

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PREDICTIVE VALUE OF PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SELECTED
POLYTECHNIC PRINCIPALS ON POLYTECHNIC TEACHER

JOB SATISFACTION

BY

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DECLARATION

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

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SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to determine the leadership styles of polytechnic principals as perceived by polytechnic teachers and find out whether there was any relationship between the perceived principals' leadership styles and polytechnic teachers' job satisfaction.

From a population of 484 polytechnic teachers, a random sample of 260 was surveyed. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used to measure the leadership style of the principal while the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) was used to measure teacher job satisfaction. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Enter Method Regression Analysis were used to test for significance of the correlation and regression coefficients.

The study showed that generally, teachers rated their principals above the norm on initiating structure leadership style and below the norm on consideration leadership style. There was a significant relationship between polytechnic principals' consideration leadership style, as perceived by teachers, and teacher job satisfaction at an alpha level of 0.01. There was also a significant relationship between polytechnic principals' initiating structure leadership style, as perceived by teachers, and teacher job satisfaction at an alpha level of 0.01. Leadership style predicted 31% of the variation in intrinsic teacher job satisfaction and 23.8% of the variation in extrinsic teacher job satisfaction. The consideration leadership style better predicts teacher job satisfaction than the initiating structure leadership

style. Thus, the leadership styles of polytechnic principals influence the job satisfaction of their teachers.

It has therefore been recommended that principals should periodically allow their staff to tell them what they think about their style of leadership. In addition, principals should pay attention to issues that affect the welfare of staff by organising regular durbars during which the problems of staff will be discussed so that solutions will be found to them.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late mother, Madam Bertha Badohu, who taught me the meaning of courage and the need to stand courageous in the face of adversity through her sterling example.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Ever since humankind became civilised, there has been concern about leadership. The scope of leadership is wide: it permeates the entire human endeavour, ranging from religion through business to the educational enterprise. Leadership is of utmost importance in every institution or organisation. The effective functioning of social systems is assumed to be dependent on the quality of their leadership. Leadership is of particular significance in educational administration because of its far-reaching effects on the accomplishment of school programmes, objectives and the attainment of educational growth.

During the past 20 to 25 years, educational research on school effectiveness has been dominated by the concept of the principal as a leader (Greenfield, 1982; Rutherford, 1983; De Bevoise, 1984). In the 1980s, research on high school also focused on the principal as a leader (Boyer, 1983; Sizer, 1984). The emphasis on the principal as a leader may have added a new dimension to the traditional distinction between the dual roles of the principal as educator and the principal as administrator (Boyer, 1983). Hence, the school principal is expected to act as a leader in the school. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) claimed that effective leaders are actually a distinct type of persons in several key respects. Effective leadership is now widely accepted as the key to

successful organisations and to successful schools (Oduro & Macbeath, 2003). In recent years, effective leadership has been recognised as a crucial issue in school quality and development in both developed and developing countries. (Chapman & Birchfield, 1994). In developing countries especially Ghana, heads of institutions implement central government policies in their institutions, shape the educational and social transactions within the institutions and interpret institutional priorities and activities to the local community.

It is perhaps necessary to agree on a working definition of leadership to facilitate further discussion. In an attempt to state what leadership is, Slater (1995) stated that the most important thing, which is known about this question is that there is no answer everyone can agree on. Slater further argued that scholars disagree over the meaning of leadership mainly because they look at it with different sets of assumptions or from within different paradigms and are generally unaware that they are doing so. Bennis and Nanus (1985) wrote that decades of academic analysis have given us more than 350 definitions of leadership. Literally, thousands of empirical investigations of leaders have been conducted in the last seventy-five years alone, but no clear and unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders.

Observing the great number of different definitions of leadership, Hoy and Miskel (1991) remarked that definitions of the concept are almost as numerous as the researchers engaged in its study. Holt (1990) in his widely used management text lamented that after centuries of study of leaders, we still do not have an unambiguous definition of leadership.

Leadership has been defined in terms of an individual's traits, behaviour, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, influence over followers, influence on task goals and influence on organisational culture. Yuki and Vanfleet (1998) viewed leadership as a process that includes influencing the task objective and strategies of a group or organisation. In other words, they define leadership as influencing people in the organisation to implement strategies and achieve objectives.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) defined the leader as one who commits people to action, who converts followers into leaders, and who may convert leaders to agent of change. Day (2000) said that the art of leadership is liberating people to do what is required of them in the most effective and humane way possible. Thus, the leader is a 'servant' of followers in that leaders remove obstacles that prevent followers from doing their jobs. In short, the true leader enables followers to realise their full potential.

Leadership, then, is having the ability to influence and to be influenced by individuals and groups to take them in a desired direction. In practice, this means ensuring that their needs are met and agreed tasks performed so that a team spirit and teamwork are established and maintained, and the resources of the group are maximised. In a school system, leadership involves identification of educational tasks and possible constraints on them, establishment of priorities and setting of standards. It also includes making people aware of the expected standards of behaviour and academic performance and the monitoring and evaluation of progress. In a team (for example, a department), the leader attempts to establish a

shared commitment from the staff, through consultation and encouragement of ideas from the group, copes with conflicts, (perhaps over teaching methods or curriculum contents) and failures of the group (Cole, 1993).

Leadership is largely responsible for maintaining equilibrium among the various components of an organisation. The interaction between the leader and different components of an organisation determines its health. It is the leadership, which brings people and resources together to set organisational goals, decides and take appropriate actions to achieve these goals, and then makes self-assessment as to the effectiveness of its performance. All these processes must be carried out collectively if a leader wants to create and maintain a healthy organisation (Dixit, 1992).

According to Mullins (1993), leadership requires the ability to get others to work enthusiastically and competently towards accepted objectives. Leadership is both a science and an art, which involves inter-relating with people. The science of leadership develops valid concepts, principles and processes to guide the day-to-day practice of leaders to bring about results that are more predictable. Though these principles do not guarantee definite or ready-made solutions to organisation's problems, they provide a logical and analytical approach to planning, decision-making and problem solving. Leaders who follow these principles and processes find greater assurance when it comes to problem solving. The art of leadership, on the other hand, emphasises the skills of leadership such as how leaders work with others, and how they apply their knowledge and experience to achieve desired results.

Again, the leader has to act as a mediator, a resource person, and a consultant to the group to keep the working environment alive. However, the leader can achieve these qualities only if he/she relates to the group in an understanding, open and a compassionate manner. The leader is an important variable in an organisation. He/she can make himself/herself indispensable by presenting himself/herself to the group not as a leader but as one of them (Dixit, 1992). The authority of the leader's views should therefore not override those of others because of the source of such views but because of the quality, richness and flexibility.

Like definitions of leadership, conceptions of leader effectiveness differ from person to person. These conceptions highlight the idea that the criteria selected to evaluate leadership effectiveness reflect the researcher's explicit or implicit conception of what leadership effectiveness is. In the educational context, it seems where there are less student disturbances, where staff turnover is at reduced level, where results of students in examination are good; where there is cordial relationship between the leader and staff, where staff works enthusiastically and competently there is presumed to be effective leadership (Yukl, 1994).

In supporting this view, Day (2000) had argued that leadership involves designing and implementing plans, focusing on task achievement, dealing with structures and systems, with the immediate future and the status quo, articulating a vision, promoting shared ownership and engaging in an evolutionary planning. In their discussion on appropriate school leadership structure, Hopkins, Aincosow

and West (1994) also emphasised establishing a clear vision and building positive relationship between leaders and followers in such a way as to establish a culture of valuing task-relevant expertise. They advocate a commitment to widespread participation in decision-making in which there should be a two-way vertical and horizontal communication pattern. These opinions are carried further by Hargreaves and Evans (1997) when they pointed out that the challenge of leadership in education and elsewhere is a challenge in abandoning bureaucratic controls, inflexible mandates, paternalistic forms of trust, and quick system fixes in order to hear, articulate and bring together the disparate voices of teachers, students and other educational patterns. Again, it stands to reason that the leadership might perceive visions and goals that are idealistic and the realism of them will only emerge as they come under the litmus test of other schools of thought among the staff and students where necessary.

One major approach to the study of leadership has been an attempt to identify various styles of leadership. Several different classifications have been developed in connection with this concept. The growth and development of an institution depends on the relationship between a leader and the followers. In fact, the leadership style of a principal is based on the interaction between the principal and the staff members. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), the leadership style of an individual is the behaviour pattern that person exhibits while attempting to influence the activities of others. Subordinates of a leader can perceive this behaviour pattern. Leadership style describes the pattern of

behaviour that a manager or supervisor uses in relationship with others, particularly subordinates. It is about what principals do rather than what they are.

This point is important because it indicates that styles can be observed, described, and therefore become known to the individual concerned. It also suggests that the manager can become aware of a range of alternative styles, or behaviour patterns, and can make within limits choices about what behaviour is most appropriate to the situation being managed. Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1996) postulated that leadership styles are various patterns of behaviour exhibited by leaders during the process of directing and influencing workers. Leadership may be viewed as a process through which others are motivated to accomplish goals.

The success of a school in accomplishing goals depends upon the ability of the head to lead staff members. Leadership style is crucial, in that the style of leadership of the principal and his or her decisions will determine the success of the school. According to Moshal (1998), the common functions of leadership are: motivating staff members, boosting morale, supporting functions, satisfying the needs of members, accomplishing common goals, representing members, creating confidence, implementing change and resolving conflicts.

A review of research and theory on leadership reveals that conceptualisations of leadership generally support at least two distinct categories. One category is concerned with interpersonal activities and the other with task achievement (Bowers & Seashore, 1967). These leadership styles can be described as those of task leaders and social leaders (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). The

conceptual and methodological approaches of the Ohio State University leadership studies are consistent with this duality (Halpin, 1959). Two separate dimensions of leadership behaviour were identified: "initiating structure" and "consideration". Other styles of leadership are the classical ones such as the autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles of leadership. There are still other classifications. According to Mullins (1993), there is no one best style of leadership and no one leadership style is effective in all situations. Literature has shown that leadership style and job satisfaction are highly related.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction became important when the early proponents of a human relation's approach convinced both theorists and administrators that a happy worker is a productive worker. Hoy and Miskel (1982) observed that the study of job satisfaction has intensified with a general concern for the quality of working life.

The classic attempt to define job satisfaction was made in 1935 by Robert Hoppock. He defined job satisfaction as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, "I am satisfied with my job" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982; p.183). Hoy and Miskel therefore conceived job satisfaction as the effective orientations of individuals toward work roles that they are presently occupying. They further explained that job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. In educational settings, job satisfaction can be said to be present and past-oriented affective state that result when the

educator evaluates his or her work role. Similarly, satisfaction has been thought to refer to an affective response of an individual to a job; it results when on-the-job experiences relate to the individual's values and needs.

Hopkins (1983) defined job satisfaction as "the fulfilment of gratification of certain needs of the individual that are associated with one's work" (p.7). In fact, a person's performance depends largely on how the job meets his or her needs and wants.

Job satisfaction according to Okumbe (1998), is seen as a set of favourable feelings with which employees view their work. To him, job satisfaction is viewed as resulting from employees' perception of how well the jobs they perform give them satisfaction and help the organisation to achieve its objectives. Thus, teacher job satisfaction is very crucial because it promotes hard work among teachers to help produce the needed and qualified manpower for national development. This means that the contribution, effectiveness and efficiency of teachers are not dependent on their strength alone, but also on the satisfaction they derive from their work. This pre-supposes that apart from the satisfaction gained from remuneration the employee also derives satisfaction when other factors such as physical structure, equipment, training and development, promotion recognition and welfare services are put in place. Based on this, job satisfaction is considered as a multi-dimensional phenomenon, because it comprises a complex set of variables that operates to determine an employee's attitude towards his job.

Since the 1930s, job satisfaction has been studied extensively. Locke (1976) for example, estimated that a minimum of 3,350 articles were published on the subject by early 1972. Moreover, the number was growing by over 100 new publications each year.

Organisational effectiveness, with reference to principals' behaviours, is a prime indicator for inducing job satisfaction in faculty members (Fowler, 1991; Krug, 1989). Moreover, recent evidence has suggested that principals have the potential of playing a critical role in the effectiveness of a school (Fowler, 1991; Kreitner, 1983). Some studies (for example, Fowler, 1991; Hall, 1994; Krug, 1989) have indicated a relationship between school effectiveness and teacher job satisfaction.

According to Maehr and Braskamp (1986), school principals can manipulate culture, climate, and effectiveness of an organisation, and those manipulations affect the job satisfaction of people within the organisation. By exercising certain leadership behaviours, principals can influence their schools' instructional environment, a complex constellation involving the attitudes and behaviours of teachers, students, parents, and the community at large toward education. Administrators can increase teacher job satisfaction and through this means, indirectly influence students' academic performance (Krug, 1989). Research has indicated that principals' leadership styles influence teachers' job satisfaction (Lipham, 1981). Lipham examined four secondary schools to discover the relationship between job satisfaction and the staff perceptions of principals'

leadership styles. Lipham's findings indicated that both staff involvement and staff perception were significant and positively related to faculty job satisfaction.

In the words of Hoy and Miskel (1982) "The quality of teacher administrator relationships and the quality of leadership correlate highly with teacher morale: the better the relationship and the better the quality of leadership, the higher teacher morale tends to be" (p. 338). Studies (for example, Hoy & Miskel, 1982; Everett, 1987) suggested that staff with high morale tend to have high levels of teacher job satisfaction. Hoy and Miskel reported that when leaders encourage teacher participation in decision-making, their job satisfaction is enhanced. Holdaway (1978) also posited that the teacher's lack of opportunity to participate in decision-making appeared to be the most powerful source of teacher dissatisfaction. Administrators who are effective leaders exhibit leadership styles that support teacher job satisfaction (Gallmeier, 1992; Sashkin 1996). It stands to reason that for polytechnics in Ghana to excel, principals of these institutions would have to exhibit leadership styles that support teacher job satisfaction.

Historical Context of Polytechnic Education in Ghana

The history of polytechnic education in Ghana within the tertiary system is rather recent. Although polytechnics have existed in Ghana for years, they were second cycle institutions under the jurisdiction of the Ghana Education Service offering technician training in a number of careers. As part of the new educational reforms introduced in 1987, the government of Ghana appointed a University Rationalisation Committee (URC) to submit comprehensive proposals for the review of tertiary education. The URC report formed the basis of a White Paper

on the reforms to the tertiary education system issued in 1991, which recommended the upgrading of polytechnics to tertiary status to train career-focused personnel required for national growth and development. This recommendation was based on the fact that it is the human resource in advanced countries which has served as a catalyst for industrial development and which has helped to transform the industries of those economies. Polytechnic education as tertiary level education is, therefore, in its formative years and is being modelled on foreign institutions such as the "Technikons" of South Africa the "Fachhochschule" of Germany, the "Erstwhile Polytechnics" of the UK and the "Ecole Polytechnique" of France (Effah & Mensa-Bonsu, 2001).

The Polytechnic Law of 1992 (PNDC Law 321), which enacted the upgrading of the polytechnics to tertiary institutions, has assigned the appropriate aims and objectives the polytechnics are to strive to achieve. They are thus to:

1. provide tertiary education through full time courses in the field of manufacturing, commerce, science, applied arts and such other areas as may be determined by the authority for the time being responsible for higher education;
2. encourage study in technical subjects at tertiary level; and
3. provide opportunity for development, research and publication of research findings (Effah & Mensa-Bonsu, 2001, p. 24).

The purpose of upgrading the polytechnics in the country was to improve the quality of teaching, increase output particularly in technician level training, improve cost effectiveness and increase access to tertiary level education coupled with the projected need for highly skilled human resources.

From the aims, it could be inferred that the central aim of polytechnic education is that its programmes are career-oriented and have a more practical focus than those offered in the university whose central mission is to generate and disseminate knowledge through teaching, research and service. In sum, polytechnics impart knowledge and skills whilst universities generate and disseminate knowledge. Both types of institutions are thus complementary to each other and not antagonistic.

With regard to administration of polytechnics, the URC report of 1988 recommended that the internal administration of the institutions would be as prescribed for the universities with the principal performing similar functions as the Vice Chancellor. The Principal who is the head of the institution is also the chief academic and administrative officer. He or she is the Chief Executive, the head of the institution and is accountable to the council. As Chief Executive, the head of the institution has overall responsibility for the executive management of the institution and for its day-to-day direction (Effah & Mensa-Bonsu, 2001).

It could also be inferred from the above that the job of the polytechnic principal is much more complicated than the process of dealing with pre-tertiary institutions. The leaders in these institutions deal with many groups both formal and informal. Many of these groups have conflicting goals, purposes and

expectations. Academic staff expect that the leader should be fair, firm and just. Students expect that learning goes on very smoothly in an enabling environment. Parents expect that the leader sees to the proper growth of their children physically, academically and spiritually. The non-teaching staff expect fairness in the administrative methods. The past students associations want to see their institution growing 'big' in the academic discipline aspect of school life. The chiefs and the people in the community expect a cordial relationship between the institution and the community and the Ministry of Education expect the leader to be an 'obedient boy' thus, obeying the rules and regulations of the ministry.

These different expectations naturally evoke different perceptions of leadership roles of principals in the polytechnics. Perception is the activity by which humans, with input from the senses, become aware and interprets the world around them into meaningful information. George and Jones (1996) described perception as a way by which individuals choose, arrange and interpret the input from their senses (vision, hearing, touch, smell and taste) to give meaning and order to their environment. They explained that through perception, people try to make sure of their environment and the things, events and other people in it. Undoubtedly, the individual's purposes and aspirations are basic to most of his or her important enterprise. His or her perceptions are in terms of his purposes and aspirations. Purposes and aspirations are major determinants of perception. Perception, it must be noted, is not an isolated incident but is part of a continuing process.

Present perceptions are based upon our understanding of our position in a time frame and include our understanding of the present, "what is" and our beliefs and values concerning the future, "what ought to be". Thus, in educational organisations where philosophies, goals, assumptions, values, beliefs and norms are shared one may expect perceptions by members of the organisation to move in one direction but there are different individuals in the organisation with different purposes and aspirations, as such different perceptions on an issue cannot be ruled out. Different perception of anyone of them on a particular issue is obvious.

The effectiveness of principals as managers, administrators and of course, leaders are assessed and/or perceived in terms of the efficiency with which they perform their functions. Their performance sets the tone and quality of the polytechnics.

Of course, educational organisations are much too complex for effectiveness to be attributed to any single dimension. Nevertheless, leadership quality owns a fair share of responsibility for effectiveness (Sergiovanni, 1984). It is, therefore, of utmost importance to look into the leadership styles employed by polytechnic principals; and find out how these styles relate to teacher job satisfaction in the light of what these principals do to help their institutions develop appropriate internal arrangements for productive interaction and accomplishment of tasks and/or achievement of organisational goals and objectives.

Statement of the Problem

Leadership behaviours of principals have been consistently associated with teacher job satisfaction; and leadership styles of individual principals are powerful predictors of the school's organisational effectiveness (Everett, 1987; Fowler, 1991; Klawitter, 1985). However, according to Effah and Mensah-Bonsu (2001), polytechnic education in Ghana within the tertiary system is rather recent. As a result, there is a dearth of empirical studies into the leadership styles of principals of the polytechnics and how these leadership styles relate to teacher job satisfaction. This study, therefore, sought to find out whether, in Ghana, leadership styles of polytechnic principals are associated with teacher job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

This study sought to determine if perceived leadership styles of polytechnic principals influence teachers' expressed job satisfaction. Specifically, the study sought to find out the perceptions of teachers in four polytechnic institutions in the Ashanti, Western, Greater Accra, and Volta Regions of Ghana regarding the leadership styles of their principals and the teachers' own job satisfaction levels. The study then sought to find out whether there was a correlation between the perceived principal style of leadership and the teachers' level of job satisfaction. The study also tried to find out whether the perceived principals' style of leadership had any predictive value on teacher job satisfaction.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do polytechnic teachers perceive the leadership styles of their respective principals?
2. What are the levels of teacher job satisfaction in the polytechnics?
3. Is there a relationship between leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teacher job satisfaction?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1

H₀: Consideration leadership style(X₁) has no significant effect on teachers' extrinsic job satisfaction(ES).

H₁: Consideration leadership style(X₁) has significant effect on teachers' extrinsic job satisfaction(ES).

Hypotheses 2

H₀: Initiating structure leadership style(X₂) has no significant effect on teachers' extrinsic job satisfaction(ES).

H₁: Initiating structure leadership style(X₂) has significant effect on teachers' extrinsic(ES) job satisfaction.

Hypotheses 3

H₀: Consideration leadership style(X₁) has no significant effect on teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction(IS).

H₁: Consideration leadership style(X₁) has significant effect on teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction(IS).

Hypothesis 4

H₀: Initiating structure leadership style(X₂) has no significant effect on teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction(IS).

H₁: Initiating structure leadership style(X₂) has significant effect on teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction(IS).

Significance of the Study

The study of perceived leadership styles of principals, and how they relate to the job satisfaction of teachers in polytechnics could provide educational administrators and teachers with data for several purposes. Principals can gain valuable information about how teachers perceive their leadership behaviours in order to determine teachers' expectations about the job and the work environment. Based on working conditions impacted by the principals' behaviours, principals may be able to diagnose the needs of their school environment and adjust their leadership styles to meet those needs.

It is important for administrators to understand different results brought about by various leadership behaviours. In fact, if administrators can be made aware of the reported levels of job satisfaction of teachers, then there may be an opportunity to intervene in cases where job satisfaction is marginal or low, and where it is high, to maintain job satisfaction at a high level. Since teacher job satisfaction is an important component for career decisions about teaching,

principals ought to improve teacher job satisfaction with systematic plans and model behaviours that affect teachers in the workplace. More importantly, if teachers are satisfied with their jobs then programme implementation and student success can be attained. Principals can be trained to exhibit appropriate skills to provide teachers with opportunities for job satisfaction. This study can serve as a contribution to knowledge on leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction.

Delimitations

The study was conducted in four polytechnics, in four regions of Ghana. The four polytechnics were Accra Polytechnic in the Greater Accra region, Takoradi Polytechnic in the Western Region, Kumasi Polytechnic in the Ashanti region and Ho Polytechnic in the Volta Region. These polytechnics are over ten years old. They have well-established organisational culture, a long tradition and a well-defined leadership structures in place.

