CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Background to the study

Secondary school education, which caters to primary school leavers in the 15-18 years of age group, forms the middle rung in education system in Kenya. It is the transition stage between elementary education and higher education, training and the world of work. Performance in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education ( KCSE) examination marks the termination of the secondary education course and is used for selection into university and training in the middle level colleges. It also creates the country’s human resource base at a level higher than primary education. The importance of secondary school education, therefore, cannot be overemphasised.

Secondary school education in Kenya has experienced a considerably high expansion rate since independence in order to increase access to education. This has been highlighted in all educational reports and development plans in Kenya. At the time of independence in 1963, there were only 151 secondary schools but this number has increased steadily over the years to 4061 (3661 Public and 400 private) secondary schools by 2003 {Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST), 2005, July}. The expansion did not match the country’s economic growth and therefore, it put a lot of pressure on the economy. The introduction of free primary education in the year 2003 has put even greater pressure on the existing facilities, hence posing an immediate challenge for secondary schools to expand in order to improve access. Despite the expansion, the places are still not enough for all the primary school leavers so the parents and students continue canvassing for positions in the well-managed schools. They compete for the scarce places in these schools. Some students join other less well-managed schools for lack of an alternative. Only 50 % primary school leavers were able to join the secondary education in 2003 {MOEST, 2003, November}. The expansion of these schools is now needed more than ever before as the demand continues to increase. This is because those who have this level of education have better chances of placement in the world of work, training colleges as well as in the universities. Although jobs are not available, the level continues to be used for selection into the universities and other middle level colleges.
As mentioned earlier, massive expansion of secondary schools has translated into overstretching of the already strained resources to almost breaking point in terms of facilities, qualified teaching force and management of education. This has affected performance of students in some key subjects such as English, Mathematics and Sciences. It has also increased indiscipline as often manifested by school strikes. With this kind of scenario, teaching becomes difficult because of classrooms, which are filled beyond capacity, and perhaps the fact that students could also be unruly. This situation, which was compounded by poor remuneration of teachers, has resulted in job dissatisfaction of teachers as highlighted by various commissions and reports (Republic of Kenya, 1988; Republic of Kenya, 1998; MOEST, 2003, November; and MOEST, 2005, July). Among the intervention strategies raised (Republic of Kenya, 1998, p.77) to address the issues were that: secondary school teachers' training should be only for those who select teaching as the first choice; teachers should be encouraged to increase their academic level provided that it does not interfere with students' learning; regular and continuous in-servicing of secondary school teachers should be developed; morale and motivation of teachers should be raised through enhancement of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards; MOEST should give attention to the head teachers' successful leadership in curriculum and use it as criteria for promotion of head teachers; improve management of secondary schools by implementing induction programmes for principals by Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) and use Kenya Secondary School Head teachers’ Association (KSSHA) for peer interaction as an aegis.

It was hoped that these would raise teachers’ morale, motivation and job satisfaction. Republic of Kenya (1998) also recommended the improvement of teachers’ extrinsic motivation by favourably reviewing teachers’ remuneration, provision for housing and giving of special allowances to teachers particularly those who were teaching children with special needs or teaching in hardship areas. These recommendations resulted in many teachers enrolling in parallel degree programmes as well as School Based Masters degree programmes. The compensation for teachers was raised by 50% to 200% in 1997 although it was expected to take 3 years for full implementation. Teachers have since then been enjoying these benefits.

Despite all these improvements, there is an indication that secondary schools continue to be beleaguered by the same problems of teachers’ dissatisfaction with their job and the
need for improving competency of teachers. The principals’ management and leadership still seemed to be wanting. The MOEST (2003, Nov) and MOEST (2005, July) highlighted the same problems. A report on the education sector review and development direction (MOEST, 2003 Sept.) also added that school head-teachers were appointed before being trained in management. It continued to point out that the training had lagged behind and principals who lacked basic management skills, including leadership, headed most institutions. This same statement had been highlighted in a report 15 years earlier (Republic of Kenya, 1988). Earlier, Griffin (1994, p.1) in his book “School Mastery” commented on ‘...the all too many examples around us of schools brought down through inadequate leadership’. There had not been much in the direction of improving management of secondary schools. This could be an indication that either the government was overwhelmed by the growth in education and was not able to cope, or there could be an element of lack of seriousness in implementation of strategies.

Sullivan (1971) posited that the school head teacher more than any other individual is responsible for school climate, productivity and satisfaction attained by students and staff. Reiterating the same point, Kochhar (1978, p.125) pointed out that “the principal is that major component of school administration on whose ability and skill, personality and professional competence, will largely depend the tone and efficiency of the school”. Good leadership is indispensable if an organization is to be successful in attaining its goals. Principals, the target group of this study, need to lead effectively in order to influence and motivate their teachers and students for the accomplishment of their school’s objectives. Fiedler (1967, p. 4) established that highly skilled leadership was required to reconcile and constructively utilize different abilities, viewpoints, attitudes and ideas in the performance of group tasks and organisational missions. Principals are expected to be highly skilled leaders in order to be effective in attaining schools’ goals.

While trying to accomplish organisational goals, the principal ought to satisfy the needs of school members. A leader is seen to be most successful when he/she represents the desires and purposes of his/her followers. Teachers as the principal’s followers, have their expectations of him/her which are a significant force that conditions his/her leadership effectiveness. They expect him/her to afford them recognition, current information, opportunity for growth and development, effective supervision and treatment as human
beings (Fox and Schwartz, 1965). They further reiterate that principals need to demonstrate friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in their relationship with teachers in order to gain their commitment and cooperation. The principal needs the cooperation and commitment of teachers in order to face the challenges of managing a school which can only be done by a team and not by a single individual. Although the principal has a certain amount of prestige by virtue of his office and that persons working in a school system are inclined to accept his leadership, he may not expect blind loyalty from school members.

