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# **Transformational Leadership in Tanzanian Education**

A Study of the Effects of Transformational Leadership on Teachers' Job Satisfaction,  
Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour in Tanzanian  
Primary and Secondary Schools

Een wetenschappelijke proeve  
op het gebied van de Sociale Wetenschappen

## **Proefschrift**

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor  
aan de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen  
op gezag van de Rector Magnificus, prof. dr. C.W.P.M. Blom,  
volgens besluit van het College van Decanen  
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door

**Samuel Crispin Nguni**

geboren op 10 april 1953  
te Liuli village–Mbinga District, Tanzania

*Promotor*

Prof.dr. P. J. C. Slegers

*Co-promotor*

Dr. E. J. P. G. Denessen

*Manuscriptcommissie*

Prof. dr. K. Leithwood (University of Toronto, Canada)

Dr. M. Krüger (Universiteit van Amsterdam)

Dr. F. P. Geijssel (Universiteit van Amsterdam)

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Primary and Secondary Schools

A scientific essay in Social Sciences

Doctoral thesis

to obtain the degree of doctor  
from Radboud University Nijmegen  
on the authority of the Rector, Prof. dr. C.W.P.M. Blom,  
according to the decision of the Council of Deans  
to be defended in public on Wednesday, 12 January 2005  
at 1.30 p.m. precisely

by

**Samuel Crispin Nguni**

born in Liuli village–Mbinga District, Tanzania  
on April, 10, 1953

*Doctoral supervisor*

Prof.dr. P. J. C. Sleegers

*Co-supervisor*

Dr. E. J. P. G. Denessen

*Doctoral Thesis Committee*

Prof. dr. K. Leithwood (University of Toronto, Canada)

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Dr. F. P. Geijssel (Universiteit van Amsterdam)

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*This dissertation is dedicated to my late father Crispin Nguni, my mother Winne Nyakondowe and my late sisters Kathleen Nguni and Mary Nguni, for their lifetime love and care.*



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## PREFACE

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In Tanzania, as in many other countries, implementation of large-scale educational reform is currently taking place, a process that was initiated since the mid-1990s by the Tanzanian government. As a consequence, schools in Tanzania, like other schools in other parts of the world, are called upon to handle several tasks and responsibilities mandated by the large-scale educational reform initiated by government policy. These reforms, as the case elsewhere, are associated with movements towards devolution of decision-making powers to school level, school-based management, school-based budgeting and involvement of the larger community in school affairs. The purpose and goal of the education reform movement in Tanzania, is to improve the quality of education. Several reasons, both educational and economic have been advanced for advocating educational reforms and school restructuring in the public system of education. The major economic factor driving educational reform is the concern about the inability of the country's workforce to be internationally competitive. The consequent diagnosis is that the education system must be reformed to turn out a more productive workforce. Another one is the movement for greater participation of the general populace in the decisions, which affect the daily lives in relation to the local environment and the services they consume (Lam, 2001; Lauglo, 1995).

Many researchers have pointed out that these reforms have great impact on schools' operations and especially the role of the school leaders (Geijsel, Slegers & Van den Berg, 1999; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999). In this respect, it has been argued that changes integral to restructuring threaten traditional practices, roles and relationships within schools and between schools and their environments (Caldwell, 1994; Caldwell & Spinks, 1992). The challenges presented to school leaders by restructuring are perceived as being far from easily managed, especially for school leaders whose earlier careers were forged under more centralized management systems. These leaders now face decisions as to which roles, relationships and



practices to retain, forge, and discard. Nor are conditions necessarily any easier for recently appointed school leaders, who, with relatively little experience to call on, strive for effectiveness in fast changing and unpredictable educational environments. (Dimmock, 1999).

The current educational reforms and school restructuring requires the formation of new decision-making structures at school level, such as school councils, key task groups and planning and policy committees. These new structures are accompanied by new processes and new ways of working. Many of them necessitate more collaborative work relationships, requiring team perspectives and participative decision making skills. Heads of schools and teachers are expected to work more closely than ever with parents and the local community members (Beare & Boyd, 1993; Leithwood et al., 1999; Van den Berg & Slegers, 1996). Power and influence relations change between the major stakeholders, that is, heads of schools, teachers, students, parents and local community members, district and central ministry staff, and schools assume more responsibility and discretion while being held to greater account. Furthermore, many of the recent reforms associated with restructuring generate entirely new tasks and responsibilities for schools to perform. Some of the new tasks include school development planning, evaluation and accountability, and the introduction of performance management and appraisal (Cheng, 1996; Levacic, 1995).