Also, the study covered only behavioural approaches to leadership, specifically, consideration (relationship-oriented) and initiating structure (task-oriented) leadership styles; among many others such as the trait theory, Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, path-goal theory, the Vroom and Yetton model, transformational and transactional leadership approaches. There are several indicators of job satisfaction but this study was limited to intrinsic and extrinsic perceptions of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1991), which relate to the motivation-hygiene theory of Herzberg (1966).

Limitations of the Study

The extent of teacher job satisfaction was measured as personal perceptions. Accuracy of perceptions was a limiting factor. Because people's expectations differ there were variations in their perceptions. Also, perceptions could be influenced by moods. Besides, research has shown that leaders treat individual subordinates differently and this may influence their perceptions. In this study, situational factors may have influenced leadership style but that may not be the true nature of the leader.

Since collection of data was restricted to polytechnic teachers, the findings of this study can only be generalised to cover only polytechnic teachers. The generalisation of the results of this study to other groups with similar characteristics cannot be done without caution, extensive analysis and comparison.

Definition of Terms

The study used the following operational definitions:

1. Perceived Leadership Style was defined as the reported dominant leadership style of polytechnic principals as measured by the adapted version of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire-LBDQ. The two leadership styles identified by the instrument were Consideration and Initiating Structure.
2. Consideration leadership style was defined as the degree to which a leader builds mutual trust with subordinates, respects their ideas and shows concern for their feelings.

3. **Initiating Structure** leadership style was defined as leadership acts that imply the structuring of job tasks and responsibilities for the leader and subordinates.
4. **Teacher Job Satisfaction** was defined as the feeling and/or level of need fulfilment teachers derived from their job.
5. **Teacher** was defined as academic staff of the polytechnics involved in the study. This includes instructors and lecturers.
6. **Gender** was defined as a biological condition of being male or female.

Organisation of the Chapters of the Thesis

The first chapter includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study and significant of the study. Research questions, delimitations, limitations, operational definition of terms and organisation of the study are included in the same chapter.

Chapter two is devoted to the review of relevant literature. Chapter three looks at the methodology. Here, the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, pre- testing of the instrument, reliability and validity of the instrument, data collection procedure and the procedure for analysing the data are considered. Chapter four presents the findings and discusses them, whilst a summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations are provided in chapter five.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Leadership occurs in a group. Without followers there cannot be a leader. As Cawelti (1982) observed, "a leader does not exist in a vacuum, but is a product of an environment made up of people" (p. 325). Therefore, leaders must be mindful that they are humans relating with other humans at a given time and place. An effective leader should portray charisma in drawing, motivating, and inspiring others to follow (Bass, 1981; Cawelti, 1982). Cawelti suggested that leaders must be expected to lead, offer a sense of direction, motivate others towards accomplishment of goals, and be concerned with helping people. Different results are brought about by various leadership behaviours. Studies have indicated that styles of leadership have been related to teacher job satisfaction.

The review of the literature on leadership behaviour of the principal and teacher job satisfaction has been done under the following headings:

1. meaning of leadership;
2. approaches to leadership;
3. effective leadership traits;
4. the concept of job satisfaction;
5. teacher job satisfaction;
6. factors affecting teacher job satisfaction;

7. consequences of teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction; and
8. relationship between leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction.

Meaning of Leadership

The phenomenon of leadership has been around since antiquity. Yet the systematic study of leadership did not begin until the 1930s (Shani & Lau, 2000).

People get excited about the topic of leadership. They want to know what makes a great leader. Executives at all levels in all organisations are interested in this question. They believe the answer will bring improved organisational performance and personal career success. They hope to acquire the skills that will transform an 'average' manager into a true leader. This is because leaders are held responsible for the success or failure of whole organisations, they are also held responsible for the performance of the individuals and groups within the organisation. In general, research confirms the popular belief that leadership is indeed an important ingredient of individual, groups and whole organisations to perform at high level and achieve their goals. Conversely, a lack of effective leadership is often a contributory factor to lacklustre performance. The common belief that leaders 'make a difference' and can have a major impact on individuals, groups and whole organisations has prompted organisational behaviour researchers to devote considerable effort to understanding leadership.

Definitions of leadership vary widely, as do the approaches taken to its study. In spite of many writings on the subject 'leadership' there is yet to emerge a universally accepted definition of the concept. A few of the definitions had

been examined and the common elements that run through them had been identified.

Yukl (1998) looked at leadership as influence processes affecting the interpretation of events. For followers, the choice of objectives for the group or organisation, the organisation of work activities to accomplish the objectives, the motivation of followers to achieve the objectives, the maintenance or co-operation relationships and teamwork and the enlistment of support and co-operation from people outside the group or organisation are issues that constitute leadership.

Burns (1978) offered a comprehensive definition of leadership. He stated:

Leadership is leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations ... the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations ... of both leaders and followers. And the genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their followers' values and motivations (p. 19).

Gibson, Invancevich and Donnelly (1997) defined leadership as an interaction between members of a group. They argued that leaders are agents of change; persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group.

Sample definitions of leadership cited in Shani and Lau (2000; p.44) include the following:

1. **Leadership** is the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal setting and goal achievement (Stogdill, 1994);
2. **Leadership** takes place in groups of two or more people and most frequently involves influencing group member behaviour as it relates to the pursuit of group goals (House and Baetz, 1979);
3. **Leadership** appears to be the art of getting others to want to do something that you are convinced should be done (Kouzes and Posner, 1993); and
4. **Leadership** is an activity or set of activities, observable to others, that occurs in a group, organisation or institutions involving a leader and followers who willingly subscribe to common purposes and work together to achieve them (Clark and Clark, 1996).

McShane and Von Glinow (2000) looked at leadership as the process of influencing people and providing an environment for them to achieve team or organisation's objectives. To them, a leader is the one who influences others to attain goals. The greater the number of followers, the greater the influence; and the more successful the attainment of worthy goals, the more evident the leadership (Bateman & Snell, 1999).

Shani and Lau (2000) noted that although people can often recognise a leader when they see one in action, coming up with a precise definition of leadership is difficult. They indicated that researchers disagree on many of the

characteristics that define leadership. They generally agree, however, on two characteristics. These are:

1. Leadership involves exerting influence over other members of a group or organisation.
2. Leadership involves helping a group or organisation to achieve its goals (p.46).

Combining these two key characteristics, leadership can be defined as the exercise of influence by one member of a group or organisation over other members to help the group or organisation achieve its goal. The leaders of a group or organisation are the individuals who exert such influence.

Despite the proliferation of definitions of leadership, Shani and Lau (2000) noted that three massive reviews by Bass (1998) and Yukl (1998) provide excellent surveys of the leadership literature and help to clear the air. These reviews have indicated that while conceptual disagreements are deep, most definitions emphasise leadership as an influence process. Beyond this common theme researchers disagree on many other aspects, including how leaders are identified, who exerts influence, how leaders differ from followers and which elements in the work situation influence leader behaviour.

Owens (2001) postulated that leadership has produced literally hundreds of definitions. One survey reported more than 350 definitions of leadership in the literature. Clearly, none of them will satisfy everyone.

From the foregoing definitions of leadership, five basic elements or implications can be identified. The first is that leadership involves other people,

thus followers or subordinates. What this means is that without followers there cannot be a leader. The second is that leadership involves unequal distribution of power, between leaders and group members. That is, leaders usually have more power than their subordinates or followers. The third issue is that leadership involves the use of influence. Here, it means a leader uses various forms of power to influence followers' behaviour in a number of ways. The fourth implication is that leadership focuses on the achievement of goals. For instance, an institutional head can influence his or her staff to make personal sacrifices for the good of the school. The effective leader may have to deal with the individual, group and organisational goals. The fifth element in the definition is the importance of a leader being a change agent and a visionary.

This study had adopted the definition of Clark and Clark (1996), cited by Shani and Lau (2000). Clark and Clark defined leadership as an activity or set of activities, observable to others. They posited that leadership occurs in a group, organisation or institutions involving a leader and followers. These groups of people willingly subscribe to common purposes and work together to achieve them. This definition had been adopted because among other things, leadership styles of polytechnic principals are behaviour patterns that can be observed by polytechnic teachers.

Sources of Leader Power

Central to effective leadership is power, the ability to influence other people or the capacity to influence the behaviour of others. In organisations, this often means the ability to get things done or accomplishing one's goals despite

resistance from others. As Owens (2001) noted, leaders are essentially powerful people because power is the essential energy for instigating and maintaining action that transforms plans into reality when people try to work together.

This implies that one cannot lead and be powerless. However, the exercise of power is not necessarily oppressive, and cannot be oppressive in the exercise of leadership. There are different kinds of power through which one may attempt to influence others and they come from different sources. One of the earliest and still most useful approaches to understanding power suggests that leaders have six important potential sources of power in organisations (Bartol & Martin, 1994; Bateman & Snell 1999; Mullins, 1993; Owens, 2001).

Legitimate Power

Legitimate power can be considered simply as the power of lawful or formal authority. This type of power is derived from an individual, position or role in the organisational hierarchy. The leader with legitimate power has the right or the authority, to tell others what to do; employees are obligated to comply with legitimate orders. Managers have more legitimate power over their direct reports than they do over their peers, bosses and others inside or outside their organisations (Bartol & Martin, 1994).

Reward Power

Reward power is based on the ability of leaders to control and administer rewards to those who obey their orders. Leaders who have reward power influence others because they control valued rewards; people comply with the

leader's wishes in order to receive those rewards. Reward power therefore is based on the capacity to control and provide valued rewards to others (Mullins, 1993). According to Mullins, most organisations offer an array of rewards that may be under a leader's control, including pay rises, bonuses, interesting projects, promotion recommendations, a better office support for training programmes, assignments with high visibility in the organisation, recognition, positive feedback, and time off. He explained that if a company policy dictates that everyone receives the same salary increase, a leader's reward power decreases because of the inability to give higher pay rises.

Coercive Power

Bateman and Snell (1999) opined that coercive power is based on fear and the ability of the leaders to use punishment for not obeying their orders. The leader with coercive power has control over punishments; people comply to avoid those punishments. Coercive power, therefore, depends on the ability to punish others when they do not engage in desired behaviours. Forms of coercion or punishment that a manager may be empowered to use include criticisms, reprimands, suspensions, warning letters that go into an individual's personal file, negative performance appraisals, demotions, withholding pay rises and terminations of appointments.

Expert Power

Expert power is derived from a leader's superior competence or special ability, skills or knowledge. The leader who has expert power has certain

expertise or knowledge. People comply because they believe in, can learn from or can otherwise gain from that expertise. Expert power is therefore based on expertise that is valued by others. Managers often have considerable knowledge, technical skills and experience that can be critical to subordinates' success (Owens, 2001).

Information Power

Information power results from access to and control over the distribution of important information about organisational operations and future plans (Bartol & Martin 1994). Managers usually have better access to such information than do subordinates and some discretion over how much is disseminated to work unit members.

Referent Power

This is the type of power based on the attractiveness and appeal of the leader. Referent power results from being admired, personally identified with, or liked by others. When we admire people, want to be like them, or feel friendship toward them, we more willingly follow their directions and exhibit loyalty toward them. The leader with referent power has personal characteristics that appeal to others; people comply because of admiration, desires for approval, personal liking, or a desire to be like the leader. For example, young, ambitious managers emulate the work habits and personal style of a successful, charismatic executive. An executive who is incompetent, disliked and commands little respect has little referent power (Bartol & Martin, 1994; Bateman & Snell, 1999; Owens, 2001).

Although these six types of power are potential means of influencing others, in actual usage they may elicit somewhat different levels of subordinate motivation. Subordinates can react to a leader's direction with commitment, compliance or resistance. With commitment, employees respond enthusiastically and exert a high level of effort toward organisational goals. With compliance, employees exert at least minimal efforts to complete the directions but are likely to deliver average, rather than stellar performance. With resistance, employees may appear to comply but actually do the absolute minimum, possibly even attempting to sabotage the attainment of organisational goals.

According to Mullins (1993), expert power and referent power are most likely to lead to subordinate commitment while legitimate power, information power, and reward power tend to result in compliance. He explained that the use of coercive power has a strong tendency to provoke resistance in subordinates. Thus, the exercise of power is a reciprocal relationship between the power holder and others. He concluded that an individual has power not only when that individual controls resources that can reward or punish people, for example money and access to more power for the followers themselves (such as participation in making decisions), but also when that individual has ideas about the future of the organisation that people find exciting and want to 'buy into'.

Leadership and Management

A major criticism of school administration in recent years is the contention that administrators have emphasised management at the expense of leadership (Owens, 1991). This suggests that there is not only a difference

between management and leadership but they may be mutually exclusive. The demand for stronger leadership makes it more urgent than ever for those in education to understand clearly the issues that are involved. Some critics contended that managers deal with things, while leaders deal with people. These critics posited that we can manage finances, inventories, and programmes, for example, but we lead people. Others asserted that managing and leading are qualitatively different from each other and, moreover, mutually exclusive (Owens, 1991).

Day (2000) made a clear distinction between leadership and management. He argued that leadership is essentially building and maintaining a sense of vision, culture, and interpersonal relationships, whereas management involves coordinating, supporting and monitoring organisational activities. He explained further that leadership is about having vision, articulating, ordering priorities, and getting others to go along, constantly reviewing and holding on to things of value.

Bass (1998) a leadership scholar, opined that leaders lead and managers manage but the two activities are not synonymous. He argued that although management and leadership overlap, each entails a unique set of activities or functions. Certainly, if a leader is loosely defined as a person who influences others in any manner, then the person can be a leader without being a manager. In addition, a person can be a manager but can fail to lead. Bass postulated that effective managers are not necessarily true leaders and cited that many administrators, supervisors, and even top executives execute their responsibilities without being great leaders, but these positions afford opportunity for leadership.

The ability to lead effectively then will set the excellent managers apart from the average ones.

Managers deal with the ongoing, day-to-day complexities of organisations. True leadership includes effectively orchestrating change (Bateman & Snell, 1999). While managing requires planning and budgeting routines, leading includes setting the direction (creating a vision) for the organisation. Management requires structuring the organisation, staffing it with capable people, and monitoring activities; leadership goes beyond these functions by inspiring people to attain the vision. Great leaders keep people focused on moving the organisation toward its ideal future, motivating them to overcome whatever obstacles lie in the way.

Managers have numerous roles and activities to carry out, and leadership activities relate only to a subset of the larger managerial functions and activities (Mintzberg, 1975 in Shani & Lau, 2000). These distinctions are well accepted and have not been part of the debate. The controversy concerns the notion that leading and managing are qualitatively different or mutually exclusive.

The first writer to take a hard line on this issue was Zaleznik, when his landmark article was published in Harvard Business Review in 1977 (Shani & Lau, 2000). Zaleznik argued that managers carry out responsibilities, exercise authority, and worry about how things are done, whereas leaders are concerned with understanding people's beliefs and gaining their commitment. Zaleznik was quoted as saying that managers and leaders differ in what they attend to and in how they think, work, and interact.

Shani and Lau (2000) citing Zaleznik indicated that these differences stem from unequal developmental paths, from childhood to adulthood. Essentially, leaders have encountered major hardships or events in stark contrast to the orderly upbringing of a typical manager. Leaders have achieved separateness, which enables them to dream up ideas and to stimulate others to work hard to bring these dreams into reality. In contrast, managers are process oriented and believe that good systems and processes produce good results. In a related argument, Kotter (1987) stated that leadership is about coping with change, whereas management is about coping with complexity. Bennis (1989) believed that the difference between leaders and managers is the ability to master the context rather than surrender to it. Bennis argued that the manager does things right, the leader does the right thing.

Many observers believed that organisations (business) lost their competitive advantage because of a lack of strong leadership. While many managers focus on superficial activities and worry about short-term profits and stock prices, too few have emerged as leaders who foster innovation and attainment of long-term goals. And whereas many managers are overly concerned with "fitting in" and not rocking the boat, those who emerge, as leaders are more concerned with making important decisions that may break with tradition but are humane, moral, and right. The leader puts a premium on substance rather than on style.

It is important to be clear here about several things. First, management and leadership are both vital. To highlight the need for more leadership is not to

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It is important to be clear here about several things. First, management and leadership are both vital. To highlight the need for more leadership is not to

minimise the importance of management or managers. It is to say that leadership involves unique processes that are distinguishable from basic management processes. Moreover, just because they involved different processes does not mean that they require different, separate people. The same individual can exemplify effective managerial and leadership processes.

Some people still will dislike the idea of distinguishing between management and leadership, maintaining it is artificial or derogatory towards the managers and management processes that make organisations run. Perhaps a better or more useful distinction is between supervisory and strategic leadership. Supervisory leadership is a behaviour that provides guidance, support, and corrective feedback for the day-to-day activities of work unit members. Strategic leadership gives purpose and meaning to organisations. In modern organisation in which people throughout the organisation should think strategically and behave like complete business people, strategic leadership needs to be an activity performed by people throughout the organisation, not just by a few people at the very top (Bateman & Snell, 1999).

Dessler (1998) delineating on the issue of leaders and managers stated that managers plan, organise, lead, and control, so that leading and managing are inseparable in management theory. Leading is part of managing. Managing means planning, organising, leading, and controlling the work of others so that the organisation's aims are achieved. But if a leader cannot influence and inspire those people to work toward those aims, then all the planning and organising will

be for naught. Leading is thus the distinctly behavioural and/or influencing part of what managers do.

Similarly, managing is part of leading: setting a direction and saying, "Here's where we've got to go" is usually not enough (Dessler, 1998; p.332). In other words, no matter how inspiring a leader happens to be, management skills such as ensuring that salary, incentives, and other rewards make it worthwhile for employees to try hard and ensuring that they have the abilities and tools to do their jobs are crucial too.

According to Owens (2001), leaders become component of the environment of people they lead and therefore, element of their equation. Leaders, therefore, are not merely concerned with the leadership style and techniques that they intend to use but also with the quality and kinds of relationship that they have with followers. Leadership is not something that one does to people, or a matter of behaving towards people, but rather, it is working with and through other people to achieve organisational goals.

What distinguishes leaders from other authority figures is the unique relationship between leaders and followers. Leaders relate to followers in ways that are motivating. They unite with others in sharing a vision of where the organisation should be going and how to get it there. They arouse their personal commitment to the effort to bring the vision of a better future into being; organise the working environment so that the envisioned goals become fundamental values in the organisation; and facilitate the work that followers need to do to achieve the vision (Owens, 2001). Owens continued that how leaders do these things depends,

first, on what they think leadership is, and that is defined in terms of the character and quality of the relationship between leaders and followers. This arises from the basic suppositions that the prospective leader holds about people and the world in which they work, the world in which all cultural values and ideals arise.

Despite the above submissions, many executives and academia see considerable overlap between leadership and management activities and preoccupations; and they believe that it is wrong to assume that a person cannot be good at both (Shani & Lau, 2000).

Certainly, there is little or no research to support the notion that selected people can be classified as leaders rather than as managers or that, managers cannot adopt visionary behaviours when they are required for success. It is important for all managers and supervisors to establish themselves as leaders. Further, team-based organisation designs are extending leadership functions to work groups and cross-department teams in most modern organisations. There is opportunity for more innovation and critical thinking at all levels of the organisation.

Approaches to Leadership

The study of leadership in the behavioural sciences covers more than six decades. Personality, physical appearance, attitudes, behaviour and other factors have been studied as the basis for leadership and leadership success. (Shani & Lau, 2000; Stogdill, 1948 as cited in Owens, 1991).

Originally, research related to leadership centred on identifying the traits that leaders commonly exhibit. Researchers initially thought that personal traits

would identify leaders and explain different levels of success. Leaders were considered to have been born with certain traits and could acquire additional traits through learning and experience (Stogdill, 1948 cited in Owens, 1991). Later studies focused on the leader's behaviour as viewed by subordinates and related different behaviour with the effectiveness of work units. More recently, some researchers have studied elements in the situations that influence the traits, behaviour and end results. Simply put, they believe that some people function better in certain situations or that leader behaviour must adjust to reflect the peculiar demands of each situation (Bass, 1960 & Mann, 1959 as cited in Owens, 1991). This section explores different theories/approaches/models of leadership. It explores the trait and behavioural approaches, Fiedler's contingency model, path-goal theory, the Vroom and Yetton model, transformational and transactional leadership approaches. The approaches/theories/models delineate the various styles of leadership, which is the focus of the study.

The Trait (competency) Approach

The trait approach is the oldest leadership perspective and was dominant for several decades. This approach seems logical for studying leadership. It focuses on individual leaders and attempts to determine the personal characteristics that great leaders share. The trait approach assumes the existence of a leadership personality and assumes that leaders are born, not made. The trait approach, also known as the great men theory of leadership dominated the study of leadership until the 1950s (Owens, 1991).

For the first half of the 20th century, organisational behaviour scholars used scientific methods to determine whether certain personality traits and physical characteristics, particularly the person's height and weight, actually distinguish leaders from lesser souls. A major review in the late 1940s concluded that no consistent list of traits could be distilled from the hundreds of studies conducted up to that time. A subsequent review suggested that a few traits are consistently associated with effective leaders, but most are unrelated to effective leadership. These conclusions caused many scholars to give up their search for personal characteristics that distinguish effective leaders (Bateman & Snell, 1999; McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

McShane and Von Glinow (2000) referred to the trait theory as the competency perspective of leadership. They added that competencies are the underlying characteristics of people that lead to superior performances. These include the person's knowledge, natural and learned abilities, values and personality traits. They wrote that the competency perspective is still called the trait perspective of leadership in many organisational behaviour textbooks because early writers concentrated on personality and physical traits rather than broader competencies.

McShane and Von Glinow (2000) indicated that since the 1980s, management consultants and a few organisational behaviour scholars have popularised competency-based selection and reward practices. Competencies, as mentioned, encompass a broader range of personal characteristics such as knowledge, abilities and values that were not considered by earlier studies on

leadership traits. This new generation of leadership experts argued that the earlier studies focused too much on the abstract personality traits and physical appearance of leaders.

According to McShane and Von Glinow (2000), recent literature on leadership identified seven competencies that are characteristics of effective leaders. The first competency is drive. This refers to the inner motivation that leaders have a high need for achievement. This inspires an unbridled inquisitiveness and a need for constant learning. The second competency is leadership motivation. This implies that leaders have a strong need for power because they want to influence others. However, they tend to have a need for socialised power because their motivation is constrained by a strong sense of altruism and social responsibility. In other words, effective leaders try to gain power so that they can influence others to accomplish goals that benefit the team or organisation. The third competency is integrity. This refers to the leader's truthfulness and tendency to translate words into deeds. Several studies have reported that followers consistently identify integrity as the most important leadership characteristics. Leaders will only have followers when trust is maintained through the leader's integrity. The fourth competency is self-confidence. This means that leaders believe in their leadership skills and ability to achieve objectives. They also use impressive management tactics to convince followers of their confidence.