Principalship has many challenges besides managing teacher personnel. Some of the challenges have to do with the location of the school as well as the type of school. Schools in urban areas are different from those in rural areas. Urban schools have a good infrastructure, are accessible and their clients are informed. However, there are all too many attractions in the city that could distract student and teacher personnel. Besides this, some of the schools are located in slum areas, especially mixed schools, which present a very poor, undisciplined and hostile neighbourhood that does not act as role a model for the students. Schools in slums have fewer resources, facilities and amenities. The conditions in the slum areas do at times spill over to the schools and the teachers and principal have to deal with them besides teaching. Schools in the rural areas, such as in Muranga district are beleaguered with lack of essential resources, facilities and amenities such as money, books, electric power, roads, and telephones besides lack of teachers, among others. Their communication is therefore hindered by the underdeveloped infrastructure. Teachers in these schools could be dissatisfied with their conditions, which affect their work of teaching. The sex of the student body could have its own challenges that are unique to a particular gender. The school climate set by the leadership of the principal could go miles in alleviating the dissatisfaction that might be experienced by teachers. In fact, the administrators of education had envisioned this and recommended that housing be provided for teachers in the schools among other things (Republic of Kenya, 1998 and MOEST, 2003, November).

Generally, it appears that there was a time when Kenyan teachers were not satisfied with their job. Macaria’s (1984) study quoting the daily papers in Kenya (Daily Nation, The Standard and Kenya times) of 1983, and even later as quoted by Njuguna (1998), fifteen years later, noted the following complaints among others:
- Low pay, lack of mobility (promotion on merit, few opportunities)
- Head teachers do not respect teachers; teaching is no longer a noble profession; society, parents and politicians criticize teachers, therefore students do not respect teachers
- Lacking benefits such as leave allowance
- Hardships: They live in remote areas with inadequate housing and lack of clean water
- Expected to do extra work such as supervise exams, evening or weekend trips with students, games and evening counseling

Some teachers complained and talked of deserting the job and others actually left the profession for greener pastures. There has been constant lack of teachers in secondary schools especially in mathematics and sciences. This translated to poor performance in mathematics and sciences in National Examinations (Daily Nation, 1995, March, p.1). The public blamed the head teachers’ poor management and leadership for the poor performance in the examinations (Osiako, 1983, April; Bukachi and Nyarora, Jan 21, 1995, p. 5). Republic of Kenya (1988, p. 111) also stated that heads of institutions were central to successful management of educational institutions. The same paper noted that heads of institutions were appointed from amongst serving teachers most of who had no prior training in institutional management. Morumbasi (1993), in her study of Kenyan secondary school principals’ perception of the effectiveness of Kenya Educational Staff Institute (KESI) in-service programmes found that Kenyan head teachers were first appointed from the classroom and may be a year later invited by KESI to attend a management/leadership course. She further pointed out that invitation to the courses was not automatic but that a head teacher had to seek it.

The situation in Kenya has changed considerably. Teachers have been promoted at an accelerated pace without interview (PC). It is now possible to reach a level equivalent to that of a director of education while still being a school teacher. Their salaries were raised drastically by 150-200% in 1997 (MOEST, 2003, November). There are more opportunities in administrative training at KESI and the universities have started courses that are school based and also distance learning for degrees and master courses. Hence it is possible for a teacher to develop professionally while still being on the job (PC).
Although Macaria (1984) had found that teachers were dissatisfied in Nairobi, there is need to know whether there is a change in job satisfaction level, the organizational climate that prevails in the schools and also the leadership effectiveness of principals. It is important to explore how effective the principals in the schools are. What traits and behaviours do the teachers and communities value most in an effective principal in Kenya? How effective are the principals in the schools? Is there a significant difference in the effectiveness of principals in urban and rural, single sex and mixed schools? How does the effectiveness of the principal affect the climate of the school and job satisfaction of the teachers if at all? The present study attempted to address some of these issues. It aimed at exploring leadership effectiveness of principals as perceived by the Kenyan secondary school teachers, the climate that persists in their schools and the job satisfaction of the teachers in both Nairobi (urban) and Muranga (rural) districts. The following section deals with theoretical aspects of the three constructs, namely leadership effectiveness, organizational climate and job satisfaction and their relationships in school contexts.

Theoretical Concepts

This study is concerned with the three variables namely, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and the school climate which are discussed in this section. The concept of leadership has interested many researchers of organisational behaviour. It has, therefore, been researched extensively. However, even with so much research, the concept remains elusive and researchers have not arrived at a common definition. Despite the many definitions, the influence it has on followers seemed to be common. Some of the definitions of leadership have been developed in the context of an interactive relationship between leaders and followers (Bolman and Deal, 1997) and aligning people toward common goals and empowering them to take actions (Sherman, 1995). In the educational context leadership effectiveness refers to the creation of an inspiring and stimulating climate for workers so that they can enjoy a high level of morale, are motivated to receive new ideas and always ready to venture into new goals. Bennis (1999) pointed out “effective leadership cannot exist without the full inclusion, initiatives and the cooperation of employees”. Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2001) posited that effective leadership occurs when the led are influenced to achieve the organisational goals by the leader not because of his/her position power.
(controlling of rewards and punishment) but because satisfying the leader's goals or the organisational goals also satisfies the needs of the follower. In other words, the leader has both position and personal power and the led respect the leader and are willing to cooperate, realizing that the leader's request is consistent with some of their personal goals. Leadership is ineffective when the led comply because the leader controls rewards and punishment, (Hersey et al., 2001, 128). It is generally thought that leadership in an organization affects the job satisfaction of the followers. Leadership also affects certain behaviours of people in the organization. These behaviours (talking, acting, treatment of visitors, and dealing with outsiders...) are unique to the organization and form the organisational climate of a school, which in turn may affect job satisfaction. The organisational climate, therefore, may act as an intervening variable between leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction. While leadership is a deliberate act, the other two, job satisfaction and organisational climate follow naturally. Leadership effectiveness is crucial to an organization as it affects the other two variables almost directly. The following sections look at the theories of leadership effectiveness, school climate and job satisfaction.