Therefore, the transfer to schools of many tasks previously undertaken elsewhere in the system, places a daunting range of new roles, tasks and responsibilities on school leaders. As a result of problems arising out of school restructuring, a number of questions can be raised. However, one important question is the kind of school leadership needed to successfully lead schools in these times of school reform. As a result many scholars have not only questioned but have also been deeply concerned about the type of school leadership needed to lead schools in these times of change (Bass, 1985; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood et al., 1999; Van den Berg & Slegers, 1996). Since the implementation of large-scale educational reforms requires or involves major changes in the organization of schools, traditional leadership is not

sufficient. For minor and small-scale changes traditional leadership seems to be sufficient. In the case of large-scale innovations, however, traditional leadership is simply not good enough (Geijsel et al., 1999). This is because traditional leadership involves the maintenance of the status quo rather than change. Although several models of leadership exist, however, many scholars and researchers have gathered strong empirical support suggesting that a transformational model of leadership seems to be the type of leadership suitable for leading school in the present context of large scale school reforms (Bass, 1985; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood, Tomlinson, & Genge, 1996; Van den Berg & Slegers, 1996)

The concept of transformational leadership has emerged and figured prominently in the early decades of 1970s and 1980s, particularly in response to the widespread changes occurring in the world of business, which needed new conceptions of leadership to be able to attain success and motivate workers to exert extra effort for the change process. Two leadership forms were identified and distinguished at this time namely, transformational and transactional (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). In the former the emphasis is the capacity to engage others in a commitment to change, while the latter involves maintenance of the status quo. According to Conger and Kanungo (1998, pp. 8), the essential characteristics of transformational leadership include the following: (a) challenging the status quo, (b) engaging in creative visioning for the future of the organization, and (c) promoting appropriate change in followers' values, attitudes and behaviours by using empowering strategies and tactics. Transformational leadership, which arose in the business world and proved to be successful, have now been found to be also a kind of leadership relevant to education (Geijsel, Slegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2003; Leithwood et al., 1999). It has thus been argued that the nature and magnitude of the changes, which must occur if the school reforms are to be implemented successfully, demand effective transformation leadership in each school. Transformational leadership seems to be a leadership model well suited to the challenging contexts within which schools are located. Thus, an understanding of the concept of transformational leadership is important since it defines and embodies new forms of leadership and its associated

behaviours, which are necessary to build teachers' motivation and morale towards school reform.

Therefore, the Tanzanian educational reforms and school restructuring and the trend towards school-based management (or local management of schools) provide the context for advocating transformational leadership practices among the Tanzanian primary and secondary school heads. The restructuring process and the demands it places on schools, shift the focus from traditional forms of leadership to a focus on new forms of leadership – in particular transformational leadership – to lead schools in the present context of educational change. The changing policy context with its emphasis on improving the quality of education renders the maintenance of the status quo irrelevant, since schools need to search for greater effectiveness in securing improved student learning. Two underlying reasons are presented for advocating transformational leadership for Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. First, there is accumulated empirical evidence from research of the positive effects of transformational leadership in building successful schools in the times of rapid social change and large scale school reforms (Geijsel et al, 1999; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 1996). Second, decentralization of school management to the school level calls for change of teachers' work attitudes and behaviour. This is because teachers are regarded as key stakeholders at the school level, who are expected to play the important role of translating the educational reform initiatives into practice. It is therefore important to think about transformational leadership that can change the Tanzanian teachers' work attitudes and behaviour, so that they can be strongly committed to the implementation of the change process. Thus, given the relevance of transformational leadership in the Tanzanian educational context, the objective of the present study was to investigate into the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. Transformational leadership, which is one of the most promising forms of leadership, is central to the present research study and the focus is on the practicing heads of schools in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. We have therefore, chosen this model of leadership as the basis of investigating the leadership practices of the currently practicing heads of

primary and secondary schools in Tanzania in the context of the present educational reforms. The present study was aimed to achieve the following three objectives:

- To make a scientific contribution to the world of knowledge about transformational and transactional leadership and its effects on teachers' work attitude and behaviour.
- Provide suggestions, in the light of the research results, about important priority areas in which the current and future school leaders could be trained in order to effectively lead schools in Tanzania in the present era of rapid political and social changes and global economic competition.
- Drawing on theory and research to improve school leaders' practice. The results reported in the present study are expected to help the Tanzanian primary and secondary school leaders in improving their leadership practices. In this case, school leaders can read this book as a reference material on transformational school leadership.

