CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature

This chapter is a record of literature reviewed in the areas of leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organisational climate. These are covered in three major sections below. In each section, the relevant research is discussed followed by a summary highlighting the gaps identified and a forecast on the need for future research in the given area.

2.1: Leadership effectiveness

Development in the field of leadership research started as early as 1930s (Dash, 2005). Up to 1950s, leadership research looked for personal characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. The studies investigated individual traits such as intelligence, birth order, socio economic status, and child-rearing practices (Bass, 1960; Stogdill, 1948, 1974) but no universal trait emerged (Robbins, 2003, p.314). Stogdill (1974) identified six different categories of personal factors associated with leadership: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status and situation but concluded that such a narrow characterization of leadership was insufficient. “A person does not become a leader by virtue of possession of some combination of traits”, (Stogdill, 1948, p.64). These investigations, therefore, led to the conclusion that no single characteristic can distinguish leaders from followers.

The “trait” investigations were followed by examinations of “situations” as the determinant of leadership abilities, leading to the concept of situational leadership. Studies tried to identify types of settings to which leader’s success could be attributed (Hoy and Miskel, 1987). Hendy (1973) reviewed leadership theories and noted that “the situation approach maintains that leadership is determined not so much by the characteristics of the individuals as by the requirements of social situation” (p. 38). According to the research focus, a person could be a follower or a leader depending upon the circumstances. Hoy and Miskel (1987) listed four areas of situational leadership: “structural properties of the organization, organisational climate, role characteristics, and subordinate characteristics” (p. 273). Situational leadership revealed many situations, hence, the complexity of leadership but still proved to be insufficient because, the theories could not predict which leadership skills would be more effective in certain situations.
(Luthans, 2002) because even the HH in both dimensions could fail depending on the situation.

Other research efforts to identify leadership characteristics of the effective leader focused on the fit between personality characteristics, leaders’ behaviours and situational variables. These were the contingency theories of leadership. While the “situational leadership” approach contains an underlying assumption that different situations require different types of leadership, contingency approach attempts to “specify the conditions or situational variable that moderate the relationship between leader traits or behaviours and performance criteria” (Hoy and Miske!, 1987 p. 274). The contingency theory by Fiedler (1967) was the first theory to operationally measure the interaction between leadership personality and the leader’s situational control in predicting leadership performance. According to Fiedler, leader’s effectiveness is based on ‘situational contingency’, or match between the leader’s style and situational favourableness (Fiedler, 1967). Though this theory generated a lot of research, it was connected with many controversies (Ashour, 1973; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977a; Vecchio, 1977, 1983) which Fiedler and his students countered. In the process, they came out with the Cognitive Resource Theory (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987). Cognitive Resource theory (CRT) modifies Fiedler’s basic contingent theory model by adding traits of the leader (Fiedler & Garcia 1987). CRT tries to identify the conditions under which leaders and group members will use their intellectual resources, skills, and knowledge effectively. According to Fiedler, stress is a key determinant of leader effectiveness (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Fiedler, et al. 1993), and a distinction is made between stress related to the leader’s superior, subordinates or the situation itself. In stressful situations, leaders dwell on stressful relations with others and cannot focus on intellectual abilities on their job. Thus, intelligence is more effective and used more often in stress-free situations. This theory has generated a lot of research and has found favour with consultants and trainers because it offered possible ways of improving performance especially by implementing stress-reduction programmes (Dash, 2005).

Similarly, the other contingency theory, the Path Goal Theory (House, 1971) sought to explain leader effectiveness under specific situations, such as the level of member’s maturity, type of decision making task, level of possible control, nature of work organization, etc. House identified four leadership behaviours: directive, achievement-oriented, supportive,
Research changed focus to behavioural theories. The focus of these theories was on finding patterns in what effective leaders do (rather than what traits or skills they have) that make them effective. This research is represented by the IOWA, OHIO, and MICHIGAN state universities studies. The IOWA studies conducted by Lippitt, White, and Lewin in the late 1930s (Luthans, 2002, p.577) talked about the autocratic, democratic, and the Laissez-faire leadership behaviours. The democratic leader was preferred to the other two. These studies were the first to analyse leadership using scientific methodology and showed that leadership can produce different, complex reactions from similar groups. However, over generalization on the basis of the results is dangerous because the subjects were young boys who were not working in corporations.

The OHIO studies, done by an inter-disciplinary team of researchers from psychology, sociology and in economics, developed the initiating structures (concern for organisational tasks) and consideration (concern for people and interpersonal relations) behaviours of leaders. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by Stogdill (1963) for measurement of initiating structure and consideration has been used extensively and continues to be used in the study of leadership. Other variants of the two dimensions of leadership were effectiveness and efficiency (Barnard, 1938), goal achievement and goal maintenance (Cartwright & Zander, 1960), instrumental and expressive activities (Etzioni, 1961) and systems oriented and persons oriented behaviours (Brown, 1967). Halpin (1966) stated that one of the major findings resulting from LBDQ data was that “effective leadership behaviour tends most often to be associated with high performance on both dimensions” (p.97), (Mendez-Morse (2006). The Michigan studies which took place at about the same time as the Ohio studies, also developed two dimensional leadership namely the production centered and the employee styles of leadership. These dimensions emphasized general supervision rather than close supervision and genuine concern for people in the organization. The dimensions very closely resemble the initiating structure and consideration. The findings on effective behaviour of effective leaders generated a lot of interest and continued to be researched as shown by the reliance on LBDQ in leadership research. However, once again, no single pattern of behaviour could be found to be universally associated with high performance and high satisfaction of subordinates. It was not clear if any particular behavioural patterns could be recommended to a specific leader,
and participative, and two situational variables (subordinates’ personal characteristics, and environmental demands such as the rules and procedures) that most strongly contributed to leaders’ effectiveness. This theory led to the development of training programmes to improve leadership effectiveness. However the more the theories were applied, the more were the doubts concerning their validity. There were practical limitations to testing the validity of such claims. Laboratory-based testing was not realistic, they were ‘untestable’ and field based testing had to rely on self reports which were not dependable (Dash, 2005). According to Mendez-Morse (2006), the contingency models furthered the understanding of leadership but did not completely clarify what combination of personality characteristics, leaders’ behaviours, and situational variables were most effective.

Leadership research and literature of the 1970s and 1980s revisited personal traits as determinants of leadership abilities, with its focus on effective leaders. This represents the current leadership or the so-called ‘new leadership theories’, which focus on extraordinary outstanding accomplishment alone. The theories have contributed to understanding the impact of personal characteristics and individual behaviors of effective leaders and their role in making organizations successful. The studies differentiated between leaders and managers and introduced a new leadership characteristic, vision, and explored its importance. Along with vision, effective leaders are said to facilitate the development of shared vision and value the human resource of their organizations (Mendez-Morse, 2006). In addition to these insights on leadership, a new theory emerged, the transformation leadership. The next paragraphs discuss some of these developments.

Theorists of leadership were struggling with the difference between leaders and managers. Bennis and Nanus, (1985, p.21) came up with the statement that “managers do things right while leaders do the right things”. Burns (1978) had described managers as transactors and leaders as transformers. The skills of a manager facilitate the work of an organization because they ensure that the work is done in accord with the organization’s rules and regulations. The skills of a leader ensure that work of the organization is what it needs to be. Leaders facilitate the identification of organisational goals. They initiate development of a vision of what their organization is about. “Management controls, arranges, does things right: leadership unleashes energy, sets the vision so we do the right thing” (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p. 21). The central theme of research is that those who find
themselves supervising people in an organization should be both good managers and good leaders (Mendez-Morse, 2006). As Duttweller and Hord (1987) stated, “the research shows that in addition to being accomplished administrators who develop and implement sound policies, procedures, and practices, effective administrators are also leaders who shape the school’s culture by creating and articulating vision, winning support for it, and inspiring others to attain it” (p.65).

Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leadership, describing it as not a set of specific behaviours but rather a process by which “leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation” (p.20). He stated that transformational leaders are individuals that appeal to higher ideals and moral values such as justice and equality and can be found at various levels of the organization. Burns contrasted transformational from transactional leaders who he described as leaders who motivated by appealing to followers’ self interest. Bass (1985) developed a questionnaire for transformational leadership and thoroughly researched transformational leadership. Although other researchers say that there is a problem with the questionnaire, it has been widely used. Other researchers have described transformational leadership as going beyond individual needs, focusing on common purpose, addressing intrinsic rewards and higher psychological needs such as self actualization, and developing commitment with and in followers (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Coleman & La Roque, 1990; Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1989; 1990). Transformational leadership is paralleled with charismatic leadership whereby the leader has vision on the organization and is strategic in accomplishing the vision, shares the vision with others and values human resources whom he develops and supports in order to accomplish the vision (Mendez-Morse, 2006, p. 4).

Similar to the contingency theory of leadership is the notion of leadership. Barnes and Kriger (1986) suggest that previous theories of leadership were insufficient because they “deal more with the single leader and multi-follower concept than with organisational leadership in a pluralistic sense” (p. 15). They contend that leadership is not found in one individual’s traits or skills but is a characteristic of the entire organization, in which the “leadership roles overlapped, complemented each other, and shifted from time to time and from person to person...[ implying a] more inclusive concept of leadership” (p.16). An
extension of this leadership is the concept of shared leadership. Gibb (1958) argued for this leadership and called it ‘distributed leadership’. Slater and Doig (1988) also refuted the assumption that leadership is a possession of one individual and stated that such a supposition ignores the possibility that leadership may also be exercised by a team of individuals. Murphy (1988), states that the Hero-leader framework ignores the invisible leadership of lower-level staff members through out effective organizations.

Recently, there has been an upsurge of interest in distributed leadership, shared leadership and teacher leadership which somehow mean the same thing, as shown by the writing of many researchers and theorists in leadership (Harris, 2003; Gronn, 2000; 2003; 2002a; 2003a; 2003b). Gronn, (2000, p.333) proposes “distributed leadership is an idea whose time has come” and Harris (2003, 322) adds “with the continued focus on transforming education through building professional learning community within schools, it would seem that teacher leadership is also an idea that is particularly timely”. Research by Hallinger and Heck (1996) has pointed evidence linking leadership at this level to improved student outcomes (Harris, 2003). Other research (e.g. Gronn, 2000; Spillane et al.2001) have similarly suggested that distributed forms of leadership among a wider school staff is likely to have a more significant impact on the positive achievement of student /pupil outcomes than that which is largely or exclusively top down. Harris (2003, 322) argues that “we cannot continue to ignore, dismiss or devalue the notion of teacher leadership as a form of distributed leadership”. Distributed leadership or teacher leadership means allowing teachers to take up roles of leadership such planning, making decisions on their work, teaching methods, what apparatus and equipment to use and evaluation of the students. This involves their participation in decision making and innovation in their areas as well assisting their own colleagues. While allowing for teacher leadership is good for the students and teachers, the principals would perhaps feel that their role has been taken and they would remain as facilitators. There is however need for more research on both distributed, shared or/and teacher leadership.

Worthy of mention is leadership research based on culture. This research was triggered by three questions that were raised by a major international research project under the general guidance of Robert House, called the Global Leadership and Organisational Effectiveness (GLOBE, 1999). One of them is; “Are there any universally effective leader
behaviours” (see Luthans, 2002, p. 599). According to early reports on GLOBE, 21 specific leader attributes and behaviours are universally viewed as contributing to leadership effectiveness. These attributes were embedded in “charismatic/value based leadership, team-oriented leadership and humane/participative leadership” (p. 599). Eight specific leader’s characteristics were universally viewed as impediments to leadership effectiveness and 35 other specific leader characteristics were identified as contributors to success in some cultures and impediments on others (Luthans, 2002, p. 599). Earlier research revealed both similarities and differences when leadership styles and activities were examined across cultures. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) studied managerial attitudes regarding different leadership styles in 14 countries. National groupings alone explained 28% of the variance in managerial attitudes. Later research revealed that the degree of participation used by managers was different across eight countries (Heller & Wilpert, 1981). In a more recent study conducted by Welsh, Luthans and Sommer, (1993), participative management techniques were actually ineffective in a Russian factory. This means that there are a number of factors that contribute to differences in effective leader processes across cultures. Some of the processes that have been studied are personal values, the manager’s background and interpersonal skills. Even transformational leadership and transactional leadership tactics used by leaders may vary in levels of success in differing cultures (Jung and Avolio, 1999). There is reason to believe that cultural issues in leadership should be studied to reveal both differences between cultures and within country practices that will help leaders to be effective. Also, the general findings of the completed GLOBE project are that cultural dimensions do exist that can be identified and measured. Cultural differences can be studied across cultures (etic) or within culture, or country-specific information (emic) (Luthan, 2002). This is because cultural differences influence the ways in which people think about their leaders as well as societal norms that exist concerning the status, influence and privileges granted to leaders. Other smaller international research efforts are also emerging in recent years (Bass, 1997; Church and Wacalawski, 1999; & Brodbeck et al., 2000). Bass examined the nature of the transformational-transactional leadership paradigm across national boundaries. Church and Wacalawski investigated the relationship between leader style (transformational versus transactional) and organisational practices and outcomes, which supports the preliminary findings presented in the GLOBE report. The study by
Brodbeck suggests that there are indeed leadership concepts that are culturally endorsed, in which cultures share similar leadership concepts. Western Leadership effectiveness styles and characteristics cannot be borrowed as they are.

