in teaching, overload and poor or no induction in their teaching schools (Goodlad and McMannon, 2005). Group 36-40 year’s old teachers, seemed a misfit in the set up perhaps because their satisfaction increased suddenly while that of the other teachers remained low. It is possible that the oldest group of teachers enjoyed good relationship with superiors and associates, had selected the profession had gained experience. They could be the most senior teachers in their schools, having been promoted in the course of time. Those who had not got promotion, though experienced, might not be satisfied.

The significance of satisfaction with work on the present job and not with any other job factor could be because teachers mainly cared about work in their job intrinsically and not extrinsically. Several studies supported the findings of this study. Macaria (1984) had found the Nairobi secondary teachers slightly dissatisfied with the job but the teachers above 46 years old were the most satisfied with teaching. Dinham and Scott (2000) found that teachers in New Zealand and Australia were most satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their job such as students’ achievement, masterly of skills and self growth among others. Dinham (1995) study supported the results of this study fully. Novice (young) teachers were satisfied according to him when the learning environment was pleasing and they experienced success in performing classroom-level tasks. Veteran (oldest) teachers were satisfied when they successfully accomplished school-level activities such as heading a department or receiving a higher academic degree. Strivastava (1982) found that teacher’s age was associated with job satisfaction. Borg and Falzon (1989) in Malta also found significant differences in job satisfaction of teachers by experience. The most experienced, (>20years), who were also the oldest (presumably), found their job least satisfying. This study negated the findings of the present study. Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990) and Bogler (2001, 2005) found that Israel teachers’ age did not affect their job satisfaction although the teachers were satisfied with the job as a whole. Madera (1995) had found significant differences in job satisfaction by age in Nairobi. However, he had found that 60.2% of teachers in Nairobi were not satisfied with their job.
Other studies had found age to affect satisfaction with other dimensions of job satisfaction. Koustelios (2001) found that experienced teachers were satisfied with supervision and promotion. As working experience increased, satisfaction with supervision and promotion increased. Similar findings were by Maghradi (1999) who reported greater satisfaction with supervision among employees with greater experience. Experience in this case can be seen as the advanced age of teachers who were reported here as significantly satisfied with work on the present job. Macaria (1984) had found that salary (pay) and opportunities for promotion were dissatisfiers but relations with colleagues (coworkers) as a satisfier among others in Nairobi. Koustelios (2001) got this same result that Greek teachers were dissatisfied with their pay and promotional opportunities. Njoka (2002) found no significant difference in overall job satisfaction of heads of department by age. Generally, more studies supported significant difference in satisfaction due to age/experience but the others cannot be ignored. However, perhaps it is not age per se that make the difference but that the values and expectations are different at different ages due to the groups a teacher associated with.

5.60: Hypothesis 6
There will be a significant relationship among teacher’s perception of leadership effectiveness of principals, school organisational climate and job satisfaction.

The results of the analysis confirmed the hypothesis to a very large extent.

5.6.1: Leadership Effectiveness and School Organisational Climate
Leadership effectiveness enhanced school organisational climate in the entire sample. An increase of effectiveness resulted in an increased school climate. All dimensions of leadership effectiveness related to dimensions of leadership effectiveness except production emphasis and relationship with intimacy and disengagement were weak. Production emphasis was independent of leadership effectiveness. Relationships between nurturing orientation and communication with school climate were negative while those of leadership effectiveness with psychological hindrance and disengagement were also negative. This is an indication that they affected school climate and leadership effectiveness negatively. Production emphasis may not have been valued by teachers.

Nurturing would, therefore, create dyads and ‘inner circle’ formed by those close to the principal which is unhealthy for an organization. On the other hand, communication if
not properly channeled could cause poor health in an organization. Some principals do not keep confidentiality and have a tendency of sharing everything they learn about their teachers or their intentions. Although nurturing orientation was valued in the family in the Kenyan culture, it may not have been valued in the organization for reasons given above. Indeed, the schools where nurturing was prevalent were found to be ineffective. Communication was not valued by the Gikuyu Kenyan community especially to strangers and women (Kabira, 1994). Therefore, nurturing orientation and communication were seen to be valued less in more effective schools. Similarly, climate dimensions of psychological hindrance and disengagement reduced principal's effectiveness. This is because, when teachers perceived the principal as not allowing autonomy and participation, they withdraw from school activities and the principal fails to influence them to accomplish the school goals. Teachers just comply because the principal has position power. Other researchers corroborated the findings that leadership effectiveness affected school climate (Cheng, 1991; Darji, 1975; Sharma, 1975).