In conclusion, we would therefore like to point out that given the rapidly evolving pattern of educational reform in Tanzania, and the urgent need to accumulate knowledge about effective school leadership, more research is needed in this important area. It is our hope that this dissertation will stimulate continued inquiry into this important area of leadership research in the Tanzanian educational context and in different parts of the world.



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# CHAPTER 1

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## Introduction

### 1.1 Background of the Study

In developing countries, just as it is for the developed nations, education has been usually considered to be the cornerstone and pillar of social and economic development. Many nations believe that to achieve and survive in the competitive global economy, quality education is the key variable. Grounded in this belief many nations have in the last few decades been seriously concerned with the quality of their education systems. These concerns and worries are reflected in the large scale educational reforms that have been taking place all over the world in the name of decentralization and school restructuring in the last three decades; reforms that are directed towards improving the quality of education. These reforms, for example, in the western countries had largely featured from the decades of 1980s and 1990s. The decentralization and school-restructuring phenomenon has been noted by a number of scholars whose writings show that over the past two decades there has been an increasing number of attempts in various parts of the world towards decentralization and greater autonomy for schools within the publicly funded systems of education with the goal of improving the quality of education (see Beare & Boyd, 1993, Caldwell & Spinks, 1992; Leithwood et al., 1999; O'Donoghue & Dimmock, 1998). In this regard, for example, McGinn and Welsh (1999) point out that decentralization is a trend that has become important in the 1990s, and its importance has been advocated by many bodies government and non-government, who are calling for greater local autonomy of schools with the aim of increasing the efficient and effectiveness of the school system. As a consequence, all over the world, public education systems are grappling with an unprecedented wave of change (Lam, 2001). Efforts to restructure schools are now part of the internationalization and globalization of education. Never before have such comprehensive measures and initiatives been

taken to reshape in fundamental ways, the design, management, organization and delivery of school work (Dimmock, 1999).

According to Beare and Boyd (1993) these reforms have taken a variety of forms but all of them involve some form of devolving certain decision-making powers to the school level. In this regard Elmore (1990) points out that the reform proposals typically address a combination of the following three dimensions: (a) Changes in the way teaching and learning occur in schools (b) Changes in the occupational situation of educators, including conditions of entry and qualifications of teachers and administrators, and school structure, conditions of teachers' work in schools, and decision-making processes, and (c) Changes in the distribution of power between schools and their clients, or in the governance and incentive structures under which schools function. In short, it has been pointed out that in the context of these reforms schools are challenged to change governance structures, open themselves up to community influence, become more accountable, clarify standards for content and performance and introduce related changes in their approaches to teaching and learning (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). In the restructuring process, decisionmaking mechanisms within school organizations have been decentralized and stakeholders have greater opportunity for direct involvement in all aspects of the school operation (Lam, 2001)

Inspired and influenced by these global decentralization trends in education, as well as a desire to improve the quality of education, the Tanzanian government has recently initiated a similar kind of reform, which is referred to as 'Local Government Reform Programme'. The Local Government Reform Programme is focusing on the improvement of efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of education services, enhancing transparency, accountability, and local community participation. Within this reform, the role of the central government will be confined to policing, planning, and regulating quality assurance and performance monitoring. In this respect, most of the education management and implementation responsibilities will be devolved to district and school levels. The central feature and objective of the Local Government Reform Programme is the decentralization and devolution of the management and

administration of education to the district and school levels. This, in essence, entails devolution of powers and decision-making and implementation responsibilities to the school levels, including community participation in school affairs and subsequently school accountability. Thus, given these reform trends, it is therefore expected that the Local Government Reform Programme will have a great impact on the operation of all public primary and secondary schools in Tanzania.