In summary, the literature reveals that effective leadership in an organization is critical. Early examinations of leaders reported the differences between leaders and followers (trait and situational leadership theories). Subsequent studies differentiated effective from non-effective leaders (behavioural and contingency theories). The comparison between effective and non-effective leaders led to the identification of two dimensions, initiating structure and consideration, and revealed that effective leaders were high performers in both. Leadership was recognized as a complex enterprise and as recent studies assert, vision and collaboration are important characteristics of effective leadership (transformational and shared leadership). The recent research has aimed at finding leadership characteristics that are effective across cultures and within cultures. How has the development of research in leadership effectiveness affected studies elsewhere?

In India, according to a review by Kanungo and Misra (2004), leadership and supervision in organizations have been the focus of theoretical and empirical analysis (Ansari, 1990; Kanungo and Conger, 1992; Singh & Bhandarker, 1990 and Sinha, 1990). The most popular approach in studying leadership and supervision has focused on leader’s behaviours or styles of leadership and study of leadership as a social influence process. Studies of leadership role behaviours put emphasis on identifying and measuring the various dimensions of leadership and on specifying the conditions under which these various forms of behaviour were effective. Earlier studies discussed in this review have identified various styles which can be grouped into task role (initiating structure) and social or people role (consideration or nurturance) and participative role as well in the later year’s transformational leadership role. Leadership in India has centered on studying the four styles. Most of these studies have used the LBDQ developed by Stogdill (1963).

The internal work culture of Indian organizations is characterized by employee preference for personalized and dependent relationship with the leader (Kanungo and Misra, 2004). Sinha (1980; 1984) argued that in this context, a nurturant task (NT) leader is the most effective in achieving task objectives. According to Sinha, a nurturant leader is one who shows consideration for his subordinates, whereas a nurturant task leader makes
nurturance contingent on subordinates’ task performance. A number of studies (Ansari, 1988; Hassan, 1985; Sinha, 1984; Sinha, Pandey, Pandey & Pandey, 1988; Sinha & Sinha, 1984) have been reported relating nurturant task role to participative and authoritarian styles of leadership. Sinha (1990a) proposed a developmental perspective to explain the effectiveness of leadership styles in Indian organizations. In this perspective, the objective of an effective leader is to create self-controlling autonomous work groups. In order to achieve this objective, leadership roles develop gradually over time from nurturant task (NT) at the initial stage to participative at the end. Though Sinha (1990a) provided some evidence in support of the model, there is need for empirical validation by use of longitudinal studies in schools as organisational setting.

Several studies have been done that relate leadership roles to control or influence on one hand and organization and personal consequence variables on the other (Hassan, 1987; 1990; Singh and Bhandarker, 1990; Pandey and Singh, 1986). These studies focused on identification of correlates of leadership roles and were mainly exploratory. Ansari and his associates (Ansari, 1988; 1990; Ansari, Kapoor and Rehana, 1984; Ansari, Tandon and Lakhtakia, 1989) had a more programmatic approach in their studies that linked leadership styles and influence strategies. Ansari (1990) agreed with Sinha (1990a; 1990b) that, ‘in the Indian work culture, nurturant task role is the most effective form of leadership behaviour and a one-dimensional authoritarian-democratic role behaviour is an inadequate model for predicting leadership effectiveness’ (Kanungo and Misra, 2004, p.327).

All these studies focused on the supervisory and maintenance of behaviours of managers, hence, ignoring certain core aspects of leadership behaviour such as bringing about organisational change through a leader’s vision of future, formulation and articulation of goals, and building trust and credibility in the mind of followers (Kanungo and Misra, 2004, p.327). This type of leader behaviour comprise of charismatic (transformational) leadership role (Kanungo & Conger, 1992). Kanungo and Conger, (1994) argued that since charismatic leadership is proactive, entrepreneurial, and change-oriented, it is better suited to the need for change in a developing country like India. Kanungo and Conger (1992; 1994) developed questionnaire measures for various dimensions of charismatic leadership.

Research on transformational/Charismatic leadership in India began with the work of Singh and Bhandarker (1990). These authors identified the transformational leadership
styles and value profiles for such leaders by assessing self-perception of the leaders and also perception by followers. In developing their approach to charismatic/ transformational leadership role in Indian organizations, they took into account the role of the Indian social cultural context such the 'karta'(the father figure in a family) and the kutumb (family) culture. Kanungo and Misra (2004) pointed to the need for more research studies in this area. Any organization that wants to change so that it is able to be more effective should use transformational leadership. Research on it under a cultural background is indeed recommended.

Research in leadership in India has considered culture and social psychological system in the development of leadership research (Sinha, 1980; and Ansari and associates, Singh and Bhandarker, 1990). However, even within the culture, researchers could influence the culture positively. This is especially in line with “Arum” (general relaxation even without having worked). People could be encouraged through leadership to appreciate work and take “work” as their own.

2.1.1: Educational leadership

Leadership research in Kenya has focused on identification of leadership styles or behaviours of secondary school head teachers (e.g. Mangoka, 1977; Asunda, 1983; Kihara, 1991; Karanja, 1992; Kariuki, 1998, and Njuguna, 1998). A study by Muchira, (1988), assessed leadership effectiveness of principals in primary school teacher’s colleges. While Muchira used LPC and LMR developed by Fiedler (1967), all the other studies used LBDQ developed by Stogdill (1963). Correlates of leadership included in the studies are age (Njuguna, 1998), gender (Njuguna, 1998 and Asunda, 1983), educational level (Njuguna, 1998 and Mangoka, 1977) size of the student body (Njuguna, 1998 and Asunda; 1983) administrative experience (Njuguna, 1998) students performance (Njuguna, 1998; Muchira, 1988; Karanja, 1992), and job satisfaction (Muchira, 1988). The findings of the studies have varied from research to research. As an example, Muchira found that leadership styles related to students performance while Njuguna found that there was no significant relationship between leadership styles and students performance. While Asunda found female head teachers autocratic, Njuguna found them higher than male head teachers in initiating structure and consideration. However Njuguna’s finding that large schools had principals high in both dimensions of leadership agreed with Asunda’s that large school
head teachers were democratic and head teachers with higher educational level were rated higher in both dimensions (Mangoka, 1977 & Njuguna, 1998).

These findings seem scattered and it is not easy to make a generalization on leadership styles of school leaders in Kenya or which leadership is effective. The findings could be different due to the methods of analysis as some (Muchira, Karanja, Asunda, and Kihara) used qualitative methods while others (Njuguna, Kariuki) used quantitative methods. There is need to do in depth studies that are programmatic and build on knowledge. There seemed to an over reliance on instruments constructed in the West such as LBDQ. There is need to use other instruments and not rely so much on those developed in the west as they may not be appropriate to the Kenyan culture. Instruments need to be developed that are social culturally specific in measurement of leadership effectiveness as has been done in India. There is need to do an exploratory study to find out the characteristics attached to effective educational leaders in Kenya and how they compare with transformational leadership. The following are some of the studies that have been done in the area of Leadership.

Gross and Herriot (1966) studied 175 elementary school principals. He used the Guttman scale to determine the executive professional leadership scores on the functions of a school principal. The scores indicated that the principals varied greatly in their conformity to a professional leadership definition of their role. Questions regarding relationship of age, experience, level of education and sex with executive professional leadership were investigated. The study suggested that the characteristics that may require more consideration in appointing elementary school principals are: a high level of academic performance in college, a high order of interpersonal skill, motive of service, and willingness to commit off-duty time to their work. The study findings were that principals varied in leadership on interpersonal skills and commitment to work and that academic level was important. These characteristics were cited as important in leadership effectiveness.

Garrison (1968) used LBDQ (form xii) in studying the relationship between the leadership behavior and innovation. The data was collected on “15 highly innovative” and “15 low innovative” principals from their staff and superintendent and principals themselves. The results brought out those high innovative principals had high scores on leadership from teachers but low from the superintendents. The opposite was true, that teachers rated low
innovative principals low in leadership while superintendents rated the low innovative principals higher in leadership. There was a discrepancy between the rating of head teachers’ leadership effectiveness by teachers and superintendents. The ratings by the teachers could be more reliable as they know the principals more than anybody else since they interact for much longer periods on a daily basis.

O’Connor (1969) studied the positive characteristics that teachers ascribed to an effective principal. The data collected from 443 teachers spotlighted how an effective principal should behave: i) attend national principals’ meetings, ii) be a man rather than a woman, iii) have a strong interest in humanities, iv) abide by the decision of the majority when an issue is subject to vote, v) perform his duties as he believes they should be done regardless of public opinion, vi) attend national subject area meetings, vii) be well groomed and dressed in the latest fashion, viii) back up a teacher in his/her use of discipline, ix) compliment a teacher on specific work well done and x) encourage the teachers to use new methods of teaching. This study was simplistic. It did not use proper analysis so it is not known what was rated highest in principals’ characteristics. However, it did give some positive characteristics of effective principals and could be repeated but with methods of analysis.

The leader behaviour of 15 men and 15 women principals were compared by Morsink (1970) using LBDQ (form XII). The hypothesis that men performed more appropriately as administrative leaders than women was not supported by the findings. Though this finding was corroborated by Njuguna’s (1998) study, Njuguna had studied leadership styles while Morsink studied administrative efficiency. Statistical tools had been used for analysis and they may not have been appropriate for this size of sample.

Anand (1974) undertook a study to find out the difference between ideal school principals and what school principals were from the teachers’ point of view. The sample consisted of 126 teachers doing M.Ed., part time course, and teachers attending the Masters course at Central Institute of Education, and a few others who were contacted personally. A simple questionnaire was administered in which teachers were asked to write on two points namely an ideal principal in their view and principals of schools as they found them. The responses of the teachers showed no significant difference between the male and female teachers expressing punctuality and cooperation as essential characteristics of an ideal
principal. They also did not differ in that an ideal principal should be a democrat, highly educated and impartial. Further attributes that were considered significant for an ideal principal were good administrator, honest and interested in co-curricular activities. The findings on the second question on principals of schools as you find them indicated that the principals were not democratic and that they were dishonest. This study gave impetus to the present study.

Mangoka (1977) conducted a study of the leadership behaviour in Nairobi and Machakos secondary school head teachers. The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between leadership behavior of secondary school head teachers, their academic background and administrative experience among others. He used LBDQ (real staff) questionnaire which was filled by teachers. He found that leadership behavior was characterized by high scores on both initiating structure and consideration. Graduate head teachers were rated significantly higher than non-graduate head teachers on both initiating structure and consideration. Were there other factors that affected leadership effectiveness other than educational level?

Singh (1978) investigated leadership behaviour of secondary schools' head teachers in Haryana and explored whether they were affected by personal factors of age, sex, and administrative experience. The sample consisted of 500 teachers and 100 head teachers in 100 secondary schools from ten districts of Haryana State. These were compared with professionals from factories, army, colleges, and municipalities. The LBDQ was used for data collection. Among the important findings were: out of the five groups, head teachers leadership took the third position; there was no significant difference in leadership behaviour by sex, age, and administrative experience. However, post graduate head teachers were significantly better than graduate head teachers on 'demand reconciliation'. It may not be right to compare leadership behaviour of schools with other types of institutions because they are completely different in terms of their product and the fact that the product or the output has a voice and inclinations. There is a possibility this was a qualitative study. Education level made a difference in leader behaviour. The findings on sex, age and administrative experience contradicted the findings by Njuguna (1998). This raised the need for further investigation.
Shukla (1981) evaluated leadership in educational administration with aim of identifying the leadership styles, teacher morale and job attitude and their relationship. The study also aimed at finding out if there was any impact of sex and location on educational leadership. The sample comprised of 500 basic school teachers of Sitapur District selected through the systematic sampling technique. Data were collected through LBDQ, Teachers' Morale Scale, and Teachers' Attitude Scale. The K-S two sample test of significance was used for testing the hypotheses. The findings of the investigation were: that consideration dimension of leadership style was more dominant; teachers in girls schools perceived their principals as more initiating structure than those in boy's schools; the perception of teachers in urban and rural schools were not significantly different; leadership in both dimensions of initiating structure and consideration significantly related to teachers' morale and leadership correlated positively with teacher's job attitude and much more so for initiating structure than consideration. The finding on female head teachers being higher in initiating structure was confirmed by Asunda (1983) and Kariuki (1998) and Njuguna, (1998). Those other findings on no significant difference between rural and urban principals' leadership and correlation of job satisfaction of teachers with initiating structure needed further assessment.

Asunda (1983) studied leadership behaviour and styles of secondary school head teachers in Nairobi. The purpose of the study was to establish the leadership behaviour and styles and to find out whether such factors as size of school, qualification of heads teachers and category of the school in terms of sex of pupils influenced leadership styles. Two questionnaires, profile of own behaviour (O.B) and profile of leadership behaviour (L.B) were filled by heads and teachers respectively. She found that most teachers, both male and female, viewed their female head teachers as autocratic and that head teachers of large schools were democratic while those of small schools were viewed to be autocratic. The findings corroborated Gibbon’s (1976) on large schools, Njuguna’s (1998) and Kariuki’s (1998) on female head teachers. The effect of age and administrative experience of head teachers on leadership styles were not reported. Another study on the same variables would rest the case.