Intelligence is the fifth competency. This refers to the idea that leaders have above-average cognitive ability to process enormous amounts of

information. Leaders are not necessarily geniuses; rather, they have a superior ability to analyse alternative scenarios and identify potential opportunities. The sixth competency has to do with knowledge of the organisation. Leaders need to know the organisational environment in which they operate. This knowledge gives them an intuitive understanding of which decisions to make and whose ideas make sense for the organisation's survival and success. This organisational savvy (know-how) enables leaders to recognise opportunities and understand their organisation's capacity to capture those opportunities.

The seventh competency is emotional intelligence. Effective leaders have high level of emotional intelligence. People with high emotional intelligence monitor their own and others' emotions, discriminate among them and use the information to guide their thoughts and actions. Emotional intelligence requires a strong self-monitoring personality because leaders must be sensitive to situational cues and readily adapt their own behaviour appropriately. It also requires the ability to empathise with others and possess the social skills necessary to build rapport as well as network with others.

The competency perspective offers practical implications for organisations. It recognises that some people possess personal characteristics that offer them a higher potential to be great leaders. The most obvious implication of this is that organisations are relying increasingly on competency-based methods to employ people for future leadership positions. Organisations also need to determine which behaviours represent these competencies so that employees with leadership talents are identified early for promotion.

The competency perspective of leadership does not necessarily imply that great leaders are born. On the contrary, competencies only indicate leadership potential. People with these characteristics become effective leaders only after they have developed and mastered the necessary leadership behaviours. People with somewhat lower leadership competencies may become very effective leaders because they have leveraged their potential more fully. This means that organisations must do more than employ people with certain competencies. They must also develop their potential through leadership development programmes and practical experience in the field (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

The trait/competency approach alone cannot fully explain why or how effective leadership occurs. This observation suggests the need to move from the search for leadership traits/competencies to the consideration of other factors that contribute to leadership effectiveness. Next, researchers sought to identify specific behaviours performed by effective leaders.

The Behavioural Approach

Kreitner (1983) explained that the study of leadership has shifted from leader traits to patterns of behaviour called leadership styles. Leadership style refers to a pattern of philosophy, beliefs, attitudes, feelings and assumptions about leadership that affect the individual's behaviour when managing people. More specifically, leadership style refers to the individual's expectations about how to use a leadership position both to participate and to involve other people in the achievement of results (Shani & Lau, 2000). Therefore, a person's leadership style is the behaviour patterns, which he or she uses while directing others to do

the job. Often, leadership styles and leadership behaviour are used interchangeably. Fiedler in Hoy and Miskel (1982) noted that leadership behaviour denotes the specific acts of a leader in directing and conducting the work of group members. For instance, the leader can commend, make helpful suggestions and show consideration for the well-being of group members. In contrast, leadership style refers to the underlying need structure of the leader that motivates behaviour in various interpersonal situations. Kreitner described the shifting of leadership studies from who the leader is to how the leader behaves. The behavioural approach focuses on what leaders do.

Literature in the field of leadership reflects that leaders have different styles. One way to consider styles of leadership is to relate them to the theories, which have been used to explain leadership. Style of the leader may reflect, to some degree, the leader's acceptance of a given theory (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996; Kreitner, 1983). However, while there is a tremendous range of leadership styles, research indicates that it is most probable that administrators use some portion of several styles as times and circumstances differ (Campbell, Corbally & Ramseyer, 1962; Vroom, 1976).

Foremost among the leadership research is the Ohio State University studies (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971; Stogdill, 1994). In the 1940s and 1950s, scholars from Ohio State University launched an intensive research investigation to answer the question: What behaviours make leaders effective? Questionnaires were administered to subordinates, asking them to rate their supervisors on a large number of behaviours. These studies, along

with similar research at the University of Michigan and Harvard University, distilled two clusters of leadership behaviours from more than 1800 leadership behaviour items (Yukl, 1994).

The Ohio State University studies attempted to develop a theory based on many observations of the leadership function (Stogdill, 1994). Findings from these studies have been consistent with additional theoretical and research perspectives of the Michigan and Harvard Studies.

Halpin (1966), a researcher from Ohio State University, described two dimensions of leadership that result in four leadership styles. These dimensions are initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between him or her and members of the work-group, and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and procedures (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971). This style of leadership is task-oriented. When using this style, the leader monitors performance closely and motivates subordinates using quotas and deadlines. Communication is usually formal, one-way, and downward. Rules and regulations are enforced in the pursuit of assigned tasks. Leaders who use initiating structure tend to engage in a programme of close supervision and tight control. They focus on high standards of performance and uniform procedures. Production emphasis is dominant (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

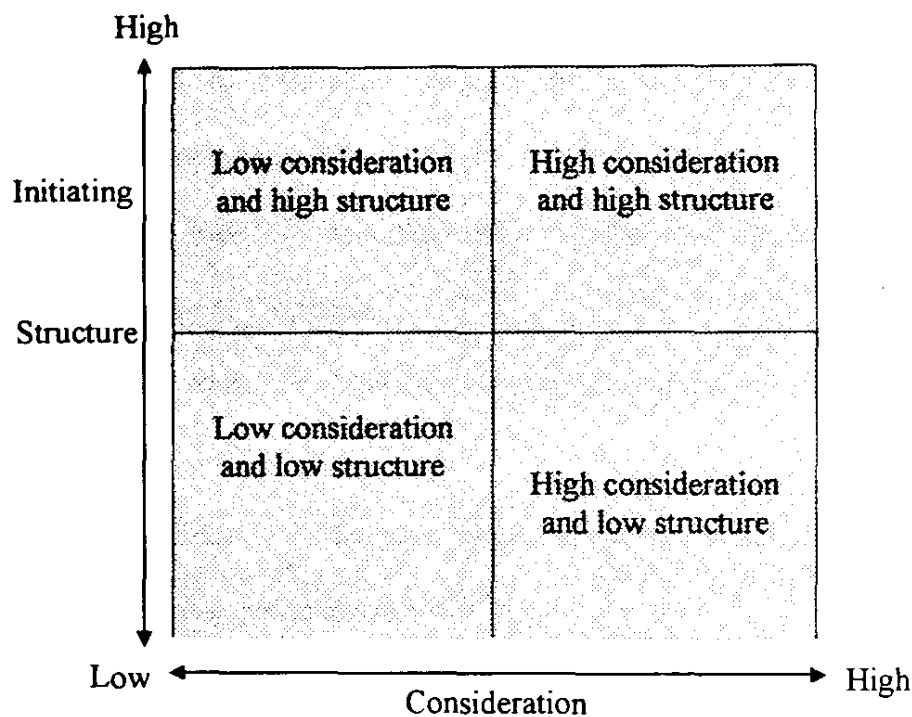
Consideration refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the staff members

(Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971). The leadership style is characterised by low concern for structure and high emphasis on interpersonal relations. The needs and feelings of individuals are of overriding importance to the leader. Task requirements are clearly subordinate to the need dispositions of individuals. The leader is friendly and supportive in interactions with subordinates. Communications tend to be informal and focus on social and personal topics rather than on task-related matters. Conflict is avoided, but when it does erupt, it seems to be smoothed over. The superior is primarily supportive, and works to put people at ease (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

The four resulting leadership styles are low initiating structure/high consideration, high initiating structure/ high consideration, low initiating structure/low consideration, and high initiating structure/ low consideration (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971). These four leadership styles are shown in Figure 1. Low initiating structure/high consideration leaders strive to promote group harmony and social need satisfaction. High initiating structure/high consideration leaders strive to achieve a productive balance between getting the job done and maintaining a cohesive, friendly work group. Low initiating structure/ low consideration leaders retreat to a generally passive role of allowing the situation to take care of itself. High initiating structure/low consideration leaders devote primary attention to getting the job done (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

The high initiating structure/high consideration leadership style, as described by Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) and Hoy and Miskel (1991), has

generally been considered the best style because it emphasises the best of both categories of initiating structure and consideration. In supporting this observation, Farahbakhsh (2004) indicated that the leader who is perceived as demonstrating a high degree of both initiating structure and consideration tended to be more effective. The instrument developed to measure these leadership styles was the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).



Source: Mullins (1993).

Figure 1: The Ohio State Quadrants of Leadership Behaviour

In search of the best management style, Blake and Mouton (1978) developed the Leadership Grid, which defines five leadership styles. They utilised the concepts of consideration and initiating structure patterns in the development of their Leadership Grid. The Leadership Grid has two dimensions: concern for

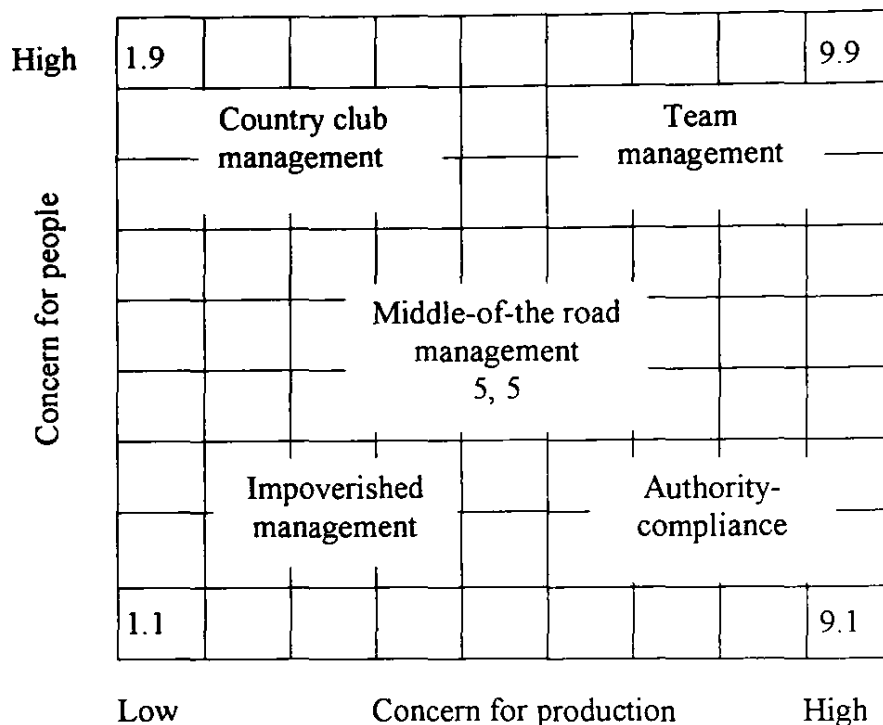
production, which is placed on the horizontal axis; and concern for people, which is placed on the vertical axis. Concern for production involves a desire to achieve greater output, cost effectiveness, and profits in profit organisations. Concern for people involves promoting friendship, helping co-workers get the job done, and attending to things that matter to people, such as pay and working conditions.

Blake and Mouton (1980) created a grid highlighted by five leadership styles. These styles include:

1. Task Style 9, 1: Maximum concern for production combined with minimum concern for people.
2. Country Club Style 1, 9: Minimum concern for production coupled with a maximum concern for people.
3. Impoverished Style 1, 1: Minimum concern for both production and people.
4. Middle Road Style 5, 5: Moderate concern for both production and people to maintain the status quo.
5. Team Style 9, 9: High concern for both production and people. This is a team approach (Refer to Figure 2).

In a study by Blake and Mouton (1980), 100 experienced managers preferred the 9, 9 leadership style, (high concern for both production and people) regardless of the situation. Blake and Mouton concluded that there is one best style for managers, the 9, 9. McShane and Von Glinow (2000) however noted that Leadership Grid programme states that effective leaders have the capacity for high levels of both dimensions, but they should choose appropriate levels of both

dimensions for the specific situation. This revision adopts the contingency perspective.



Source: Adapted from McShane and Von Glinow (2000).

Figure 2: The Leadership Grid Figure

The University of Michigan Survey Research Centre conducted a series of studies related to leadership behaviour (Likert, 1961). The purpose of the studies was to locate clusters of leadership characteristics that were closely related to each other and to effectiveness criteria. The criteria included job satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover, productivity, and efficiency. The Michigan studies also identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour, which were labelled production-oriented and employee-oriented (Likert, 1961). Vroom (1976) summarised the findings of the Michigan studies as follows:

1. **More effective leaders tend to have relationships with their subordinates that are supportive and enhance the follower's sense of self-esteem.**
2. **More effective leaders use group rather than person-to-person methods of supervision and decision-making.**
3. **More effective leaders tend to set high performance goals (p. 1532).**

The findings of the Michigan studies complement the Ohio State University studies. Bales (1954) researched leader behaviour by direct observation. Unlike the Michigan and Ohio State University studies, Bale's Harvard study focused on face-to-face interaction with college students rather than leaders in actual organisations. The results of the Harvard study were consistent with the studies at Michigan and Ohio State University. Two separate leadership roles, the task leader (task-oriented leadership) and the social leader (people-oriented leadership), were identified. After identifying the two clusters of leader behaviour, researchers associated them with specific measures of leadership effectiveness. The early studies concluded that people-oriented leadership is associated with higher job satisfaction among subordinates, as well as lower absenteeism, grievances and turnover. However, job performance was lower than it was for employees with task-oriented leaders. Task-oriented leadership, on the other hand, was associated with lower job satisfaction as well as higher absenteeism and turnover among subordinates. However, this leadership style also seems to increase productivity and team unity. College

students apparently value task-oriented instructors because they want clear course objectives and well-prepared lecturers that abide by the course objectives (Baba, 1989).

Researchers at University of Iowa conducted some of the earliest attempts at scientifically identifying the leader behaviours that are most effective. They concentrated on three leader behaviours, or styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. Autocratic leaders tend to make unilateral decisions, dictate work methods, limit worker knowledge about goals to just the next step to be performed, and sometimes give punitive feedback. In contrast, democratic leaders tend to involve the group in decision-making, let the group determine work methods, make overall goals known, and use feedback as an opportunity for helpful coaching. Laissez-faire leaders generally give the group complete freedom, provide necessary materials, and participate only to answer questions, and avoid giving feedback. In other words, they do almost nothing (Bartol & Martin, 1994).

Owens (1991) citing Reddin identified four basic leadership styles, which are essentially the same as those identified by Blake and Mouton (1980) in the Managerial Grid. Owens stated that Reddin went beyond the grid approach by building in the concept that different situations require different styles and that the effectiveness of a style depends upon the situation in which it is used. The four effective styles of leadership have been summarised as follows:

1. **Executive** – This style gives a great deal of concern to both task and people. A manager using this style is a good motivator, sets high standards, recognises individual differences and utilises team management.
2. **Developer** – This style gives maximum concern to people and minimum concern to the task. A manager using this style has implicit trust in people and is mainly concerned with developing them as individuals.
3. **Benevolent Autocrat** – This style gives maximum concern to the task and minimum concern to people. A manager using this style knows exactly what he or she wants and how to get it without causing resentment.
4. **Bureaucrat** – This style gives minimum concern to both task and people. A manager using this style is mainly interested in the rules and wants to maintain and control the situation by their use but is seen as conscientious (Owens, 1991; p.153-154).

The ineffective styles are:

1. **Compromiser** – This style gives a great deal of concern to both task and people in a situation that requires only emphasis on one or neither. This type of manager is a poor decision maker; the pressures affect him or her too much.
2. **Missionary** – This style gives maximum concern to people and minimum concern to the task where such behaviour is inappropriate. This manager is typically the 'do gooder' who values harmony as an end in itself.
3. **Autocrat** – This style gives maximum concern to the task and minimum concern to the people where such behaviour is inappropriate. This

manager has no confidence in others, is unpleasant and is interested only in the immediate job.

4. Deserter – This style gives minimum concern to task and people in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate. This manager is uninvolved and passive (Owens, 1991; p.155).

Though the trait and behavioural approaches contribute to our understanding of effective leadership, by indicating what effective leaders tend to be like and what they do; a fuller understanding of leadership, however, can be gained only by also considering how the situation affects leadership (Shani & Lau 2000).

Contingency Approaches to Leadership

The contingency perspective of leadership is based on the idea that the most appropriate leadership style depends on the situation. Most contingency leadership theories assume that effective leaders must be both insightful and flexible. Leaders must be able to adapt their behaviours and styles to the immediate situation. This is not easy to do; however, leaders typically have a preferred style. It takes considerable effort to learn when and how to alter one's style to match the situation. According to Shani and Lau (2000), leaders must have a high emotional intelligence, particularly a self-monitoring personality so they can diagnose the circumstances and match their behaviours accordingly.

Fiedler's Contingency Model

Owens (1991) wrote that Fred Fiedler and his associates developed the earliest contingency theory of leadership called Fiedler's contingency model. According to this model, leader effectiveness depends on whether the person's natural leadership style is appropriately matched to the situation. The theory examines two leadership styles that essentially correspond to the people-oriented and task-oriented styles described previously.

Fiedler's (1967) model suggested that the best leadership style depends on the level of situational control; that is, the degree of power and influence that the leader possesses in a particular situation. Situational control is affected by three factors in the following order of importance; leader-member relations, task structure and position power. Leader-member relation is the degree to which employees trust and respect the leader and are willing to follow his or her guidance. Task structure refers to the clarity or ambiguity of operating procedures. Position power is the extent to which the leader possesses legitimate, reward and coercive power over subordinates. These three contingencies form the eight possible combinations of situation favourableness from the leader's viewpoint. Good leader-member relations, high task structure and strong position power create the most favourable situation for the leader because he or she has the most power and influence under these conditions.

If leadership style is influenced by a person's personality, then organisations should engineer the situation to fit the leader's dominant style, rather than expect leaders to change their style with the situation. A directive

leader might be assigned inexperienced employees who need direction rather than seasoned people who work less effectively under a directive style. Alternatively, organisations might transfer supervisors to workplaces where their dominant style fits best. For instance, directive leaders might be parachuted into work teams with counterproductive norms, whereas leaders who prefer a supportive style should be sent to departments in which employees face work pressures and other stressors.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

Several contingency theories have been proposed over the years, but path-goal leadership theory has withstood scientific critique better than the others have. The theory has its roots in the expectancy theory of motivation. House (1971) observed that early research has incorporated expectancy theory into the study of how leader behaviours influence employee perceptions of expectancies (paths) between employee effort and performance (goals). Based on this perspective, House (1996) and other scholars developed and refined path-goal theory as contingency leadership model.

Path-goal theory states that effective leaders influence employee satisfaction and performance by making their need satisfaction contingent on effective job performance. Thus, leaders strengthen the performance-to-outcome expectancy and the value of those outcomes by ensuring that employees who perform their jobs well have a higher degree of need fulfilments than employees who perform poorly. Secondly, path-goal theory states that effective leaders strengthen the effort to performance expectancy by providing the information,

support and other resources necessary to help employees complete their task (House & Mitchell, 1974).

There are certain leadership styles associated with path-goal theory. For example, House (1996) opined that path-goal theory suggests that leaders motivate and satisfy employees in a particular situation by adopting one or more of the four leadership styles described as directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented.

The directive style involves clarifying behaviours that provide a psychological structure for subordinates. The leader clarifies performance goals, the means to reach those goals, and the standards against which performance will be judged. It also includes judicious use of rewards and disciplinary actions. Directive leadership is the same as task-oriented leadership described earlier and echoes the importance of clear-role perceptions in employee performance.

The supportive style refers to behaviours, which provide psychological support for subordinates. The leader is friendly and approachable, makes the work more pleasant, treats employees with equal respect and shows concern for the status, needs and well-being of employees. Supportive leadership is the same as people-oriented leadership described earlier and reflects the benefits of social support to help employees cope with stressful situations.

Participative behaviours encourage and facilitate subordinate involvement in decisions beyond their normal work activities. The leader consults with employees, asks for their suggestions, and considers these ideas before making a decision. Participative leadership relates to the employee involvement concepts.

Achievement-oriented behaviours encourage employees to reach their peak performance. The leader sets challenging goals, expects employees to perform at their highest level, continuously seeks improvement in employees performance, and shows a high degree of confidence that employees will assume responsibility and accomplish challenging goals. Achievement-oriented leadership applies goal-setting theory as well as positive expectations in self-fulfilling prophecy (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

The path-goal model contends that effective leaders are capable of selecting the most appropriate behavioural style (or styles) for specific situation. Leaders might simultaneously use more than one style at a time. For example, they might be both supportive and participative in a specific situation.

Contingencies of Path-Goal Theory

As a contingency theory, path-goal theory states that each of these four leadership styles will be effective in some situations but not in others. The path-goal leadership model specifies two sets of situational variables that moderate the relationship between a leader's style and effectiveness. These are employee characteristics and characteristics of the employee's work environment, which are explained in terms of skill and experience, locus of control, task structure and team dynamics.

A combination of directive and supportive leadership is best for employees who perceive themselves to be inexperienced and unskilled. Directive leadership gives subordinates information about how to accomplish the task,

whereas supportive leadership helps them to cope with the uncertainties of unfamiliar work situations. Directive leadership is detrimental when employees are skilled and experienced because it introduces supervisory control.

People with an internal locus of control believe that they have control over their work environment. Consequently, these employees prefer participative and achievement-oriented leadership styles and may become frustrated with a directive style. In contrast, people with an external locus of control believe that their performance is due more to luck and fate, so they tend to be more satisfied with directive and supportive leadership (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

Directive leadership should be adopted when the task is non-routine, because this style minimises role ambiguity that tends to occur in these complex work situations particularly for inexperienced employees. This style is ineffective when employees have routine and simple task because the manager's guidance serves no purpose and may be viewed as unnecessarily close control. Employees in highly routine and simple jobs may require supportive leadership to help them cope with the tedious nature of the work and lack of control over the pace of work. Participative leadership is preferred for employees performing non-routine tasks because the lack of rules and procedures gives them more discretion to achieve challenging goals. This style is ineffective for employees in routine tasks because they lack discretion over their work.

Team dynamics involves cohesive teams with performance-oriented norms, which act as a substitute for most interventions by leaders. High team cohesiveness substitutes for supportive leadership, whereas performance-oriented

team norms substitute for directive and possibly achievement-oriented leadership. Thus, when team cohesiveness is low, leaders should use the supportive style. Leaders should apply a directive style to counteract team norms that oppose the team's formal objectives. For example, the team leader may need to use legitimate power if team members have developed a norm to 'take it easy' rather than get a project completed on time.