It is argued that devolution of responsibility to self-managing schools has a significant consequence on the role of the principal (Caldwell, 1994; Leithwood et al., 1999). It follows therefore that the attempted 'Local Government Reform Programme' in Tanzania will also have significant implications for the leadership behaviour of primary and secondary school leaders in Tanzania. As a result of this restructuring, the role of the primary and secondary school leaders in Tanzania will not only drastically change, but it will to a larger extent determine the success of the reform process as McGinn and Welsh (1999, p. 21) observe that, 'the leadership role of the principal at the school level is a critical factor in determining the successful implementation of a decentralized system or 'School Based Management''. Similarly the Commonwealth Secretariat (1996, p. V) further observes that, 'It is widely recognized and agreed that one of the key factors influencing school effectiveness is the nature and quality of the leadership and management provided by each school'. Good school-based management requires effective school leadership whereby school leaders are able to handle both external school operations as well as the school-environment interaction (Lam, 2001). Furthermore, Dimmock (1999, p. 441) noted that restructuring policies aimed at promoting school-based management, greater parental involvement in decision making, new conceptions of teaching and learning, increased accountability for performance and outcomes, and systematic redesign of the school curriculum depend fundamentally on school leaders for its success. This is because principals are positioned strategically both at the head of school organizations, which are assuming more responsibility, and at the linkage points between their schools, the community and system, which they are expected to interface. In a whole, Shum and Cheng (1997, p. 165) conclude that numerous studies of organization and management have indicated that leadership is a critical factor for organizational performance and



effectiveness, which shapes organizational process and structure, patterns of social interaction, members beliefs, attitudes and job behaviours.

Because of the large scale school reforms noted above, researchers have pointed out that in the context of decentralization and school system restructuring, schools need transformational leaders in order to be effective (Caldwell, 1994; Leithwood, 1994). It is argued that transformational leadership is well suited to the challenges of current school restructuring. Over the last decade, more and more empirical evidence has emerged for the importance of transformational leadership within the context of implementing large-scale innovative programmes (Geijsel et al., 1999, Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 1996). Transformational leadership builds trust, respect and a wish on the part of followers to work collectively towards the same desired future goals. This not only allows the transformational leader to operate effectively with the available context, but to change it, to make it more receptive to his/her own leadership orientation (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Furthermore, transformational leadership has the potential for building high levels of commitment in teachers to the complex uncertain nature of the school reform agenda and for fostering growth in the capacities that teachers must develop to respond positively to this reform agenda (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1997; Van den Berg & Slegers, 1996). Transformational Leadership is seen to be sensitive to organizational building, developing shared vision, distributing leadership and building school cultures necessary for current restructuring effort in schools (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). Therefore, an argument exists that transformational leadership is more facilitative of educational change and contributes to organizational effectiveness and builds positive school culture and climate.

Thus, given the plausibility of the above arguments, it is therefore proposed to adopt transformational and transactional leadership theory as a conceptual basis for studying the leadership behaviours of heads of schools in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools where school restructuring is occurring through the 'Local Government Reform Programme'. Thus, the major theoretical orientation of this study is based on Bass's (1985) Transactional and Transformational Leadership Theory. According to

Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (1999, p. 317) among the several recent conceptualisations of charismatic leadership, the best known of these is Bass's (1985) theory of transformational and transactional leadership. One strength of Bass's theory is that it has generated considerable research. Likewise, Yukl (2002, p. 253) points out that several theories of transformational or inspirational leadership were based on the ideas of Burns (1978), but there has been more empirical research on the version of the theory formulated by Bass (1985) than on any of the others. The essence of the theory is the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership. The two types of leadership were defined in terms of the component behaviours used to influence followers and the effect of the leader on followers. According to Leithwood et al. (1996) among the most important features of Bass's (1985) model are the dimensions of leadership practice it includes and the proposed relationship among these dimensions. Therefore, Bass's theory of transformational and transactional leadership will form the basis and a point of departure for the present study in the investigation of the extent of transformational leadership among the Tanzanian primary and secondary school heads.

Theoretical and empirical support for the theory of transformational and transactional leadership has been reported in a number of studies undertaken in different countries across the world and in a variety of organizational contexts, both non-educational and educational organizations. In general a number of researchers (Bass, 1985, 1997, 1999; Hughes et al., 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Yukl, 2000) point out that research on transformational leadership has been rather promising and, generally speaking, the empirical results have verified the impact of transformational leader behaviours on employee attitude, effort, and in-role performance. In spite of the extensive research and accumulated evidence on the effects of transformational leadership on a number of outcome variables, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in business, military, health service organizations (Bass, 1985, 1997, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Hater & Bass, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990), this stream of research has been very limited in educational settings (see Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 1996). Recently, Geijsel et al. (2003)

reported that by now approximately 30 studies have reported evidence of effects of transformational leadership in school contexts. They point out that this seems like a reasonable large corpus of evidence by social science standards but it is quite uneven in quality and distributed across many different types of outcomes. They conclude that, as a result, there is actually very little reliable evidence about the effects of any transformational leadership dimension on any single set of outcomes. In the same vein, Leithwood and his associates (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1997, 2000; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 1996), have pointed out that in spite of the compelling theoretical and other reasons for advocating transformational leadership in schools at the present time and in not distant future, there is considerable work to be done in clarifying empirically the effects of this form of leadership on a number of school variables. Furthermore, Leithwood and his associates have noted that in spite of the promising results in non-educational settings, there has been very little research done in the educational and school settings of this kind of leadership. In this regard, therefore, Leithwood and his associates have strongly argued that more research is needed to understand the effects of transformational leadership in school settings.