Muchira (1988) studied leadership effectiveness in primary teachers' colleges in Kenya with an emphasis on leadership styles, job satisfaction and students' achievement. The study sought to determine and describe the nature of principals' leadership styles, job
satisfaction of teachers and students' achievement. It also investigated the extent of the relationship of these variables. The least preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire was filled by the heads while leader member relationship (LMR) was filled by the faculty. Leadership was found to be effective and principal leadership styles were related to student achievement. Principals were found to employ a relations oriented leadership style but no significant differences were found between task oriented principals and relations oriented principals. These findings were contrary to Karanja's (1992) and Njuguna's (1998) findings who found that principals were significantly higher in initiating structure. Njuguna had also found no significant relationship between leadership styles and performance of students in national examinations. Muchira's study was on colleges all over Kenya. It is worth to replicate this study in secondary schools but using different instruments for leadership effectiveness as the instrument used in this study is not very clear on when there is effectiveness. This study was the first to investigate leadership effectiveness although it mainly reported on styles of leadership.

Njuguna (1998) embarked on a study of leadership styles of Nairobi secondary school principals and its relationships with students' performance in National examinations. She used LBDQ for leadership styles and got scores from the ministry of education (Kenya National Examinations Council). She found that head teachers were significantly higher in initiating structure than in consideration, older head teachers were higher in initiating structure than younger ones, and female teachers were rated significantly higher than male teachers on initiating structure of leadership, principals who had higher education were rated higher than the others on initiating structure, head teachers with greater than 16 years administrative experience were significantly higher than all the others on consideration dimension, and there was no significant relationship between head teachers' leadership styles and students performance. Njuguna's study looked at leadership styles and not leadership effectiveness. However, her findings indicated that female head teachers were more effective than male head teachers. It was appropriate to study leadership effectiveness using instruments prepared in the culture in order to assess and compare the results.

Blasé and Kirby, (2000) did an exploratory research to find out the strategies used by effective and open principals to influence teachers. The sample consisted of 1200 respondents of whom 836 identified their principals as open, effective and participatory on a
7 point scale questionnaire. The analysis they did was on the 836 respondents who comprised of 172 male and 664 female teachers; 292 from rural, 443 suburban and 101 urban locations; 335 elementary, 284 junior and 217 secondary school teachers. Their average age was 37 years and their educational level was BA/BS (229), M.Ed./MA/Eds. (523) and Ed.D/PhD (14). The teachers described 497 male and 339 female principals. Based on teacher’s reports, they concluded that principals who are open and effective praised teacher’s efforts; conveyed high expectations for teacher and student performance; actively involved teachers in decision making; provided teachers the autonomy (freedom) to try creative approaches; supported teachers by providing materials, training opportunities, and backed teachers in student discipline matters; nudged teachers to consider alternative solutions to instruction and discipline problems; judiciously evoked the power of authority and consistently modeled effective practice. Further, principals were found to be honest, optimistic, considerate, and highly visible in their schools. They seemed to enjoy their work and infect others with a positive outlook. Teachers also reported that these strategies had many positive effects on their thinking, attitudes, and behaviour. The most frequently mentioned were enhanced self-esteem and confidence, greater sensitivity to student needs, job satisfaction, commitment and loyalty, flexibility, and creativity, extra time and effort, and improved morale. This study gave base for comparison of findings for the present study.

2.1.2: Summary on leadership

Research on leadership has generally concentrated on finding the characteristics/behaviours/styles that effective leaders have and the situations that make them so. The research has moved through the development of theories, some of which are the trait theory; the democratic and autocratic theories; the initiating structure and the consideration dimensions of leadership group theories; the contingency theory of Fiedler; the cognitive resource theory of Fiedler and Garcia; the path goal theory of House; the transformational leadership theory; the distributed leadership theory which still needs further investigation and the cross-cultural/cultural leadership research theories. Research in educational leadership has borrowed a lot from the general research/industrial research on leadership. Research on leadership in India has developed the Nurturant Task (NT) theory that best fits the rich Indian culture and makes research in leadership in India relevant. However, one
finds a lot of leadership research in India and elsewhere in non-Western world still based on Western theories of leadership. A summary of some research findings are presented here.

Majority of research in education has concentrated on leadership behaviours and styles (Shukla, 1981; Singh, 1978; Garrison, 1968, Mangoka, 1977; Asunda, 1983; Muchira, 1988; Njuguna, 1998), while others have explored the characteristics of ideal school principals (Anand, 1974; O’Connor, 1969; Gross & Herricot, 1966; Blase and Kirby, 2000). Age, gender, administrative experience of the principal, educational level, and pupil performance are some of the demographic variables studied. Most of these researchers have used the LBDQ except for the exploratory studies (Gross and Herricot, 1966; O’connor, 1969; Anand, 1974; and Blase and Kirby, 2000) and the leadership effectiveness study of Muchira (1988) which used the LMR and LPC of Fiedler, (1967). While some researchers agreed in some areas, they disagreed in others as indicated at the end of each case. Research on transformational leadership was limited. The teacher leadership researches within cultural specific contexts were conspicuously missing.

The findings from the studies cannot be generalized as either the samples have been too small (Anand, 1974; Garrison, 1968), or the methods used were non-statistical in selection and analysis (Anand, 1974) and qualitative (Blasé & Kirby, 2000; Anand, 1974). Principals were found to be generally high in both dimensions of leadership (Mangoka, 1977), to have no significant difference between the two dimensions (Muchira, 1988); to exercise more consideration (Shukla, 1981), to exercise more initiating structure and not democratic (Anand, 1974 & Asunda, 1983). The female teachers were higher in initiating structure (Asunda, 1983 & Njuguna, 1998) and teachers in girls’ schools perceived their principals higher in initiating structure than those in boys’ schools (Shukla, 1981). Principals with higher education were rated higher in leadership effectiveness (Njuguna, 1998; Mangoka, 1977; Anand, 1974; and Singh, 1978). Leadership effectiveness correlated with students’ achievement in Muchira’s (1988) study and there was no relationship with students’ performance in Njuguna (1998) study. Age of principals was reported to have no effect on their leadership behaviour (Singh, 1978) but in another study by Njuguna (1998), older principals were higher in initiating structure. Most experienced principals were reported to be considerate to their staff (Njuguna, 1998) but in Singh’s (1978) study,
experience of the principal had no effect on their leadership effectiveness. Shukla (1981) found no effect of location on leadership effectiveness.

From the foregoing review of literature, several gaps have been identified. The studies were fragmented in the choice of variables to correlate with leadership effectiveness. There is, therefore, a need to set up a study that would look at as many correlates as possible for the same sample such as school type (gender of the student body); location (Rural/Urban); gender, age and educational level of teachers. The personal variables of teachers as well as the school variables of location and gender of the student body could affect teachers' perception of their principal's leadership effectiveness.

Most of the studies assessed leadership behaviours with the exception of Muchira (1988) who studied leadership effectiveness. There is need to assess leadership effectiveness as perceived by teachers. There was an over dependency on LBDQ instrument in Kenya which was developed in the West. Even in India, despite the development of a cultural specific instrument developed by Sinha (1980) based on NT theory of leadership, researchers used LBDQ questionnaires. This calls for undertaking a study of leadership effectiveness where the culture of Kenya is kept at the centre. It is mandatory to study those dimensions of leadership which Kenyans value in an educational leader.

2.2: Organisational climate

The locus of the Organisational climate research could be found in the development of the field theory and the quantitative study of attitudes within organisations. Field theory is a label Lewin (1948, 1951) and his colleagues gave to their attempts to represent any particular social process as part of a larger context or field. The concept “climate” can be located in the Gestalt psychology of Kurt Lewin especially in the critical notion of the whole - the Gestalt- meaning that individual elements of perception are formed into wholes that represent more than the simple sum of the specifics of the individual elements. Climate was a gestalt that is based on perceived patterns in the specific experiences and behaviours of people in an organization. In other words, the sense people make of the patterns of experiences, and behaviours they have, or other parties in the situation have, constitutes the climate of the situation.

Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) introduced the concept of climate into the vocabulary of social psychology. They used the terms social climate and social atmosphere
interchangeably to connote the psychological conditions created by leaders of boys’ groups. They were interested in the consequences of the leader behaviour displayed, in turn, by the boys in the groups. Through an experiment, whereby they instructed three people on how to behave towards boys in three different groups (autocratically, democratically and laissez-faire), they found that boys in the democratic condition displayed higher levels of cooperation, participation in class work and more openness toward the leader and each other than did boys in the other groups. However, they were not more productive than the boys under autocratic condition. At the same time, boys under democratic condition liked being part of the group while those in authoritarian condition least liked their group. Under authoritarian condition, boys displayed dependence upon the leader.

This experiment raised several pertinent issues: the role of the leader was important in the creation of climates; the climate or atmosphere of interest was documented in the behavioural and attitudinal differences displayed by the boys under the three conditions; social and interpersonal issues determined the leadership style. Climate in this study was, therefore, an abstraction of a set of behaviours and attitudes of the leaders as well as the followers.

The social tradition was followed by several scholars after word war II, especially at the University of Michigan, where Lewin had helped establish the Centre for Group Dynamics (CGD). Morse and Reimer (1956) published a study on the influence of participation in decision making on process and outcome variables for clerical divisions of a large company. In a field experiment, they showed that under non-participative condition, productivity increased by 25%, whereas in a participation condition, productivity increased by 20%. However in non-participation condition, there were large drops in loyalty, attitudes, interest and work involvement.

Likert (1961) helped define organisational climate research by developing a Likert scale for measuring attitudes, a tool that greatly increased the influence of attitude research in social sciences disciplines. He also developed the “System 4” view of effective management. Likert’s problem was how best to capture the climate of an organization so that he could work with the organisations’ senior managers to monitor and promote its development. The Likert scale he had invented for sociological and psychological research
provided a starting point to capture an organization's climate. Climate came to be represented by an aggregation of individual data from attitude scales.

Following the work of Reimer and Morse (1956) and Likert (1961), Katz and Khan (1966) in the same University, scholarly works were produced emphasizing the human context of work organizations for organisational performance and organisational effectiveness, with an emphasis on both productivity outcomes and human outcomes. Thus Likert and Katz and Khan emphasized the idea that there is more to organisational performance than the short run productivity and that the conditions (atmosphere, climate) created in work place for employees can have important consequences. There was an explosion of research on climate between the 1960s and the 1970s and researchers used surveys to measure attitudes that contributed to social climate in organizations.

Argyris (1957, 1960) wrote about the inclination for work organizations to infantilize workers through the non-participatory, non challenging work processes they imposed upon employees. In the same vein Mcgregor (1960) wrote on the “managerial climate” created in organizations as a function of their “managerial Cosmology”. Research since Lewin focused on the role of the leader, as did Mcgregor in his famous writings on Theory X and Theory Y (1960) emphasizing the role of the manager in creating a “managerial climate”, by which he meant a climate of the relationship between the leader and the subordinate.

The explosion of research on organisational climate in the 1960s through 1970s took many forms. In education, Pace and Stern (1958) developed a measure of college climate based on Murray’s (1938) need-press theory. Halpin and Croft (1963) also developed a questionnaire to measure organisational climate in schools, the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) which is still depended on today by many scholars of climate. In business settings, early measures were those developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Schneider and Bartlett (1968). Litwin and Stringer conducted several laboratory research projects directed at exploring the role of leader’s style in creating work conditions for the manifestations of the needs. Fredericksen, Jensen and Beaton (1972) also explored the effects of climate on performance in laboratory setting. Schneider and Bartlett (1968, 1970) and Schneider, (1972) developed a measure of life insurance agency climate in an attempt to show that individual difference predictors of life insurance agent performance are moderated by the climate of the agency in which the agent works. This brought in the issue
that climate serves as a moderator of individual differences – individual performance relationships.

In England, the intensive and extensive Aston studies (Payne and Pugh, 1976) attempted to establish the relationship between organisational structure and organisational climate. The results were more modest than expected. In the 1960s and into the 1970s, researchers were dealing with the problem of understanding the climate dimensions and the causes of organisational climate. At the same time, three additional issues emerged in the background of research on organisational climate: there was a feeling that the focus on individual levels was conceptually inappropriate; that climate conceptualized and measured as an individual variable was merely old (job satisfaction) wine in new (climate) bottles; there was the feeling that when the construct was treated as an organisational-level variable, little was known about the reliability of the data being aggregated to produce the organisational variable.

Hellrigel and Slocum (1974) resolved the first issue, proposing that when climate conceptualized and measured at individual level analysis constitutes “psychological climate” and when the climate construct is conceptualized and studied as an organisational variable, it is “organisational climate”. This convention was acceptable to researchers and is still operational today. No further research has been accomplished since on psychological climate. Guion (1973) addressed the relationship between climate and satisfaction most directly by making the argument that unless there is 100% agreement among respondents in an organization, all one has is another measure of individual job satisfaction. He was simultaneously clarifying both the construct label and the aggregation issue. The researchers responded to this claim that climate is satisfaction by a series of papers showing that climate data and satisfaction data are not at all necessarily correlated, even at individual level of analysis (Lafollette and Sims, 1975; Schneider and Snyder, 1975). On the issue of aggregation and levels of analysis, Roberts, Hulin, and Rousseau (1978) presented a preliminary discussion of the issues in their early book, elaborated by Rousseau (1985) and Schneider (1985), the latter with specific reference to not only organisational climate but organisational culture as well.