Leadership Effectiveness

Considerable research over the years has been devoted to trying to determine what makes leaders effective. The foregoing are some of the theories that have arisen in the process. When the trait theory failed to show the personality characteristic of effective leaders, there was a shift from the leader to groups. In the group approach, leadership was viewed more in terms of the leader's behavior and how much behavior affects and is affected by the followers. Examples of these theories were the IOWA studies by Lippitt and White (1960) that came up with the Authoritarian, Democratic and the Laissez-faire leadership dimensions; the MICHIGAN research studies that discovered the production-centered and the employee-centered styles of leadership and the OHIO studies that explored the initiating structure and consideration dimensions of leadership (Stogdill, 1963). The later one was studied using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by (Halpin and Winer, 1957) and modified by Stogdill (1963). This questionnaire has been used widely to assess leadership behavior all over the world. Others were variants of the initiating structure and consideration. An example is the Blake and Mouton's (1964)
“Grid reference” which developed the people oriented and task-oriented styles of leadership. In this theory, the most effective leader was said to be the one who was both task-oriented and people-oriented, and had a score of “9, 9” in both dimensions. However, effectiveness was said to depend on the situation as well. As these theories were not interactive and did not take care of the situation adequately, the contingency theories were advanced to address the effectiveness of different leadership styles in different contexts.

Although many situations were found, only Fiedler came up with a more robust theory, the contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler, 1967). Fiedler demonstrated that the effectiveness of task-oriented and people-oriented leaders depended on the situation. Simple and clear tasks and situations with very high or very low leader acceptance required task-oriented leadership and complex tasks required relationship-oriented leadership. He developed a tool for measurement of effectiveness, the Least Preferred co-worker (LPC), whereby a leader described his/her feelings toward a subordinate he had to work with though he did not like him/her. According to Fiedler, the situation was the leader member relationship (LMR), the degree of task structuredness, and leader’s position power.

Later, Fiedler and Garcia (1987) proposed the cognitive resource theory (CRT), which related a leader’s cognitive resource (expertise, intelligence and experience) to group performance. The cognitive resources of a leader contribute to the leader’s effectiveness if the other members are motivated, accept the leader, and have a stress-free relationship. There were mixed results and controversy among researchers (Luthans, 2002) about these two theories but the theories are still valuable and have stimulated more research. The theories were also the first ones to emphasize the situational characteristics in determining leader effectiveness.

The path goal theory of leadership (House, 1971) is related to the expectancy theory. It tries to explain the impact the leader behavior has on subordinate’s motivation, satisfaction and performance. House (1971) suggested four types of leader: directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented. The path goal theory proposed that the same leader uses all the styles, unlike in the contingency theory, depending on the situation. In House’s theory, two main factors, subordinates’ characteristics and environmental pressures on the subordinates characterized the situation. The leader tries to make subordinates’ paths to their goals smooth by stimulating the subordinates’ need for achievement, increasing pay offs for
goal achievement, coaching and guiding, clarifying subordinates expectations, reducing functioning barriers and increasing opportunities for high satisfaction and good performance. The theory has been used extensively in management.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) combined the grid approach and the contingency theories to propose their situational theory of leadership. According to this theory, leadership is a function of the situation and an effective leader is one who assesses the situation accurately, uses a style appropriate to the situation, is flexible and also able to influence and alter the situation. Hersey and Blanchard further proposed four styles; delegating, participating, selling and telling styles. All styles are functional; it is their relevance to the situations that is important. Hersey and Blanchard further defined the situation in terms of what they called ‘maturity’ of the subordinate. Later on, they proposed the term ‘developmental level’. Their competence level, commitment, and their willingness to take responsibility determined the developmental level or maturity of followers. Their theoretical rationale is criticized for being too “weak because the two neglected to provide a coherent, explicit rationale for the hypothesized relationship” (Yuki, 1981). Another criticism was that the theory highly oversimplified the situation. The approach has limited utility for identifying or predicting leadership effectiveness (Luthans, 2002, p.617).

Bass (1985) developed transformational and transactional leadership. Transactional leadership has the obligation to get things done, ensure achievement of targets and maximize efficiency and effectiveness of various groups by using rewards. Transformational leadership is exactly the opposite of transactional leadership and is concerned with the leader going beyond the immediate task and building up the competencies of the individuals and groups, enabling them to achieve targets that the individual or the organization would not have otherwise expected to achieve. Transactional leadership was useful for middle level managers while top-level executives use transformational leadership since they have the power to develop vision and mission. Bass (1985) did a lot of research on this leadership and his questionnaire is heavily relied on. However, other researchers seem to think that there is a problem with the questionnaire (Luthans, 2002).

The latest approach includes distributive leadership that encourages sharing of leadership. The argument here is that there are many people who can lead and should be given the opportunity instead of concentrating the power of leading at the top. It emphasizes
empowering teachers to lead in their area in the classroom. This thinking is still new and not very well researched, explored or developed. Most of these theories and models on leadership were advanced mainly in the West. Though they were not identical, they shared a common cultural heritage and therefore a set of basic values.