5.6.2: Leadership Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction

Leadership effectiveness enhanced overall job satisfaction of teachers, 'work on the present job', 'principals' supervisory behaviour' as well as 'opportunities for promotion' in the entire sample. When leadership effectiveness of principals increased, it resulted in an increase in job satisfaction of teachers. Satisfaction with coworkers and present pay was independent of perceived leadership effectiveness. All the leadership effectiveness dimensions except nurturing orientation related to job satisfaction. However, communication related negatively which meant that increased communication resulted in decreased satisfaction with the teaching job. Job satisfaction was independent of nurturing orientation. This is a confirmation that nurturing orientation and communication were not valued by Kenyan teachers although they noted that the two were necessary for leadership effectiveness in some schools. Several researches corroborated these findings. Morris and Sherman (1981) found job satisfaction to be affected by strong principal leadership. Evans' (1999, p.17) research revealed that the greatest influences on teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation were school leadership and management. Evans (2001) also found in a comparative study that leadership influenced job satisfaction indirectly through changing the work contexts. Bogler (2001) found that principal's transformational leadership affected
teachers' satisfaction with their job directly and indirectly through their occupational perceptions.

Teachers were satisfied with work on the present job, opportunities for promotion and principals' supervisory behaviour. Imper, Neidt and Reyes (1990) found that job satisfaction was related to participation in decision making. Sadler (1970) noted that employees preferred a leader who can be consulted in decision making. There are many studies that show that a considerate supervisor is preferred (House, Filley and Kerr, 1971; Warr and Wall, 1975) by employee but other studies indicate that this is not always the case (House, 1971 and Weed et al. 1976) especially when the employees are highly skilled as in the case of teachers. The study here indicated that teachers were satisfied if their principals were hard working and do not pamper teachers unnecessarily. Kouvelios (2001) found Greek teachers satisfied with their work and supervision and dissatisfied with pay, promotional opportunities and working conditions; Oshagbemi (1999) got findings similar in UK academics, and Dirham and Scott (2000) found school executives in New Zealand and Australia satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their job.

5.6.3: School Climate and Job Satisfaction

School organisational climate related positively and significantly with job satisfaction of teachers in the entire sample. School climate related with work on the present job, principal's supervisory behaviour and coworkers. When the principal was considerate and active, she/he expected others to be equally active and does not expect the teacher to give more than her/him. The esprit of teachers is high and teachers get attention from the principal, supervision is meaningful and not for witch hunting. In such a case, the teachers feel that their social as well as developmental needs are fulfilled and this results in high satisfaction with the job. Other researchers corroborate this finding. Schwandt, (1978) found that an open climate related to greater satisfaction for teachers. Sharma and Gaba (1989) found significant relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. Teachers' satisfaction related to esprit, thrust and consideration, (Sharma, 1975). Mehare (1977) found that college climate was closely associated with teachers' morale which is related to job satisfaction. Pandey (1989) in Allahhabad district in Indian secondary schools found high teacher morale being associated with open climate. High morale and job satisfaction were positively related. Mehta (1977) and Pillai (1974) had also agreed with him.
To summarise, the hypothesis was upheld. Leadership effectiveness affected job satisfaction directly and indirectly through school climate. The effect was found to be equivalent.

5.7: Hypothesis 7

The relationship among the principal’s leadership effectiveness, organisational climate and job satisfaction varied according to location, school type and gender. This hypothesis was partially confirmed by the findings.

5.7.1: Rural and Urban Comparisons

Leadership effectiveness was related to school organizational climate in both rural and urban schools. The relationship in rural schools was stronger than in urban schools. In rural schools, production emphasis and intimacy were low while in urban schools, intimacy and disengagement were absent especially in the schools where principals were perceived to be more effective. The finding that where principals were nurturing and communicative was predominantly closed type was confirmed in both locations.

In rural schools, overall job satisfaction and its dimensions were not affected by leadership effectiveness and except “work on the present job” and “principal’s supervisory behaviour”. They related weakly. In urban schools, job satisfaction strongly related to leadership effectiveness. Satisfaction was in work on the present job, opportunities for promotion and principal’s supervisory behaviour. However, Nurturing by principals did not lead to job satisfaction in urban schools. Leadership effectiveness was more central in urban set ups than in rural set ups in determining teachers’ job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction was impacted on by school climate in both rural and urban schools although the impact in urban schools was higher than in rural schools. For both rural and urban schools, the job satisfaction was in ‘work on the present job’ and ‘principal’s supervisory behaviour’ but ‘opportunities for promotion’ also featured in urban schools. The relationships were indeed very weak in rural schools. Only production emphasis and humanized thrust related with job satisfaction in rural schools while all school climate dimensions except psychological hindrance, disengagement and intimacy had not related to job satisfaction in urban schools.