The Roberts et al. (1978) book “exploring levels of analysis of climate problems” and detailed “exploration of levels issues” by James and James (1979) framed the issues well.
James, Demaree and Wolf (1984) suggested a procedure for indexing the reliability of aggregated data that seems to have made the measurement-oriented climate researchers happy. James et al. procedure, combined with the later Dansereau (e.g., Dansereau and Alutto, 1990) WABA technique brought the last of the three issues into the light for resolution. This means that all the issues about organisational climate were resolved. However at about the time of the resolution, organisational culture (Pettigrew, 1979) as an alternative way to conceptualize the gestalt of organizations for their members emerged and it came to dominate the research literature though not without problems.

According to Schneider et al. (2000), a lot of research on climate was done revealing strong relationship between climate and other important organisational outcomes. Reviews by Schneider (1975) and Payne and Pugh (1976) which followed the Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) and Campbell et al. (1970) reviews, could not find convincing support for a relationship between organisational climate and other important indicators of organisational performance and effectiveness. For a while the only work going on in climate seems to have been the reviews of the literature (Schneider et al., 2000). Schneider’s (1975) review of literature on organisational climate concluded that the generic concept of organisational climate was so amorphous and inclusive that the results from the measurement of climate were conceptually amorphous. He proposed the idea that climate has to be climate for something. Schneider pointed out that the climate for something of interest might involve issues as diverse as the climate for safety (Zohar, 1980), the climate for sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand and Magley, 1997), the climate for well-being (Burke, Borucki and Hurrley, 1992) or climate for service. He contended that unless the climate that is conceptualized and measured is tied to the specific something of interest, the relationship between the climate measure and random available criteria of interest will be modest.

Schneider (1973) conducted the first research on the climate for service arguing that the climate construct applies to customers too. In his research, Schneider focused on the degree to which branch banks create for their customers a “warm and friendly atmosphere”. He contended that employee experiences and customer experiences should be correlated. Specifically, he reasoned that the climate for service created for employees would be related to employees’ behaviour which in turn should influence the climate for service experienced by customers. Schneider and his colleagues documented the relationship between employee
experiences of service climate and customer experiences of service climate and service for quality (Parkington & Schneider, 1979; Schneider, 1980; Schneider, Parkington & Buxton, 1980). The most important finding emerging from what has now come to be called ‘linkage research’ was that the climate experiences reported by the employees were validated by the experiences of customers they served. In the era of early linkage research, employee surveys were considered to be assessments of employee morale or job satisfaction and at best indicators of such employee behaviour as absenteeism and turnover at the group and individual levels according to Schneider et al. (2000).

Again a lot of research was generated on linkages in organisational climate between 1980s and 2000s. Wiley (1996) summarized approximately 20 studies on linkage research and published a book on it. These studies included both qualitative and quantitative studies. In fact, he is the person who came up with the name ‘linkage research’. From his summary, he developed the linkage research model, which provides a comprehensive framework for integrating all previously published work in this field. It suggests that the more present certain organisational or leadership practices are in a given work environment, the more energized and productive the work force. In turn, the more energized and productive the work force, the greater the satisfaction of customers and the stronger the long-term business performance of the organization. The model takes note of the moderating effect of work characteristics and elapsed time, (Wiley and Brooks, 2000).

Some of the researches on linkage were cross-sectional studies while others were longitudinal studies. All concurrent studies found positive relationships between components of the model they examined. Johnson (1996) conducted a study evaluating various climate-for-services components against criteria of customer satisfaction. Results showed that all climate-for-service components were significantly related to at least a facet of customer satisfaction. Morrisson, (1997) and Schmit and Allscheid (1995) found significant and positive relationships between how favourably members of an organization described their work environment and how satisfied customers were with product and /or service obtained from the organisational unit. All longitudinal studies (which attempt to provide an insight into causality or directionality of these relationships) indicated, just like the concurrent studies, that positive relationships exist. Schneider, Ashworth, et al. (1996) demonstrated that changes in employee opinions about their work environment preceded
changes in customer satisfaction. Donthu et al. (in press) found that increases in customer satisfaction predicted increases in unit productivity. Both of these studies support directionality implied in the linkage research model – that is, from leadership practices and employee results to customer and business results.

Ryan et al. (1996) found that increases in customer satisfaction precede increases in morale. It was thought that leadership or organisational emphasis being placed on a certain value such as customer satisfaction, or outcome such as operating efficiency precipitate the resulting improvements in both satisfaction and performance. This study supports the conclusion of the longitudinal study by Schneider, White and Paul (1998) which found reciprocal causality between employee measures of service climate and customer perceptions of service quality. Taking the considerations here, it would appear that strong support emerged for linkage model based on both concurrent studies and longitudinal studies.

Organisational climate has been linked to quality of service/products, innovation and commitment in employees of the organization. West and his colleagues Anderson, Hardy, & West (1990) developed a research model which posits that the determinants of group innovativeness are participative safety, support for innovation, climate for excellence and vision. They explained participative safety as a climate factor involving an expectation that one will be appreciated rather than vilified for offering suggestions in the innovation process. Amabile’s (1998) work on creativity offers lots of insight into quality and innovation. Klein and Sora (1996) argue that organisational climate is a key factor in technology implementation and other innovation implementation. Most of the research on organisational climate today is centered on the linkage research model in one way or the other.

2.2.1: Climate studies in non-western cultures

In India, development of organisational climate has been limited and researchers have basically used the models developed in the West. However there have been attempts at development by Pareek (1987). Pareek argued in favour of motivating “work roles” and recommended designing roles in a way that the role expectations of workers and managers are integrated accordingly. According to Pareek, when expectations are integrated through supportive organisational climate, the outcome is role efficacy. Severe role stress caused by unfavourable organisational climate contributes to demotivation of workers. It was observed
that role efficacy was related to supervisory behaviour (Gupta & Khandelwal, 1988) and participative organisational climate (Surti, 1983). Pareek (1989) identified 12 climate dimensions. He also developed a matrix to diagnose the motivational climate of an organization. Pareek's model has utility for both academicians and practitioners. Kanungo and Misra's (2004) review of Indian literature points out that the model may have heuristic value for the diagnosis of climate responsible for the development of various needs, but it lacks precision in both conceptualisation and operationalisation. More work is therefore needed before the scientific validity of the model can be ascertained. However, there is a lot of research on climate as will be seen by studies discussed later in this chapter though none used Pareek's instrument.

In Kenya, studies in organizational climate are lacking. Perhaps it is because of the fact that Africa is lagging behind on research as well as the fact that there was so much controversy in climate before linkage research surfaced. The construct may also have appeared too abstract and difficult to capture. There is also a possibility that it may be difficult for researchers in Africa to publish. However, there is need to do some studies on climate in Kenya. The following are some of the studies done in organisational climate.

Pillai (1974) study aimed at determining the extent to which the organisational climate of schools and faculty morale in the school were related to the quality of schools. The objectives were to investigate the relationship between organisational climate, pupil performance and school innovativeness; to investigate the relationship between faculty morale and pupil performance and innovativeness of schools. The sample consisted of 190 secondary schools selected from Tamil Nadu State. The data collection tools were the OCDQ of Halpin and Croft, the Bentley and Rempell's Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire, an inventory scale prepared by the investigator to assess the innovative ability of the school and a questionnaire for demographic data and pupil performance data. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to analyse data. Among the major findings were; Performance of pupils was superior in autonomous climate than in any other; performance of pupils was best in high morale school; the ability of the school to introduce innovation in educational practices was higher in high morale schools; both climate and morale were positively and highly related to both pupil performance and innovative ability; esprit, thrust, disengagement, and hindrance were found to significantly influence the level of performance of pupils in
schools; the innovative ability of the schools was significantly related to esprit, thrust and disengagement; and there was a high correlation between climate and morale. The study should have been more specific on how the climate conditions affected the innovative ability of the schools and pupils’ performance.

Shelat (1975) studied organisational climate, teacher morale and pupil motivation in Baroda secondary schools. The objectives were to measure and identify organisational climate, teacher morale and the relationship between organization climate and leadership behaviour, teacher morale, pupil motivation and pupil performance in S.S.C. examination. The study was also to investigate if there was a relationship between teacher morale and leadership behaviour, students’ motivation and achievement and whether the variables of organization climate were affected by the location, size and effectiveness of the schools. The sample consisted of 100 high schools selected from 13 Talukas of Baroda district. Tools used were the OCDQ of Halpin and Croft (1963), LBDQ of Halpin and Winer (1957), School Survey by Robert Coughlan, The junior Index of Motivation by Jack Frymier and personal data sheet. The major findings of the study were that organisational climate in rural schools was autonomous and paternal, whereas in urban schools, it was closed and open; Most of the high academic achievement schools had closed climates and low achievement schools had open climate; open climate schools had teachers with high morale; paternal climate contributed to the achievement of both boys and girls; no relationship existed between the age of the teachers and school climate and leadership behaviour did not influence pupils academic performance. From this study, there is at least one major contradiction. It is expected that students’ academic achievement would be high in open climate schools but the finding here was otherwise.

A study on school climate as a function of personality and pupil control ideology was conducted by Gandhi (1977). The sample consisted of 1014 teachers (820 males and 194 females) from 128 secondary schools of North, South, West, and Central Gujarat. The data collection tools consisted of OCDQ-Baroda version and statistical techniques were used in data analysis. Among the major findings were: 36%, 35%, and 29% of schools were found to have closed, intermediate and open climate respectively; small schools had open climate while large ones had closed climate; age and experience of teachers had a significant
relationship with their perception of climate; and sex, and qualification of teachers did not affect their perception of school climate.

Mehare (1977) organized a study on evaluation of administration of secondary school teachers training colleges in Maharashtra with special reference to the principals. The major objectives of the study were: to measure the existing climate of the secondary teachers’ training colleges, to measure the teachers educators morale, to appraise the principals leadership behaviour and to determine the principals role in order of priority with the help of rating scale. Twenty six principals and 190 teacher educators participated in the study. The tools used for the study were the: i) OCDQ (the organisational climate descriptive questionnaire) of Halpin and Croft (1963) ii) the purdue teacher opinionnaire (PTO) iii) the LBDQ (Real Teacher) devised by Stogdill (1963) iv) LBDQ (Real self) v) a questionnaire to evaluate effectiveness of teacher education programme. Interviews were also conducted. The statistical techniques used were factor analysis, analysis of variance, chi-square and t-tests. Among the major findings were: that the colleges’ climate could be arranged on a continuum within ‘open’ and ‘closed’ climates; the colleges of greater Bombay were found to be more ‘open’ than colleges in towns; significant relationship existed between administrative experience and climate type but not with the age of the principal; variations of teacher morale existed in colleges and were related to principals’ administrative experience and college climate was closely associated with teacher morale. Although the study took place in colleges, it brought in the comparison of rural and urban.

Joshi’s (1980) investigation aimed at replicating Halpin and Croft’s study on higher secondary schools of Rajkot city, identifying and classifying the organisational climate of these schools, studying the relationship of different types of schools (sex of the student body), school size, and location of the schools. Fourteen higher secondary schools of Rajkot formed the sample. The OCDQ of Halpin and Croft (1963) as well as interviews with the district Education Officer and the records from the office were used in data collection. The major findings of the study were that all categories of climate were available in schools; the number of higher secondary schools with closed climate were highest followed by those with familiar climate; there was no difference between organisational climate by dichotomies of government and private schools, high or low performing schools, location, and with varying size. School type was not reported.
A study by Khera (1980) sought among others to find out if there was a difference between organisational and educational environments of all the Sainik schools and whether the variables of the principal were more dominant than those of the teachers in organisational climate of the schools. The sample of the study included ten staff members from each of the seventeen schools selected through purposive method of sampling and forty boys of classes VII to XI selected randomly from each school. Data were collected with the help of OCDQ of Halpin and Croft (1963) and School Activity as well as School Characteristics Indices developed by the investigator. Statistical techniques of Thomson’s U-I index, Product moment coefficient of correlation, t-ratios and factor analysis were used for data analysis. Among the major findings were that there were wide variations in the educational environment and organisational climate of different Sainik schools; organisational climate was different by school; in seven schools, the principal variables were more dominant than those in of the teachers’ behaviour in determining organisational climate; in six schools, the principal and teacher variables were equal and in four school, the teachers variables were more dominant. This shows that, the climate was generally determined more by principal variables than by teacher variables in most schools.