Researchers on leadership have also explored whether there is any effect on leadership effectiveness as a result of culture. These researchers have tried to look at different cultures in order to understand how they affect leadership and management (Hofstede, 1980; House et al. 1999; Pearce and Osmond, 1999). They came to the conclusion that people in cultures, low in power distance such as USA try to minimize inequalities, favour less autocratic leadership and less concentration of authority. On the other hand, people in cultures high power distance such as India, will be characterized by greater acceptance of inequalities, more autocratic leadership, and greater centralization of authority (Hofstede, 1980). They defined power distance as the degree to which members of a culture accept and expect that power in the society be distributed unequally. Hofstede (1991) found that in high power distance cultures, managers were more satisfied with a directive leadership from the supervisors whereas managers in low power distance cultures preferred a participative supervisor. Smith, Peterson and Misumi (1994) have shown that managers in high power distance countries employ a greater use of rules and procedures than managers in low power distance cultures. Pearce and Conger (1999, p.218) came to a conclusion that “societal cultural variables have non-trivial influences on culturally endorsed leadership theories and explain, in part, why there is a variance across cultures with respect to what is expected of leaders”. It appears that culture would make a difference in how a leader is viewed. However, these researchers looked at many cultures but the Kenyan culture was not among them. Indian culture was one of the cultures that were studied and found to be high in collectivism and power distance. This means that Indians operate as a team and both the leader and followers agree that the leader has a right to be the leader.

Indeed, Singh and Bandarker (1990) re-confirmed the previously documented Indian values viz., role of ‘Karta’, relationships orientation, and proximity to power among others. The role of the Karta represents the father figure who is nurturant, caring, dependable, sacrificing and yet demanding, authoritative and a strict disciplinarian who evokes feelings
grooms, guides and protects. Relationships orientation involves three concepts: personalized relationships over contractual relationships (Dayal, 1976; Sinha, 1980), maintenance of relationships over task accomplishment and performed work as part of a positive relationship (Dayal, 1976; Sinha, 1985) all of which are preferred by Indians. Proximity to power involves power distance between the leader and followers and it is high for Indians. McClellard (1975) had pointed to the Indian’s strong need for power and Sinha (1994) had described Indians as power striving. Singh and Bhandarkar (1990) argued that ‘our organizations are embedded in the Indian culture’ hence any effective leadership is possible when it takes care of the culturally prescribed values, beliefs and norms.

Sinha (1980) developed the Nurturant–Task (NT) theory of leadership as the leadership style that would be effective in India. NT theory was a product of a search/exploration by Sinha for a viable way to address some of the Indian societal problems. Some of the problems highlighted by Sinha were related to the cultural values that had been confirmed by Singh and Bardarkar (1990) but Sinha (1995) presented them as characteristics of subordinates. Three of the characteristics are discussed herein. The dependency syndrome is the situation whereby Indians were noted to seek support, guidance, and encouragement even in situations where they were apparently competent to make decisions and function without being patted on the back. The next characteristic, preference for hierarchy, is the situation whereby Indians are more comfortable in a superior-subordinate relationship than in peer relationship. Seniors and superiors are respected and they make decisions while the subordinates are supposed to obey. This creates the tendency for directing one’s efforts to please and appease the superior who may in return provide patronage. For the loyalty shown, the superior has the obligation to help, protect and guide subordinates. Preference for hierarchy thus fosters dependence proneness. The seniors and superiors create conditions where dependency is unavoidable or appreciated. The dependent ones are rewarded and independent subordinates are suspected and distanced (Sinha, 1995). Another characteristic is the preference for personalized relationship, which has two dimensions. The Indian managers perceive people and interact with them as ‘own and personal’ for family members while strangers are ‘impersonal others’. This means that Indians bring familial relationships to the work place that may not be conducive to achievement of the organisational goals. Finally, Indians perform work as a ‘favour’ to others (McClelland 1975). Work is likely to
exhaust a person by draining away energy that is believed to be precious and limited. According to Sinha (1995), work is not intrinsically valued in India. There exists a culture of 'aram', which roughly means rest and relaxation without being preceded by hard and exhausting work. Slow, clumsy actions and reactions, indifferent attitudes, procedure rather than orientation and lack of consideration of others (Sinha, 1985, p. 134) are the order of the day.

NT combines nurturance, creating a good feeling of being comfortably dependent, secure and relaxed, and task orientation to get the work done. NT stands for getting the work done with warmth and care. Sinha (1995) maintained that a blend of the two dimensions was more likely to render leader effectiveness since nurturing alone would mean that work would not be done. Under NT, the leader is nurturant to those subordinates who work hard and sincerely. The two are supposed to be interactive and not additive. Sinha pointed out that this theory is only effective with subordinates who prefer dependency and personalized relationships and are status conscious. They perform work as part of personalized relationship with the leader. It was therefore necessary for Sinha (1980) to also include the Participative style (P) to work with those subordinates that are independent minded, want to work on their own, and not very status conscious.

Kenya was not included in Hofstede's 1980 study of culture. It is not therefore possible to comment on the culture of Kenyans in line with Hofstede's study. However, the researcher finds similarities between Kenyans and Indians especially when the leader creates the need for dependency and the consequent behaviour of the subordinates and superiors. The Kenyan culture can be compared with the Indian culture in the sense that Kenyans are divided along ethnic lines while Indians are divided on ethnic, caste, religion and linguistic similarities (Sinha, 1995). The closest theory to the Kenyan culture was therefore the NT theory by Sinha (1980). It is, therefore, necessary to carry out research in the Kenyan culture on leadership in order to get the cultural perspective of an effective leader. This study adopted the cultural perspective for leadership effectiveness. The researcher carried out a preliminary study to get leadership characteristics that are culture-specific and then used them to rate the principals' leadership effectiveness. The two districts in the study, Nairobi and Muranga, were chosen as they were believed to be slightly different. The culture in Nairobi is heterogeneous since it has an almost metropolitan composition while Muranga
district has the Gikuyu community which is collectivistic and could be high in power distance.