The original path-goal theory relates primarily to dyadic relations between a supervisor and employee. Yet leadership also applies to the work unit and organisation. Recognising this gap, House (1996) an early developer of the original path-goal theory, extended the model in 1996 by adding leadership styles that apply more to work units and organisations than to individual relations. One of these is networking which recognises that leaders play an important political role. They represent the work unit and engage in political networking activities to legitimise the work unit and maintain positive influences on other areas of the organisation. Another is value-based leadership, which includes articulating a vision of the future, displaying passion for this vision, demonstrating self-confidence in the attainment of the vision, communicating the vision and acting in ways consistent with the vision. This is the same as the transformational leadership perspective that will be discussed later.

Path-goal theory clearly reinforces the idea that effective leaders vary their style with the situation. There are times to give directions, times to empathise with followers, times to use stretch goals, and times to involve people in decision-making. Path-goal theory also offers a precise set of contingency factors to guide

our use of leadership styles. As a result, this theory provides practical advice on when to use various leadership styles.

Path-goal theory enhances the understanding of effective leadership in organisations by specifying how leaders should motivate their followers. Motivation is one of the key determinants of performance in organisations, and the ability to motivate followers is a crucial aspect of leadership effectiveness.

Situational Leadership Model

One of the most popular contingency theories is the situational leadership model, developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). Studies by Hersey and Blanchard at the Centre for Leadership Studies, Ohio State University, substituted the terms task behaviour and relationship behaviour to describe the concepts similar to Halpin's (1966) two dimensions of leadership, initiating structure and consideration. The two types of leader behaviours as defined by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) task and relationship are as follows: Task behaviour is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviours include telling people what to do, how to do it, and when to do it.

Relationship behaviour is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication. The behaviours include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviours. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) developed a leadership grid that depicts the four basic leader behaviour quadrants, (1) high relationship and low task, (2) high task and high relationship, (3) low task

and low relationship, and (4) high task and low relationship. Hersey and Blanchard recognised and integrated leadership style with the situation in which the leadership occurs to produce a measure of effectiveness. A key component in identifying leadership effectiveness is the component of maturity. Maturity is the capacity to set high but attainable goals, a willingness and ability to take responsibility and experience of an individual or group.

The later version of the model by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) suggested that effective leaders vary their style with the 'readiness' of followers. They continued that readiness refers to the employee's or work team's ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. Ability refers to the extent that the followers have the skills and knowledge to perform the task without the leader's guidance. Willingness refers to the follower's self-motivation and commitment to perform the assigned task. The model compresses these distinct concepts into a single situational condition.

The situational leadership model also identifies four leadership styles. These are telling, selling, participating and delegating, distinguished in terms of the amount of directive and supportive behaviour provided. For example, 'telling' has high task behaviour and low supportive behaviour. The situational leadership model uses the same template as the Leadership Grid discussed earlier, except the four quadrants represent a leadership style that may be appropriate under different circumstances.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) model, the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model, proposed that as the level of maturity of the followers

increases in relation to a specific task, the leader should begin to reduce task behaviour and increase relationship behaviour. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity, Hersey and Blanchard explained, it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behaviour but also relationship behaviour. The individual or group is not only mature in terms of the performance of the task but is also psychologically mature. Mature followers see this increase in delegation by the leader as an indication of trust and confidence in their abilities. If leaders are to be effective with subordinates, then it is essential that leaders recognise and adopt the appropriate leadership style to the maturity levels of the followers. According to them, to determine what leadership style is most appropriate in a given situation, a leader must first determine the readiness (maturity level) of the individual or group in relation to a specific task that the leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts.

The Vroom and Yetton Model: Determining the Level of Subordinate

Participation in Decision Making (The Normative Model)

One of the most important things that leaders do in organisations is to make decisions. Good decisions help the organisation achieve its goals; bad decisions hinder goal attainment. The Vroom and Yetton model, developed in the 1970s by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton, describes the different ways in which leaders can make decisions and guides leaders in determining the extent to which subordinates should participate in decision-making (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

As many leaders have learned, allowing subordinates to participate in decision-making and problem solving can enhance leadership. Participation helps

to ensure that subordinates will accept a decision that affects them or requires their support. Participation may result in better decisions if, for example, subordinates have information pertaining to the decision that the leader does not have. Moreover, participation can foster subordinates' growth and development and may result in higher levels of performance and satisfaction in the future.

Given the advantages and disadvantages of subordinates' participation in decision-making, the Vroom and Yetton's (1973) model seeks to specify when and how much leaders should allow their subordinates to participate. To identify the optimal amount of participation, the Vroom and Yetton model first requires leaders to determine whether an individual or a group decision needs to be made. Individual decisions pertain to a single subordinate.

Leaders making either individual or group decisions can choose from four different decision-making styles, which vary in the extent to which subordinates participate in making the decision. These four styles are categorised as autocratic, consultative, group and delegated styles. The autocratic style is when the leader makes the decision without input from subordinates. The consultative style is when subordinates have some input, but the leader makes the decision. The group style is when the group makes the decision and the leader is regarded as just another group member. The delegated style involves the leader giving exclusive responsibility to subordinates.

The Vroom and Yetton's (1973) model instructs leaders to choose among these alternative decision styles on the basis of their answers to a series of questions concerning specific aspects of the decision that needs to be made;

characteristics of the subordinates involved, and whether the leader has the information needed to make a good decision. The questions are arrayed in a decision tree. By answering each question and following through on the tree, the leader finds the problem type, which characterises the decision, which needs to be made. For each problem type, there is a feasible set, which includes one or more leadership styles that are appropriate for the decision, in question or the problem type. Where multiple styles are appropriate, one style is recommended to minimise the amount of time required to make the decision and other styles are recommended to further subordinates' development and growth.

When and how much leaders should allow their subordinates to participate in decision-making depends on aspects of the decision, the subordinates involved and the information needed to make a good decision. Moreover, the Vroom and Yetton's (1973) model may give overly autocratic leaders some needed guidance about how and when to involve their subordinates in decision-making. As indicated, leaders can sometimes put themselves in a precarious position by making all decisions themselves.

Transactional Leadership

The concept of transactional leadership views management as a series of business transactions in which, leaders use their legitimate, reward and coercive powers to give commands and exchange rewards for services rendered. Transactional leadership is dispassionate; it does not excite, transform, empower, or inspire people to focus on the interests of the group or organisation (Bateman & Snell 1999). Transactional leaders motivate subordinates to perform at

expected levels by helping them recognise task responsibilities, identify goals, acquire confidence about meeting desired performance levels and understand how their needs and the rewards that they desire are linked to goal achievement (George & Jones 1996).

Gibson, Invancevich and Donnelly (1997) noted that the exchange role of the leader has been referred to as transactional. The leader helps the follower identify what must be done to accomplish the desired results, better quality output, more sales or services, and reduced cost of production. In helping the follower identify what must be done, the leader takes into consideration the person's self-concept and esteem needs. The transactional approach uses the path-goal concepts as its framework.

In using the transaction style, the leader relies on contingent reward and on management by exception. Research shows that when contingent reinforcement is used, followers exhibit an increase in performance and satisfaction; followers believe that accomplishing objectives will result in their receiving desired rewards. Using management by exception, the leader will not be involved unless objectives are not being accomplished (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

McShane & Von Glinow (2000) continued that transactional leadership is not often found in organisational settings. One national sample of United States workers showed that only 22 percent of the participants perceived a direct relationship between how hard they worked and how much pay they received. That is, the majority of workers believed that good pay was not contingent on

good performance. Although workers prefer a closer link between pay and performance, it was not present in their jobs. There are probably a number of reasons, such as unreliable performance appraisal systems, subjectively administered rewards, poor managerial skills in showing employees the pay-performance link and conditions outside the manager's control. Also, managers often provide rewards that are not perceived by followers to be meaningful or important.

McShane and Von Glinow (2000) suggested that transactional leadership has to do with management. That is, helping organisations achieve their current objectives more efficiently, such as linking job performances to valued rewards and ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done. Waldman, Bass and Einstein (1987) described transactional leadership as engaging followers in an exchange relationship that focused on their basic needs and applied rewards and sanctions to achieve productivity and efficient management.

Skills of planning, coordinating, and scheduling are associated with the concept of a leader as a manager. The contingency and behavioural theories described earlier adopt the transactional perspective because they focus on leader behaviours that improve employees' performance and satisfaction.

Transformational Perspective of Leadership

These leaders are agents of change. They developed a vision for the organisation or work unit, inspired and collectively bonded employees to that

vision, and gave them a 'can do' attitude that made the vision achievable (Bass, 1990).

According to Owens (2001), the goal of leadership is to build human capital in the organisation, thus, to transform the relationship between leader and followers so that participants are energised and motivated by unity of purpose and mutually shared values. Transformational leadership is based on the conviction that the people in the organisation constitute a resource rich in ideas, knowledge, creativity and energy whose power can be fully tapped only by creating organisational environments that are motivating, inclusionary, caring and empowering. The transformational leader is well aware that leadership does not involve command and coercion, but encouraging the constant growth and development of followers. It is a teaching-learning process.

Teachers are motivated to learn new ways when they are active participants in their own learning, forging new ideas about the future of their lives at work and participating actively as team members in making the central decisions regarding their work. To move an organisation from traditional transactional leadership to transformational leadership requires the development of a new process that is pursued steadfastly over time through which teachers can learn new roles and new skills required for active participation in teamwork and collaboration. This transformational team-building process must include constant attention to the building of greater levels of trust not only between the leader and the followers but among the collaborating followers as well. Thus,

transformational leaders understand that leadership is a never-ending process of building human capital in the organisation (Owens, 2001).

Jason (2000) believed that transformational principals are open to change and, more fundamentally, embrace its prospect since they realise that school improvement is connected with the personal and professional development of themselves and their staff. The fundamental belief of principals who exhibit transformational styles is that the key to school improvement is people improvement through professional development.

Transformational leadership also lends itself to the principal being both a celebrant and a mediator (Hart & Bredson as cited in Jason, 2000). This provides an opportunity for unity in an effective school. As a celebrant, the principal focuses on legitimating the value of difference to enrich educational experiences of all learners. The principal is also a mediator who reconciles sources of conflict embedded in coexisting values and traditions.

In a study that examined leadership literature, Pielstick (1998) discovered a pattern of descriptors that provide a profile of transformational leadership. The profile includes seven major themes: creating a shared vision, communicating the vision, building relationships, developing a supporting organisational structure, guiding implementation, demonstrating character, and achieving results. Shared vision includes high expectations for quality or excellence and promotes inclusion of continuous improvement, benchmarks, total quality management, and customer service.

Transformational leaders believe and demonstrate honesty, trust, integrity and other qualities and are guided by principles of justice, equity, dignity, and respect for every individual. Bennis (1989) indicated that transformational leaders are noted as being ethical, “noble of mind and heart; generous in forgiving; above revenge or resentment” (p.118).

Pielstick (1998) noted that transformational leaders are lifelong learners who build their knowledge about education, teaching and learning, educational reform, and other trends and issues. Multiple stakeholders are extremely important to these leaders and they learn about the needs of these stakeholders in and out of the educational setting. Effective leaders have keen knowledge as to how far these constituents will go before developing resistance to change and their zone of acceptance.

Pielstick (1998) further explained that the concept of leadership has been examined and a model of transformational leadership for improved school performance has been developed. Transformational practices in this model include building school vision and goals; providing intellectual stimulation; offering individualised support; promoting participation and collaboration; and symbolising professional practices and values. Waldman, Bass and Einstein (1987) advocated transformational leadership for successful organisational change and improved performance.

Liontos (1992) offered specific ideas as to how transformational leaders create successful schools. These include:

1. visiting each classroom everyday;

2. involvement of the whole staff in creating school goals, beliefs, and visions;
3. helping teachers to work smarter by actively seeking different interpretations and assumptions;
4. using action research teams or school improvement teams as a way of shared power;
5. publicly recognising the work of staff and students who have contributed to school improvement;
6. surveying the staff about their wants and needs;
7. letting teachers experiment with new ideas;
8. getting teachers to share their talents with one another;
9. having high expectations for teachers and students but do not expect hundred percent if you are not also willing to give the same; and
10. protecting teachers from the problems of limited time, excessive paperwork, and demands from other agencies (p. 3-4).

Elements of Transformational Leadership

There are several descriptions of transformational leadership, but most include four elements. These elements include creating a strategic vision, communicating the vision, modelling the vision and building commitment toward the vision. Transformational leaders are the brokers of dreams. They shape a strategic vision of a realistic and attractive future that bonds employees together and focuses their energy toward a super ordinate organisational goal (Kouzes &

Posner, 1995). They continued that visions represent the substance of transformational leadership. They reflect a future for the company or work unit that is ultimately accepted and valued by organisational members. Notice that leadership vision is not a mission statement plastered on someone's wall. Rather, it is part of the corporate meaning; thus, the organisation's goals and why it exists. Strategic visions might originate with the leader, but they are just as likely to emerge from employees, clients, suppliers or other constituents. They typically begin as abstract ideas that become progressively clearer through critical events and discussions with staff about strategic and operational plans.

There is some evidence that visions are the most important part of transformational leadership. Visions offer the motivational benefits of goal setting, but they are more than mundane goals. Visions are compelling future states that bond employees and motivate them to strive for those objectives. Visions are typically described in a way that distinguish them from the current situation, yet makes the goal both appealing and achievable (George & Jones, 1996).

If vision is the substance of transformational leadership, then communicating that vision is the process. Effective leaders are able to communicate meaning and elevate the importance of the visionary goal to employees. They frame messages around a grand purpose with an emotional appeal that captivates employees and other corporate stakeholders. Framing helps transformational leaders establish a common mental model so that the group or organisation will act collectively toward the desirable goal.

Transformational leaders also bring their visions to life through symbols, metaphors, stories and other vehicles that transcend plain language. Metaphors borrow images of other experiences; thereby creating a richer meaning of the vision that has not yet been experienced (Bartol & Martin, 1994; McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

Transformational leaders not only talk about a vision, they enact it. They 'walk the talk' by stepping outside the executive suite and doing things that symbolise the vision. Moreover, transformational leaders are reliable and persistent in their action. They stay on course, thereby legitimising the vision and providing further evidence that they can be trusted. Walking the talk is important because employees and other stakeholders are executive watchers who look for behaviours to symbolise values and expectations. The more consistent these behaviours are with statements, the more employees will believe and follow these statements. Moreover, walking the talk, build trust. One way to have others build trust in you is through the consistency of your behaviour. By walking the talk, leaders are acting consistently and, consequently, tend to build greater employee trust in them (Bartol & Martin, 1994; McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

Leaders walk the talk through significant events, but they also alter mundane activities such as meeting agendas, office locations, executive schedules, so that they are consistent with the vision and its underlying values. The first principle of leadership is authenticity. According to McShane and Von Glinow (2000), if you talk about speed in action, yet procrastinate on difficult decisions, you are not believable; the most important thing is to live that way

yourself. McShane and Von Glinow, therefore, emphasised that members of the **executive committees must 'walk the talk' and live up to what they say.**

Transforming a vision into reality requires employee commitment. Transformational leaders build this commitment in several ways. Their words, symbols and stories build a contagious enthusiasm that energises people to adopt the vision as their own. Leaders demonstrate a 'can do' attitude by enacting their vision and staying on course. Their persistence and consistency reflect an image of honesty, trust, and integrity. Finally, leaders build commitment by involving employees in the process of shaping the organisation's vision (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

Recently, writers have begun to investigate the idea that transformational leadership is more appropriate in some situations than others (contingency approach to leadership) are. For instance, transformational leadership is probably more appropriate when an organisation needs to adapt than when environmental conditions are stable. Transactional leadership would be more suitable, on the other hand, when the organisation requires greater efficiency.

Transformational leadership is about leaders changing the organisation's strategies and culture so that they have a better organisational surrounding or environment. Transformational leaders are agents of change who energise and direct employees to a new set of corporate values and behaviour (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

Transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership. It is a supplemental form of leadership with an add-on effect, which is a

performance beyond expectations. The logic is that even the most successful transformational leaders need transactional skills as well to manage effectively day-to-day events that form the basis of the broader mission (Bartol & Martin, 1994). Finally, there is the need to remember that establishing and communicating a broad corporate vision does not replace the practical value of hard goals and results. The problem is determining how and when to reduce the transformational leader's lofty ideals into measurable progress (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000). Organisations need both transactional and transformational leaders. Transactional leadership improves organisational efficiency whereas transformational leadership steers organisations on to a better course of action.

Researchers maintain that there is no best style of leadership that will be successful in every type of situation (Bhella, 1982; Boyer, 1982; Everett, 1987; Halpin, 1959; Klawitter, 1985; Stogdill, 1974). An extensive search of the literature has shown no universally accepted style of leadership despite numerous research efforts to determine such a style. However, research has shown that leaders exhibiting high task and relationship skills, in combination, have an impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Effective Leadership Traits

In reviewing the literature on leadership and the qualities that make an effective principal, Paul (1999) found that effective principals must have integrity, embrace responsibility, and be willing to take on new roles. Effective principals must be visionary risk-takers, must have high energy levels, and must be willing to break away from tradition. They must be skilled team builders who can

articulate a belief system and demonstrate instructional leadership. Effective leaders must be willing to express their values, and these values must become shared goals to create a shared vision.

In his analysis of an effective leader, McGuire (2001) adds to the list that leaders must support, develop and nurture staff. They must set a standard for ethical behaviour and seek diverse perspectives and alternative points of view. Not only do leaders encourage initiatives, innovations, collaboration and strong work ethic, but they also expect and provide multiple opportunities for staff to engage in continuous personal and professional growth. Further, leaders must collaborate and cooperate with others on a daily basis. Leaders communicate high expectations and provide acquired information to foster understanding and to maintain trust and confidence. Effective leaders reach out to others for support and assistance, build partnerships, secure resources, and share credit for success and accomplishment.

Leaders help organisations and the individuals and groups they are made up of to achieve goals that can range from achieving high levels of motivation and performance to making innovative decisions as well as increasing job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Leader effectiveness is the extent to which a leader helps a group or organisation to achieve its goals. An effective leader helps to achieve goals; an ineffective leader does not. Individuals may view the leader as effective or ineffective according to the satisfaction they derive from the total work experience. In fact, acceptance of a leader's directions or requests rests

largely on the followers' expectations that a favourable response can lead to an attractive outcome (Shani & Lau, 2000).

Dessler (1998) said that being a leader requires more than possessing book knowledge about leadership theories; the leader also needs critical leadership thinking skills. These allow the leader to look at a situation and dig out the underlying assumptions and values that are motivating to subordinates, evaluate the evidence and think through how to apply what he or she knows about leadership theory to solve the problem. One way to view such critical leadership thinking skills is in terms of a three-step framework. Specifically, a leader should review the leadership situation and identify what is happening; account for what is happening; and decide on the leadership actions to take.

In 1998, the National Association of Headteachers, the largest association of headteachers in the United Kingdom, commissioned a study to find information about leadership in the schools (Day, 2000). Twelve heads were selected from schools of different sizes, in different operational phases, and in a range of geographical, economic, and socio-cultural settings. All of the schools received a positive inspection report from the Office for Standards in Education, the government's independent external inspection service, particularly with regard to leadership. All were performing better than average, and the heads had good reputations among their peers. Six female and six male principals whose experience of principalship in their schools ranged from two to six years were included in this study.

Day (2000) found that when soliciting educated opinions from students, staff, and parents, all had similar ideas about why their headteachers were successful. Their headteachers were values led, people centred, achievement oriented, inward and outward facing and able to manage a number of ongoing tensions and dilemmas. The core personal values found were care, equity, high expectations and achievement. These values were clear to, shared by the majority of the school, and drove the life of the school to define the culture of the school. All heads monitored standards in the school, kept ahead of demands so that their schools were in a position to respond rather than to react to new external demands, tested external demands against their own standards, and minimised bureaucratic demands on staff. The heads promoted collaborative school cultures that emphasised continuing professional development that met both organisational and individual needs.

Spencer and Kochan (2000) argued that there is a general consensus that the administrative leadership style of a school is the key element to the effectiveness of the school. They stated that while not disregarding the critical role of teachers and parents, a poor principal could nullify even the best of teachers' and parental efforts. Quality leaders, therefore, are essential to effective schools. Rutherford as cited by Shakeshaft, (1987) in a five-year study of school principals found that effective principals have clear, informed visions of what they want their schools to become; translate these visions into goals for their schools, and expectations for the teachers, students, and administrators. They

establish school climates that support progress toward goals; continuously monitor progress; and intervene in a supportive manner when necessary.

A review of research on school effectiveness identified a number of common characteristics that promote effective leadership. These characteristics include strong instructional leadership; emphasis on building a supportive climate; academic focus and high expectations; a shared sense of mission and clear goals; performance monitoring; quality teaching and staff development; parental involvement and district support (Silins & Murray-Harvey, 1999). Silins and Murray-Harvey described an effective school as one in which principals supported rather than distracted teachers from what they saw as their main role thus, helping their students succeed at school. In this model, a good school is one where the leadership supports the teachers, and the teachers support the students - all working towards a common goal of successful achievement of outcomes.

The Concept of Job Satisfaction

A formal study of job satisfaction did not start until the development of the human relations approach traced to the studies initiated in 1933 at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Chicago (Gallmeier, 1992). Initially the study was concerned with whether good lighting increased productivity. The increase in productivity did not correlate with increases in lighting, and productivity did not decrease with poor illumination. To expand the Hawthorne plant research, Harvard psychologists concluded that social conditions, rather than technological advantages, were correlated to productivity (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980; Vroom, 1964). Mayo (1945) concluded that the

single most important factor relating to worker productivity appeared to be the interpersonal relationship developed on the job. Productivity increased when employees began to sense that management viewed them as important.

A myriad of views have been expressed about the concept of job satisfaction. Nnadi (1997) postulated that job satisfaction is composed of the reaction, attitude or perception of the individual to work. The employee holds two perceptions of job satisfaction. These are "what the work is and what the work should be" (p.65). The employee is satisfied if he believes that the job is what it should be, but may become dissatisfied when he finds that the job is below his/her expectation. Job satisfaction, according to Nnadi, is made up of different sets of variables, which are very complex. Such variables include economic rewards, social rewards, company policy and its administration, interpersonal relationship, working conditions, achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement.