The present research study intends to examine the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour. Despite the encouraging results in educational settings (see Geijsel et al., 2003; Leithwood et al., 1999, Leithwood et al., 1996), it is important to note that so far there hasn't been any systematic study involving the relationship of transformational leadership and the three work related constructs of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in a single study in educational settings. The few studies in this area have focused on the impact of transformational leadership behaviours on either a single construct or two of these work related constructs (see for example Leithwood et al., 1999). For example, Koh, Steers, and Terborg, (1995) dealt with the relationship of transformational leadership and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in the context of Singaporean secondary schools. Bogler (2001) studied the relationship of transformational leadership and job satisfaction in the context of Israel elementary and secondary schools. So, to date, research conducted in educational settings into the

relationship of transformational leadership and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour in primary and secondary schools is scarce.

Also surprisingly given the theoretical discussions in non-educational contexts that job satisfaction is a potential mediator of the effects of leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (see, Bateman & Organ, 1983; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), in educational settings the role of job satisfaction as a potential mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour has not been given much attention. For example, in their research study with samples drawn from bank employees of large midwestern city in the USA, Smith et al (1983) found that leader supportiveness influenced organizational citizenship behaviour through its effects on job satisfaction. Furthermore, a number of researchers (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Currvivan, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Schnake, 1991; Van Scotter, 2000) have reviewed theoretical and empirical research conducted in non-educational contexts, which has demonstrated that employee job satisfaction is an important determinant of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Thus, when this stream of research on antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviour and organizational commitment is combined with models of the effects of transformational leadership, job satisfaction emerges as a potential mediator of the impact of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviour and organizational commitment. Because previous theoretical and empirical research from non-educational settings suggests that the influence of transformational leadership behaviours on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour is mediated by job satisfaction, it is now appropriate to confirm this relationship in educational settings. Therefore, the present study intends to explore the potential mediating role of job satisfaction in educational settings using Tanzania as a case study.

Furthermore, evidence from available literature (Bass, 1997, 1999; Leithwood et al., 1999; Simkins, Sisum, & Memon, 2003) suggests that much of this research on transformational leadership and its effects on employee work attitudes and behaviour has been more confined to the western world than in developing world including Africa. It is therefore appropriate to confirm the different effects of the dimensions of transformational leadership on teachers' work attitudes and behaviour in non-western societies and more so in the Tanzanian and African educational contexts. The study adds to more knowledge and understanding of the effects of transformational leadership in school settings. Lastly, the results of the study shed greater insight into the effects of transformational leadership across nations and cultures.

### **1.2 The significance (relevance) of studying teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in the present context of large scale school reform in Tanzania**

Why is it significant to study or to pay attention to teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour in the present educational reform context in Tanzania? A focus on studying the three constructs is worthwhile for a number of reasons. First, the three variables, that is, teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour, have collectively been highly associated with positive employee motivation, performance and productivity. More specifically, high levels of employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour have been highly associated with more employee work performance and less employee turnover and absenteeism (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). That being the case, it has thus been pointed out that in today's decentralization reforms geared towards school restructuring, teachers' organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviour are highly required than ever before for the success of these school reforms. Given the fact that the major aim of school restructuring is school improvement, teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour may therefore be considered as potential positive aspects to school improvement (Bogler, 2001; Van Amelsvoort, 1999). Therefore, gaining understanding of the way transformational leadership

influences these three teachers' work behaviour and motivational aspects, is likely to enhance the prospect of school improvement.