It may be concluded that job satisfaction in rural schools was not affected much by the two variables of leadership effectiveness and school organizational climate while the
opposite was happening in urban schools where both leadership effectiveness and school climates affected job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was influenced more by leadership effectiveness than by school climate in urban schools. Other conclusions could be that leadership effectiveness affected job satisfaction directly and indirectly through school climate especially for urban schools.

The teachers in the rural schools did not depend on leadership effectiveness for overall satisfaction and opportunities for promotion. In fact, the rural teachers were so comfortable in their job that they did not seek promotion as they may get transferred to other schools far from their home which may affect their businesses and household work. Compared to urban teachers, the rural school teachers lived either in their own homes or in rented accommodation that was cheaper. These teachers spent less on commuting and, therefore, they did not need as much money as the urban teachers may need. Moreover, they run their own private businesses such as “matatu” which connotes local mini-bus transport ventures. Therefore, it really did not matter to them how the principals managed the school for their satisfaction.

These findings were in corroboration with the existing literature that leadership affected organisational climate (Darji, 1975; Mittal, 1975; Sharma, 1975; Darji and Dogre, 1982; Sharma, 1974; Patel, 1974; and Cheng, 1991). However, when nurturing orientation increased, production emphasis would decrease because the two do not go together although Sinha (1980) suggested that NT was the most effective style in Indian culture. In Kenya, which is also a collective culture (Kenyatta, 1979), this was not the case as those who nurtured were perceived not to emphasis production hence reducing performance or organizational effectiveness. The superior communicativeness of the rural schools did not influence job satisfaction positively perhaps because in the rural schools, communication was not culturally valued (Kabira, 1994; Kenyatta, 1979). It may have increased intimacy while creating a closed climate not conducive to work.

5.7.2: Relationships by School Type

Leadership effectiveness affected school organisational climate in all types of schools. In girls’ schools, the relationships were lowest followed by those in mixed schools while in the boys’ schools, the relationships were highest. In girls schools, the climates of intimacy, production emphasis, disengagement and esprit were not affected by leadership
effectiveness while in boys schools, intimacy and production emphasis were not affected by leadership effectiveness. In mixed schools, four dimensions of school climate such as intimacy, production emphasis, attention and disengagement did not relate with leadership.

In general, decision making, conventional personality, ethical leadership and empowerment enhanced school climate while nurturing orientation and communication had debilitating effects. The boys' schools had the strongest significant relationship followed by mixed schools and girls' schools had a weaker relationship. The reason for this could be that principals in boys' schools were the lowest in nurturing orientation and communication which had a debilitating effect and highest in decision making, conventional personality and empowerment all of which were enhancers. The principals in girls' schools were highest in nurturing orientation which had a negative impact and mixed school principals were highest in communication which affected climate adversely. It was envisaged that leadership effectiveness would influence school climate and these results confirmed it. However, nurturing orientation and communication acted against an open climate instead of enhancing it. This could be because as pointed out before, that in Kenya, the two were perceived negatively as they result in a non-productive vicious environment of mistrust and favouritism. Teachers confirmed this in their discussion with the researcher.

More dimensions of school climate related to overall leadership effectiveness for boys' schools than for either mixed or girls' schools. This confirms that boys' schools had a stronger relationship between leadership effectiveness and organisational climate. Boys' schools had also been found to have a more open climate than the other two types of schools. Humanized thrust, psychological hindrance and control related to overall leadership effectiveness in all schools. Esprit did not relate to leadership effectiveness in girls' schools while it did in all the other schools. This was serious because open climate depended on humanized thrust and esprit. When humanized thrust and control increased, leadership effectiveness increased. An increase in psychological hindrance reduced leadership effectiveness for all schools. Control dimension seems to be valued in Kenya whereas in Western countries it seems to be looked at negatively. Control was important for the Kenyan schools and a leader who exercised a reasonable amount of control in the schools was viewed as effective. The culture stressed control as a desirable value in effective organisations (Kenyatta, 1979). The humanized thrust and psychological hindrance acted
according to expectation by enhancing and reducing leadership effectiveness respectively in all school types. Climates of production emphasis and intimacy did not seem to be affected by leadership effectiveness in all schools. In fact these two climates were not valued in schools of all types as teachers seemed to be already motivated enough intrinsically. Intimacy was discouraged by most school principals especially in the city schools as it interfered with teaching time although a certain amount was perceived to be necessary. Teaching is a very demanding job and there might not be enough time to socialise unless teachers take students time to do so. It was more prevalent in rural schools because teachers lived nearby or in school houses and could meet in the evenings after schools. The same was not the case in urban schools where teachers lived far apart. Urban teachers may have looked for intimacy elsewhere.