The views of Gibson, Invancevich and Donnelly (2000) were not diametrically opposed to that of Nnadi's. They asserted that job satisfaction is the individuals' attitude to their job. This attitude is influenced by certain factors peculiar to the work environment. These are the style of supervision, work procedures and policies, affiliation within the work group, conditions of work, and fringe benefits. Five crucial characteristics of job satisfaction therefore emerge. These are pay, job, promotion opportunities, supervisor and co-workers.

The first characteristic refers to the amount given to the worker and its equity in relation to the job executed. The second is the level of interest offered by

the tasks and the chances for learning and bearing responsibility. The third deals with the available opportunity for progress. The fourth is the supervisor's ability to show interest in the employee and to be concerned about him. The fifth is the degree of friendliness, competence, and support of colleagues.

Okumbe (1998) shared the views of Gibson et al. (2000) on job satisfaction except for his inclusion of a dimension, which is concerned with the emotional response of an employee to the job situation. Okumbe noted that definitions of job satisfaction imply that the concept refers to a favourable feeling with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction, therefore, emanates from the perception of employees on how well the jobs they do give them these things that are seen as vital to both themselves and the organisation. Okumbe is of the view that three important dimensions could be identified in job satisfaction. The first dimension is emotional response to a job situation. This means that job satisfaction can only be inferred and not seen. The second dimension is that job satisfaction is usually determined by how well outcome meets or exceeds expectation. The third dimension is that job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. These attitudes according to Okumbe are essential characteristics of the job such as the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, recognition and co-workers. Locke (1976) re-echoed Okumbe that job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.

From the above explication of the concept of job satisfaction, it becomes explicit that job satisfaction is a function of employees' attitude to their work.

Satisfied workers may remain committed to their job, while discontented workers may be uncommitted to their job. For job satisfaction to be assured or ensured, the employees must have a satisfaction of their expectations in relation to the job they perform. This view might have prompted Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) to comment that job satisfaction is not a unitary concept. Rather, individuals can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of their job and be dissatisfied with one or more other aspects. For workers to be satisfied with their jobs, certain motivational conditions must exist to keep them interested and committed to their jobs. This implies that a well-motivated worker, to a large extent will, be content with his or her job.

Teacher Job Satisfaction

The concept of Maslow's need hierarchy underlies the studies on job satisfaction. Maslow (1943) developed a theory of needs, which may be useful in helping the principal to identify the wants, or desires, which are important to employees. Maslow reasoned that human needs exist in a hierarchy and that employees fulfilled needs generally follows a hierarchical sequence. The five basic categories of needs identified by Maslow are physiological needs, safety and security needs, social and belonging needs, self-esteem needs and self-actualisation needs.

Physiological needs are survival needs including the need for food, water, air and shelter. When not satisfied, life itself is threatened (Blumberg, 1975; Mayo, 1945; Sashkin, 1996; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980). Safety and security needs centred on economic and personal security. Failure to satisfy these needs

may cause major problems, but one's life is usually not in danger (Blumberg, 1975; Mayo, 1945; Sashkin, 1996; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

Social and belonging needs deal with social interaction, group identity, and the need for friendship and interpersonal contacts. Social and belonging needs can be psychologically powerful (Blumberg, 1975; Mayo, 1945; Sashkin, 1996; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980). Self-esteem needs refer to the feeling that one is a worthwhile person. People tend to base their self-esteem on personal achievements and being told that they are worthwhile (Blumberg, 1975; Mayo, 1945; Sashkin, 1996; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980). Self-actualisation needs involve the desire to fulfil through personal growth and development. Self-actualisation tends to be the highest and most creative need (Blumberg, 1975; Mayo, 1945; Sashkin, 1996; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

The concept of Maslow's need hierarchy identifies the kinds of wants or desires, which are important to a person. Maslow's need categories are arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency, with individual behaviour motivated to satisfy the need most important at the time (Sashkin, 1996). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) suggested that esteem need was an important satisfier of most concern to school administrators. Sashkin (1996) stated that only when one has fulfilled the need for self-esteem does one graduate to the peak of the need hierarchy. Herzberg (1966) believed that self-esteem was far more significant as a positive factor than Maslow's other needs. Other need factors, in Herzberg's view, were only capable of producing dissatisfaction, not of satisfying employees in any positive sense.

Researchers believed that effective school leaders can create opportunities for growth and development by paying attention to employees' needs and managing to satisfy each employee (Sashkin, 1996). In a study on teachers, Herzberg, Maunser, and Synderman (1959) identified recognition and achievement as the most powerful satisfiers. They found that teachers could be satisfied by accentuating the positive, believing in their dignity and worth, and feeling empowered within the school. Additional research findings indicated that teachers could be satisfied when they were involved in formulation of school goals, given autonomy, valued as professionals, and respected (Fowler, 1991; Hall, 1994; Krug, 1989; Williams, 1991; Vroom, 1964).

Herzberg (1966) and his colleagues investigated whether certain factors in the work situations may produce satisfaction, and other factors may produce dissatisfaction. Herzberg's (1966) basic postulate was that there were two sets of factors. The first set, called motivators, increased job satisfaction, and if not met only minimal dissatisfaction resulted. The second set, called hygienes, produced dissatisfaction if not met (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1991). The factors identified by Herzberg as being related to work dissatisfaction included interpersonal relationships with supervisors, quality of supervision, policy and administration, working conditions, and personal life. The factors related to work satisfaction were achievement, recognition, work climate, responsibility, and advancement (Blumberg, 1975).

When applied to education, the two-factor theory suggested that job satisfaction is related to two decision possibilities for teachers: participation and

performance (Sergiovanni, 1991). Participation, as research signified, involves minimal commitments for return of "fair pay" in the form of salary, fringe benefits, social acceptance, and reasonable supervision. Participation has not tended to satisfy a person to go beyond minimal commitments, and for the most part is viewed as extrinsic satisfaction (Sergiovanni, 1991). Performance tended to be voluntary, because school leaders in reality can only require that teachers participate. Therefore, rewards associated with performance investment tended to be more intrinsic, such as recognition, achievement, feelings of competence, empowerment and meaningful work opportunities (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Polytechnic principals need to be concerned with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, and job satisfaction may be thought to represent the interplay between external and internal factors. Schools cannot function adequately unless the participation investment is made and continued by teachers (Krug, 1989). However, schools cannot excel unless the majority of teachers make the performance investment as well (Krug, 1989; Sergiovanni, 1991).

Vroom (1964) formulated a theory of job satisfaction associated with the work setting called the Expectancy Theory. According to Vroom, satisfaction was the "process governing choices made by persons...among alternative forms of voluntary activity" (p.6). Increased performance on a job occurred as a result of what a person had chosen as a personal goal.

According to Vroom (1964), two kinds of expectations are important in his model. These are the expectation that effort would lead to performance and the expectation that performance would lead to rewards. In Vroom's opinion, the

main variables affecting job satisfaction are supervision, group work, job content, wages, promotional opportunities and hours of work.

Vroom (1964) attempted to explain worker motivation in terms of anticipated rewards. He assumed that people make rational decisions based on economic realities. Vroom asserted that the kind of valence that workers attach to outcomes is influenced by such factors as age, education, and the type of work. For example, a young teacher will give less emphasis to retirement benefits than an old teacher will. In a similar way, a newly trained graduate teacher may have a strong desire for career advancement than older teacher with less education.

In the opinion of Okumbe (1998), Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory implies that teachers' believe that their efforts would lead to performance and can be enhanced through further training, supervision, guidance, counselling and participation in job related decisions. He believed that high levels of performance could be achieved by this method. He therefore recommended that educational administrators should design reward systems, which are based on actual performance, so that teachers would be assured that good work is rewarded equitably. He felt that this method would encourage teachers to work hard for their personal growth as well as for the successful achievement of educational objectives.

In addition, Okumbe (1998) recommended that teachers should be matched to their jobs. In placing teachers, their abilities and traits should be known as administrators. This would enhance performance. Moreover, he advised administrators to clarify job objectives during teachers' induction and orientation.

This, he believed would help minimise wastage of effort and enhance more task-related behaviour. Vroom's (1964) expectancy model provides educational managers and administrators with a strategy for integrating the needs, desires, and goals of teachers with those of the educational organisations.

The Hackman and Oldham (1980) model of job characteristics combined and unified Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's job redesign and intrinsic motivation, and Vroom's expectancy theories into a theory of job redesign. The Hackman and Oldham theory was based on three psychological states that were critical to attaining desirable work outcomes: meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results.

Meaningfulness of the work was the degree to which a worker experienced the job as valuable and worthwhile. Feeling of responsibility was the degree to which a worker felt personally responsible for the results of the job performed. Knowledge of results was the degree to which a worker knew and understood how effective he or she was performing the job. The Job Characteristics Model has provided principals with a conceptual framework allowing informed decisions to be made about the work of teaching (Krug, 1989).

Researchers (Gnecco, 1983; Lipham, 1981) believed that there were theoretical linkages between job satisfaction, and organisational goals for productivity. Gnecco (1983) examined elementary school teachers in Maine and found that job satisfaction was the most important factor of organisational morale. Researchers (Blumberg, 1975; Fowler, 1991; Gallmeier, 1992) had concluded that leadership and teacher performance have a strong relationship. In this respect,

teachers need to be treated as professionals so that they will be satisfied to make a positive difference to education.

Factors Affecting Teacher Job Satisfaction

A number of different environmental, psychological and demographic factors can affect the job satisfaction of teachers. The most significant positive environmental factors are those related to the working environment and nature of the job (Corwin, 2001; Scott & Dinham, 2003). Recognition, support and respect from colleagues and supervisors can also cultivate a feeling of job satisfaction (Evans, 1998; Dinham & Scott, 1998). Kendal and Kington (2001) observed that the fact that teachers have a substantial amount of autonomy with regard to the preparation and delivery of lessons might also have positive effect on job satisfaction.

According to Alf and Penelope (2006), the causes of low teacher job satisfaction and the resultant poor retention rates in both UK and elsewhere can be attributed to a number of environmental factors. These factors include the nature of pace of organisational change, concerns over workload, increasing bureaucracy and poor discipline, style of leadership and management, job related stress/illness, lower value placed on teaching as a profession, increasing class sizes, possible conflict between work and family life, behavioural difficulties exhibited by some pupils and the excessive media criticism of failing schools, as well as pay.

Similarly, Gibson (1991) asserted that job satisfaction is the attitude that workers have about their jobs. Such attitudes, to Gibson, are based on factors of the job environment such as supervisor's style, policies and procedures, work

group affiliation, working conditions and fringe benefits. Teachers and administrators are no doubt participants in a social system, which is the school organisation. Discrepancies do occur in their administrative interactions and in such situations, the teacher who is the subordinate may not have any effective means to sanction the administrator. The teacher would thus experience frustration and consequently, he could be dissatisfied with his or her work. Owing to this, according to Gibson, it could be inferred that the behaviour of those in super-ordinate and sub-ordinate positions could have serious effects on job satisfaction.

Holdaway (1978) asserted that the teachers' lack of opportunity to participate in decision-making appeared to be the most powerful source of teacher dissatisfaction. Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman (1978) studied participation in decision-making in educational settings, and found that teacher participation in decisions could improve job satisfaction.

Terbory and Miller as cited by Stoner and Freeman (1998) were of the view that factors such as fringe benefits, overall salary system, allocation of status, openness of communication, good degree of interaction and interdependence and co-operation may at times affect individual's satisfaction and decision to perform. Schuler (1980) posited that clarity of roles and harmony are achieved when employees are made to participate in work decisions. Another variable that determines job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the perceived important need of workers. As Rubio (1999) and Hawkins (2002) reported,

principals who received the highest rating on consideration had schools that also tended to receive the highest school rating for climate dimensions.

Rue and Byars (1990) revealed that organisational commitment or goal is achieved when the individual is satisfied. The opposite is also true when the individual workers are dissatisfied. According to Organ and Bateman (1991), good citizens of organisations are committed and satisfied employees who perform above and beyond their duty by doing extra task that can help the organisation. Such individuals they said make positive comments about the organisation to the general public and that they avoid waste, complaints and arguments. They indicated that such employees work overtime when the need arises, protect fellow employees and organisations' property, and that they are cooperative and do not cause destructive conflicts in their workplace.

Research conducted by Bogler and Romit (1999) in Israel revealed that teacher perceptions of occupational prestige, self-esteem, autonomy at work, and professional self-development contribute most to job satisfaction. These variables serve as mediating factors between the principals' leadership style and teachers' job satisfaction.

Another variable that determines job satisfaction is the perceived important needs of workers. Bame (1991) found out in a study on job satisfaction that the fulfilment of the personal needs of teachers, especially male teachers, in a school organisation generates job satisfaction among them and vice versa. Bame (1991) also found that teachers attach more importance to their relationship with supervisors and that teachers consider it as a high priority for determining

satisfaction. He argued that if educational authorities wish to see that their teachers are satisfied with teaching then in addition to fostering role agreement, the authorities should ensure that personal needs of the teachers are met in their school organisation. Evans (1997) suggested two overarching satisfying factors, job comfort, or the extent to which an individual is satisfied with the conditions of the job, and job fulfilment, derived from the perceived personal achievement.

A study conducted by Yelkperli (2003) into factors influencing job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in the Techiman District of Ghana revealed that teachers were satisfied with their headmaster's interpersonal relationship with members of staff, supervision of teachers' work and appreciation of teachers' efforts. Teachers were also satisfied with the recognition accorded them by their headmasters, students and members of the community in which they worked.

Attafuah (2004) investigated into job satisfaction among teachers of private basic schools in Birim South District of the Eastern Region of Ghana. He found that teachers were very satisfied with the leadership styles of the school heads. The study recorded a very high percentage of satisfaction among teachers. He noted that the items that were tested in relation to the leadership styles of the school heads were the heads' style of supervision, concern for welfare of teachers, recognition of their efforts, heads' interest in the performance of their work, rules and regulations of the school and the recognition received for being teachers.

Esia-Donkoh (2004) conducted a study into factors affecting job satisfaction among tutors of the teacher training colleges in the Central Region of

Ghana. The major findings of the study were that tutors were generally satisfied with recognition, interpersonal relationship, opportunity for professional advancement, work environment and students' performance. However, these tutors were generally dissatisfied with the remuneration and fringe benefits that they enjoy. Furthermore, there was however, no significant difference between the views of the male and female tutors in terms of their satisfaction with the profession.

Hoy and Miskel (1982) explained that the quality of teacher and administrator relationships and the quality of leadership correlated highly with teacher job satisfaction: "the better the relationship and the better the quality of leadership, the higher teacher morale tends to be" (p.338). Hoy and Miskel reported that teachers' participation in decision-making increased their morale and enhanced their job satisfaction. In addition, teachers seemed to be more job satisfied by consistent, ongoing training, empowerment within the school and increased teacher professionalism.

Consequences of Teacher Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Job satisfaction promotes certain behaviours among workers. Gibson, Invancevich and Donnelly (2000) testified that satisfied workers often exhibit these characteristics. This implies that satisfied workers remain wholly committed to their jobs and ensure the realisation of organisational goals even in the absence of their colleagues. Therefore, they have such unshakable affinity for their work. Bame (1991) stated that teachers' job satisfaction is positively related to the

degree of commitment to their work. Teachers who are satisfied identify psychologically with teaching and see it as playing a vital role in their self-image.

Gibson et al. (2000) also proposed that there is a correlation, although modest, between satisfaction and turnover, absenteeism and preferences and opinions about unions. When workers are dissatisfied with their work, the consequences are often undesirable. Job dissatisfaction brings about stress, which contains dire health implications. Organ and Bateman (1991) share the opinion. They contended that discontent with work is extended into family situations. It creates decreased productivity and poor quality. Bame (1991) stipulated that dissatisfaction could lead to "teacher drop-out", indifference or lack of cooperation among teachers (p. 110).

Dissatisfaction according to Nnadi (1997) generates low morale, high employee turnover, job stress with attendant serious health implications, low productivity and reduced quality of work, and gloomy work environment. Teachers who are dissatisfied, as Bame (1991) indicated, leave the teaching service. They are also likely to transmit negative attitudes and values about teaching to the pupils they teach. This attitude seems to have the potential of killing the teaching profession in future, since the future teachers are turned away from the profession by the advice offered by their dissatisfied teachers. If these young ones should become teachers in future at all, the negative values and attitudes deeply ingrained in them might jeopardise their commitment to the profession. They may also transmit the same negative attitudes to their

prospective pupils, thereby creating a vicious cycle of anathema for the teaching profession; and the chain-reaction, therefore, continues.

The other consequence is the role played in the process by satisfaction and the relation between teacher satisfaction and absenteeism. It is generally known that teachers who show a disposition of dissatisfaction often absent themselves from school. Brayfield and Crockett (1955) were cited by Bame (1991) to have given the following psychologically based rationale for the relationship between dissatisfaction, absence and drop-out. They postulated that, in general, organisms tend to avoid situations that are punishing to them and tend to be attracted to situations that are rewarding to them. They observed that in so far as dissatisfied workers could be regarded as being in a situation, which is punishing to them. It is natural to expect dissatisfied workers to try to avoid the punishing situation, that is their work or work situation by being absent from work more often or by quitting their job completely more often than satisfied workers.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) identified another important variable, which was related to job satisfaction as involvement in or commitment to work. They defined this as the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image. This is said to be the result of the internalisation of values about the goodness or the importance of work in the worth of a person. Loftiz (1964) also conducted a study in work commitment in 14 public secondary schools in Allegheny County Pennsylvania. Loftiz sampled 246 teachers based on their commitment to teaching in relation to job satisfaction and teaching effectiveness. Loftiz found that the job satisfaction

of teachers tended to be associated with commitment scores on a rating scale that measured their level of commitment. Sherwood (1965) in a study in Ghana revealed that 46.6% of the students receiving further teacher training did not intend to make teaching a long-term career.

Spector (1997) saw job satisfaction as one factor that is important for business effectiveness, good company reputation and low turnover. Spector suggested that a person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitude towards the job, while a person who is not satisfied with his or her job holds negative attitude about the job.

Job satisfaction, according to Organ and Bateman (1991), plays an important role in a company's ability to attract and retain qualified workers, including teachers. Job satisfaction is essential, owing to its relationship with mental health. Again, Organ and Bateman agreed that discontent often has some negative effects on our lives. Dissatisfaction with one's job seems to have a volatile spill-over effect. People feel bad about many other things that include family life and leisure activities. This is because they carry the effect from their workplace to other areas of their life. Chronic dissatisfaction with work is, however, stressful.

Organ and Bateman (1991) further argued that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and physical health. Employees with greater job satisfaction tend to have greater incomes and more education. Thus, they may coincidentally enjoy greater advantages and knowledge that promote longevity. From the forgoing, it could be realised that both casual observation and scientific

study provide compelling evidence that job satisfaction is an essential component of psychological adjustment.

Relationship between Leadership Styles and Teacher Job Satisfaction

Different results are brought about by various leadership behaviours. Studies have indicated that style of leadership has been related to teacher job satisfaction. The studies of leadership and the effects on teacher job satisfaction have shown the behaviour of the leader to be an important factor in group effectiveness. Everett (1987) examined the relationship between principals' leadership styles and the level of maturity of the teaching staff. Everett found that significant relationships existed at the 0.05 level between teacher job satisfaction and the perceived leadership style of the principal. Teachers in schools with principals who demonstrated high levels of initiating structure (task behaviour) in combination with consideration (relationship behaviour) demonstrated high levels of job satisfaction. The findings suggested that principals should be encouraged to exhibit high levels of both task and relationship behaviours in their leadership styles, and principals and teachers should learn to recognise intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. Recognition of these variables may result in teachers attempting to increase intrinsic job satisfaction with less extrinsic and general job satisfaction.

Woodard (1994) found a positive relationship between leader behaviour and teacher job satisfaction. Principals who were high in both dimensions (task and relationship) of leader behaviour had a more significant impact on teacher job

satisfaction. The relationship dimension of leader behaviour had a stronger statistical significance to teacher job satisfaction than the task dimension.

Boyer's (1982) study involved job satisfaction and the leadership styles of superintendents as perceived by administrative subordinates. Boyer's research supported the idea that certain leadership styles were more effective than others in satisfying subordinates. Boyer found that superintendents who scored high on both initiating structure (task) and high on consideration (relationship) on the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) were considered more effective in satisfying subordinates.

Klawitter (1985) explored the relationship between the principal's leadership style (as perceived by the teacher) and the teacher's job satisfaction. Klawitter found that teachers who perceived their principals to be high task and high relationship experienced a higher degree of teacher job satisfaction. Klawitter's study, comprised of 220 public school teachers in West Virginia, resulted in findings that were significant at the 0.05 level.

Chase's (1951) studies, involving 1,784 teachers from forty-three states in the United States, indicated fundamental factors, which may influence teacher job satisfaction. Chase stated, "professional leadership and supervision...and other working conditions are such as to permit effective work habits" (p. 127). Chase found that elementary teachers appeared to be more enthusiastic and job satisfied than secondary school teachers, and male teachers were less job satisfied than female teachers. Morgan's (1965) study indicated that both male and female

teachers between the ages of 31 and 40 had the lowest level of teacher job satisfaction.

Bhella (1982) conducted an interesting study of the relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction. With reference to leadership behaviour, Bhella's study suggested that female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers. Findings also indicated that teachers who were young were less satisfied than older teachers.

Lipham (1981) examined the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the staff's perceptions of principals' leadership behaviours in four high schools. Lipham concluded that staff perceptions of principal leadership were positively related to teacher job satisfaction. Teacher job satisfaction rated highest when principals exhibited supportive behaviour, and lowest when principals portrayed work facilitation.

Vivian (1983) conducted a study to investigate the effects of the principals' perceived leadership styles on teacher job satisfaction. He found teacher job satisfaction was higher when a principal exhibited a collaborative leadership style. In a study conducted in an educational setting, Riordan (1987) found that consideration shown to teachers by their principals was important in maintaining teacher job satisfaction.

A review of literature shows that most perceptions of leadership support at least two distinct types. Although, various combinations of leadership types have been found and used by leaders, researchers (for example, Halpin, 1959; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996) maintain that no one style

or type of leadership is consistently more effective than another. Despite numerous efforts, researchers have not found a universally accepted style of leadership. Findings in leadership indicate that different styles achieve different results.

Summary of Literature Review

Researchers described two specific leadership styles, which directly affected this research. One was referred to as task-oriented, and the other relationship-oriented. The task-oriented style consists of those dimensions of leadership necessary for achievement of group goals, and relationship-oriented style is concerned with the maintenance of the group itself.