Leadership effectiveness is generally measured in two ways in schools. One way is by assessing students’ achievement in cognitive, affective and psychomotor areas of development (Hoy and Miskel, 1978). This measurement is objective but difficult to accomplish. Most researchers use examination scores for students as a measure of schools’ effectiveness although they may not be linked directly to leadership effectiveness as there could be other factors that affect performance. The other method is by assessing the process of administration as a leader effectiveness criterion. This method is more subtle and complicated than the goal attainment criterion because it uses the perceptions of significant others on the leader. In the schools, the opinions held by students, teachers, administrators and school patrons are examples of perceptual appraisals that could be used for studying leadership effectiveness. The second method was adopted in this study and the teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ effectiveness was sought.

School Organization Climate

The systems theory was used in this study. Getzel (1958) postulated that organizations are social systems having two dimensions, the nomothetic and the idiographic. The nomothetic dimension defines the roles and expectations that fulfill the goals of the system and the ideographic relates to the individual, his or her personality and need disposition. These dimensions are conditioned by the culture, its ethos, values and the environment, its resources and the limitations. The two dimensions interact to give rise to the third dimension, the informal group, its climate and norms. All the three dimensions result in the behaviour observed in the social system which could also be referred to as organisational behaviour or social climate. The following diagram is a summary of the model.
According to Getzel, behaviour (B) is a function of Role (R) and personality (P) i.e., B = f (R×P). In a school context, the school is a social system. The society has created the schools to achieve the goals of educating their children. The nomothetic dimension consists of the structures needed to attain these goals. To make the institution effective, roles are assigned to its members. Role expectations are the rights and duties assigned to a role incumbent. Thus the role of the ‘teacher’ or that of the ‘principal’ carries with it certain expectations held by the influential segments of the school community such as professional teacher organizations, the principal, teachers themselves, and perhaps the school management or the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST) in case of Kenya. The purpose of psychological dimension in this model is not necessarily the attainment of school goals only. Its activities are geared to the satisfaction of the particular personality needs of the individuals occupying the roles of the teacher or principal.

As pointed out earlier, a school is a social system. The constituents of this social system are: (i) the individual and his or her personality disposition, (ii) the formal organization and its role expectations, (iii) the informal organization and its norms and culture. It can be safely assumed that the behaviour of each of these ingredients can be
defined, measured and explained. In this study, the social system is a secondary school. The three ingredients of this social system are discussed in the next paragraphs.

The individual: The individual’s behaviour is an outcome of the interaction between the individual’s personality characteristics and the environmental characteristics. There are several factors involved here, namely, the personality of the individual and the social and cultural influences of the family, the peer groups, the school and the society at large. The set of variables mediating between the individual behaviour and these factors include needs, motives and attitudes. These mediating variables constitute the personality of the individual. The group membership also affects and modifies the individual’s motives, needs, and attitudes.

The formal organization: A formal organization is operationally defined as an interrelated pattern of functions which makes up the structure of a system where each function is arranged to achieve the specific objectives of the organization. The manner in which an occupant of a position behaves is called ‘role’ whereas the behaviours laid down by the organization for each role incumbent are ‘role expectations’ or prescriptions. These role prescriptions form part of the norms and culture of the formal group. Stogdill and Halpin (1969) summarized the variables which define formal organization as the responsibility variables (the work one is expected to do) and formal interaction variables (the persons with whom one is expected to work).

The informal organization: Natural grouping of the individuals in work situations may be termed as the informal organization. These groupings are not specified in the ‘blue print’ of the formal organization but are formed in response to social need of the members of the work group. Besides, in the social need factors, there are other determinants such as the location of work, nature of work and communality of interests, among individuals which rise to the informal groups. Informal groups are part of formal organization and develop their own culture based on certain norms. This culture helps interaction among the group members. Thus, when person-based interaction recurs consistently, the group is organized informally.

According to Sharma (1982), all the three types of behavioral variables, viz. the individual, the formal organisational personality and the informal organisational personality interact in their functioning. This interaction creates a new entity which may be termed as
the organisational behaviour or the organisational climate. It is this characteristic or set of characteristics which depict the internal working pattern of the organization. Halpin and Croft (1963), posited that ‘climate is to an organization what personality is to an individual’, or the organisational climate can be construed as the ‘organisational personality of a school’. Therefore, the internal characteristics of a school distinguish that school from others and also influence the behavior of the people in it. The study of organisational climate is concerned with the determination of the most effective overall human system for achieving the specific objectives of the organization. Schools’ organisational climate will be examined in this study.

The best known study of classification of schools into organisational climates is that of Halpin and Croft (1963). They identified six organisational climates which tend to characterize schools. The climates arise from the human interaction among teachers and principals and they are identified as: open; autonomous; controlled; familiar; paternal and closed (Musaazi, 1982). Halpin and Croft identified the different climates by developing and using the instrument that they called Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). The focus on the questionnaire was based on principals’ behavior patterns and teachers’ behavior patterns as they combine to create school climates that are relatively open or closed as channels of communication. Halpin and Croft conceived of the social climate of schools as a blend of two dimensions: the principal’s leadership and the teachers’ interactions. The social climate of a school results from the reciprocal effects of the teachers’ behavior pattern as a group and the principals’ behavior pattern as a leader. Just as the groups’ characteristics can affect the ways in which the principal can exercise leadership, so the principals’ behavior pattern can also affect the teachers’ interpersonal interactions. Thus the reciprocal dynamics of leadership and group are viewed as the keys to identifying diverse school climates, (Silver, 1983).