Leadership effectiveness enhanced teacher's job satisfaction in girls, boys and mixed schools. In boys' schools, principal's supervisory behaviour related with leadership effectiveness. Work on the present job that related to leadership effectiveness in girls' schools. In the mixed schools, principal's supervisory behaviour and opportunities for promotion related to leadership effectiveness. All leadership effectiveness dimensions related to job satisfaction in boys' schools. Nurturing orientation and communication were diametrically opposite to job satisfaction in both girls and boys schools but in mixed schools, nurturing orientation contributed significantly to job satisfaction. The more the principal nurtured them, allowed them to participate in decision making, was decisive, and empowered them to act, the more these teachers were satisfied with the overall job. Nurturing orientation was most appreciated in mixed schools. The challenges in these schools required a different orientation in leadership. This compared to the Indian society whereby only naturant task could render a leader effective (Sinha, 1995).

Overall job satisfaction related to school organisational climate in all school types; boys', girls' and mixed schools, although the relationship in mixed schools was low and insignificant. This could be because the mixed schools had the most closed climate which could not enhance job satisfaction. In fact, no climate factors contributed to overall job satisfaction in these schools. Boys' schools had the most open climate followed by girls' schools. The teachers were relatively satisfied with the job. School climate in boys' schools related to three job satisfaction factors viz., work on the present job, principals supervisory
behaviour and to a lesser extent coworkers while in girls schools it was related to work on the present job and principal’s supervisory behaviour. In mixed schools, only principals’ supervisory behaviour related to school climate. The difference in variation could be because teachers in boys’ schools were slightly more satisfied than teachers in girls’ and mixed schools. Boys’ school teachers were satisfied in three dimensions of the job while girls’ schools were satisfied in two factors and mixed schools with one factor.

In conclusion, leadership effectiveness affected job satisfaction of teachers directly and indirectly through school organisational climate for single sex schools. For mixed schools, leadership effectiveness affected job satisfaction directly. Single sex school teachers’ job satisfaction was more influenced by school climate than by leadership effectiveness. In girls schools both leadership effectiveness and school climate influenced job satisfaction almost equally.

Teachers in girls’ schools were satisfied with work on the present job and principal’s supervisory behaviour while those in boys’ schools were satisfied with work on the present job, principal’s supervisory behaviour and to lesser extent coworkers. Teachers in mixed schools were satisfied with opportunities for promotion and principal’s supervisory behaviour. The finding for mixed school teachers is disturbing in that they did not find teaching satisfying like all the other teachers. Except for mixed school teachers, the other teachers’ satisfaction is in agreement with research. Organisational behaviour researchers and theorists agree that teachers were satisfied with the intrinsic values of their job (Boggler, 2001; and Koustelios, 2001). Teaching is a job, which affords teachers use of their skills in the job and autonomy in decision making about their teaching methods. It is also possible to attain success in the achievement of students which could be related directly to the teacher’s hard work. The job therefore afforded teachers esteem and recognition. All teachers in the sample were in agreement that they were satisfied with principals’ supervisory behaviour which was in agreement with literature and previous research in the area (Koustelios, 2001 and Brookhart and Loadman, 1996). Opportunities for promotion did not play a significant role in satisfaction except in mixed schools perhaps because promotion of teachers has been given to all teachers in the last three years. Teachers have been promoted without doing interviews. Teachers in mixed schools benefited from the policy on promotion. In the past, very few teachers in the mixed schools were promoted due to their poor performance judged
by how many of their students joined university. The change in policy on promotion could have caused their satisfaction with opportunities for promotion.

5.7.3: Relationships by gender

Leadership effectiveness and school organisational climate related to each other for both male and female teachers. The relationship between the two variables was stronger for male teachers than for female teachers. However, while all the climate dimensions related with overall leadership effectiveness for male teachers, for the female teachers, production emphasis, intimacy, esprit and disengagement did not relate with leadership effectiveness. This may have affected the overall relationship. Male teachers perceived a more open climate than female teachers. It could be because in most male schools, the relationship between school climate and nurturing orientation as well as communication, which had debilitating effect on climate, was low but high for female teachers.

Strong relationships were found in humanized thrust, psychological hindrance, and control for both male and female teachers and esprit was included for male teachers. No relationships were found between leadership effectiveness with intimacy and production emphasis, esprit and disengagement for female teachers. Production emphasis and intimacy related weakly for male teachers. This may be why the impact was much lower for female teachers.