Review of the literature has indicated that teachers need the opportunity for personal growth and require accurate and sensitive feedback from their principals. A feeling of physical and emotional safety in the organisational structure of the school is important to teachers. Teachers require the principal to provide a support and an adequate supply of resources for instruction.

Researchers in the area of job satisfaction have concluded that a positive working environment will promote greater job satisfaction and productivity. Every teacher at one time or another may experience a certain degree of job satisfaction. Teachers must see teaching as worthwhile and stimulating, and they must feel a sense of involvement in decision-making and independence in their classroom teaching. The teacher must have a feeling of affiliation with others. There must also be a sound reward system, which offers not only extrinsic rewards but also a sense of success and recognition. Leadership behaviour,

therefore, impacts various degrees of teacher job satisfaction. This underscores the significance of the current study into how polytechnic teachers perceive the leadership styles of their principals and how these styles relate to their (teachers') job satisfaction

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The study sought to examine the relationship between perceived leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teachers' expressed job satisfaction. This chapter explained how the study was conducted. It described the research design, the population, the sample and sampling procedure, the instrument, pre-testing of the research instrument, data collection procedure, and the data analysis.

Research Design

The study was a descriptive correlational survey. The purpose was to generalise from a sample to a population so that inferences could be made about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population. Osuala (1991) noted that descriptive surveys are "versatile and practical, especially to the researcher in that they identify present needs" (p. 181). He further noted that descriptive research is basic to all types of research in assessing the situation as a pre-requisite for conclusions and generalisations. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) also observed that the purpose of descriptive research is to observe, describe and document aspects of a phenomenon as it naturally occurs. They continued that in descriptive research, the events or conditions either already exist or have occurred

and the researcher merely selects the relevant variables for analysis of their relationship.

According to Best and Kahn (1995), descriptive research is concerned with the conditions or relationships that exist, such as determining the nature of prevailing conditions, practices and attitudes, opinions that are held, processes that are going on; or trends that are developed. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) also maintain that in descriptive research, accurate description of activities, objects, processes and persons is the objective.

Descriptive research deals with describing and interpreting the relationship among variables. It seeks to find answers to questions through the analysis of relationships between or among variables (Fraenkel & Wallen 2000). In addition, the descriptive survey affords the opportunity to select a sample from the population being studied and then makes generalisation from the study of the sample (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1994; Best & Kahn, 1995). Descriptive design is highly regarded by policy makers in the social sciences where large populations are dealt with and widely used in educational research since data gathered by way of descriptive survey represent field conditions (Osuala, 1991).

Nevertheless, there are difficulties involved in a descriptive survey. These include ensuring that the questions to be answered are clear and not misleading; getting respondents to answer questions thoughtfully and honestly; and getting sufficient number of questionnaires completed and returned so that meaningful analysis can be made (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Despite the shortcomings identified, the descriptive survey design was used because it has the potential to provide a lot of information obtained from quite a large sample of individuals. The design was considered useful in generating data that would facilitate the determination of leadership styles of polytechnic principals and levels of job satisfaction of polytechnic teachers; as well as finding out whether there was any relationship between perceived principals' leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction.

Population

The population of the study comprised the staff of four purposively selected polytechnics in Ghana. These four polytechnics were Accra Polytechnic, Takoradi Polytechnic, Kumasi Polytechnic, and Ho Polytechnic, all of which were over ten years old. These polytechnics had a well-defined leadership structure and have evolved with deep-rooted traditions. Some teachers in these polytechnics were holders of higher degrees. Majority of them had taught in the polytechnics for at least two years and could therefore make informed decisions about the leadership styles of their respective principals. The concentration on the older polytechnics alone was to provide an opportunity for using leadership styles that have been tested over the years.

The total number of teaching staff from the four polytechnics was 484.

The distribution of the population was as follows:

Accra Polytechnic	138
Takoradi Polytechnic	119
Kumasi Polytechnic	109

For the purpose of this study, the polytechnics were assigned code names for convenience sake. Table 1 shows the list of the polytechnics, which were involved in the study and their respective code names.

Table 1

Code Names of Polytechnics Involved in the Study

Name of Polytechnic	Code
Accra Polytechnic	AP
Takoradi Polytechnic	TP
Kumasi Polytechnic	KP
Ho Polytechnic	HP

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The purposive sampling technique was used to select the four polytechnics that were involved in the study. The rationale behind the purposive sampling technique was to locate information rich cases. These four polytechnics were Accra, Takoradi, Kumasi, and Ho Polytechnics, which were over ten years old. These Polytechnics had a well-established culture, a long tradition and a well-defined leadership structure. Some teachers in these polytechnics were holders of higher degrees. Majority of them had taught in the polytechnic for more than three years, worked under, at least, two principals and could make informed

decisions about the leadership styles of their respective principals and their own job satisfaction levels. In addition, these polytechnics are more endowed in terms of human and material resources. The concentration on the older polytechnics alone was to provide an opportunity for using leadership styles that have been tested over the years.

Out of the 484 teachers, a sample size of 260 representing 54% of the population was selected. This was a random disproportional sample. The determination of the sample size was based on the suggestion of Nwana (1992) who observed that if the population were few hundreds, a 40% or more sample size would be a fair representation of the population.

Among the 484 teachers were 85 females. All of these 85 females were purposively selected for the study. The remaining 175 members of the sample who were males were randomly selected from the 399 males. This was done through simple random sampling method using the lottery technique.

In each polytechnic, the list of the academic staff was collected. Numbers were assigned against the names of all male teachers and were then written on slips of paper. These slips of paper were then put into a container and shuffled to mix thoroughly. A selector was then asked to pick the slips of paper one after the other without looking into the pool, until the required number was selected. Once a number was selected, it was recorded and set aside before a new one was picked. The container was reshuffled and another number picked, recorded and set aside. This was done continually until the required number of teachers from each polytechnic was selected.

The distribution of the sample size is as follows:

Accra Polytechnic	70
Takoradi Polytechnic	70
Kumasi Polytechnic	60
Ho Polytechnic	60

Table 2 shows the teacher population of the polytechnics and the sample size.

Table 2

Teacher Population of the Polytechnics and Sample Size

Polytechnic	Population			Sample		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
AP	115	23	138	47	23	70
TP	97	22	119	48	22	70
HP	95	23	118	37	23	60
KP	92	17	109	43	17	60
Total	399	85	484	175	85	260

There were 85 females teaching in the four polytechnics. All of them were purposively selected and deliberately included in the sample because of the smallness of their number. They formed 33% of the sample size; and this gave them a fair representation.

Research Instrument

The instrument used in the study was in three parts: the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), the Mohrman-Cooke Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) and a self-designed demographic survey. The basic structure of the instrument was based on the four-point Likert-type scale as described by Best and Kahn (1995). It was a combination of already validated and self-designed instrument, made up of three parts, namely, sections A, B and C (Refer to Appendix I).

Section A of the questionnaire, which was a demographic survey, was administered to obtain biographic variables such as gender, educational qualification, rank, and the length of stay in the polytechnic. The relevance of this section was to provide background information about the kind of respondents whose views were sought during the study.

The second part of the questionnaire, which was section B, was made up of the adapted version of Halpin's (1957) Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by Ohio State University. Farahbakhsh (2004) and Karem (1999) recently used the questionnaire in their doctoral dissertations due to its classic nature.

The Personnel Research Board of Ohio State University developed the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) at the time when little in the way of leadership theory existed (Halpin, 1957). The LBDQ provides a method whereby group members describe the leadership behaviour of designated leaders in formal organisations.

The instrument (LBDQ) contained 30 short statements (15 for “initiating structure” and 15 for “consideration”) that described specific ways in which leaders behave. The items are on a four-point Likert-type scale, ranging from “always” to “never”. Thus, teacher respondents were required to indicate the frequency with which each type of behaviour was exhibited by the principal. The items measure different patterns of leadership behaviour. The scale is as follows:

- 4 = always
- 3 = often
- 2 = occasionally
- 1 = never

Reliability for the LBDQ was determined by the split-half method. The estimated reliability using this method was 0.83 for the “initiating structure” score and 0.92 for the “consideration” score. Validity, the degree to which a scale measures what it purports to measure, was tested on the various subscales of the LBDQ by Stogdill (1963) when he employed the assistance of a playwright to develop scenarios based on patterns of behaviour using items from the subscales of the LBDQ and he found that the validity was high.

Since the development of the LBDQ, much of the research on leadership behaviour has followed the pattern established by the pioneering research at Ohio State University (Yuki, 1989). The LBDQ is the most popular and widely used instrument for describing leadership behaviour (Toth & Farmer, 2001; Webber, 1999). Mean scores were derived from a sample of educational administrators. Gender and type of school were not considered in the sampling of the mean

scores. The consideration mean score was 44.70. The Initiating Structure mean score was 37.90. Administrators who scored on or above the mean in either dimension were considered to be high on that dimension of leader behaviour (Farahbakhsh, 2004; Halpin, 1957; Karem, 1999). The mean score for the adapted version of the LBDQ questionnaire was derived from a random disproportional sample of 220 polytechnic teachers involved in the study. The mean for the initiating structure dimension was 46.49 and that of the consideration dimension was 42.48.

Section C of the questionnaire was made up of an adapted version of Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan & Zaltman, 1977). The MCMJSS was designed to measure self-perceived intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction. The instrument was divided into two sections of four items. In the present study, this scale was used to measure job satisfaction expressed by teachers.

Intrinsic and extrinsic perceptions of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Sergiovanni, 1991) that are measured by the MCMJSS relate to the motivation-hygiene theory of Herzberg (1966). Intrinsic satisfiers, also called motivators, are those aspects of an individual's job that impart feelings of self-esteem, achievement, personal development, accomplishment and fulfilment of expectations (Hardman, 1996; Sergiovanni, 1991). Extrinsic satisfiers also called hygiene are those aspects of an individual's job such as the degree of respect and fair treatment received, the feeling of being informed, the amount of supervision received, and the opportunity for meaningful participation in the determination of

methods, procedures and goals within the job (Hardman, 1996; Sergiovanni, 1991).

The theories related to intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction have been applied in the field of education (Proffit, 1991). In keeping with the ideas of intrinsic and extrinsic factors being important to the field of education, Mohrman et al. (1977) established reliability coefficient for the MCMJSS using educators (McKee, 1988; Proffit, 1991). Reliability on the intrinsic scale ranged from 0.81 to 0.87. The extrinsic reliability ranged from 0.77 to 0.82 (McKee 1988; Proffit, 1991). Although Mohrman et al. did not directly address validity; the scale has been widely accepted and frequently used in an array of studies by researchers (Hardman, 1996; Mckee, 1988; Proffit, 1991).

Pre-Testing

The questionnaire was pre-tested at Cape Coast Polytechnic. The pre-test was meant to establish the face validity and reliability of the instrument and to improve items, format and the scales. Cape Coast Polytechnic was used because of its proximity. Besides, the polytechnics in which the research was carried out and Cape Coast Polytechnic have similar characteristics and similar programmes. The teaching staff of Cape Coast Polytechnic and the four polytechnics, which form the population of the study, have similar qualifications and experiences.

The questionnaire was personally administered to 40 teachers at Cape Coast Polytechnic. Based on the defects that were revealed, the questionnaire was corrected. Items in the questionnaire that were found to be incomprehensible were made clearer. For example, sentences such as "he backs up members for their

actions”, “he acts without consulting the group” and “he makes sure that his part in the organisation is understood by group members” were reconstructed as “he supports actions taken by staff”, “he acts without consulting the staff” and “he makes sure that his role as the principal is understood by staff” respectively. The pre-testing of instrument helped the researcher to be conversant with the data collection procedure and to check incomprehension of the questionnaire. Through the pre-testing of the instrument, statistical tools for the data analysis were identified.

Validity of Instrument

The format of the items in the questionnaire was determined through the purpose of the study, the research questions and the review of related literature. To ensure a high degree of validity, lecturers and graduate students from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast were contacted to examine the items. The experts in the field of study assessed the questions to find out whether the items in the questionnaire could measure the intended content (face validity). In addition, the coverage of the content area (content validity); and the extent to which the items in the questionnaire could measure specific traits or construct (construct validity) were also assessed (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1994). The scrutiny of the questionnaire helped the researcher to reconstruct and reshape the items to measure the relevant characteristics of the research.

Reliability of Instrument

The pre-testing of instrument was done at Cape Coast Polytechnic. The reliability of the instrument was estimated on scaled items with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 10.0 programme on the computer. The overall reliability alpha co-efficient was 0 .81. The reliability co-efficient before the main data collection supports the views of Sproull (1988) that a reliability co-efficient of a designed instrument should be approximately 0.70. The outcome of the reliability was therefore adequate for the research instrument to be sent out for the main data collection.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher personally administered the questionnaire on the predictive value of perceived leadership styles of selected polytechnic principals on polytechnic teacher job satisfaction to the 260 respondents in the four polytechnics. The researcher obtained an Introductory Letter from the Director of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast (see Appendix 2). The introductory letter helped the researcher to get the needed assistance and co-operation from the principals and teachers from the polytechnics in question. A copy of the letter was delivered to each principal but in his absence, the polytechnic secretary received it.

In each of the polytechnic, the staff list of the academic staff was obtained. Having selected the required sample size, copies of the questionnaire were distributed to them (respondents) on one to one basis. Each respondent was

allowed to ask any question pertaining to the completion of the questionnaire. These questions were answered to clear any doubts in the minds of respondents.

Respondents were asked to respond to the questionnaire within four weeks, and hand them over to the coordinator (who was chosen by the researcher) in each polytechnic. The researcher went for the completed questionnaires four weeks after their distribution.

Data Analysis

The study was a descriptive correlational survey, and the analysis was aimed at determining the perceived leadership styles of selected polytechnic principals; and find out whether these leadership styles relate to teacher job satisfaction. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer package was used to facilitate analysis of the data into frequency distribution tables and results further converted into percentages and mean scores for easy discussion. The SPSS computer package was also used to calculate the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient and Enter Method Regression Analysis.

The scores for "consideration" and "initiating structure" as designed by Halpin (1957) were determined by calculating the sum of the 15 items in each dimension and assigning a score of 1-4 for each item. Thus, the range of scores was 15 to 60 for each dimension. Certain items were scored negatively, in which cases the scoring was reversed.

The mean scores on "consideration" and "initiating structure" dimensions were computed for principals based on the LBDQ scores from teachers in each polytechnic. The mean score of each principal on each dimension determined his

leadership style ratings. Principals with a score above the mean on the concerned dimensions were perceived to be high in “consideration” and “initiating structure”, while those with a score below the mean were viewed as low in “consideration” and “initiating structure”.

On the MCMJSS, the data analysed was examined to establish an internal and external satisfaction score, as well as an overall general satisfaction single score. An overall mean score was determined for internal, external and overall satisfaction. Each questionnaire was scored based on the 4-point Likert-type scale as described by Best and Kahn (1995). Each item was scored according to the weight of the ratings. This was fed into the SPSS programme to calculate the means and standard deviations. The unit of analysis was the polytechnic.

The means and standard deviations of the perceived leadership styles of principals and job satisfaction scores of teachers were computed to facilitate comparison on continuous variables. The standard deviation was also used to find the degree of spread of the responses. Group analyses were done and the relationships between the variables that emerged were described. To answer Research Questions one (How do polytechnic teachers perceive the leadership styles of their respective principals?) and two (What are the levels of teacher job satisfaction in the polytechnics?), sample mean scores were compared with norm mean scores to determine leadership styles of principals and job satisfaction levels of teachers. In addition, the study used the Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to determine the relationship between the leadership behaviour of the principals, as perceived by their respective teachers, and the teachers’ own job

satisfaction levels. Results obtained from the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient were used to answer Research Question three (Is there a relationship between leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teacher job satisfaction?).

Enter Method Regression Analysis was used to find a causal relationship between the independent variables (perceived principal leadership styles) and dependent variables (intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction). Thus, the effect of consideration and initiating structure leadership styles on intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction. A regression analysis technique is the best way of describing the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable using a regression line (Pavkov & Pierce, 1997). In regression analysis, the impact of the independent variable upon the dependent variable is assessed using the coefficient of each variable. The larger the coefficient, the larger the effect upon the dependent variable. An alpha level of 0.01 was set as the level of significance for this study.

Mean scores and standard deviations were computed for ancillary findings. Frequencies and percentages were used for analysis of the demographic characteristics of participants.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between perceived leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teachers' expressed job satisfaction. Specifically, this study examined the perceptions of teachers in four selected polytechnic institutions in Ghana, namely, Accra Polytechnic (AP), Ho Polytechnic (HP), Kumasi Polytechnic (KP) and Takoradi Polytechnic (TP) regarding the leadership styles of their principals and the teachers' own job satisfaction levels. The study then sought to find out whether there was a relationship between the perceived principal's style of leadership and the teachers' level of job satisfaction.

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The following abbreviations are used in this section as interpreted below:

ISMR	=	Initiating Structure Mean Rating
CMR	=	Consideration Mean Rating
SD	=	Standard Deviation
DN	=	Deviation from Norm
DSMR	=	Deviation from Sample Mean Rating
OSMS	=	Overall Satisfaction Mean Score
ESMS	=	Extrinsic Satisfaction Mean Score

ISMS	=	Intrinsic Satisfaction Mean Score
SMS	=	Sample Mean Score
DSMS	=	Deviation from Sample Mean Score

Survey Response Rate

Table 3 shows the distribution and collection of questionnaires. Out of the 260 questionnaires sent out, 220 (84.6%) were retrieved, putting the survey response rate at 84.6%.

Table 3

Distribution of Return Rate of Questionnaires by Institution

Institution	No. of Questionnaires Distributed	No. of Questionnaires Retrieved	Percentage of Questionnaires Retrieved
AP	70	58	82.86
HP	60	47	78.33
KP	60	53	88.33
TP	70	62	88.57
Total	260	220	84.62

Two hundred and sixty questionnaires were distributed to the four polytechnics.

Biographic Data of Respondents

The participants in the study were polytechnic teachers. Section A of the questionnaire collected biographic data from the respondents pertaining to gender, highest educational qualification, rank and length of stay at present polytechnic. This section contains the descriptive data gathered by the biographic questionnaire.

Sex Distribution

Table 4 shows the sex distribution of respondents. Of the 220 participants 71(32.3%) were females and 149 (67.7%) of the teachers responding were males.

Table 4

Distribution of Respondents in the Polytechnics by Gender

Institution	Gender					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
AP	38	65.5	20	34.5	58	100
HP	31	66.0	16	34.0	47	100
KP	38	71.7	15	28.3	53	100
TP	42	67.7	20	32.3	62	100
Total	149	67.7	71	32.3	220	100

The representation of the sexes was not only to find out the respective views of each sex but also to enable the views of both male and female teachers to

be heard on the perceived principal leadership style and teachers' own job satisfaction.

Qualification

Table 5 shows the highest qualification of respondents. Only two (0.9%) of the respondents hold doctoral degrees. One hundred and eighteen, (53.6%) of the teachers responding are Masters Degree holders, 47 (21.4%) hold Bachelors Degree and 48 (21.8%) hold Diplomas. Five of the respondents (2.3%) hold qualifications other than those mentioned above.

Table 5

Distribution of Respondents by their Qualification

Qualification	Polytechnic Institutions									
	AP		HP		KP		TP		TOTAL	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Doctoral										
Degree	1	1.7	0	00	1	1.9	0	00	2	.9
Masters										
Degree	33	56.9	25	53.2	27	50.9	33	53.2	118	53.6
Bachelors										
Degree	7	12.1	9	19.1	9	17.0	22	35.5	47	21.4
HND/										
Diploma	17	29.3	13	27.7	11	20.8	7	11.3	48	21.8
Any other	0	00	0	00	5	9.4	0	00	5	2.3
Total	58	100	47	100	53	100	62	100	220	100

The finding in Table 5 has shown that 120 (54.5%) of polytechnic teachers responding hold higher degrees such as Masters and the Doctoral degrees, which may influence their job expectations.

Rank of Respondents

Table 6 shows the distribution of respondents by their ranks. About 12% of the respondents are senior lecturers, 36.8% are lecturers, 7.3% are principal instructors, 13.6% are senior instructors and 15.0% are instructors.

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by their Rank

Polytechnic Institutions										
Ranks	AP		HP		KP		TP		TOTAL	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Senior Lecturer	15	25.9	9	19.1	1	2.1	2	3.2	27	12.3
Lecturer	13	22.4	15	31.9	19	35.8	34	54.8	81	36.8
Principal Instructor	5	8.6	2	4.3	5	9.4	4	6.5	16	7.3
Senior Instructor	2	3.4	2	4.3	8	15.1	18	29.0	30	13.6
Instructor	8	13.8	16	34.0	7	13.2	2	3.2	33	15.0
Any other	15	25.9	3	6.4	13	24.5	2	3.2	33	15.0
Total	58	100	47	100	53	100.1	62	99.9	220	100

(Some of the percentages do not add up to 100 because of rounding up errors).

When percentages are aggregated for senior lecturers and lecturers, we find that those in the lectureship category constitute 49% of the total respondents.

A little over half are in the instructor category.

Length of Stay

Table 7 shows the length of stay (in years) of respondents at present polytechnic.

Table 7

Distribution of Respondents by their Length of Stay (in years) at Present

Polytechnic

Length of Stay in Years	Polytechnics									
	AP		HP		KP		TP		TOTAL	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1 – 3 years	12	20.7	14	29.8	16	30.2	9	14.5	51	23.2
4 – 6 years	22	37.9	11	23.4	14	26.4	12	19.4	59	26.8
7 – 9 years	10	17.2	9	19.1	8	15.1	6	9.7	33	15.0
10 – 12 years	8	13.8	6	12.8	5	9.4	13	21.0	32	14.5
Above 12 years	6	10.3	7	14.9	10	18.9	22	35.5	45	20.5
Total	58	99.9	47	100	53	100	62	100.1	220	100

(Some of the percentages do not add up to 100 because of rounding up errors).

Table 7 shows that 23.2% of the respondents had spent between one to three years in their present polytechnic institutions, 36% of the respondents that is the highest percentage of respondents had taught at their present polytechnic institutions from 4-6 years; and 20.5% of the respondents had worked in their polytechnics for more than 12 years. The picture in Table 7 suggests that the respondents know their respective principals relatively well and could therefore make informed decisions about their leadership behaviours and their own job satisfaction levels.