Pandey (1981) study was on the relationship between organisational climate of Garhwal’s secondary schools as perceived by teachers and teachers adjustment problems. The study specifically looked at organisational climate of both government and private secondary schools; identified different problems related to adjustment of the teachers; and traced out the relationship between the two variables. The sample consisted of 28 secondary schools both government and private, rural and urban and 500 teachers of both sexes. OCDQ and Adjustment Inventory Questionnaire were administered to the teachers in order to collect data which were analysed by statistical methods. Among the major findings were: that there was a significant relationship between organisational climate and social adjustment of teachers; the government schools had better climate than private schools; the girls schools were better than boys schools in climate; urban schools were better in climate than rural schools; teachers of government schools were more well adjusted than their counterparts in private schools; and teachers working in urban schools had less problems related to home and social adjustment than those in rural schools whereas the rural school teachers were more well adjusted in emotional health and educational adjustment.
Pandey (1989) wanted to find out if there was a relationship between organisational climate and teacher morale in secondary schools in Allahabad district. He sampled 34 secondary schools (25%) of the population, by using stratified random sampling technique on the basis of sex, location of schools. He ended up selecting 22 rural boys, six urban boy's schools, one rural girl school and 5 urban girl schools. He used school organisational climate description questionnaire (SOCDQ) of Motilal Sharma and the Teacher Morale Inventory (TMI) developed by the investigator which were administered to 500 secondary school teachers. 404 questionnaires were used for analysis, chi – square test and Spearman coefficient of correlation were used to determine the significance of relationship between different climate types and teacher morale. The findings were that high teacher morale was associated with the openness of the organisational climate. Low morale was associated with paternal and closed climates. Chi – square tests confirmed the findings. This study results agreed with those of Darji (1975), Mehta (1977) and Pillai (1974). He went on to say that teachers with high morale have a high degree of job satisfaction. It could be concluded that open climate was associated with a high degree of job satisfaction. This prompted the researcher to want to find out whether the same situation existed in Kenya. Report on sex of the student body and location of schools was missing.

Cheng (1991) embarked on a study of leadership styles of principals and organisational process in secondary schools. In 64 Hong Kong secondary schools, he selected 10 teachers randomly and a total of 627 teachers participated. LBDQ was used to measure leadership styles as the independent variable and OCDQ to study organisational process, the dependent variable. He also used Index of Organisational Effectiveness (IOE) to measure organisational effectiveness. Among the demographic variables investigated were the effect of the principal’s administrative experience and gender on leadership and organisational process. Teachers were asked to describe the extent to which each statement characterized their school on a four point scale. The 64 items were divided into 8 subjects: Hindrance (HIN), intimacy (INT), disengagement (DIS), esprit (ESP), thrust (THR), production emphasis (PEM), aloofness (ALO), and consideration (CON). The sum of the item responses relating to each subscale was the score for one dimension of organization process. The study revealed strong relationship between leadership style and organization process in Hong Kong secondary schools. The present study used openness organisational
climate index ($O = \text{thrust} + \text{esprit} - \text{disengagement}$) as a measure of open or closed school climate and developed a scale to assess leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness was expected to be high or low according to total score. It also investigated the effect of principal’s experience and gender on leadership effectiveness and school organisational climate.

Rafferty (2003) embarked on a study of school organisational climate and teacher attitude toward upward communication in secondary schools in USA. The purpose of the study was to describe the relationship between school climate and teacher attitude towards upward communication of information to the principal. A survey questionnaire, organisational climate description questionnaire for secondary schools (OCDQ – RS) developed by Hoy et al. (1991) and communication climate inventory (CCI) were administered to 821 teachers, counselors and library media specialists in 26 schools. 503 questionnaires equivalent to 62.3% return rate were completed and returned. Mean scores and standard deviations were computed for each of the survey items. The mean scores for each of the five subtests of the OCDQ – RS were then aggregated at the school level and then “openness index” was determined for each school. Participating schools were then identified, based on their overall openness indices, on their continuum ranging from the most open climate to the most closed climate school. Two tailed t-test for independent means was used to analyze the differences between mean scores on the 4 aspects of communication. Chi – square was also used. The findings were that significant differences were found in teacher perceptions relative to communication in the teacher – principal dyad. The findings suggested that the open upward flow of relevant information from teacher to principal in secondary schools was more prevalent in open school climates than in closed schools climates. This study gives an insight on the analysis of school climate which looks reasonable rather looking for climate profiles for each school.

Kumaran (2003) studied organisational climate and academic performance. He used the ipsative method, whereby the measures of organisational climate of schools were studied through the responses given by teachers of the school concerned. 852 teachers were selected at random in 75 schools in three educational districts- Chennai, Kanchipuram and Thruvallur. He wanted to find out whether there was a difference in climate between unisex and mixed schools and also if there was a relationship between organisational climate and academic
performance. Among his findings were that: mixed schools had better climate than single sex schools; boys’ and girls’ schools did not differ significantly in all the aspects of organisational climate and high academic level schools had high climate scores and vice versa for poor academic schools. This was the only study found in the search of literature that investigated mixed and single sex schools. The findings in this study assisted the present study in interpretation of results. Studies in this area are conspicuously missing in Kenya. Researchers should address the situation.

Patel (1974) carried out a survey to evaluate instructional leadership in high schools in Surat district. The study also sought to determine the extent of the relationship between leadership and climate, teacher’s morale, and supervisory practices. The sample consisted of 162 schools drawn from Surat, Bulsar and Panchmahals districts. Data was collected by the use of questionnaires – for school organisational climate, rating scale to get the general leadership behaviour, teachers sensitivity for new ideas in supervision, and a checklist to find the out the basic data about methods and programmes in supervision used in schools and the problems of supervision. Among the major findings were; instructional leadership in high schools highly correlated to school organisational climate; leadership and organisational climate of the schools influenced the morale of their teachers. Where the leadership, organisational climate and teacher morale were of high quality, the supervisory practices for improvement of instructions were found to be effective and the teachers were innovative. This study does not tell of what kind of questionnaires were used, whether the researcher made them or adopted them, and the study does not talk of the methods used in analysis.

Sharma (1974) investigated organisational climate of secondary schools in Rajasthan, aiming at replicating Halpin and Croft’s study, classifying the climate, and comparing the results with those of Halpin and Croft. He also investigated the relationship between organisational climate and faculty size, experience and age, experience of the headmaster, as well as between teacher satisfaction and headmaster’s effectiveness. The sample consisted of 1066 secondary schools of Rajasthan spread over 27 districts. The tools used were the Halpin and Croft’s OCDQ, Stogdill’s LBDQ and simple five point scales to measure teachers’ satisfaction and principals’ effectiveness. Internal and external examination results were used as the school’s academic performance index. Statistical methods were used for
analysis of data such as factor analysis, Chi-square and multiple regressions. In addition to identifying the eight dimensions of organisational climate given by Halpin and Croft, some new dimensions, namely, psychological hindrance, alienation, control, and humanized thrust emerged. Humanized Thrust manifested by the leader was composed of thrust and consideration of OCDQ. The results of his study were in consonance with those of Halpin and Croft. Significant positive correlations were found between faculty age and 'Disengagement', faculty size and 'Disengagement', teacher satisfaction and school climate, headmasters effectiveness and school climate, and school academic achievement index and humanized thrust. The study gave the researcher impetus to study climate in Kenyan schools.

Darji (1975) embarked on a study of leadership with a view to: identify the leadership behavior patterns of principals of sample schools of the selected district; identify the organization climate of the sampled schools; measuring teacher morale in the sampled schools; study inter–relationship between leadership behavior of the principals and organization climate, teacher morale, innovativeness of the school, and motivation of the pupils towards the schools and ultimately building up a picture of the achievements of the pupils in terms of the secondary school certificate results; study the significance of the relationship between initiating structure and consideration with, among others; a) school size, b) type of school (sex), c) age of the principal, d) sex of the principal, e) experience of the principal f) teacher morale, g) organisational climate. Data were collected from 400 teachers, and 1000 pupils in 100 schools selected on stratified basis from Panchmahal district. Tools of data collection were: i) LBDQ for leadership, ii) OCDQ for organisational climate, iii) the tool for measuring teacher morale by Robert Coughlan (school survey), iv) the innovativeness scale prepared by Doctor and v) the Junior Index Motivation (JIM) scale. The findings were that: Leadership behavior dimensions and patterns were critical indicators of organisational climate, staff morale, academic motivation, school innovativeness and academic status; all the principals of the open climate schools manifested HH leadership behavior pattern; the leadership behavior patterns were found to have significant relationship to climate, morale, and innovativeness. Though there was no direct relationship between leadership behavior and student’s motivation, literature indicates that the two are related (Blasé and Blasé 2004; Blasé and Kirby, 2000; Silver, 1983). The present study examined some of the variables that were investigated in this study namely leadership, organisational
climate and job satisfaction as well as the effect of principal’s age, gender and administrative experience and school type. It also measured climate in terms of openness or closed-ness.

Rajeevalochana (1981) studied the administrator behaviour in secondary schools of Tamil Nadu. The aim was to measure the administrative behaviour of the principals, the school organisational climate and teachers’ morale as well as establish if there was a relationship among the variables. A random sample of 150 schools secondary and high schools participated in the study. Data were collected using the Administrator Behaviour Description Scale (ABDS), Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), and Teacher Morale Inventory among others. Data were analysed using percentages, t-test, coefficient of correlation, Chi-Square test and analysis of variance. Among the major findings were: there was no relationship between administrative behaviour and organisational climate; the organisational climate tended to be more closed than open and there was a significant relationship between the climate of the schools and the morale of teachers.

Darji and Dongre (1982) studied school renewal with respect to organisational health. They wanted to identify the leadership patterns of principals in Baroda district and Baroda city, identify organisational climate and identify the nature of organisational health of the schools. The survey was undertaken in 50 schools, 25 of them in the city and the other 25 in the district. They used LBDQ, the OCDQ of Halpin and Croft and organisational health description questionnaire developed by the investigators. The findings of the study were: among the schools studied, 44 per cent had principals manifesting HH pattern of leadership behaviour and 34% of the schools had principals with LL pattern; closed organisational climate was prevalent in 32% schools, while 18% schools had open climate and 18% had autonomous climate; open and closed climates were more in the district than in the city; teachers in district schools were more cohesive than in the city schools; As one moved from openness to closed-ness, the mean scores on almost all dimensions of organisational health decreased and communication adequacy was poor in paternal and closed climates. The kind of leadership style adopted by the principal affected the kind of health the school had e.g., those schools with principals with HH style were good at innovativeness, and HL pattern of leadership were best in goal focus, innovativeness, and problem-solving while the LH
pattern of leadership schools were poorer than the other schools. This means that organisational health is affected by both leadership behaviour and organisational climate. Leadership is very important. The presence of consideration is good but absence of initiating structure makes the leader ineffective.

Mittal (1975) study on organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers had the following findings: the schools in the study did not resemble any prototype profile as given by Halpin and Croft; satisfied teachers perceived less disengagement and hindrance and higher degree of esprit; teachers in government schools were more satisfied than those in aided schools and the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers and their effectiveness was fairly established.

Sharma (1975) set out to examine whether school climate had any relationship with principals effectiveness and teacher satisfaction. The sample consisted of 95 secondary schools of Rajasthan, selected randomly. The OCDQ by Halpin and Croft (1963) was used for measuring the school climate. Two rating scales were developed by the investigator for measuring teacher satisfaction and principal's effectiveness. Pearson product moment and Spearman Rank correlation methods were used for calculating correlation coefficients. The research showed that principal's effectiveness and teacher satisfaction were positively and significantly related to school climate. It was noted that teacher satisfaction was negatively related to aloofness and not related to production emphasis. Teachers' satisfaction was found to be significantly and positively related to esprit, thrust and consideration. The results were in agreement with the literature, though a proper mix of production emphasis and consideration could give satisfaction, (Silver, 1983). The present study aimed at replicating Sharma's study in Kenya with a few adjustments.

Amarnath, (1980) did a comparative study of organisational climate of government and privately managed higher secondary schools in Jullundur District. Among the investigated hypothesis were: the organisational climate of the two types of schools does not differ significantly; the variables of principals' behaviour are more dominant than those of teachers' behaviour; there is no significant difference in job satisfaction of principals as well as of teachers; there is a significant relationship between the organisational climate of the two types of schools and the job satisfaction of principals as well that of teachers working therein and there is a positive relationship between the organisational climate and the
academic achievement of students of government and privately managed schools. The sample comprised of all the 32 high schools in the district and at least 9 teachers from each school. Data were collected by the use of questionnaires namely the OCDQ of Halpin and Croft, teachers' job satisfaction scale developed by the investigator, and results of Higher Secondary Part II examination for the years 1977-1979. The data were analysed use of statistical methods among them, the ANOVA, t-test, and product moment correlation. Among the major findings were: that there were no significant differences between government and private high schools in organisational climate although there were differences from school to school; the organisational climate of the schools did not significantly affect job satisfaction of teachers and there was no positive relationship between the organisational climate and the academic achievement of students. The second finding on organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers is a contradiction of many other studies that found a relationship between the two.

Sharma and Gaba (1989) studied factors and forces that determined the direction and dimensions of organisational climate in government and privately managed higher secondary schools. Another objective was to examine whether there was a relationship between organization climate and job satisfaction of staff and students' achievements in the board examinations. Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) and Teacher Job satisfaction Scale were used for collecting data. Mean score of the results of the students' higher education part II were used for students' achievement. Thirty two principals of high secondary schools of one district in Punjab (Jolandhar) and not less than nine teachers per school formed the sample, a total of 753. Statistical techniques were used for analysis. Among the findings were: that principals of both Government and private schools did not differ in their behavior as leaders; disengagement was found to be low in privately managed schools; hindrance was found in all schools except two privately run; there was no significant difference between the organisational climate and job satisfaction of principals in both Government and privately managed higher secondary schools as a group; there was no difference in job satisfaction of teachers; there was a positive relationship between organisational climate variables and variables of job satisfaction; there was no relationship between organisational climate and academic achievement. This is contrary to expectation.
When climate impacts positively on job satisfaction, it is expected that performance will be better. However there could have been other intervening variables.