Leadership effectiveness influenced female job satisfaction much more than it did for male teachers. For female teachers, leadership effectiveness related significantly and positively with work on the present job, opportunities for promotion, and principals supervisory behaviour but negatively with present pay. Principal’s supervisory behaviour related to leadership effectiveness for male teachers. However, the school organisational climate related significantly and strongly with job satisfaction for male and not for female teachers. This could be because the school climate was perceived to be open by male teachers while it was found closed for female teachers. For male teachers, school climate influenced satisfaction with work on the present job and principals’ supervisory behaviour. Only principal’s supervisory behaviour was influenced by school organizational climate for female teachers. Only production emphasis related with overall job satisfaction for female teachers while all school organisational climate dimensions except psychological hindrance, disengagement and intimacy enhanced job satisfaction for male teachers.
This could be an indication that male teachers’ job satisfaction was more influenced by school climate than by leadership effectiveness. However, both leadership effectiveness and school climate influenced job satisfaction for male teachers. School climate had no effect on female teachers’ job satisfaction. An early conclusion could be made that leadership effectiveness influenced job satisfaction directly and indirectly through school climate for male teachers. For female teachers job satisfaction was mainly influenced by leadership effectiveness. This could explain why male teachers were slightly more satisfied with their job than female teachers. Other researchers had contradictory findings.

Bogler (2001) and Koustelios (2001) revealed that female teachers derived more satisfaction from their work than male teachers and they were satisfied with the intrinsic part of their job. This could be because teaching over the years had been known all over the world as a female’s job as it afforded them more time to be with their families (Shakeshaft, 1989), and also due to their socialisation at home in looking after others, hence the satisfaction. Teachers were interested in their job per se. However, the situation has changed over time. Due to lack of jobs, many men have been choosing teaching as their career now than before. Female teachers could be more satisfied with opportunities for promotion perhaps because of the policy of promoting teachers without interview in the recent past. Female teachers benefited through the scheme. Although male teachers also benefited from the scheme, they were in a better position previously to seek promotion even in administration, which female teachers could not do early in their career due to their family responsibilities. The female teachers may also have felt that when the principal was hard working and was a role model, empowered them and was generally an effective leader, their chances of promotion improved because the principal could talk for them and forward their names for promotion to the authorities. Maghradi (1999), Brookhart and Loadman (1996) found teachers satisfied with promotional opportunities while Koustelios, (2001) and Oshagbemi, (1999) found teachers dissatisfied with opportunities for promotion. There were therefore discrepancies in findings perhaps due to how each country handled promotion of teachers.

It was not clear why satisfaction with pay related negatively with leadership effectiveness for female teachers. It meant that an increase in pay for teachers reduced the need for effectiveness in their principal. Njoka (2002) had found pay to be the most important teacher satisfier and that male teachers were more satisfied than female teachers,
which is contrary to the finding here. Schwab and Wallace (1974) had found females more satisfied with their pay because according to the researchers, they expected less and found they were better off than others around them. Both male and female teachers were satisfied with their principals' supervisory behaviour. Literature has it that teachers are satisfied with supervisory behaviours of their principals (Koustelios, 2001; Bogler, 2001; Oshagben, 1999; Maghradi, 1999; Dinham and Scot, 2000). This would happen only if principals were effective in leadership. These findings therefore corroborated with existing literature.

Most researchers found a positive relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers (Sharma and Gaba, 1989; Mittal, 1975; Sharma, 1975; Sharma, 1974) but Amarnath (1980) found no relationship between job satisfaction and organisational climate. However, all indications are that the two should be related since our environments affect our job satisfaction.

The two groups, male and female teachers, perceived that job satisfaction was influenced by leadership effectiveness directly and indirectly through school organization. Job satisfaction was more related to organisational climate for male teachers but it related to more to leadership effectiveness for female teachers. Organisational climate therefore acts as an intervening variable.

In general, there were differences in the impact among the three variables for both male and female teachers. These differences could be mainly due to the different social roles played by male and female people in the society and the belief system of the communities. Any study of the three variables cannot be done without looking at the cultural influence. The findings in the present study corroborated Spector's (1997) study that found no difference between men and women satisfaction.

5.8: Hypothesis 8

Job satisfaction will be predicted by leadership effectiveness, school climate and personal variables.

This hypothesis was confirmed by the findings.

5.8.1: Prediction of job satisfaction in the overall sample

The main predictors of job satisfaction in the entire sample were attention, empowerment, production emphasis, and nurturing orientation in that order. This is an indication that both school climate and leadership effectiveness dimensions enhanced job
satisfaction of teachers in the entire sample. Another significant finding is that the predictors of job satisfaction were related to the principal's activities and not to those of the teachers. This confirms that the principal's behaviour was very important to the way a teacher felt about his/her job. Attention and empowerment enhanced self esteem of a teacher. Although teachers did not value nurturing orientation in Kenya, it still had a role to play in job satisfaction although to a lesser extent than the other dimensions. In the present study, it was an enhancer which confirms that some nurturance is required for job satisfaction. The percentage of variance explained was very low which indicates that job satisfaction was also affected by other variables not covered in the present study.