Second, the three constructs also have individually been related to teachers' organizational effectiveness and performance. *Job satisfaction*, which has been defined as the overall summary evaluation a person makes regarding his/her work environment, has been linked to employee higher levels of motivation, performance and productivity (Greenberg & Baron, 1995. p.180). In school contexts, researchers have established that schools with satisfied teachers are more productive than schools with dissatisfied teachers. For example, Ostroff (1992) measured the job satisfaction levels of 13,808 high-school and junior school teachers throughout the USA and Canada and collected various indices of performance of the 298 schools in which they worked (e.g. percentage of students graduating, academic performance levels, vandalism expenditures). She found that most measures of school performance were significantly linked to employee job satisfaction. From the research results, she concluded that schools with more satisfied teachers were more effective than those with less satisfied ones. Furthermore, Bogler (2001) points out that since the success of the education and school objectives are highly dependent on the way teachers feel about their work and how satisfied they are with it. Therefore, it is important that schools must give more attention to increasing job satisfaction of teachers.

*Organizational commitment* has been defined as a persons identification with the goals of the organization, how much they value membership in the organization and the degree to which they intend to work to attain organizational goals (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Much of the interest in organizational commitment stems from reports of positive consequences on employee behaviour and desirable work outcomes from organizational commitment. Randall's (1990) meta-analysis notes positive relationship between organizational commitment and attendance to work on time, remaining with the organization, job effort, and job performance. In general, research has shown that organizational commitment is positively related to performance (Aranya, Kushnir, & Valency, 1986) and negatively related to turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974) and positively

related to participation, teamwork and professionalism (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Mowday et al. (1982) have suggested that gaining a greater understanding of the processes related to organizational commitment has implications for employees, organizations and society as a whole. Organizational commitment is typically assumed to reduce employees withdraw behaviours, such as lateness and turnover. In addition, employees who experience high levels of organizational commitment are more likely to engage in 'extra-role' behaviours, such as creativeness or innovativeness, which are often what keeps an organization competitive (Katz & Khan, 1978). From a larger perspective, a society as a whole tends to benefit from employees' organizational commitment in terms of lower rates of job movement and perhaps higher national productivity or work quality or both. In short, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that employees with strong organizational commitment will be more valuable employees than those with weak organizational commitment.

Furthermore, Kushman (1992) points out that in school contexts, organizational commitment refers to a sense of teacher loyalty to the school workplace and identification with its values and goals. Conceptually, organizational commitment is related to building staff unity of purpose and an agreed school mission. Studies on teachers' organizational commitment, using the school level of analysis, suggest the importance that organizational commitment may play in school organizational effectiveness. For example, Hoy and Ferguson (1985), using a sample of 40 high schools, found a strong positive relationship between teacher organizational commitment and staff cohesiveness and attitudes towards innovation. These results suggest that high organizational commitment may play a role in shaping school norms of collegiality and continuous improvement that are part of the formula for academically effective schools. Therefore, organizational commitment is a highly appropriate school effectiveness construct (Kushman, 1992). Teachers' organizational commitment addresses three important facets of an effective school: the teacher work effort required to successfully teach students who do not easily learn, the staff loyalty needed to create an enduring school culture of teacher professionalism and academic excellence, and staff agreement about the school's basic educational values and goals (Kushman, 1992, p. 9). Given the present educational reform efforts requiring

teachers' extra-effort toward school reform, teachers' organizational commitment is an area deserving further study, particularly in reference to how this type of commitment is engendered and what relationship it bears to school improvement. Therefore, research studies inquiring the link between transformational leadership and teachers' organizational commitment and desired workplace outcomes is potentially of great use to policy makers and educational reformers.

*Organizational citizenship behaviour* has been defined as work related behaviours that are discretionary, not related to the formal organizational reward system, and, in aggregate, promote the effective functioning of the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983). A central component of citizenship behaviours involve offering help to others without the expectation of immediate reciprocity on the part of the individuals receiving such aid. Growing evidence suggest that organizational citizenship behaviour enhances the pleasantness of work settings, and can contribute to increased organizational performance and efficiency (Greenberg & Baron, 1995, p. 414). In the current school reform and restructuring in which teachers find themselves overwhelmed with classroom and non-classroom tasks, helping each other becomes an appropriate way of reducing some of the burden on individual teachers. Without such help from a colleague or other teachers, individual teachers are prone to get what has been referred to as 'work burnt-out'.