2.2.2: Summary of organizational climate research

Development of organisational climate, therefore, started around the 1950s and exploded in the 1960s. In the 1960s to 1970s there was a lot of research on organisational climate especially in the development of tools for measurement of climate. At around that time problems arose in the measurement of climate and as the researchers tried to deal with the challenges, culture was introduced as the alternative. However, the problems of measurement of organisational climate were resolved and research on organisational climate continued in the 1980s and 1990s which has concentrated on ‘linkage’ that is climate for a purpose. This links climate with customer satisfaction, innovation and technology. If the right climate is not there these three variables will suffer. Organisational climate cannot be denied as a feeling about the personality of the organization.

Studies on school climate have indicated an over reliance on OCDQ by Halpin and Croft (1963). Only Sharma (1973) tried to do adjust the instrument to fit in the Indian culture, but even then, the current researchers still use the OCDQ. The studies in India just assess the differences between rural/urban, Government/ private, or Male/female. There has not been much development in School organizational climate. There is need to check the relevance and validity of using the OCDQ in the different cultures. Studies on school climate have generally not been done in Kenya. The need for such a study was, therefore, established

2.3: Research on Job Satisfaction

Research concerning the nature, causes and correlates of job satisfaction has been mushrooming since the pioneering studies by Hoppock (1935) and Houser (1938). Locke (1976) reviewed over 3350 research articles published on a variety of issues concerning job satisfaction, an indication that job satisfaction has been highly attractive to researchers. As one looks at several researches, one finds the field of job satisfaction full of disagreements and contradictions of the results. These disagreements could be due to factors such the nature of occupations studied, the subjects investigated and the methods employed in data collection. However, even with the disagreements, there are broad areas of agreements. This review will concern itself with satisfaction with the job itself (intrinsic) or the content
factors and the context factors (Supervision, coworkers and pay) also referred to as extrinsic factors.

2.3.1: Satisfaction with the Job itself

Argyris (1957), Davis (1957), Haire (1954), Leavitt (1951) have drawn attention to the fact that most researchers have used hierarchy of need satisfaction in one form or another to explain satisfaction with the job. Kuhlen (1963) found that his subjects reported a higher degree of satisfaction with their work while Macharia (1984) reported otherwise. Job satisfaction varied with the amount of satisfaction of needs from the occupation. Intrinsic factors such as self expression, autonomy, etc., are important determiners of job satisfaction at higher occupational levels while extrinsic factors such as pay, security, coworkers, etc, are important at lower occupational levels. Most studies have found that teachers are satisfied with the intrinsic factors of the job or the job itself (Bogler, 2001, 2005; Koustelios, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999; and Dinham and Scott, 2000). Rao, (1986) found that job satisfaction among teachers is related to intrinsic motivation, job challenge and work identification. Hackman and Lawler (1971) found a correlation between job satisfaction and task autonomy and those with higher order needs were less satisfied with jobs that did not allow for freedom to make decisions about their job. Vroom (1962) found a high correlation between opportunity for self-expression and job satisfaction. Singh (1975) however, found both content and context factors to be satisfiers contrary to Herzberg et al. (1959) theory of motivators and dissatisfiers, hence dismissing the theory. Dalal and Singh (1986) and Mandera (1995) studies also arrived at the same conclusion. It therefore looks like the satisfaction of higher order needs such self esteem, self expression; autonomy and recognition are responsible for satisfaction with the work itself but satisfaction of lower level needs may also be related to job satisfaction.

Halpin (1966) stressed the nature of work itself and the opportunities it affords for advancement as important factors. Wolf (1967) considered achievement and advancement in addition to security as important in job satisfaction. Achievement requires external validation (recognition). This can be given in form of promotion within an organization. Promotion also has the function of placing the most able people in the jobs which require the greatest exercise of skills. Some studies registered satisfaction with promotion opportunities (Maghradi, 1999; Brookhart and Loadman (1996) and while others showed dissatisfaction
with the same (Koustelios, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999). Promotion can have problems especially if some members feel that it is not deserved or when the methods used in promotion are not right. Gruneberg et al. (1974a), Nicholson and Miljus (1972) and Gruneberg et al. (1974a) found that university lecturers were dissatisfied with the promotion procedures from which they benefited because promotion was hitched on publications and ignored administrative and teaching responsibilities. Promotion involves increase in financial reward and status. Salary in this case is related to status and recognition. Other recognition can also be given in verbal comments such as praise. Locke (1976) argues that all employees value being praised for their work by supervisors and colleagues. Praise raises self esteem. He found recognition to be the single most frequently cited events causing either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Promotion itself brings self esteem and recognition by the management of superior performance. The higher pay that comes with promotion can be a motivator and make someone satisfied by their job. It is more a content than a context factor in this case. Teaching is one of the high level jobs in which the principal can give recognition and praise for good performance as well as autonomy in allowing the teachers to make their decisions in planning their work and in use of methods of teaching. This is bound to raise the teachers' job satisfaction.

Perhaps then the most important factors related to the job itself are the attainment of success and recognition, the application of skills, the feeling of doing something worthwhile and involvement with ones job. Locke (1965) found that success in self-set goals was more satisfying than success in imposed goals while Ivanecovich (1976) found achievement of imposed goals to be more satisfying than achievement of self-set goals and that specific goals were preferable to general goals. Arvey et al. (1976) however, pointed out that the influence of different methods of goal-setting disappeared after a twelve-month period. This means that whether goals are self-set or imposed by others, satisfaction comes if goals are set. Success on a task influences job satisfaction depending on the importance of the task to the individual and to the organization. Successful performance in the self-set goals or goals set by others in the organization raises self esteem and therefore job satisfaction. The more involved one is in setting the goals the more the job satisfaction. Success in a significant task raises self esteem and therefore job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Hackman et al. (1975) argued that task significance is an important aspect of job satisfaction. By task significance
they meant the degree to which the job has substantial and perceptible impact on the lives of others. Success is related to the positive performance of a job. Investigations by Heron (1952, 1954) pointed to the importance of job performance resulting in job satisfaction. Porter and Lawler (1965) reported a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and performance. However, after reviewing a number of studies in this area, Brayfield and Crockett (1955) reported inconsistent results concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Lawler and Hall (1970) reported job satisfaction to be unrelated to job performance but held that it was related to job involvement. An earlier report by Lodhal and Kejner (1965) also pointed to similar conclusion. The results here indicate inconsistency in the relationship between performance and job satisfaction. Teaching is one significant task as it involves the lives of human beings. Success in teaching is expected to raise self esteem and therefore job satisfaction. 

The importance of various aspects of skill on job satisfaction was noted by Hoppock (1935) as one of the principal areas in job satisfaction. The study by Walker and Guest (1952) has been the most influential in pointing out the relationship between skill level and job satisfaction. The positive relationship between the use of skills and job satisfaction has been reported as statistically significant by a number of studies. For example, Mann and Hoffman (1960) found that job satisfaction increased when workers in one plant were transferred to another which required a greater number of duties. Hackman and Lawler (1971) have clarified the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. They confirmed Walker and Guest (1952) finding that jobs which have little variety, on average lead to lower job satisfaction. Hackman and Lawler (1971) found that those employees who did not feel a great need to have an opportunity for growth or to do challenging work were less dissatisfied with jobs offering little variety. Thus individual need is very important in determining satisfaction with a job. Also, those with too much ability will be dissatisfied with a job at a particular level. Vroom (1964), cites a study in which it was found that more intelligent clerical workers tended to leave the easier jobs and stay in the more difficult ones, whereas for the less intelligent, the reverse was the case. This is related to the use of skills and to success in the job which raises self esteem. It is also true that unless one has the skills needed for a job, one cannot be given the autonomy and neither will one want the autonomy.
Those with high need for growth are more satisfied when they are given responsibility to determine their own work methods.

Job involvement is a major aspect of job satisfaction. Greater job satisfaction was attained when there was greater job involvement. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) in a study of engineers found high job involvement to be related to satisfaction with the work itself, and to satisfaction with supervisors, promotion and interaction with people. Job involvement is the extent to which an individual identifies with the job. A study by Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) found job involvement to be related to three motivator variables (recognition, achievement and responsibility) and one hygiene factor (personal relationships). However, they found no relationship between job involvement and satisfaction with the work itself. This was contradicted by Lawler and Hall (1970). Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970) study supports Weissenberg and Gruenfeld’s view that job involvement is related to motivators rather than hygiene factors which cause job satisfaction according to Herzberg (1957). To be job involved or not to be depends on the organisational structure as well as the individual (Argyris, 1964). Some situations allow for involvement while others do not and one’s work ethics which may have been learnt from childhood also play a role. Dubin and Champoux (1977) found central life interest (CLI) to be related to job satisfaction. Workers with work oriented, central life interest (CLI) had higher job satisfaction as measured by Job Description Index (JDI). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) examined the relationship between job involvement and variables of sex, age, education, length of service and marital status. For all the variables, the relationship with job involvement was either very low or the evidence was contradictory. Rabinowitz and Hall, after a review of job involvement and ageing, found mixed evidence. Some studies found job involvement to increase with age and other studies showed no relationship. However, the older the individual, the more chance he/she will have to do with the job.

Job involvement is an essential aspect of job satisfaction and studies have shown a correlation between the two. Job involvement is likely to increase either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the job. Both individual factors, including personality, and factors on the job affect involvement. Some of the important factors appear to be the individual’s need to have a challenging job, and a job that allows for the application of skill, responsibility and the possibility of individual achievement.
Satisfaction with the job itself depends on success/achievement in worthwhile tasks, recognition granted by superiors (shown by promotion or just praise) and one's colleagues. A job that allows for application of skills, involvement and autonomy is more satisfying than otherwise. Teaching is one such job where teachers usually make decisions on their teaching methods and assessment. It is expected that teachers would be satisfied by their job. Other factors, such as pay, social interactions, and supervision all have a significant effect on the individual's feeling of wellbeing on the job. These are discussed below.

**Job satisfaction and context factors**

Factors associated with the job itself have been described as intrinsic or content factors while those such as pay, supervision, and coworkers have been described as extrinsic or context factors. These correspond to Herzberg's distinction between motivators and hygiene factors. Although most recent work has concentrated on the importance of content aspects of job satisfaction, few workers deny the importance of context factors. Herzberg et al. (1959) regards factors such as pay as of critical importance, since deficiencies in pay may prevent the individual from concentrating on those aspects of job that are fulfilling. Other researchers such Locke (1976) regard extrinsic factors as being capable of causing both satisfaction and dissatisfaction but generally regard context factors as less important to job satisfaction than content factors. The context factors considered here are pay, work-groups, supervision, participation and organizational climate.

### 2.3.2: Satisfaction with pay

Lawler's (1971) review of literature found pay to be reported as the job aspect with which most employees expressed dissatisfaction although it was rated third in importance. The importance of money was highlighted by Opsahl and Dunnette (1966) who noted that executives try to reach the highest paid jobs, bankers embezzle, and robbers rob and University teachers publish to increase their earnings. Money seems to be central to our thinking in relation to our jobs that it leads one to be suspicious about research findings which report money as being of relatively low importance. This could be because those interviewed do not want to look like they value money than the job.

Money could be connected to achievement and recognition by one's peers in an organization which in turn gives self-esteem; hence satisfaction with pay especially when it is connected with promotion. Indeed, Mandera (1995) and Njoka (2002) agreed that pay was
important in teachers' job satisfaction. Kouselios (2001) and Oshagbemi (1999) found teachers in their studies dissatisfied with pay. It is therefore extremely difficult to test Herzberg’s contention that money is a hygiene factor. Lawler (1971) after examining literature concluded that factors such as education, skills, job performance, age, seniority, sex, organisational level, time span, non-monetary outcomes, amount of pay, and payment methods were connected with satisfaction with pay. Gruneberg (1979) pointed out that it is not necessarily actual level of pay which is related to job satisfaction, but amount of pay received relative to others with whom one is comparing. This is supported by the work of equity theorists discussed in chapter one. Warr and Wall (1975) point out that any one engaged in wages bargaining would expect this. Schwab and Wallace (1974) showed that satisfaction with pay is also related to position in the organization. To them, it appeared that the higher one goes the less satisfied one becomes with pay. A probable explanation for this finding was reported by Lawler (1971) that managers over-estimate the amount of pay received by their subordinates. Over assessment of what others below you are getting is likely to lead to dissatisfaction. However, one would expect higher satisfaction for a person at a higher level job as one gets higher pay and pecks higher up the ladder. Besides people higher up have more facilities and benefits than those lower down. Schwab and Wallace also examined sex in relation to pay satisfaction. They found that females were more satisfied with pay than males. They explained that maybe women expect less pay or perhaps they regard themselves better off than women workers elsewhere. Schwab and Wallace found no relationship between age and satisfaction with pay contrary to the findings by Lawler (1971). Osaphl and Dunnette point out that satisfaction with pay is not necessarily related to productivity. Grunenberg (1979) posits that what really causes pay satisfaction could be the comparison that individuals make between themselves and others on factors such as level of skills (education), amount of effort, responsibility and past experience which the individual weighs up on the input side. The equity of payment for this input is related to the amount of pay that similar individuals receive for similar inputs. Others are levels of aspirations (individualistic), such as pay does not enable him to acquire the kind of material goods the society has to offer, or to avert domestic conflict over acquisition of goods or comparing to what he received one or two years ago. Dyer and Theriault (1976) advice that their findings
seem to support the apparent futility of searching for a universal determinant of pay satisfaction, noting the complexity of the problem.