When personal variables were added to the regression equation, many earlier predictors were replaced by the principal's experience, ethical leadership, esprit, humanized thrust, and principal's age. These variables explained a large percent of job satisfaction variance. This is an indication that principals' personal variables affected leadership effectiveness and school climate which in turn affected job satisfaction. Principal's experience was associated with increased psychological hindrance and empowerment both of which were known to affect job satisfaction negatively and positively respectively. The youngest and the oldest principals emphasised humanized thrust and control climates more than the middle age principals. Esprit and principal's age reduced job satisfaction while the other three enhanced it. It may be important to note that only esprit was a teacher based dimension and that it affected job satisfaction negatively perhaps because when teachers were active and very helpful to their schools, the principals would not allow them to grow professionally by allowing them to move to other schools on promotion. This resulted in decreasing job satisfaction because, like everybody else, teachers expect to grow professionally. Most people are satisfied when they deal with reliable and morally upright people because they are dependable. The teachers were satisfied with their principals who were ethical. Humanized thrust climate is the most ideal climate for teachers to thrive in and feel satisfied.

Bogler (2005) found that the main predictor of job satisfaction was transformational leadership and decision making, hence agreeing with this study. Teachers were found to be more satisfied with their jobs when they perceived the principal as using a transformational style of leadership and a participative type of decision making (Kirby, Paradise, & King, 2023).
1992; Kohl, & Terborg, 1995; and Borg, 2001). National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES, 1997) of American teachers had reported that teachers had a higher degree of satisfaction when their working conditions were favourable. The conditions included administrative support and leadership, a suitable school climate, and sufficient teacher autonomy among others.

The level of variance of job satisfaction explained was relatively low when personal variables were not factored into the regression. Koustelios (2001) had found low amount of variance and suggested that other variables should be included in future research in order to explain better the teachers’ job satisfaction. This study included personal variables of teachers and principals in the regression, which improved the variance in job satisfaction to a very large extent.

5.8.2: Prediction of job satisfaction with respect to location

Job satisfaction in urban schools was best explained by empowerment, communication and attention. The results were as expected since job satisfaction related more to leadership than to climate in these schools. The enhancers related positively and significantly with job satisfaction including communication. It is possible that communication was taken positively in this case by teachers. Attention had the highest significant relationship with job satisfaction and was seconded by empowerment. These variables are all principal variables. The teacher variables were conspicuously missing. Urban teachers valued empowerment and attention for their job satisfaction. In the rural schools, job satisfaction was best predicted by esprit, communication and disengagement all which had a debilitating effect. Only esprit had a significant value. The entire set explained a very small percentage of job satisfaction and the factors were mostly related to school climate. Job satisfaction in rural schools could, therefore, be explained by variables other than the leadership effectiveness and school organizational climate factors.

When personal variables were added to the regression equation, humanized thrust, principals’ experience and esprit predicted job satisfaction maximally. This was expected as the first two were the strongest enhancers. Esprit had a reducing effect on job satisfaction. However, it was not significant. It was observed that even when personal variables were added, the principal variables still featured highly. The most important personal variables seem to be principal’s administrative experience. For the urban teachers, what the principal
did was crucial to their satisfaction with the job and it looks like if the teachers had high spirit and supported the schools, this would act against their satisfaction meaning that perhaps the principals used their good will negatively by not recommending them for promotion and kept them in the schools to manage for them most of the time. They may not have afforded them personal and professional growth. This was found to be the case in most schools.

When personal variables were included in the regression equation for rural schools, esprit, humanized thrust, teacher's age, intimacy and communication explained job satisfaction best. Only esprit was significant although it had a debilitating effect on job satisfaction just like teachers' age and intimacy. The humanized thrust and communication enhanced job satisfaction. Teacher's age had been found to cause a significant difference in job satisfaction whereby an increase in age resulted in a decrease in job satisfaction up to some level although the situation changed. It was, therefore, expected to feature as a predictor. The rural teachers' job satisfaction was very different from that of the urban school teachers. The urban school teachers had rated their job satisfaction higher than the rural school teachers. Rural school teachers may have derived their satisfaction from variables other than the ones included in the study. This is because all the predictors seemed to affect their job satisfaction negatively except for humanized thrust and communication. Mittal (1975) found that satisfied teachers were high in esprit and low in psychological hindrance and disengagement. Mittal's finding on esprit was contrary to the findings in this study. It however corroborated on psychological hindrance and disengagement. The finding on esprit was different perhaps because of differences in culture. It is also possible that in Mittal's case, active teachers were promoted and developed professionally. The expectation is that those teachers who are pro-active should be given responsibilities and assisted to develop both personally and professionally.