The importance of having organizational members whose psychological attachment is based on more than simple compliance has been underscored by Smith et al. (1983) in a study of organizational citizenship behaviour. They note that many critical behaviours in organizations rely on acts of cooperation, altruism, and spontaneous unrewarded help from employees. Katz (1964) also observed that one class of essential behaviours for a functioning organization consists of those innovative behaviours that go beyond role prescriptions. Furthermore, Mowday et al. (1982) pointed out that there are many instances where organizations need individual members, especially those in critical positions, to perform above and beyond the call of duty for the benefit of the organization. The motivational basis for such extra role behaviour is likely to require more than simple compliance. A failure to develop this



psychological attachment among members may require the organization to bear the increased costs associated with more detailed and sophisticated control systems. Having a membership that shares the organization's goals and values can ensure that individuals act instinctively to benefit the organization. Without a psychological attachment predicted on more than simple material exchange, higher turnover is also possible (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Therefore, to succeed in the current educational reform and school restructuring efforts, governments and educational reformers are advised to pay greater attention to teachers work attitudes and behaviour and in particular teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Cheng (1994, p.180) noted that in recent worldwide movements to promote more effective schools, finding ways to improve teachers' job attitudes and performance is a big concern in policy discussions. Understanding teachers' job attitudes and behaviour seems to be necessary condition for any improvement efforts.

Third, the choice of studying teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour is grounded and is consistent with the long time documented fact that many researchers have argued and pointed out that teachers make a difference in any reform process. For without teachers developing positive work attitudes and motivation, it is hard to imagine how current school reform efforts can succeed, as Fullan (1991) reminds us that teachers play an important role in determining the success of school reform efforts. Without teachers no reform in education is possible (Fullan, 1991). Since improving the quality of education is at the policy agenda of most governments paying attention to teacher job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour is of vital importance, because of the alleged role of teachers in the pursuit of quality in education. High teachers' motivation to work is essential requirement for effective schooling (Van Amelsvoort, 1999).

Furthermore, it has been noted that, on a global scale, there is high attrition rates in the teaching profession for experienced teachers and an assumed overall decrease of young people entering the work force (Van Amelsvoort, 1999). Therefore, from a political point of view, it is necessary to keep these teachers motivated. A high level of teacher burnout is not acceptable and can easily lead to supply problems.

Additionally, countries will have to recruit new teachers, an effort whose success depends highly on the attractiveness of the teaching job. This implies big challenges for both national and educational policies and the management of schools in dealing with issues such as the status of teaching, compensation and job prospects (Van Amelsvoort, 1999, p.143). Therefore, successful educational policies are needed to influence these trends and to tackle these problems of the teaching profession.

In conclusion, it is clear that in the context of global competitiveness and the need for organization productivity and effectiveness and quality concerns, the concepts of employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour have been gaining attention in recent years, and it is likely to continue to do so in the future. Therefore, gaining a better understanding of how teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour develop and is maintained over time has vast implications for policy makers and educational reformers.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to investigate and get a better understanding of how transformational and transactional leadership in schools influence teachers' work attitudes and behaviour in a non-western educational context. In particular the study was directed towards examining the effects of transformational and transactional school leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in the context of the implementation of large-scale decentralization of education and school management in Tanzania. The results of the study provide greater insight and a better understanding into the effects of transformational leadership across nations and cultures.

### *Research Questions*

In order to guide the investigation, the following specific questions were formulated:

1. (a) What is the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools?  
  
(b) Do the individual dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership have different levels of influence on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour?
2. To what extent does job satisfaction mediate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools?

#### **1.4 Importance of the study**

First, there are no previous studies that have been undertaken in Tanzania that have inquired about the relationship of leadership and teachers' work attitudes and behaviour from a transformational and transactional leadership theoretical perspective. The present study therefore bridges the gap in lack of leadership studies in the Tanzanian educational context.

Second, the present study contributes towards the generation of new knowledge and as such the study adds more knowledge and new insights to the already existing knowledge about the effects of transformational leadership in educational settings, using a different population sample with a different culture from the African continent, that is, Tanzanian primary and secondary school teachers. This knowledge is indispensable for a better understanding of the topical problems of the effects of school leadership on teachers' work attitudes and behaviour in school settings and in a non-western cultural context.

Third, given the critical role of teachers in the school improvement process, the present study results further contribute to the issues of informing government policy, with regard to important areas of teacher work attitudes and behaviour to which the government should pay attention in order to increase the level of teachers commitment to the present education reform process. This will also help to streamline teachers' management and administrative issues.

Fourth, from a more practicability point of view, knowledge obtained from this study can be used to improve the leadership skills of the present and future school leaders in Tanzania. Lastly, although the present study covers a case study of Tanzania, it is thought that the study can act as a stimulus to other students of leadership to undertake similar work and thus after several years, a body of knowledge on effectiveness of transformational leadership would be built up as it has been done, for example, in non-educational organizations.