Major Findings and Discussion

The major findings of this study are presented in this section of the chapter. The findings are arranged and presented in relation to each of the research questions, which directed the study.

Leadership Styles of Polytechnic Principals

Research Question 1: How do polytechnic teachers perceive the leadership styles of their respective principals?

The answer to Research Question 1 was sought by calculating the means of the responses and comparing these means with the norm and the sample means score. The mean scores calculated from the responses were then used to rate the principals to see whether they were low or high on the consideration and initiating structure leadership style dimensions. These ratings determined how teachers perceive the leadership styles of their respective principals in the polytechnics. The mean ratings are shown in Table 8 and 9.

Mean Ratings of Principals on the Consideration Leadership Style

Table 8 shows that AP and TP principals were rated (47.75 and 46.51 respectively) above the norm (44.70) and the sample mean score (42.48) on the consideration leadership style dimension while HP and KP respondents rated their principals (40.46 and 35.19 respectively) below the norm and the sample mean score on the said dimension.

Table 8

Teachers' Ratings of Principals on Consideration Leadership Style

Dimension

Institutions	Consideration Mean Ratings					
	CMR	SD	Norm	D N	SMR	D S M R
AP	47.75	9.74	44.70	3.05	42.48	(5.27)
HP	40.46	12.60	44.70	-4.24	42.48	(-2.02)
KP	35.19	11.01	44.70	-9.51	42.48	(-7.29)
TP	46.51	10.73	44.70	1.81	42.48	(4.03)

Sample Mean Rating = 42.48

Norm Mean Score = 44.70

The finding in respect of AP and TP suggests that teachers at AP and TP perceived their principals as leaders who do personal favours for staff members, make things pleasant, are easy to understand, listen to them, are open, friendly and approachable, explain their actions, seek welfare of teachers, act in consultation with teachers, put suggestions made by teachers into operation and

get teachers' approval in important matters before going ahead. These principals are therefore, perceived by their teachers to be high on the consideration dimension of leadership style. This finding is in line with the conclusion reached by Farahbakhsh (2004), Halpin (1957) and Karem (1999) They noted that administrators (principals) with a score on or above the mean on a concerned dimension are perceived to be high on that dimension while those with a score below the mean are considered to be low on that dimension of leader behaviour.

In addition, this finding agrees with the observations of Sergiovanni and Starrat (1971). They observed that leaders who are high on the consideration leadership style dimension demonstrate leadership behaviours indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth. Similarly, Hoy and Miskel (1991) and Sergiovanni and Carver, (1980) stated that the needs and feelings of individuals are of overriding importance to such a leader. The leader is friendly and supportive in interactions with subordinates. Communications tend to be informal and focus on social and personal topics. Conflict is avoided, but when it does erupt, it seems to be smoothed over. The superior is primarily supportive and works to put people at ease.

The finding also agrees with the views of Blake and Mouton (1980). They indicated that the consideration leadership style which they called concern for people involves promoting friendship, helping co-workers get the job done and attending to things that matter to people, such as pay and working conditions.

Mean Rating of Principals on the Initiating Structure Leadership Style

Initiating structure leadership style was one of the styles that were important to this study. Table 9 provides teachers' ratings of principals on initiating structure leadership.

Table 9

Teachers' Ratings of Principals on Initiating Structure Leadership Style

Institutions	Initiating Structure Mean Ratings					
	ISMR	SD	Norm	D N	SMR	DSMR
AP	47.00	9.19	37.90	9.10	46.49	(0.51)
HP	46.93	11.21	37.90	9.03	46.49	(0.44)
KP	44.02	11.45	37.90	6.12	46.49	(-2.47)
TP	48.01	10.62	37.90	10.11	46.49	(1.52)

Sample Mean Rating = 46.49

Norm Mean Score = 37.90

Table 9 indicates that AP, TP and HP were rated (47.00, 48.01 and 46.93 respectively) high on the initiating structure leadership style dimension and KP was rated (44.02) low on that dimension. It is evident from this finding that AP, HP and TP teachers perceived their principals as demonstrating behaviours such as establishing well defined patterns, criticising poor work, trying out their new ideas with the group, ruling with iron hand, criticising poor work, assigning group members to particular tasks, scheduling the work to be done, maintaining definite standards of performance, emphasising the meeting of deadlines, encouraging the

use of uniform procedures, making sure that their role in the organisation is understood by their staff members, asking that group members follow standard rules and regulations, letting group members know what is expected of them, seeing to it that group members are working up to capacity and the work of the group is coordinated. These principals are therefore, perceived by their teachers to be high on the initiating structure dimension of leadership style. This finding is in line with the conclusion reached by Farahbakhsh (2004), Halpins (1957), and Karem (1999). They noted that administrators (principals) with a score on or above the mean on a concerned dimension are perceived to be high on that dimension while those with a score below the mean are considered low on that dimension of leader behaviour.

The finding in respect of AP, TP, and HP is also in line with the views of Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971). They wrote that leaders who are high on initiating structure leadership style dimension demonstrate behaviours in delineating the relationship between them and members of their work-group and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication and procedures. In the same vein, Hoy and Miskel (1991) and Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) found that the leader who initiates structure is task-oriented. When using this style, the leader monitors performance closely and motivates subordinates through the use of quotas and deadlines. Communication is usually formal, one-way, and downward. Rules and regulations are enforced in the pursuit of assigned tasks. Leaders who use initiating structure tend to engage in a programme of close supervision and tight control. They focus on high

standards of performance and uniform procedures. Production is dominant. Blake and Mouton (1980) also confirmed this finding when they stated that concern for production (initiating structure) involves a desire to achieve greater output, cost effectiveness and profits in profit organisations.

Again findings from Tables 8 and 9 indicate that AP and TP are high on both the consideration and initiating structure dimensions. This is a combination of high initiating structure and high consideration leadership styles (Halpin, 1966, Hoy & Miskel 1991; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980). This suggests that principals of these polytechnics have concerned for both people and production. This finding supports the views of Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) who asserted that high initiating structure and high consideration leaders strive to achieve a productive balance between getting the job done and maintaining a cohesive, friendly work group. Blake and Mouton (1980) also referred to it as team style, describing these leaders as having high concern for people and production.

The literature shows that a combination of high initiating structure leadership style and high consideration leadership style, as described by Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) and Hoy and Miskel (1991), has generally been considered to be the best style because it emphasises the best of both categories of initiating structure and consideration. The finding also agrees with the observation of Farahbakhsh (2004) who indicated that the leader who is perceived as demonstrating a high degree of both initiating structure and consideration tended to be more effective. Therefore, effective leaders are those who demonstrate high initiating structure (task-orientation) and high consideration

(relationship-orientation) leadership behaviour. In the same vein, Vroom (1976) observed that leaders that are more effective tend to have relationships with their subordinates that are supportive, enhance the follower's sense of self-esteem; use group rather than person-to-person methods of supervision and decision-making, and tend to set high performance goals.

In addition, findings from Tables 8 and 9 shows that HP is low on consideration dimension, but high on initiating structure dimension. Hoy and Miskel (1991) referred to this style of leadership as a combination of high initiating structure and low consideration leadership style. This indicates that the principal of HP was perceived as having less concern for the teachers and more concern for the task and performance. This is in line with the suggestions of Sergiovanni and Carver (1980), Hoy, and Miskel (1991). They suggested that high initiating structure and low consideration leaders devote primary attention to getting the job done. The finding also support the views of Blake and Mouton (1980) who called this style of leadership as the task style; which they described as maximum concern for production combined with minimum concern for people.

Another observation from Tables 8 and 9 is that KP is low on both the consideration and initiating structure dimensions of leadership style. This leadership style is referred to as low initiating structure combined with low consideration by Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) and Owens (1991). This finding indicates that KP teachers perceived their principals as concerned neither with the task and performance nor with the relational aspects of his administrative role as the principal. These finding support that of Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) who

noted that leaders who are low on both consideration and initiating structure dimensions of leadership style retreat to a generally passive role of allowing the situation to take care of itself. Blake and Mouton (1980) also explained that leadership style as a minimum concern for both production and people, they therefore name it as an impoverished style.

Levels of Teacher Job Satisfaction

Research Question 2: What are the levels of teacher job satisfaction in the polytechnics?

Answer to Research Question 2 was sought by calculating the means of the responses and comparing these means with the norm and the sample means score. The mean scores calculated from the responses were used to determine the job satisfaction levels of teachers. The norm on the job satisfaction scale is interpreted as follows: 1.0 as very low, 1.1 – 2.0 as low, 2.1–3.0 as high and 3.1 – 4.0 as very high.

Overall Job Satisfaction Level of Teachers

Table 10 shows the overall job satisfaction level of teachers in the various polytechnics. AP has the highest overall satisfaction score of 2.87; followed by TP with 2.81; HP had 2.54 and KP with the least satisfaction score of 2.42.

Table 10**Overall Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction in the Polytechnics**

Institutions	Overall Level of Job Satisfaction			
	OSMS	SD	S MS	D S M S
AP	2.87	0.55	2.65	0.22
HP	2.54	0.73	2.65	-0.11
KP	2.42	0.81	2.65	-0.23
TP	2.81	0.74	2.65	0.16

Sample Mean Score = 2.65

The sample mean score of 2.65 for overall job satisfaction indicates that teachers had a high level of overall job satisfaction in the polytechnics. This is so because even the overall mean score of 2.42 for KP, which had the lowest overall satisfaction mean score indicates a high level of overall job satisfaction among teachers in the polytechnics. The finding from Table 10 indicates that teachers are satisfied with the feeling of self-esteem or self-respect they get from their job, the opportunity for personal growth and development, the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment and job expectations. In addition, the finding also shows that teachers are satisfied with the amount of respect and fair treatment they receive from their superiors, the feeling of being informed in their job, the amount of supervision they receive, the opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures, and goals. This finding is in agreement with studies conducted by Attafuah (2004), Esia-Donkoh (2004) and Yelkperri (2003), which revealed that generally, teachers are satisfied with their job.

The finding implies that teachers could make both the participating and the performance investment since they have overall job satisfaction. This is line with the observations of Krug (1989) and Sergiovanni (1991) who argued that when applied to education, the two-factor theory suggested that job satisfaction is related to two decision possibilities for teachers: participation and performance. They continued that participation, as research signified, involves minimal commitments for return of "fair pay" in the form of salary, fringe benefits, social acceptance, and reasonable supervision. Participation has not tended to satisfy a person to go beyond minimal commitments, and for the most part is viewed as extrinsic satisfaction. Performance tended to be voluntary, because school leaders in reality can only require that teachers participate. Therefore, rewards associated with performance investment tended to be intrinsic, such as recognition, achievement, feelings of competence, empowerment, and meaningful work opportunities. Krug (1989) and Sergiovanni (1991) suggested that polytechnic principals need to be concerned with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Schools cannot function adequately unless the participation investment is made and continued by teachers. However, schools cannot excel unless the majority of teachers make the performance investment as well.

Again, it is evident from the findings that since teachers in the various polytechnics are highly satisfied with their job (both intrinsically and extrinsically) they could therefore hold positive attitudes towards the job. The findings agree with the view of Spector (1997) who stated that a person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job, while a

person who is not satisfied with his or her job holds negative attitudes about the job. Spector went on to suggest that job satisfaction is one factor that is important for business effectiveness. Spector continued that although, job satisfaction does not lead directly to good performance, there are a number of valid reasons why employees' satisfaction is very important for organisations. The finding also confirmed that of Fowler (1991); Hall (1994); Krug, (1989); Williams, (1991) and Vroom (1964) who found that teachers could be satisfied by accentuating the positive, believing in their dignity and worth, and feeling empowered within the school. They added that additional research findings indicated that teachers could be satisfied when they were involved in formulation of school goals, given autonomy, valued as professionals, and respected.

Intrinsic Levels of Teacher Job Satisfaction

Table 11 shows that both AP and TP have the same mean score of 2.84 each on intrinsic satisfaction, which is higher than the sample mean score of 2.62, HP and KP have 2.47 and 2.33 respectively.

Table 11

Intrinsic Levels of Teacher Job Satisfaction in the Polytechnics

Institutions	Intrinsic Level of Satisfaction			
	ISMS	SD	S M S	D S M S
AP	2.84	0.47	2.62	0.22
HP	2.47	0.75	2.62	-0.15
KP	2.33	0.77	2.62	-0.29
TP	2.84	0.74	2.62	0.22

Sample Mean Score = 2.62

From the results indicated in Table 11, though the intrinsic satisfaction mean scores of HP and KP are lower than the sample mean score of 2.62, they lie within 2.1 – 3.0 indicating a high level of satisfaction as far as the norm mean score is taken into consideration.

It appears that polytechnic teachers have a high level of intrinsic satisfaction. This suggests that teachers in the various polytechnics get the feeling of self-esteem or self-respect, the opportunity for personal growth and development and the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment as well as the fulfilment of expectations in the job. This is in agreement with the findings of researchers such as Hardman (1996); Herzberg (1966); McKee (1988); Proffit (1990) and Sergiovanni (1991) who found that intrinsic satisfaction are those aspects of an individual's job that impart feelings of self-esteem, achievement, personal development, accomplishment and fulfilment of expectations. This finding is in line with that of Evans (1998), Dinham, and Scott (1998) who found that recognition, support and respect from colleagues and supervisors could also cultivate a feeling of job satisfaction. This finding also confirmed a research conducted by Bogler and Romit (1999) in Israel, which revealed that teacher perceptions of occupational prestige, self-esteem, and professional self-development contribute most to job satisfaction. These variables serve as mediating factors between the principals' leadership style and teachers' job satisfaction.

Extrinsic Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction

Table 12 shows that AP had the highest extrinsic satisfaction mean score of 2.89, followed by TP, which had 2.78; HP had 2.60 and KP, 2.50.

Table 12

Extrinsic Levels of Teacher Job Satisfaction in the Polytechnics

Institutions	Extrinsic Level of Satisfaction			
	ESMS	SD	SMS	DSMS
AP	2.89	0.62	2.69	0.20
HP	2.60	0.71	2.69	-0.09
KP	2.50	0.84	2.69	-0.19
TP	2.78	0.74	2.69	0.09

Sample Mean Score = 2.69

The mean scores as presented in Table 12 has shown a high level of extrinsic satisfaction taking the norm mean score into consideration. This is so despite the fact that HP and KP had extrinsic satisfaction mean scores lower than the sample mean score of 2.69.

It is evident from the findings that extrinsic satisfaction level is high among polytechnic teachers. This means the teachers feel their job impart a good amount of respect and fair treatment from superiors, they have a feeling of being informed in the job, they receive a good amount of supervision and have the opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures, and goals. This finding supports the findings of Hardman (1996); Herzberg (1966);

McKee (1988); Proffit (1990) and Sergiovanni (1991) who observed that extrinsic satisfiers are those aspects of an individual's job such as the degree of respect and fair treatment received, the feeling of being informed, the amount of supervision received and the opportunity for meaningful participation in the determination of methods, procedures and goals within the job. The finding confirms the observation of Terborg and Miller as cited by Stoner and Freeman (1998) who were of the view that factors such as fringe benefits, overall salary system, allocation of status, openness of communication, good degree of interaction and interdependence and co-operation may at times affect individual's satisfaction and decision to perform.

The findings also show that the extrinsic satisfaction level of polytechnic teachers is slightly higher than their intrinsic satisfaction level. It appears so because the sample mean score of extrinsic satisfaction is 2.69 whilst that of intrinsic satisfaction is 2.62.

Relationship between Leadership Styles of Polytechnic

Principals and Teacher Job Satisfaction.

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teacher job satisfaction?

This research question was addressed by analysing the teachers' perception of polytechnic principals' leadership style (Consideration Leadership Style and Initiating Structure Leadership Style) identified as the independent variable, with the dependent variables, extrinsic and intrinsic teacher job satisfaction. The relationship between the independent variable and the dependent

variables were investigated using the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient.

The output of correlation is presented in Table 13 (abbreviations used to represent the variables, for example (CLS), (ES) have been explained below the table. These representations were taken from variables used for the study as reflected in the questionnaire for polytechnic teachers.

Table 13
Correlation between Variables

	CLS	p	ISLS	p	LB	p	IS	p
ISLS	.471**	.000						
LB	.799**	.000	.861**	.000				
IS	.553**	.000	.200**	.000	.414**	.003		
ES	.488**	.003	.237**	.000	.402**	.000	.687**	.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

N = 220

LB = Leadership Behaviour

CLS = Consideration Leadership Style

IS = Intrinsic Satisfaction

ISLS = Initiating Structure Leadership Style

ES = Extrinsic Satisfaction

As shown in Table 13, at 0.01 alpha level, the correlation coefficient between initiating structure leadership style of polytechnic principals and extrinsic job satisfaction level of teachers is statistically significant at $r = .237$, which shows that there was a low positive association between initiating structure

leadership style of principals and extrinsic satisfaction of teachers. The shared variance, $r^2 = .237^2 = 0.056169 \times 100 = 5.6\%$. Initiating structure leadership style of polytechnic principals accounts for about 5.6% of the variation in extrinsic job satisfaction of teachers.

In addition, there was a low positive association ($r = .200$) between initiating structure leadership style and intrinsic satisfaction. The shared variance, as calculated from the coefficient of determination, (r^2), was 4%.

Other statistically significant relationships obtained at 0.01 alpha level were as follows: there was a moderate positive association ($r = .488$) between consideration leadership style and extrinsic job satisfaction and a moderate positive relationship ($r = .553$), between consideration leadership style and intrinsic job satisfaction. The shared variances as calculated from the coefficients of determination, r^2 were 23.8% and 30.6% respectively. Thus, consideration leadership style accounted for 23.8% of extrinsic job satisfaction and 30.6% of intrinsic job satisfaction.

Furthermore, at 0.01 alpha level ($p \leq 0.01$), leadership behaviour, an independent variable was found to have a low positive association ($r = .402$), with extrinsic job satisfaction as one of the variables, and a low positive association ($r = .414$), with intrinsic job satisfaction. Shared variances obtained for that relationship were 16.2% and 17.1% respectively. Thus, leadership style accounts for 16.2% of extrinsic job satisfaction and 17.1% of intrinsic job satisfaction.

These findings support the following studies. Gallmeier (1992) and Sashkin (1996) indicated that administrators who are effective leaders exhibit

leadership styles that support teacher job satisfaction. Woodard (1994) found a positive relationship between leader behaviour and teacher job satisfaction. Principals who were high on both dimensions (task and relationship) of leader behaviour had a more significant impact on teacher job satisfaction. Woodard suggested that the relationship dimension of leader behaviour had a stronger statistical significance to teacher job satisfaction than the task dimension.

Again, Chase's (1951) studies, involving 1,784 teachers from forty-three states in the United States, indicated fundamental factors, which may influence teacher job satisfaction. Chase stated, professional leadership and supervision and other working conditions are such as to permit effective work habits. Chase found that elementary teachers appeared to be more enthusiastic and job satisfied than secondary school teachers, and male teachers were less job satisfied than female teachers.

Lipham (1981) examined the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the staffs' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviours in four high schools. Lipham concluded that staff perceptions of principals' leadership were positively related to teacher job satisfaction. Teacher job satisfaction rated highest when principals exhibited supportive behaviour, and lowest when principals portrayed work facilitation. Vivian (1983) conducted a study to investigate the effects of the principals' perceived leadership styles on teacher job satisfaction. He found teacher job satisfaction was higher when a principal exhibited a collaborative leadership style.

Everett (1987) conducted another study that is in line with this finding. Everett found that significant relationship existed at the 0.05 level between teacher job satisfaction and the perceived leadership style of the principal. Teacher job satisfaction scores were correlated to each of the two leadership subscales, initiating structure and consideration. Teachers in schools with principals who demonstrated high levels on both initiating structure and consideration had high job satisfaction scores. The findings suggested that principals should be encouraged to exhibit high levels of both initiating structure (task) and consideration (relationship) in their leadership styles, and principals and teachers should learn to recognise intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. Recognition of these variables may result in teachers attempting to increase intrinsic satisfaction with less extrinsic and general satisfaction.

In addition, findings of the present study suggest that there is a strong positive and significant relationship between the leadership behaviour of polytechnic principals and the job satisfaction of their teachers. Consideration and initiating structure leadership behaviour were correlated with intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction of teachers. The reason for a significant positive relationship between the leadership behaviour of principals and teacher job satisfaction may be that some leadership styles tend to create a work environment conducive to job satisfaction. A style of leadership that leads teachers and students develop favourable attitudes toward organisational achievement and problem solving and creates, maintains and promotes an effective organisational climate results in job satisfaction. The study also confirms the observations of Rubio (1999) and

Hawkins (2002) who reported that principals who received the highest rating on consideration had schools that also tended to receive the highest school rating for climate dimensions.

Influence of Leadership Style on Teacher Job Satisfaction

In order to determine further relationship between the independent variables (consideration and initiating structure leadership styles) and the influences on dependent variables (extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction), Enter Method Regression Analysis was applied.

The Enter Method Regression Equation for the prediction of extrinsic job satisfaction is shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Results of the Enter Method Regression Analysis Using Consideration and Initiating Structure to Predict Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Variables	R Square	B Weight	t Value	Level of significance	Significance	Remarks
Consideration						
Leadership Style	.238	.140	7.198	p < .01	.000	S
Initiating Structure		0.003835	.136	p < .01	.892	NS
Leadership Style						
(Constant)		4.639	3.917	p < .01		

Dependent variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction (ES) p is significant at 0.01 level.

S = significant

NS = not significant

$ES = 4.639 + 0.140X_1 + 0.003835X_2$, where,

X_1 = consideration leadership style

X_2 = initiating structure leadership style

ES = extrinsic satisfaction

From Table 14, the hypothesis that consideration leadership style (X_1) has no significant effect on teachers' extrinsic job significant (ES) is rejected at $\alpha = 0.01$ ($t = > p < 0.000$). However, the result of the regression analysis shows that the hypothesis that initiating structure leadership style (IS) has no significant effect on teachers' extrinsic job satisfaction (ES) cannot be rejected at $\alpha = 0.01$ ($t = > p < 0.892$).

The combined predicting power of consideration and initiating structure leadership styles predict 23.8% of extrinsic job satisfaction. In addition, the consideration leadership style better predicts extrinsic job satisfaction than the initiating structure leadership style.

The Enter Method Regression Equation for the prediction of intrinsic job satisfaction is shown in Table 15.