5.8.3: Prediction of job satisfaction by schools types

Esprit, attention, intimacy, ethical leadership and empowerment dimensions were the maximal predictors of job satisfaction in girls' schools. Esprit, attention and ethical leadership were perceived to reduce job satisfaction while attention and empowerment enhanced it. Attention means assisting the teachers where they have difficulties. When teachers are assisted, they are satisfied with the principal's supervisory behaviour and in
their job. Empowerment implies that the teacher's skill or superior performance has been recognized by management. It results in raised self esteem for the individual teacher hence improving job satisfaction. On the other hand, esprit and intimacy would reduce job satisfaction for reasons given earlier for Kenyan teachers. In the girl's schools, there was some balance between the principal dimensions and faculty dimensions.

When personal variables were included, principal's administrative experience, nurturing orientation, intimacy, disengagement and esprit were found to be the best predictors of job satisfaction. It is clear that when personal variables were added, there was a profound increase in variance of job satisfaction explained. It is also observed that there was a complete reorganization of dimensions. However, the balance between factors of leadership effectiveness, climate, teacher and principal dimensions was maintained. It was understandable why nurturing orientation, intimacy and esprit reduced job satisfaction. Disengagement was expected to influence job satisfaction negatively but instead enhanced it. If teachers in girls' schools depended on factors other than those in this study for job satisfaction, perhaps when teachers disengaged they were able to concentrate on those other factors so that disengagement acted as an enhancer.

In boys' schools, the predictors of job satisfaction were humanized thrust and production emphasis. Both dimensions enhanced jobs satisfaction and the model was significant. In boys' schools, school climate had been found to be more open. Job satisfaction of teachers depended on school climate, especially, those dimensions connected with the principal. When personal variables were added to the regression analysis, the predictors of job satisfaction were humanized thrust, esprit, production emphasis, control and intimacy. In this case, the two dimensions used in predicting job satisfaction in the earlier model were retained. Humanized thrust, production emphasis, and intimacy enhanced job satisfaction while esprit and control reduced it. Job satisfaction for teachers in boys' schools was best predicted by school climate, a confirmation that it is the open climate that affected job satisfaction in boys' schools. The same had been observed in correlations that school climate dimensions related more with job satisfaction than leadership dimensions. Personal variables of both principals and teachers did not feature in the explanation of job satisfaction of teachers in boys' schools.
In mixed schools, the top predictors of job satisfaction were decision making and nurturing orientation and psychological hindrance. The teachers in these schools valued nurturing orientation as it enhanced job satisfaction contrary to its effect in other schools. Indeed, nurturing orientation related positively to job satisfaction. When personal variables were added to the regression, a high percentage of variance in job satisfaction could be explained. However none of the models were significant so the results were ignored. Mixed schools did not seem to be very satisfied with their job. The predictors were mainly leadership dimensions and personal variables of both teachers and principals. Among the three school types, mixed schools teachers seemed to be less satisfied with their job.

5.8.4: Prediction of job satisfaction by gender

It was found that the female teachers' job satisfaction was most affected by the way they were empowered and nurtured and how the principals emphasised production in their schools. All the three dimensions were significant and positive meaning that they enhanced job satisfaction. Production emphasis was the only school organisational climate dimension that had related with job satisfaction for female teachers and empowerment had the highest coefficient in the relationship between leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction. It would, therefore, be expected that they would enhance job satisfaction for these teachers. Although nurturing orientation was generally viewed negatively by Kenyan teachers, female teachers found it necessary for them to be satisfied with the job. Their socialisation experiences made them view nurturance positively (Kabira, 1994). They also preferred a climate that emphasized the task performance as this was valued in their community. The findings on female teachers complied with Sinha's (1980) NT theory that the principals or leaders who nurtured workers and emphasised task were the most effective. The female teachers preferred such a leader who also empowered them along with nurturing.

On the other hand humanized thrust and attention affected job satisfaction of male teachers. These two were school climate dimensions which confirmed that male teachers' job satisfaction was more affected by school climate than leadership effectiveness. Indeed the two dimensions had the highest coefficients of relationship with job satisfaction. Male teachers, therefore, preferred a climate that is humane and one in which they could assistance when they need it. This is very different from the female teachers' preference who,
although they liked to be nurtured, they particularly wanted their principals to empower them and also emphasize task importance.

When personal variables were added to the regression equation, principals' administrative experience and communication were found to be the best determinants of job satisfaction for female teachers while ethical leadership and production emphasis were the best predictors of male teacher's job satisfaction. Each of the first variables was positive and significant. Communication was not significant but it enhanced job satisfaction of female teachers. The production emphasis was not significant and reduced the job satisfaction of the male teachers. This is contrary to what has been held by theorists and researchers. Male teachers were expected to be influenced positively by production emphasis. Although male principals were found to be less ethical than their female counterparts, the male teachers valued principals who were ethical.