Whatever people say about pay, it is important and central to the thinking of workers. It is the main reason workers wake up every morning and go to work. Most workers are dissatisfied with their pay. Satisfaction with pay occurs mainly due to comparison between people of the same educational level (equity), the level of involvement, with the job, and whether pay meets the aspirations of the individual.

2.3.3: Importance of Workgroups

Herzberg at al. (1957), in their review of literature found that social aspects of the job were rated first, on average, in response to the question of what made people most satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. Social interactions at work are likely to provide a major source of satisfaction. This is because workers are likely to interact with others to a greater extent ‘on job’ than with many other ‘off the job’ friends and even close family. According to Maslow, need for social interaction with others is one of the basic lower needs and there are a number of studies showing demoralizing effects of social isolation in work situations. Walker and Guest (1972), For example, showed that individuals isolated from others because of the design of the job, tended to be more dissatisfied with their jobs than others. Vanzelst (1952) showed that where individuals are allowed to increase their interaction at work, the social interaction increases the workers’ job satisfaction. Cross and Warr (1971) findings, indicated that where work-groups are constituted in terms of similar levels of skill of individuals, as is the case with different departments in secondary schools, satisfaction and productivity increased. Studies such those of Vanzelst (1952), and Trist and Bamforth (1951), show clearly the important psychological effects of supportive workgroups. Lott and Lott (1965) considered group acceptance as a measure of attractiveness. One is valued as an individual and this is likely to lead to self esteem. Van Zelst (1951) has shown that the more a worker is valued by his fellow workers, the greater is his job satisfaction. Groups are attractive to individuals because they can give support in times of stress or threat from superiors. The isolated individual is relatively powerless against bullying by his superiors and groups allow for the attainment of goals not possible for the individual alone (Gruneberg, 1979). Indeed, Dinham (1995) found teachers satisfied with their colleagues. Adams and Slocum (1971) found a relationship between job satisfaction and degree of group
cohesiveness for employees with low levels of skills. For high level jobs, however, the actual job itself may be relatively more important in determining job satisfaction than social interaction.

2.3.4: Satisfaction with supervision

Herzberg et al. (1957) in examining the findings of sixteen studies, found supervision to be ranked sixth in importance, behind such factors as security, wages, and intrinsic aspects of the job. Vroom (1964) cites evidence that there are often changes in satisfaction following changes in supervision. Lewin, lippitt and White (1939) study on styles of leadership showed that the group preferred democratic leadership in a supervisor. This means that employees prefer a considerate supervisor. Thus, House, Filley and Kerr (1971) and Warr and Wall (1975) note a number of studies in which consideration in supervisors is related to job satisfaction. An example of these is Sadler's (1970) study of computer personnel whereby the findings were that both males and females preferred a leader who consulted employees about decisions, although the preference was considerably greater for males than females. She also found supportive supervisory styles to be associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. The relationship between supervisory style and job satisfaction has been reported in educational institutions and government agencies among others. Examples of studies that have recorded satisfaction with supervision are such as (Koustelios, 2001; Bogler, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999 and Maghradi, 1999) while Kirby, Paradise and King, (1992); Koh and Steers (1995) and Bogler (2003, 2005) found teachers more satisfied with principals’ transformational leadership and participative decision making but Dinham and Scot, (2000) found their subjects dissatisfied with leadership. It has also been shown in a number of studies that considerate leadership is related to productivity (Gruneberg, 1979). As Warr and Wall point out, however, it is not surprising that considerate leadership and job satisfaction are related since an intrinsic aspect of considerate leadership is that the leader is ‘pleasant’ and ‘nice’. However, most studies are correlational and causality cannot be assumed. Perhaps it is when the productivity is high that the leader is nice to the follower.

Foa's (1957) study found that there are individuals with authoritarian personalities who prefer authoritarian directed leadership. This is in line with Lewin, Lippitt and White findings that not all the boys in their groups preferred democratic leadership. House, (1971)
also pointed out that not every individual wants the same from a superior. Several studies have shown that the authoritarian leadership is resented by unskilled and semiskilled workers whereas among high level employees, task-oriented leadership is positively related to satisfaction and performance. House (1971) suggested that this is because for high level employees, a leader who is task oriented can use his greater skill to help the group members attain their goals. However, he went on, for low level workers, the skills required of the supervisor in enabling the individual to reach his goals are considerably less and the leader imposing structure on the job is seen as an external control and limitation on behaviour. Weed et al. (1976) found that the leader high on both task-orientation and human relations was liked the best as a supervisor. The finding by House (1971) that for high level employees task-oriented leaders are appreciated indicates that apart from human relations skills, other leadership skills are related to job satisfaction. Being nice and pleasant to ones subordinates is not of itself enough to ensure job satisfaction. Misshawk (1971) confirms for example, that employees look for more than human relations skills in their supervisors whatever their occupational level.

2.3.5: Job satisfaction and Participation

Lischeron and Wall (1975a) noted that correlational evidence supports the view that the degree of perceived participation is related to employee satisfaction especially in immediate participation. Coch and French (1949) in their famous study on 'overcoming resistance to change' found that involvement in participation resulted in increases in productivity though they did not provide any statistical significant evidence on the effects on job satisfaction. However, to have one's view considered and acted on is likely to increase one's self esteem. It also allows more freedom to act in the way one thinks suitable for one's own abilities and thus increases potential for applying skill to a particular job. Herspe and Wall (1976) found in their study that 60-70% of their subjects felt that they should be involved in immediate participation and that their views should be noted. Kirby, Paradise and King, (1992); Koh and Steers (1995) and Bogler (2003, 2005) found teachers more satisfied with principals' transformational leadership and participative decision making. However, as Lischeron and Wall (1975a) put it, management may feel that giving others a say in decision making could reduce one's own powers and it takes too long for decisions to
be made. People want to participate in order to feel their interests are best represented especially by blue collar workers and university cadres.

**Job satisfaction and individual differences**

Research findings in this area were even more inconsistent than in other areas. The factors considered here are age, gender, education.

Job satisfaction and age

Herzberg et al. (1957) findings on the relationship between age and job satisfaction showed that job satisfaction starts high, declines and then starts to improve again with increasing age. This relationship was found in male populations of the study but a study by Glen, Taylor and Weaver (1977) indicated that female job satisfaction follows the same pattern with increasing age. Hunt and Saul (1975) failed to find any relationship between job satisfaction and age for female subjects but got the “U” shaped curve for male workers. Exceptions to the “U” curve for relationship between age and job satisfaction were got by Hulin and Smith (1965) and Saleh and Otis (1964). They found that job satisfaction declined for some five years before retirement may be due to a blockage in the possibilities of growth and achievement. Herzberg et al. (1957) suggest that job satisfaction increases with age because the individual comes to adjust to his work and life situation. Job satisfaction is initially high but declines as expectations are not met only to rise again as the individual again adjusts to his work situation. There is also the possibility that it is not the effect of age per se but the increased opportunity older workers have to find the job that suits them. Also, values and expectations at different age levels will be different. Clearly, differences in job satisfaction by age may be due to different values that different groups of individuals have because of their life experiences. This does not mean that those who are young will necessarily become more job satisfied as they get older. Greater job dissatisfaction in a work group would appear to manifest itself in counter productive behaviour. Mandera (1995) found significant differences in job satisfaction due to age and Koustelios (2001) found age a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Njoka (2002); Kremer, Hayon and Goldstein (1990) and Bogler (2005) found no significant effect of age on job satisfaction while Borg and Falzon (1989) found older teachers less satisfied with their job than younger teachers. Although there was a general agreement that age affected the job satisfaction of teachers, there were some studies that did not corroborate the finding.
2.3.6: Job satisfaction and gender

The relationship between job satisfaction and sex differences has been inconsistent. Some studies found male or female teachers to be more satisfied (Male more satisfied; Njoka, 2002; Female more satisfied; Koustelios, 2001; Borg and Falzon, 1989; Bogler, 2001, & 2005; Brookhart and Loadman, 1996; Chapman and Lowther, 1982; Watson, Hatton, Squires and Soliman, 1991; and Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein, 1990), while others found no difference (Hulin & Smith, 1964; Mandera, 1995). No firm conclusions can therefore be made. Schuler (1975) for example, found that females in his study valued the opportunities to work with pleasant employees more than males, whereas males regarded the opportunities to influence important decisions and direct work of others as more important. Uniyal (1976) also found highly satisfied male teachers displayed higher needs for achievement. Other researchers have confirmed Schuler's finding in showing that females rate some aspects of the job as more important than males. Herzberg et al. (1957) also noted sex differences in the importance assigned to different aspects of the job. According to them, males regarded intrinsic job aspects as more important than females did. Manhardt (1972) and Bartol (1974) have shown males to be more concerned with their long term careers than females while females are more concerned with social aspects of the job. Schuler (1975) interprets the research findings as showing that traditional roles of females as empathetic and person-oriented show in their job orientation whereas males orientate towards competitiveness. Females and males differ in the way they are treated in organizations. Hulin and Smith (1964) for example, point out that females are likely to be paid differently, have different opportunities for promotion, and have different levels of job. Hulin and Smith found females in their study less satisfied with their jobs than males. Brief and Oliver (1976) failed to show any sex differences in work attitudes.

2.3.7: Job satisfaction and Educational Level

Ability is related to job satisfaction e.g. individuals of high ability may be more dissatisfied with jobs which do not allow for the application of talents. Vollmer and Kinney (1955) study on the effect of educational level on job satisfaction showed more college than high school educated employees reported dissatisfaction with their job. They argued that because of the greater investment, it is reasonable to assume that more educated employees expect ‘more out of life’ in terms of higher paid jobs, better working conditions etc. Similar
findings were found by Klein and Maher (1966) who studied pay satisfaction of college educated and non-college educated managers. They compare themselves with other college contemporaries and may feel they are not doing well while non-college goers may feel that they compare favourably. Educational level made a significant difference in job satisfaction according to Mandera (1995) but Njoka (2002) found no difference in job satisfaction due to educational level. Brookhart and Loadman (1996) also found educational level a predictor of satisfaction with supervision and promotional opportunities. Secondary school teachers were satisfied with supervision and promotional opportunities while primary school teachers were satisfied with working conditions. A large number of studies have shown that there is an increased job satisfaction with increased occupational level and clearly the higher the educational level, the likelier it is that one will be at higher occupational level.

Studies by Centers (1948), Hoppock (1935), and Porter & Lawler (1965), have shown that jobs at higher hierarchical level are associated with power, authority, social status, prestige responsibility, better pay, and rewards and have positive effects on job satisfaction. A positive relationship between job level or status of the worker’s job and his job satisfaction has been reported by a large number of investigations (Centers, 1948; Katz, 1949; Mann, 1953; Gurin, Verof, & Feld, 1960). Most of the investigations suggest that the positive relationship found between job level and satisfaction is due to the fact that positions at higher levels provide more rewards than those at lower levels. But job level is a highly gross variable and includes a number of empirically related but conceptually separate characteristics. Jobs at higher levels are generally more highly paid, less repetitive, provide more freedom, and require less physical exertion than jobs at lower level. The greater job satisfaction of higher level incumbents could be due to greater opportunities to satisfy esteem, autonomy and self-actualisation needs.

2.3.8: Indian Job satisfaction research

Kanungo and Misra (2004) in their review of research literature in Psychology in India point out that research in the area of motivation has been popular among scholars and has continued for a longer period of time than research in the area of leadership (Ganesh and Rangajaran, 1983; Ganguli, 1971; Padaki, 1988; Rao, 1981 and Sinha, 1981). Leadership as a theme emerged in the 1970’s whereas motivational research has a longer history
(Rangajaran, 1983). Kanungo and Misra’s (2004) review covers research on motivation in the last decade (1983-93). This review will cover even most resent research.

Research in motivation can take different perspectives among them the roles of job attitudes and beliefs formed as a consequence of experiencing personal outcomes of one’s performance to explain the motivational phenomenon. Most of the studies have been exploratory but some have been theory-driven which test the implications of the equity theory of motivation to explain job satisfaction. This section reviews studies that deal with correlates, causes, and consequences of job attitudes related to job satisfaction. Most of the studies have examined the relationship between various demographic variables and job satisfaction. Among the demographic variables studied are: age (Agarwala and Chadha, 1987; Chadha and Kaur, 1987; Gopikumar, 1993; Rajasekhar, Bharati and Reddy 1991; Reddy, 1989 and Ushasree, 1989b; 1989c), education (Agarwala and Chadha, 1987), gender (Rajasekhar et al., 1991; Rani and Reddy, 1990) and private/public sector of employment (Achamamba and Gopikumar, 1989).

Apart from demographic variables, the relationship between a number of personality and dispositional variables and job satisfaction have been investigated. The dispositional variables studied include locus of control (Achamamba and Gopikumar, 1989; Chandraiah and Ushasree, 1990; Gopikumar, 1988; Rani and Reddy, 1990 & Reddy, 1989), need strength (Singh, 1988), self-regard (Gopikumar, 1993) skill level (Reddy, 1988) and adjustment level (Rani and Reddy, 1990). Kanungo and Misra (2004) point out that all these studies did not yield any consistent pattern of results nor were they grounded on any theory or explanatory concepts. In the cumulative sense, these studies remained scattered and mostly descriptive.