Four aspects of principal’s leadership and four aspects of teacher interactions were selected as the conceptual foundation for the analysis of the school climates. The four aspects of principal’s behavior were identified as aloofness, production emphasis, thrust and consideration by Halpin and Croft (1963). Aloofness referred to the psychological and physical distance from teachers that the principal maintains or the degree of formality, while
production emphasis represented the degree of active supervision the principal typically exercises over staff. The principal is highly directive and not sensitive to faculty feedback. Consideration refers to warm, friendly behavior by the principal. The principal tries to be helpful and do a little something extra for his faculty when he can and finally thrust refers to dynamic principal behavior in which an attempt “to move the organization” is made through the example that the principal sets for the teachers (Hoy and Miske!, 1978). The four dimensions are conceptually independent of each other. Knowing the principal’s typical behavior with respect to one dimension does not help one to determine his or her behavior with reference to the other dimension. All four have to be assessed to come up with a profile.

Teachers’ behavior, the second major component of school climate is the pattern of interactions among teachers that evolves over a period of time. According to Hoy and Miske! (1978, p. 189), these are: disengagement, which is the teachers’ tendency “to go through the motions” without an actual commitment to the task at hand; hindrance, which represents the teacher’s feelings that the principal burdens them with the routine duties, committee work, and other requirements that the teachers perceive as unnecessary “busywork”; intimacy, which refers to the teachers’ enjoyment of warm and friendly personal relations with one another and esprit, the morale growing out of a sense of both task accomplishment and social need satisfaction. Taken together the eight subtests map a climate profile of schools in terms of these dimensions. Although Halpin and Croft (1963) identified six basic clusters of profiles of school climates that could be arranged along a rough continuum from open to closed, only open and closed climates were considered for the present study.

The open climate

The distinctive feature of the open climate is its high degree of thrust and esprit and low disengagement. This is a climate in which both the principal and teachers are genuine in their behavior. The principal leads through example, providing the proper blend of structure and direction as well as support and consideration – the mix dependent upon the situation. Teachers work well together and are committed to the task at hand. Given the “reality – centered” leadership of the principal and a committed faculty, there is no need for burdensome paperwork (hindrance), close supervision (production emphasis) or impersonality or a plethora of rules and regulations (aloofness). Acts of leadership emerge
easily and appropriately as they are needed. The open school is preoccupied exclusively with either task achievement or social needs satisfaction, but both emerge freely. In brief, the behaviour of both the principal and faculty is authentic (Hoy and Miskel, 1978, p. 141).

The closed climate

The closed climate is virtually the antithesis of the open climate. Thrust and esprit are low and disengagement is high. The principal and teachers simply appear to go through the motions, with the principal stressing routine trivia and unnecessary busywork (hindrance), and the teachers responding at minimal levels, with satisfaction at low ebb. The principal’s ineffective leadership is further seen in his close supervision (production emphasis), formal declarations and impersonality (aloofness), as well as lack of consideration for his faculty and an inability or unwillingness to provide a dynamic personal example. These misguided tactics which are not taken seriously, produce teacher frustration and apathy. The behavior of both principal and teachers in the closed climate is least genuine when inauthenticity pervades the atmosphere of the school, Hoy and Miskel (1978, p. 141). The other climates lie in between the two climates. A straight-forward way to determine the relative openness or closedness of a set of school climates is to make use of the following climate openness index:

\[
\text{Openness Index} = \text{Thrust score} + \text{Esprit score} - \text{Disengagement score}.
\]

The higher the index, the more open the climate of the school. In conclusion, the OCDQ seems to be a useful device for general charting of school climate. The openness index provides a means of comparing ones school along an open – closed continuum. Halpin and Croft (1963) suggested that the openness might be a better criterion of schools effectiveness than other criteria. It will help to confirm which schools have effective leadership.

In this study, openness index was used. Organization climate was operationally defined as the level of the relationships that exist in the school as a result of interaction between the principal and teachers and among the teachers. The construct includes sub-dimensions of attention, humanized thrust, production emphasis, disengagement, psychological hindrance, intimacy, esprit and control. These were obtained by modifying the SOCDQ instrument by Sharma (1974) after his study of organisational climate in India.

Davis (1977) had concluded that supportive or open organisational climate provides a superior organisational climate, given that it is more consistent with higher order needs and
intrinsic motivational factors. Clearly, one sees a link between leadership, organisational climate and job satisfaction of those in the organization, in the sense that an effective leader will promote a supportive/open organisational climate which in turn may enhance job satisfaction among the subordinates. Moreover, as the way teachers interact with the principal and among themselves may be mediated by the culture of the people and organization, the results of the study were expected to be different from those of Halpin and Croft and also the one by Sharma.

Job satisfaction concept

Theories of job satisfaction have been divided into two categories; content theories and process theories (Campbell et al., 1970). Under content theories are Maslow’s (1943) Need Hierarchy Theory and Hertzberg’s et al. (1957) Two Factor Theory. Hertzberg’s theory is a further development of Maslow’s theory. These theories give an account of the factors which influence job satisfaction. Process theories give an account of the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values interact with the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction. These are the equity, expectation and the reference group theories. The equity theory argues that job satisfaction occurs when we compare what we put in a job and the rewards we receive with those of significant others, and find that we are equitably treated. The theory involves the expectations of individuals in relation to their job satisfaction. Reference group theory takes into account the way in which we refer to other individuals in deciding what is equitable. Needs and value fulfillment theories account for the job satisfaction in terms of the discrepancy between the individual’s needs and the values and what the job has to offer.

Job satisfaction involves fulfilling the individual’s needs. One of the first need theories is that of Maslow (1943), which postulated the needs hierarchy, with needs being divided into lower and higher order needs. The needs are 1) basic physiological needs, 2) safety and security needs, 3) social (affection) needs, 4) esteem needs, and 5) self-actualization needs. The first three are the lower or basic needs while the last two are the higher order needs. Maslow argued that it is only after the lower order needs are satisfied that an individual becomes capable of seeking the fulfillment of higher order needs. In the job situation, the theory would predict that only after the lower order needs of pay and security have been satisfied, will the employee seek satisfaction and achievement from work.
itself. Locke (1976), the most critical person of the theory, pointed out some drawbacks in the theory, arguing that there is no evidence of hierarchy of needs and that the lower needs are always there since they cannot be fulfilled permanently by a single act. Though Maslow did not develop the theory to account for job satisfaction, the later theorists have used his theory to explain job satisfaction. It can be used to account for findings on occupational level and job satisfaction despite Locke's reservation.