5.9: Summary

Leadership effectiveness was best explained by humanised thrust, psychological hindrance, control and esprit. But, when personal variables were factored in, psychological hindrance and control were replaced by principal's administrative experience, though humanized thrust and esprit were retained. However, principal's experience and esprit had a debilitating effect on leadership effectiveness while humanized thrust enhanced it. This could be because when teachers were intrinsically motivated leadership was not required to make them work.

School climate was best predicted by conventional personality, nurturing orientation and ethical leadership. Nurturing orientation had a debilitating effect as expected for the Kenyan teachers but conventional personality and ethical leadership enhanced school climate. With the introduction of personal variables, principal's educational level, principals experience and decision making best predicted school organisational climate. Both leadership effectiveness and school organisational climate affected each other. Causal relationship could, therefore, not be intimated.

The variables in the study (leadership effectiveness, school organisational climate and personal variables) were able to explain job satisfaction. However, when personal variables were not included, only a small amount of variance in job satisfaction could be explained. It looks like personal variables, especially principal variables, play a bigger role in explaining...
job satisfaction. Background variables such as principal’s experience and educational level, teachers’ age and their educational level affected job satisfaction of teachers sometimes positively and other times negatively. Principals’ variables were the major predictors of job satisfaction and different schools had different perceptions of the predictors of their job satisfaction.

In the overall sample, the main predictors of job satisfaction were attention, empowerment, production emphasis and nurturing orientation, all of which were enhancers. They explained a small part of variances but when personal variables were factored into the equation, a significantly higher percentage of variance was explained by principal’s experience, ethical leadership, esprit, humanized thrust and principal’s age together. Principals administrative experience, ethical leadership and humanized thrust enhanced job satisfaction while esprit and principal’s age tended to reduce it. It also looked like factors connected to the principals more than those connected to the teachers were the main predictors of teacher’s job satisfaction.

There were differences in the predictors of job satisfaction of teachers by location, school types and gender. In urban and rural schools, teachers were in agreement that communication affected their job satisfaction although it was positive for urban schools and negative for rural schools. Perhaps the two groups perceived communication differently. Predictors of job satisfaction for urban teachers were empowerment and attention and those for rural teachers were esprit and disengagement. It was observed that all the predictors of job satisfaction for rural schools were debilitating while those for urban schools they were enhancers. When personal variables were included, esprit and humanized thrust affected their job satisfaction in the same way. However, job satisfaction for teachers in urban schools was also explained by principals’ administrative experience and that for the rural teachers, job satisfaction was further explained by teacher’s age, intimacy and communication. Although job satisfaction for both groups was affected by the principals’ factors, rural school teachers’ job satisfaction was more affected by the teacher factors. Most of the dimensions were debilitating for rural teachers but enhancing for urban teachers. Esprit had a negative effect on job satisfaction for both groups although it was expected to affect it positively. The reasons given earlier on esprit apply here as well.
There was a total difference in the perception of what affected the teachers’ job satisfaction in different types of schools. Job satisfaction in boys’ schools was best explained by school climate factors while in girls’ schools it was school climate and leadership effectiveness as well as principal’s personal variables that affected job satisfaction. In girl’s schools, variance was explained by esprit, attention, intimacy, ethical leadership and empowerment with only attention and empowerment being enhancers whereas the rest were debilitators. Addition of personal variables brought in principal’s administrative experience, nurturing orientation, intimacy, disengagement, and esprit as the predictors. Enhancers were principals’ administrative experience and disengagement while the rest were negative. When personal variables were factored in, humanized thrust, esprit, production emphasis, control and intimacy explained job satisfaction variances in boys’ schools. Humanized thrust, production emphasis, and intimacy enhanced job satisfaction. In mixed schools, it was decision making, nurturing orientation, and psychological hindrance that positively predicted job satisfaction. When personal variables were included in the regression, they affected job satisfaction but none of the models was significant so they were ignored.

Gender difference also made an impact on job satisfaction. Female teachers perceived empowerment, nurturing orientation and production emphasis to be the main predictors while male teachers felt it was humanized thrust and the attention they received from the principals that explained their job satisfaction. There was no agreement between the two groups and even when personal variables were factored in, there was still no agreement because female teachers felt it was principal’s administrative experience and communication that affected their job satisfaction while ethical leadership and production emphasis seemed to affect male teachers’ job satisfaction. Male teachers, like the boys’ school teachers did not see the relevance of personal variables of the principals in their job satisfaction. However, all the affecting variables for both male and female teachers were dependent on what the principal did rather than what the teacher did.