Table 15**Results of the Enter Method Regression Analysis Using Consideration and Initiating Structure to Predict Intrinsic Job Satisfaction**

Variables	R Square	B Weight	t Value	Level of significance	Significance	Remarks
Consideration						
Leadership Style	.310	.169	.221	p < .01	.000	S
Initiating Structure		-0.0324	-1.215	p < .01	.226	NS
Leadership Style (Constant)		4.816	4.301	p < .01		

Dependent variable: Intrinsic Satisfaction (IS) p is significant at 0.01 level.

S = significant

NS = not significant

IS = $4.816 + .169x_1 - .00324x_2$, where,

X_1 = consideration leadership style

X_2 = initiating structure leadership style

IS = intrinsic satisfaction

Analysis from Table 15 shows that the hypothesis that consideration leadership style(X_1) has no significant effect on teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction (IS) is rejected at $\alpha = 0.01$ ($t = > p < 0.000$). On the other hand, the result of the regression analysis shows that the hypothesis that initiating structure leadership style(X_2) has no significant effect on teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction (IS) cannot be rejected at $\alpha = 0.01$ ($t = > p < 0.226$).

The combined predicting power of consideration and initiating structure leadership style accounts for 31.0% of intrinsic job satisfaction. In addition, the consideration leadership style better predicts intrinsic job satisfaction than the initiating structure leadership style. This is shown by the highly significant Beta scores of 0.140 (Table 14) at 0.01 level of significance ($p = .000$) for extrinsic satisfaction and Beta scores of 0.169 (Table 15) at 0.01 level of significance ($p = .000$) for intrinsic satisfaction. Initiating structure recorded Beta values of 0.003835 for extrinsic satisfaction and -0.0324 for intrinsic satisfaction.

Leadership style predicts about 23.8% of the variation in extrinsic job satisfaction and 31% of the variation in intrinsic job satisfaction. One might be tempted to consider the 31% and 23.8% insignificant in predicting the effect of leadership style on job satisfaction. However, considering that there are other variables that predict teacher job satisfaction and leadership style alone accounts for 31% of the variation in intrinsic teacher job satisfaction and 23.8% of the variation in extrinsic teacher job satisfaction, then the predictive value of principals' leadership style on teacher job satisfaction is quite high.

It is evident from the finding that leadership styles of principals influence teacher job satisfaction. This confirms the findings of Everett (1987), Fowler (1991) and Klawitter (1985). They suggested that leadership behaviours of principals have been consistently associated with teacher job satisfaction; and leadership styles of individual principals are powerful predictors of teacher job satisfaction.

Other Findings

Apart from the research questions, certain findings were also derived from the data in terms of gender. Table 16 to 20 show the distribution of mean scores of the various variables of the study by gender.

Consideration Mean Ratings by Gender

Table 16 indicates that AP, KP and TP male teachers rated their principals higher on the consideration leadership style than female teachers. While male teachers' consideration means scores were 48.26, 35.42 and 46.77 respectively, those of female teachers were 46.70, 34.60 and 45.95. The consideration mean score of 42.46 for female teachers at HP was higher than the 39.11 for male teachers.

Table 16

Consideration Mean Ratings by Gender

Institution	Consideration Mean Ratings by Gender							
	Male				Female			
	CMR	SD	NORM	DN	CMR	SD	NORM	DN
AP	48.26	8.46	44.70	3.56	46.70	10.20	44.70	2.00
HP	39.11	11.99	44.70	-5.59	42.46	12.40	44.70	-0.02
KP	35.42	12.01	44.70	-9.28	34.60	9.04	44.70	-10.1
TP	46.77	10.04	44.70	2.07	45.95	11.96	44.70	1.25

Sample Mean Rating = 42.48

Norm Mean Score = 44.70

Findings in respect of Table 16 indicate that apart from HP male teachers perceive their principals to be high on consideration leadership style dimension. However, the total mean score for female teachers (42.43) is slightly higher than that of male teachers who scored 42.39 on the consideration dimension. Taking the total mean score of 42.43 for female teachers and 42.39 for male teachers into consideration therefore, female teachers perceive their principal to be slightly higher on consideration leadership style dimension than male teachers.

Initiating Structure Mean Ratings by Gender

From Table 17 initiating structure, mean scores of 48.14 and 47.97 shows that at AP and TP male teachers rated their principals higher on the initiating structure dimension than female teachers who rated their principals 44.85 and 43.79. However, at HP initiating structure mean score of 48.43 for female teachers, 46.17 for male teachers and at TP 48.10 for female teachers and 47.97 for male teachers indicate that female teachers rated their principals slightly higher on this dimension.

Table 17**Initiating Structure Mean Ratings by Gender**

Institution	Initiating Structure Mean Ratings by Gender							
	Male				Female			
	ISMR	SD	NORM	DN	ISMR	SD	NORM	DN
AP	48.14	8.06	37.90	10.24	44.85	10.21	37.90	6.95
HP	46.17	10.59	37.90	8.27	48.43	12.21	37.90	10.53
KP	44.12	12.40	37.90	6.22	43.79	8.18	37.90	5.89
TP	47.97	10.51	39.90	8.07	48.10	10.62	37.90	10.20

Sample Mean Score = 46.49

Norm Mean Score = 37.90

The total mean scores of 46.60 for male teachers and 46.29 for female teachers indicated that both male and female teachers perceive their principals to be concerned with the performance of the job rather than relational aspects of their role as principals. This finding is in line with the observations of Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) who called this leadership style as high initiating structure combined with high consideration, which they explained as style of leaders who devote primary attention to getting the job done.

Overall Job Satisfaction Mean Scores by Gender

Table 18 shows the overall satisfaction scores of teachers by gender. For male teachers AP had the highest overall mean score of 2.85, TP had 2.81, followed by HP who had 2.49 and KP who had 2.42 obtained the least score. For

female teachers AP had the highest overall mean score of 2.89, TP had 2.72, followed by HP who had 2.64 and KP who had 2.39 obtained the least score.

Table 18

Overall Job Satisfaction Mean Scores by Gender

Institution	Overall Job Satisfaction Mean Scores by Gender							
	Male				Female			
	OSMS	SD	SMS	DSMS	OSMS	SD	SMS	DSMS
AP	2.85	.341	2.65	0.2	2.89	.706	2.65	0.24
HP	2.49	.724	2.65	-0.16	2.64	.728	2.65	-0.01
KP	2.42	.782	2.65	-0.23	2.39	.850	2.65	-0.26
TP	2.81	.742	2.65	0.16	2.72	.724	2.65	0.07

Sample Mean Score = 2.65

Findings from Table 19 indicate that the overall satisfaction mean score of (2.66) for female teachers is slightly higher than that of male teachers (2.64). Female teachers therefore, have a slightly higher overall job satisfaction than male teachers. These findings partly support results of a study of the relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction conducted by Bhella (1982). With reference to leadership behaviour, Bhella's study suggested that female teachers were more satisfied with their job than male teachers.

Intrinsic Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction by Gender

Table 19 shows the intrinsic satisfaction scores of teachers by gender. For male teachers TP had the highest intrinsic mean score of 2.81, AP had 2.77, followed by HP who had 2.37 and KP who had 2.34 obtained the least score. For

female teachers AP had the highest intrinsic mean score of 2.96, HP had 2.69, followed by TP who had 2.68 and KP who had 2.30 obtained the least score.

Table 19

Intrinsic Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction by Gender

Institution	Intrinsic Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction by Gender							
	Male				Female			
	ISMS	SD	SMS	DSMS	ISMS	SD	SMS	DSMS
AP	2.77	.354	2.62	0.15	2.96	.559	2.62	0.34
HP	2.37	.705	2.62	-0.25	2.69	.799	2.62	0.07
KP	2.34	.734	2.62	-0.28	2.30	.825	2.62	-0.32
TP	2.81	.766	2.62	0.19	2.68	.699	2.62	0.06

Sample Mean Score = 2.62

It is evident from Table 16 that the total intrinsic mean score of 2.66 obtained by female teachers was slightly higher than the 2.57 for male teachers. It therefore appears that intrinsically, female teachers are more satisfied with their job than male teachers.

Extrinsic Satisfaction Mean Scores by Gender

Table 20 shows the extrinsic satisfaction scores of teachers by gender. For male teachers AP had the highest extrinsic mean score of 2.92, TP had 2.80, followed by HP who had 2.60 and KP who had 2.51 obtained the least score. For female teachers AP had the highest extrinsic mean score of 2.82, TP had 2.75, followed by KP who had 2.48 and HP who had 2.39 obtained the least score.

Table 20**Extrinsic Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction by Gender**

Institution	Extrinsic Satisfaction Mean Scores by Gender							
	Male				Female			
	ESMS	SD	SMS	DSMS	ESMS	SD	SMS	DSMS
AP	2.92	.328	2.69	0.23	2.82	.853	2.69	0.13
HP	2.60	.742	2.69	-0.09	2.39	.657	2.69	-0.1
KP	2.51	.829	2.69	-0.18	2.48	.874	2.69	-0.21
TP	2.80	.718	2.69	0.11	2.75	.779	2.69	0.06

Sample Mean Score = 2.69

Findings from Table 20 indicate that male teachers have a slightly higher extrinsic satisfaction mean score of 2.71 than that of female teachers which is 2.66. It therefore appears that extrinsically, male teachers are more satisfied with their job than female teachers.

Summary

Chapter four presented the results of the study of polytechnic teacher perceptions of principals' leadership style and teachers' job satisfaction. The results revealed that Accra Polytechnic and Takoradi Polytechnic principals were rated high on both the consideration and initiating structure leadership style dimensions; Ho Polytechnic principal was rated low on consideration dimension and high on initiating structure dimension and Kumasi Polytechnic principal was

rated low on both the initiating structure and the consideration dimensions. It was also found that polytechnic teachers are satisfied with their job.

Again, the findings of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of the leadership styles of principals and teacher job satisfaction in the polytechnics. Findings also revealed that leadership styles of principals predict teacher job satisfaction.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, along with the conclusions, implications and recommendations. The chapter is divided into the following major sections: Overview of the Research Problem and Methodology, Findings, Conclusions, Implications, Recommendations for Practice and Recommendations for Future Research.

Overview of the Research Problem and Methodology

The study sought to determine if there was a relationship between perceived leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teachers' expressed job satisfaction. Specifically, it investigated the perceptions of teachers at Accra Polytechnic, Kumasi Polytechnic, Takoradi Polytechnic and Ho Polytechnic regarding the leadership styles of their principals and the teachers' own job satisfaction levels. The study then sought to find out whether there was a correlation between the perceived principal style of leadership and teachers' level of job satisfaction. The following research questions were used:

1. How do polytechnic teachers perceive the leadership styles of their respective principals?
2. What are the levels of teacher job satisfaction in the polytechnics?
3. Is there a relationship between the leadership styles of polytechnic principals and teacher job satisfaction?

Four hypotheses were also formulated to test for the effect of consideration and initiating structure leadership styles on intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction.

The study was a descriptive correlational survey. The sample size of 260 was drawn from 484 polytechnic teachers from Accra Polytechnic, Kumasi Polytechnic, Ho Polytechnic and Takoradi Polytechnic. Questionnaires were administered to the 260 polytechnic teachers to collect data for the study and 84.6% of the distributed questionnaires were retrieved and used for analysis.

The questionnaires were scored and the data were tabulated using frequencies and percentages for biographic data. Frequencies, means and standard deviations were calculated and compared for leadership style choices and job satisfaction scores in order to determine the leadership styles of principals and levels of teachers' job satisfaction in the polytechnics. In addition, statistical tests were performed to determine the relationship if any, between the perceived leadership style of polytechnic principals and the level of job satisfaction of teachers.

Research Questions one and two were answered by comparing the sample mean score with the norm mean score to determine the leadership styles of principals and job satisfaction levels of teachers. To answer research question three the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test for the significance of the correlation that existed between consideration and initiating structure leadership styles and intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction at an alpha level of 0.01. Enter Method Regression Analysis was

used to determine the effect of the independent variables (consideration and initiating structure leadership styles) on the dependent variables (intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction). In relation to other findings, the perception of principals' leadership style and job satisfaction scores by male and female teachers were compared using mean scores.

Findings

The total sample mean score for teachers' ratings of principal on consideration was 42.48, below the norm of 44.70. The total sample mean score for teachers' ratings of principals on initiating structure was 46.49 above the norm of 37.90. Scores were also analysed by polytechnic and gender. The results were as follows:

1. Accra Polytechnic (AP) and Takoradi Polytechnic (TP) rated their principals above the mean on both consideration (47.75 and 46.51 respectively) and initiating structure (47.00 and 48.01 respectively) leadership. Ho Polytechnic (HP) rated their principal (46.93) above the mean on initiating structure leadership style and below the mean (40.46) on consideration leadership style. Kumasi Polytechnic (KP) rated their principal below the mean on both consideration (35.19) and initiating structure (44.02) leadership styles.
2. Both male and female teachers rated their principals below the mean on consideration leadership style; however, the mean score of female teachers was slightly higher than that of male teachers. Both male and female teachers rated their principals above the mean on the initiating

structure leadership style, but the mean score of male teachers was slightly higher than that of female teachers.

3. Job satisfaction of teachers (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall) was high.
4. Female teachers had a slightly higher overall job satisfaction mean score (2.66) than the mean score of male teachers (2.64). Male teachers had a slightly higher extrinsic job satisfaction mean score (2.71) than the mean score of their female counterparts (2.66). Female teachers had a slightly higher intrinsic job satisfaction mean score (2.66) than the mean score of male teachers (2.57).
5. There was a significant relationship between polytechnic principals perceived consideration leadership style and job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic) of teachers. The consideration leadership style of polytechnic principals explained 23.8% of the variation in extrinsic teacher job satisfaction and 30.6% of the variation in teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction. There was a significant relationship between polytechnic principals perceived initiating structure leadership style and job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic) of teachers. Initiating structure leadership style of polytechnics principals explained 5.6% of the variation in teachers' extrinsic job satisfaction and 4% of the variation in teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction.
6. There was a significant relationship between polytechnic principals' leadership style and teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

Leadership style explained 17.1 % of intrinsic teacher job satisfaction and 16.2% of extrinsic teacher job satisfaction.

7. Leadership style predicted 23.8% of the variation in extrinsic teacher job satisfaction and 31% of the variation in intrinsic teacher job satisfaction. The consideration leadership style better predicts teacher job satisfaction than the initiating structure leadership style.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from the study were the following:

1. The results of the study suggest that the leadership styles of polytechnic principals, as perceived by teachers, influenced their (teachers') job satisfaction.
2. In the opinion of teachers, principals are more concerned about task and performance than about the interpersonal aspects of the principal's role.
3. Both male and female teachers tended to perceive principals as exhibiting behaviours related to initiating structure.
4. In the opinion of teachers, consideration leadership style increases teacher job satisfaction

Implications

The findings of this study have several implications as far as leadership styles of principals of polytechnics and teachers' expressed job satisfaction are concerned. The finding that there is significant relationship between polytechnic

principals perceived consideration leadership style and job satisfaction of teachers implies that leadership style may be important in order to ensure higher job satisfaction. It also implies that principals in polytechnics who wished to increase job satisfaction of their teachers might wish to concentrate on both initiating structure and consideration with teachers and other workers in their institution.

Research dealing with leadership style and job satisfaction has indicated that there is a need to examine principals' behaviours in establishing the schools' working conditions that impact the level of overall teacher job satisfaction. The findings of this study supported that need among those institutions that train future administrators and create educational policy. The programmes provided by these institutions may need to make administrators and future administrators aware of the need to focus on leadership style that allows teachers to be satisfied with their jobs.

The findings of this study showed that teachers perceived their principals to exhibit behaviours related to task and performance such as defining duties and responsibilities, and setting standards of performance and clarifying expectations. As such, principals need to be aware of the appropriate behaviours for a given situation in order to enhance effective administration of their institutions.

Recommendations for Practice

From the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1. Since staff perception of principals' leadership has an effect on teacher job satisfaction, it is recommended that principals should periodically allow their staff to tell them what they think about their style of leadership. Also, Conference of Polytechnic Principals (COPP) should design questionnaire on "Leadership behaviour" so that from time to time (on regular basis), teachers will use the questionnaire to assess their principals' style of leadership.

Again, in-service training (INSET) programmes for principals should be institutionalised and organised periodically to enable them update their knowledge, skills and competencies in educational leadership, so as to improve their leadership behaviour.

2. The study revealed that teachers in the polytechnics perceive their principals to be more concerned about work than staff welfare. Principals should, therefore, pay attention to issues that affect the welfare of staff by organising regular durbars during which, the problems of staff will be discussed so that solutions will be found to them.
3. Since the study revealed that leadership style and job satisfaction has a strong relationship, principals should employ leadership approaches that will create enabling environment for teachers to work without fear and with satisfaction. Principal could do this by:

- (a) providing teachers with the opportunity for personal growth and advancement through establishment of linkages with well-developed institutions and exchange programmes;

- (b) giving prompt and accurate feedback to teachers;
 - (c) assuring teachers of job security, physical and emotional safety in the organisational structure of the polytechnics; and
 - (d) providing support and ensuring adequate supply of resources for teaching and learning.
4. Because the study showed that most teachers perceive their principals as exhibiting behaviours related to initiating structure (task-oriented), principals should be more people-oriented in their style of leadership by having regular consultations with their staff.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study should be replicated using the newly established polytechnics to see if findings will be consistent with that of the older or well-established polytechnics, which have evolved with deep-rooted traditions. This study related teacher perception of principals' leadership styles to teacher job satisfaction. It is recommended that a further study using ratings by other groups such as the administrative staff and students could provide a more complete description of the perception of the principals' leadership behaviour.

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APPENDIX 1

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

Questionnaire on Leadership Styles of Polytechnic Principals and Job

Satisfaction of Polytechnic Teachers

This questionnaire is designed to elicit information for the purpose of thesis writing at University of Cape Coast. You have been selected to take part as a respondent in the study. I shall be very grateful if you would respond to the items as candidly as possible. The information you provide will be treated as confidential and your anonymity is assured.

Thank you very much.

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHIC DATA

Please respond by ticking in the appropriate box the response applicable to you.

1 Gender

Male []

Female []

2. Highest Qualification

HND/Diploma []

B.Ed., B.A., B.Com, BSc. []

M.Phil., M.Ed., M.A, MBA, MPA, MTech., MSc. []

Doctoral Degree []

Any other (please specify)

3. **Rank (Grade)**

- | | |
|---|-----|
| Assistant Instructor | [] |
| Instructor | [] |
| Senior Instructor | [] |
| Principal Instructor | [] |
| Lecturer | [] |
| Senior Lecturer | [] |
| Principal Lecturer | [] |
| Professor | [] |
| Any other (please specify) | |

4. **Length of stay at present Polytechnic**

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Below 1 year | [] |
| 1 – 3 years | [] |
| 4 – 6 years | [] |
| 7 - 9 years | [] |
| 10 – 12 years | [] |
| Above 12 years | [] |

SECTION B

LEADERSHIP STYLES

The following is a list of statements that may be used to describe the leadership behaviour of your principal. Each statement describes a specific kind of behaviour, but does not ask you to judge whether the behaviour is desirable or undesirable. Decide whether your principal, always, often, occasionally, or never acts as described by the statement. Draw a circle around one of the four numerals following the item to show the answer you have selected. The interpretation of the scale is as follows:

- 4 = Always
3 = Often
2 = Occasionally
1 = Never

<u>Consideration (People-Oriented) Leadership Style</u>	Always	Often	Occasionally	Never
5. He does personal favours for the teachers	4	3	2	1
6. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of staff	4	3	2	1
7. He is easy to understand	4	3	2	1
8. He finds time to listen to the group members	4	3	2	1
9. He keeps to himself	4	3	2	1

10.He looks out for the personal welfare of individual teachers	4	3	2	1
11.He refuses to explain his actions	4	3	2	1
12.He acts without consulting the staff	4	3	2	1
13.He supports actions taken by the staff	4	3	2	1
14.He treats all group members as his equals	4	3	2	1
15.He is willing to make changes	4	3	2	1
16.He is friendly and approachable	4	3	2	1
17.He makes group members feel at ease when talking with them	4	3	2	1
18. He puts suggestions made by the group into operation	4	3	2	1
19. He gets group approval in important matters before taking final decisions	4	3	2	1
<u>Initiating Structure (Task-Oriented) Leadership Style</u>				
20. He gives reasons for his actions	4	3	2	1
21.He tries out his new ideas with the teachers	4	3	2	1
22.He rules with an iron hand	4	3	2	1
23.He criticises poor work	4	3	2	1
24.He speaks in a manner not to be questioned	4	3	2	1
25.He assigns group members to particular tasks	4	3	2	1
26.He schedules the work to be done	4	3	2	1
27.He maintains definite standards of performance	4	3	2	1
28.He emphasises the meeting of deadlines	4	3	2	1

29. He encourages the use of uniform procedures	4	3	2	1
30. He makes sure that his role as the principal is understood by the staff	4	3	2	1
31. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations	4	3	2	1
32. He lets group members know what is expected of them	4	3	2	1
33. He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity	4	3	2	1
34. He sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated	4	3	2	1

SECTION C


JOB SATISFACTION

The following is also a list of statements used to describe various levels of job satisfaction. Indicate your level of satisfaction with various facets of your job by circling a number on the four-point scale after each of the statements. The interpretation of the scale is as follows:

- 4 = Very High
- 3 = High
- 2 = Low
- 1 = Very Low

<u>Intrinsic Satisfaction</u>	Very Low	Low	High	Very High
35. The feeling of self-esteem or self-respect you get from your job	1	2	3	4
36. The opportunity for personal growth and development in your job	1	2	3	4
37. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job	1	2	3	4
38. Your feeling about the present job when you consider the expectations you had before taking up the job	1	2	3	4
<u>Extrinsic Satisfaction</u>				
39. The amount of respect and fair treatment you receive from your superiors	1	2	3	4
40. The feeling of being informed in your job	1	2	3	4
41. The amount of supervision you receive	1	2	3	4
42. The opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures, and goals	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX 2

 UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
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Cape Coast, Ghana

Our Ref.: EP/90.2/6

May 12, 2005

The Principals
Polytechnics in Ghana

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, Ms. Mary Afi Mensah is a graduate student of the University of Cape Coast. She is collecting data/information in your outfit for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement of the programme.

I should be grateful if you would help her collect the data/information from your outfit. Kindly give the necessary assistance that Ms. Mensah requires to collect the data.



Mr. Y. M. Anhwere
for Director