Herzberg's two factor theory of job satisfaction closely relates to Maslow's need theory. Herzberg distinguished two groups of factors involved in job satisfaction. He posited that the first group, the motivators was of factors, which if present in the working situation, led to satisfaction. Their absence, he said, did not lead to dissatisfaction. Such factors included achievement, recognition, and intrinsic interest of the work itself, and corresponded to the higher level needs of self-autonomy and self actualization of Maslow's need hierarchy. The second group of factors in job satisfaction were the hygiene factors, which, when inadequate, led to job dissatisfaction but when adequate did not necessarily lead to job satisfaction. Among the hygiene factors he put pay, security, and physical working conditions and these correspond to Maslow's lower order needs.

Herzberg argued that such factors as pay and working conditions are context factors which have little to do with deriving satisfaction from the job. They may be necessary conditions but do not themselves produce job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). On the other hand, job satisfaction is produced by the job itself allowing the individual to 'grow' psychologically. This way, the individual is able to achieve a worthwhile aim and recognition for his/her effort and regard herself as a worthwhile individual. The theory is criticized for using critical incident technique and a very narrow population. It is known and even Herzberg's work pointed out that some individuals do gain satisfaction from hygiene factors. Also, some motivators are more important factors in both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction than hygiene factors (Wall and Stephenson, 1970). He also did not say anything about overall job satisfaction. Gruneberg argued that in reality, the presence of opportunities for psychological growth on the job are so limited and confined to so few people that it is perhaps fortunate that so many seek only hygiene satisfaction from the job. Indeed, Herzberg argues that it is only when hygiene factors such as pay are adequate that
one can begin to structure a job so that motivators come to play a part in the individual’s satisfaction with the job.

Process theories see job satisfaction as being determined by the nature of the job and its context as well as the needs, values and expectations that individuals have in relation to their job. Job satisfaction is determined by the extent of the discrepancy between what the job offers and what the individual expects, needs, and values. In a job, human beings use frames of reference when deciding, for example, what is reasonable pay. They relate what they are getting to what others are getting and if they find theirs too little, they become dissatisfied. This is the central notion in equity theory which argues that individuals have a concept of what is just reward for our efforts (Gruneberg, 1979, p. 20). Only where the rewards and efforts are seen as reasonable in terms of rewards of other people is satisfaction reported. If there is a discrepancy between the individual’s effort and reward and those of others, according to equity theory, the employee may put less effort into his/her work, take extended coffee breaks or give poorer quality production among others. He/she might decide to withdraw from the situation or change his/her expectations to be more in line with what he is receiving. Lawler and O’Gara (1967) got evidence from their study that underpaid employees increase outcomes but reduce inputs, that is increase quantity and reduce quality. Other studies have confirmed that under-reward leads to dissatisfaction (Pritchard, Dunnette, and Jorgenson, 1972). If an individual is overpaid, he/she would tend to give the reason that others are under-paid and blame the organization for it according to equity theorists. The equity theory seems to be able to explain some aspects of satisfaction and not others.

An essential aspect of the equity theory is that the individual compares his or her inputs with those of others, such as friends, his or her work-mates and people in his or her industry before deciding whether or not he/she is equitably treated (Gruneberg, 1979). Reference group to whom the individual relates is of critical importance in understanding job satisfaction. In the school situation, the reference group would be by education level, by age (experience) and with those who teach in private schools. A teacher could also compare with those he/she went to university with even though they are not in the same profession but are holding a government job. Those with higher education expect to have higher rewards. Moreover, expectations based on reference groups must be supplemented by knowledge of personality factors and individual needs and values in any assessment of what
the individual considers equitable in relation to job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Expectations are likely to affect job satisfaction when they affect values and self-esteem.

The process theories of job satisfaction claim that it is the interaction between the individual’s expectations, needs and values and what the job offers that give rise to satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Some theorists argue that it is the matching of an individual’s expectations to what the job offers which determines job satisfaction. If expectations are not fulfilled, there will be job dissatisfaction. However, the theory does not seem to be supported when the job expectations are exceeded. The equity theory which includes justice is an extension of expectations theory. It argues that job satisfaction arises when the individual compares what he/she puts into a job and what he/she gets out of a job with other people’s inputs and outputs. When he/she regards his/her rewards as being equitable compared to significant others, the individual is satisfied, but where one feels they are inequitable, he/she experiences dissatisfaction. In other words issues of perceived unfairness give rise to job dissatisfaction. The range of perceived unfairness includes situations and circumstances that discriminate against the individual or against others, affords unmerited advantage to others and differentiates where it is felt that there should be uniformity or commonality. The reference group theorists point to the importance of peer groups in determining what the individual regards as reasonable to expect from his job in terms of rewards, and what is reasonable to give in terms of effort (Gruneberg, 1979). Personality factors, individual needs and values influence job satisfaction as much as expectations determine whether or not an individual will be satisfied or dissatisfied with a job.

Finally, in considering any theory of job satisfaction, the changing values and adaptation must be taken into account. Davis and Cherns (1975) pointed out that job satisfaction involves a dynamic interaction between individual and his environment. Job satisfaction cannot therefore be studied as a static issue. Whatever the differences and the limitations of using one approach, it seems clear that job satisfaction involves the matching of individual needs, values and expectations to what the job offers. It therefore follows that no single theory accounts for all phenomena of job satisfaction all the time. At times the focus can be expectations, values, examining individual’s personality and examining the cultural background. This study used all the theories combined in that it looked at the
intrinsic satisfaction with the work itself, hygiene factor of pay, promotional and
development opportunities, the environment created by the principal's supervisory
behaviour and co-workers. All the theories were used in a subtle way.