However, Singh (1975) tested the two factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mauser and Snyderman, 1959) whereby context and content factors of a job presumed to produce qualitatively different effects on satisfaction of the respondents. Contrary to the prediction of the two-factor theory, the context and content factors produced qualitatively similar effect which means that they were both satisfiers. On the basis of these findings, Singh argued against the two factor theory. Singh’s conclusion was further tested by Dalal and Singh (1986). The authors demonstrated that job factors were averaged together in job satisfaction of most subjects.
With the exception of these two studies, most of the studies in job satisfaction lacked theoretical base according to Kanungo and Misra. As a result of this, researchers cannot provide a rationale for why the variables studied should or should not be related. However, it is argued that the ‘studies are useful to understand what the work force demands in the job. Based on this knowledge organizations can evolve strategies to motivate employees’ (Padaki, 1988, p. 24). Kanungo and Misra strongly put a case for theory driven studies in the area of job satisfaction and went on to give an example of theory driven studies.

The theory driven research in the area of satisfaction and job outcomes has been done by several researchers (Murphy-Berman, Berman, Singh, Pachauri, and Kumar (1984); Berman, Murphy-Berman, and Singh (1985); and Pandey and Singh (1989). These researchers tested the equity theory of motivation (Adams, 1965) to explain satisfaction with work outcomes in the Indian socio-cultural context. Following the equity theory principle, managers have been advised to motivate their employees by dispensing rewards on the basis of their contribution to their jobs. This principle has been hypothesized as the only appropriate distributive justice principle (Walster, Walster and Berscheid, 1978). However, in India, socio cultural factors play a significant role in determining the extent to which equity based reward distribution can explain satisfaction with outcomes (Kanungo and Misra, 2004). As an example, Murphy–Berman et al. (1984) found that Indians prefer reward distribution more on the basis of need rather than on the basis of merit. Similar results were obtained by Berman et al. (1985) who explained these findings in terms of the Indian cultural norms of protecting the weak and needy. Most other cultures especially in the West and Kenya manifest the opposite behaviour although in Kenya, politics play a role in some cases. In dispensing rewards those favoured by the system receive higher rewards even without contributing much to the organization. This is especially so in government organizations. In general, the equity theory principle is followed especially by the private sector.

Research in job satisfaction in Kenya has been aimed at finding out whether teachers are satisfied with their job or not while others have looked for factors leading to job satisfaction (Macharia, 1984; Mganga, 1989; Mutie, 1993; Sogomo, 1993; Ngaroga, 1995 and Njoka, 2002). These studies have been mainly descriptive and like in the Indian situation did not use theories to explain their findings. They were not theory driven. Their
findings cannot therefore be explained based on any theory. However, Mandera, (1995) study used Herzberg’s (1957) two factor theory to find the factors that caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction. He found eight subscales that cause satisfaction namely, administration, financial aspects, work conditions, co-workers, amount of work, and relationship with students, career future, parents and community. In his eight factors were both motivators (work conditions and career future) and hygiene factors such as administration, financial aspects (pay), co-workers, and relationship with the community and parents. This means that both motivators and hygiene factors caused satisfaction hence throwing off Herzberg et al. (1957) theory. However, Mandera does not point out this fact. Job satisfaction has not been correlated with other variables such as morale, leadership, performance, organisational climate or innovativeness. Effect of demographic variables on job satisfaction has been investigated. Some of the findings are contradictory. As an example, Mandera found significant difference in job satisfaction by age while Njoka found no difference by the same variable. More male than female were satisfied with their job in Njoka’s study while there was no difference in satisfaction by gender in Mandera’s study. The two studies agreed that money and experience were important in teacher’s job satisfaction. Njoka also found that teachers in rural schools were more satisfied than those in urban schools.

Studies on job satisfaction elsewhere have also shown discrepancies. Most studies however have found that teachers are satisfied with the intrinsic factors of the job or the job itself (Bogler, 2001, 2005; Koustelios, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999; and Dinham and Scot, 2000). Others have recorded satisfaction with supervision (Koustelios, 2001; Bogler, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999 and Maghradi, 1999) while Kirby, Paradise and King, (1992), Koh and Steers (1995) found teachers more satisfied with principals’ transformational leadership and participative decision making but Dinham and Scot, (2000) found their subjects dissatisfied with leadership. Some studies registered satisfaction with promotion opportunities (Maghradi, 1999; Brookhart and Loadman (1996) and while others showed dissatisfaction with the same (Koustelios, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999). These last two studies found that teachers were dissatisfied with pay. Only one study (Dinham, 1995) found teachers satisfied with their colleagues. According to (Borg and Falzon, 1989; Bogler, 2001, & 2005; Brookhart and Loadman, 1990; Chapman and Lowther, 1982; Watson, Hatton, Squires and Soliman, 1991; and Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein, 1990), female teachers were more
satisfied than male teachers with their job. Koustelios (2001) found gender as well as teacher's age significant predictors of job satisfaction. Older teachers were found by (Borg and Falzon, 1989) less satisfied in their job than younger teachers. Educational level was a predictor of satisfaction with supervision, promotional opportunities and working conditions according to Brookhart and Loadman (1996). Primary school teachers were satisfied with working conditions while secondary school teachers were satisfied supervision and promotional opportunities. Kremer, Hayon and Goldstein (1990) and Bogler, (2005) found no significant effect of age, education and seniority on teachers' job satisfaction. The researchers are in agreement that teachers are satisfied in the job itself although they disagree in other areas. All the factors of job satisfaction were evened out so that they either caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction although some were more important than others. This therefore dismisses Herzberg et al. (1959) two factor theory of motivators and hygiene factors. Koustelios (2001) also found that the level of explainable amount of variance was relatively low which suggested that organisational variables should be included in future research in order to explain better the teachers' job satisfaction. This is why organizations' characteristics of location and school type were included in the present study. Some studies are given in some detail below.

Uniyal (1976) studied motivation and job satisfaction. The main objective was to find out the differences in motivational patterns of the satisfied and dissatisfied teachers. The sample consisted of 300 satisfied teachers and 300 dissatisfied teachers among them male and females. The instruments included the job anxiety Scale and Job Motivational Analysis Form and SD, t-test and rank correlation were used for analysis. The findings were that the highly satisfied male teachers displayed higher needs for achievement; teachers in government schools were more satisfied than those in private schools, highly satisfied teachers were found to have lower levels of anxiety and teachers in private schools displayed higher levels of anxiety. One wonders how the researcher established that some 300 teachers were satisfied while another 300 were dissatisfied.

Borg and Falzon (1989) studied stress and job satisfaction among primary school teachers in Malta. A survey was conducted on 844 primary school teachers, 610 female and 234 male, who filled the questionnaire. The researchers proposed to answer the following questions: i) to what extent do Maltese primary school teachers experience stress? ii) To
what extent are teachers satisfied with their job? iii) Is there a relationship between (i) and (ii) and iv) Are there differences in (i), (ii). Among the findings were: three out of every four teachers were either fairly or very satisfied with their job; female teachers were significantly more satisfied with their job than male teachers ($t = 4.583$, $p<0.001$); those highly experienced teachers with greater than 20 years found the role of a teachers extremely stressful and found their job least satisfying. The present study was assisted by the Borg and Falzon's study in identifying the variables that were investigated and also in comparison of findings.

Bogler, (2001) set out to examine the influence of leadership style on teachers' job satisfaction. More specifically he attempted to find out how much of the variation in teachers job satisfaction could be attributed to their perceptions of their occupation as compared to their perceptions about their principals leadership style and decision making strategy. A quantitative Likert type questionnaire was administered to 930 teachers in Israel schools of whom 745 responded. Path analysis was used to explain teacher’s job satisfaction by the exogenous variables. The most salient finding was that teacher’s occupation perceptions strongly affected their job satisfaction. Teacher’s perceptions included professional prestige, professional identification and status, sense of self fulfillment, scope for self expression, personal development, job autonomy and centrality of the vocation. Principal’s transformational leadership affected teachers’ satisfaction both directly and indirectly through their occupation perceptions. These were high level needs which have been discussed before in this document as related to satisfaction with the job itself. Female teachers were found to be more satisfied with their job than male teachers. The present study was assisted by this study in clarifying the variables of the study and in the discussion.

Koustelios (2001) studied personal characteristics and job satisfaction of Greek teachers With the aim of examining the level of job satisfaction experienced by a sample of Greek teachers As well as the relationship between personal characteristics and specific aspects of job satisfaction. The sample consisted of 354 teachers, 28 to 59 years of age, from 40 state schools. The results of the study suggested that teachers were satisfied with their job itself and supervision, whereas they were dissatisfied with pay and promotional opportunities. The results of standard multiple regression showed that certain personal characteristics, gender and age among others, were significant predictors of different aspects of job satisfaction. He suggested that variables other
than personal characteristics such as organisational variables should be included in future research. The present study looked into organization variables of the school category, location, principal's experience as well as teacher gender, age and academic level, besides the gender, age and academic level of principals. This study was in agreement with the study by Borg and Falzon (1989) which also indicated that older teachers (>20yrs) were less satisfied and that female teachers were more satisfied with their job than male teachers.

Mandera, (1995) undertook a study of some of the factors associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among teachers in Nairobi, Kenya. The aim of the study was to identify the various factors associated with job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. The relationship between teacher's demographic variables and job satisfaction was also investigated. 191 teachers participated in the study. The teachers filled a 28 item questionnaire adapted from the Job Satisfaction Survey instrument. Factor analysis identified 8 subscales; administration, financial aspects, work conditions, co-workers, amount of work, and relationship with students, parents and community and career future. Among the findings were: that 60.2% of teachers were not satisfied with their job; significant differences were found in job satisfaction due to age, years of teaching and grade; and there were non significant differences in job satisfaction by gender and position.

Njoka (2002) studied job satisfaction of HODs in public secondary schools in Embu District in Kenya. Specifically, she was interested in determining the levels of job satisfaction of HODs and investigating the factors that cause job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. She was also to find out whether there was any effect on job satisfaction due to gender, age, academic qualifications, teaching experience and administrative experience among others. The following were some of her findings: 50.9% of HODs were satisfied with their job, 57.1% of male and 44.4% of female HODs were satisfied, HODs in rural schools were more satisfied than in urban schools, the most satisfied HODs being those in the rural/urban fringe, salary level was ranked as the most important job factor towards motivation and job satisfaction, there was no significant difference between overall job satisfaction and the variables of age, academic level and teaching experience, there were significant differences between the means of the overall job satisfaction and variables of gender and administrative experience.
2.3.9: Summary on job satisfaction

From the foregoing review, it can be concluded that most of the studies in job satisfaction were not based on theory although there was one or two that were based on Herzberg's theory and equity theory. It was therefore difficult to explain the findings of the results. Herzberg's theory, where used was mainly contradicted by the findings and therefore dismissed. The equity theory was seen not to work properly in the Indian culture. Most of the studies done on job satisfaction have been scattered and do not seem to build on what has been found earlier. They have not been programatic. There is need to do theory based research in future. It looks like most teachers are mainly satisfied with intrinsic part of their job i.e. work itself. Satisfaction with extrinsic job factors had mixed results. Some teachers were satisfied with supervision (leadership) while others were dissatisfied. The same happened with present pay, whereby some researchers indicated that female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers and others showing the opposite. Almost all teachers were dissatisfied with their promotional opportunities. Female teachers were reported to be more satisfied with their colleagues while male teachers were more satisfied with the job itself. The level of education was found to be a significant predictor of satisfaction with supervision and promotion. The findings in most cases have contradicted each other. However, this could be due to how each country handles its labour force and work attitudes. The need to do an in depth study on job satisfaction was established.

2.4: Conclusions

The review indicated a good number of studies on leadership effectiveness/behaviours, job satisfaction and organisational climate. Studies on leadership were programmatic and based on theories but those in job satisfaction and organisational climate were scattered and not many of them were based on theory. Studies on organisational climate have investigated the openness of the schools though a few looked at profiles of organisational climate. A few studies assessed the relationship between two variables (leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction or organisational climate), all the three variables or a variable and personal variables (gender, age, educational level and experience) or organisational variables (location and school type) and correlated them with morale and innovation. The following gaps were revealed:
1. There were no studies that assessed the perception of teachers on leadership effectiveness and related it to school climate and job satisfaction.

2. Only a few studies looked at rural/urban effect on leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and organisational climate and the results in those few studies were rigged with disagreements.

3. While the effect of school type (gender of the student body) was assessed in very few studies, only one study included mixed schools category in the study. Sex of the student body is likely to affect leadership effectiveness, organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers.

4. Most researches on leadership and organisational climate have relied on the LBDQ and OCDQ respectfully. There is no certainty that these instruments are sensitive enough to capture the constructs in countries other than ones in which they originated.

5. Very few studies have investigated the effect of teachers' personal variables on their perception of leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and organisational climate.

6. The absence of studies on organisational climate in Kenya is conspicuous.

   The present study was, therefore, designed to assess the notion of leadership effectiveness by tapping information from teachers. The leadership characteristics of an effective leader were used to investigate whether there is a relationship between leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction of teachers and organisational climate. The study included organisational variables of school type and location and personal variables of teachers (sex, age and educational level). The study aimed at filling in the gaps as indicated above. The next chapter is on methodology.