Job satisfaction is the most studied teacher attitude. Locke (1976, p. 300) defined job
satisfaction as the "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of
ones' job experiences". Job satisfaction includes various aspects such as the nature of the job
itself, the compensation a person gets by working on the job, growth opportunities,
opportunities for career advancement, the organizational climate, the behavior of the
supervisor and co-workers, (Pareek, 2004). It proposes that employees' attitudes towards
their job are a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things
that are viewed as important. Recent theoretical analysis have criticized job satisfaction as
being too narrow conceptually (Bussing et al. 1999), but there are three generally accepted
dimensions to job satisfaction: emotional response to a job situation which can only be
inferred as it cannot be seen; job satisfaction being determined by how well outcomes meet
or exceed expectations and job satisfaction representing several related attitudes.

Five dimensions have been identified by Smith, Kendal and Hulin (1969) to represent the
most important characteristics of a job about which employees have affective responses

1. The work itself: This means the extent to which the job provides the individual with
   interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility.
   Feedback from the job itself and autonomy are the two major job-related
   motivational factors. One also looks at job complexity, whether it is interesting and
   challenging and has career development.

2. Pay: This is financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is
   viewed as equitable vis- a- vis that of others in the organization. Employees see pay
   as reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization but for
   teachers it shows how senior you are or how well you have done for yourself.

3. Promotional opportunities: This refers to the chances for advancement in the
   organization. Is promotion based on performance or on seniority? More satisfaction
   is derived when promotion is based on performance. The level of salary raise in the
   promotion is also important. In flat organizations, positive work environment, and
opportunities to grow intellectually and broaden skills base are more important because there are no hierarchical positions to give.

4. Supervision: The abilities of the supervisor to provide technical assistance and behavioral support. Satisfaction occurs when the leader is employee-centered, and provides personal interest and care, when the employee is allowed to participate and influence in decisions. Participative climate increases satisfaction.

5. Co-workers: The degree to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive. When colleagues are friendly, cooperative and provide give support, advice and comfort then the job is enjoyable.

These five dimensions have been used in research on job satisfaction. The most used indirect facet satisfaction instrument in education and general research is the Job Descriptive Index or the JDI (Smith, Kendal, and Hulin, 1969). The JDI contains the five subscales: work on the present job, supervision, present pay, people on your present job (co-workers) and opportunities for promotion. In this instrument, the word satisfaction is never used; hence removing the issue of socially conditioned response is addressed. There have been consistent reports that the instrument is a valid and reliable measure across various work settings (Golembiewski and Yeager, 1978; Schrieshein and Kinicki, 1982).

A brief critical discussion of the theories that were relevant to the study of the three variables namely leadership effectiveness, school organisational climate and job satisfaction, indicates amply clearly that all the three variables are related. Leadership effectiveness is the effective influence of the teachers by the leader (principal) in order to achieve school goals. In the process of the influence, the two interact in the organisational setting to produce the school climate which may be open or closed. This interaction is believed to give rise to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction depending on the personality, values and expectations of the teacher. Moreover, in all these, the personal characteristics of both the teacher and the principal may affect the interactions and also the outcomes. The following was the proposed conceptual framework that guided the present study.

**Conceptual framework**

There seemed to be a relationship between principals’ demographic variables and leadership effectiveness. The effectiveness influenced school organisational climate as well
as job satisfaction of teachers. Organisational climate also affects and is affected by job satisfaction. While there may be other variables that may affect job satisfaction of teachers, these are the only variables that were investigated.

Figure 1.2:
Proposed Conceptual Framework of the study

The above figure schematically presents the proposed conceptual framework showing the factors that are likely to affect the leadership effectiveness of principals. These factors include the principal’s gender, age, academic qualifications, administrative experience, type and location of the schools. The perception of leadership effectiveness of the principal could be affected by the teachers’ gender, age and academic level. These personal variables of the principal and the teachers could also affect the perception of school climate and teachers’ job satisfaction. The figure shows that leadership effectiveness of principals, the school’s climate and teachers’ job satisfaction could affect each other. Further, the organisational climate of the school and the teachers’ job satisfaction could be related.

Rationale and Significance of the study

The findings of this study are beneficial to researchers in leadership and organisational behaviour both in Kenya and elsewhere. An instrument of assessing leadership effectiveness was developed in Kenya hence it is culture-specific and a better option of assessing
leadership effectiveness since it takes care of the Kenyan culture. The instruments developed in the Western for the Western countries may not be accurate in assessing leadership effectiveness in Kenya. Therefore, the research has expanded knowledge in organisational behaviour and is useful for research and international investors.

Most teachers spend a large part of their working life at school (place of work), so an understanding of factors involved in their job satisfaction is relevant to improving their well being. Besides, it is believed that increasing job satisfaction increases productivity (performance of teachers and students). The significant others who are involved in the management of education will therefore be informed and subsequently make informed decisions about schools and teachers.

For principals, awareness is created about good and effective leadership and how leadership affects school climate and job satisfaction of the teachers. Those principals who want to improve their management are better equipped. They are able to assess why their teachers absent themselves or malinger and therefore may address the problems. A study on job satisfaction is a powerful diagnostic instrument for addressing teachers' problems. Upward communication is especially fruitful when teachers are encouraged to comment about what is on their minds. The findings of this study are expected to provide feedback on the organisational climate of secondary schools. If better performance is desired, organisational climate is the quality that must be changed before significant improvements in organisational functioning and individual behavior can be realized. If fundamental climate weaknesses are found to exist in this study, then a general focus on activities rather than on results is recommended in the secondary schools.