### **1.5 Organization of the Study**

Chapter 2 discusses and points out the context of the present study into the backdrop of the education policy developments that have taken place in Tanzania since the colonial period, which ultimately frames the background context for the present study of transformational leadership in the Tanzanian educational context. The chapter presents the developments of the Tanzanian education sector into three distinct periods of educational developments: First, the colonial period (1900-1961), second, the independence period (1961-1990) and third, the present period (1990-2004). In each of the three periods, the chapter highlights the milestones made and points out problems that emerged in the process of implementing the educational policies. It points out that educational developments and the policy changes that have taken place in Tanzania from colonial times to the present time have partly been influenced by global economic and education changes. The chapter ultimately points out that the current policy of decentralization of education and school management must be understood within the context of educational problems that had occurred in the two previous periods of educational developments. In short, educational problems that emerged in the decades of 1970s and 1980s have eventually led to the review of

government economic and educational policies leading to, among other things, the decentralization policy in education. The present policy of decentralization of school management ultimately brings questions of the effective school leadership, thus calling for transformational leadership practices among the Tanzanian school heads. The chapter also discusses the kind of 'school-based management' envisaged in Tanzania.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework for the present study. First the chapter starts with a theoretical discussion of the transformational leadership theory based on Burns's (1978) and Bass's (1985) transformational and transactional leadership theory. This is followed by a description of Bass's (1985) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) designed for the purpose of measuring empirically transformational and transactional leadership behaviours exhibited by leaders. Thereafter, we present Bass's (1985) augmentation hypothesis, which states that transformational leadership factors will augment transactional leadership factors in predicting outcome variables. Fourth, we present some critical issues and problems related to the transformational and transactional leadership research. Fifth, the chapter offers a theoretical discussion of the three dependent or outcome variables that have been examined in this study, which include job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. The discussion points out how the three constructs have been defined, how they have been studied over time as well as their assumed contribution to organizational performance. The various factors that affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour are also discussed. We then discuss the theoretical relationship between transformational leadership and these three teacher work related constructs, including review of research studies that have shown a positive relationship between transformational leadership and teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. At the end of this chapter we provide a summary of the purpose of our research and the research assumptions and expectations.

In chapter 4 the research methods and procedures employed in the present study are discussed. The primary school teachers' study is presented first, followed by the

secondary school teachers' study. In presenting the methods and procedure of the two studies, the following structure is followed in each study: First, we explain the number of participants involved in the study, the questionnaire response rate, and participants' demographic characteristics, including gender, marital status, age, years of teaching experience and years working with the present head of school. Second, we describe the research instruments used to collect data, as well as prior research studies that have used these types of instruments, and we also show the reliability of the data. Third, we explain the procedure used in the collection of data, including the modification of the questionnaire items to fit the Tanzanian school cultural context. Fourth, data analysis methods are indicated and finally the chapter discusses about the reliability of the study data collected in our research and comparison is made between the reliability of the data from primary and secondary school teachers.

In chapter 5 the research results of the two studies are presented. The primary school teachers' study results are presented first followed by the secondary school teachers' study results. In presenting the results of the two studies, the following structure is followed: First, the descriptive statistics and the correlations of the study variables are described. Second, the direct effects of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour are analysed using multiple regression analysis. This is then followed by the analysis of the effects of teachers' background characteristics on transformational and transactional leadership and teachers job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Finally, the indirect effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via teachers' job satisfaction is analysed using the mediation model developed by Baron and Kenny (1986; see Appendix B for description of this model).

In chapter 6 the research results of the two studies are discussed and conclusions drawn and the research and practical implications of the research results are proposed. First, we provide a reminder of the reasons (as already indicated in chapter 1) for

carrying out this study and the research questions that we set out to answer are also shown. This is followed by the discussion of the direct effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This is followed by a discussion of the effects of teachers' background characteristics on transformational and transactional leadership and teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Then we discuss the indirect effects of transformational and transactional leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via teachers' job satisfaction. Finally, the chapter ends by providing recommendations for practice and further research.

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## CHAPTER 2

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### **Educational Developments and Policy Changes in Tanzania 1900-2004: The Background of the Current Educational Reforms Towards Decentralization of Education and School-Based Management**

This chapter presents the background context to the current educational reforms taking place in Tanzania, which has to a large extent motivated the present research study. The Tanzanian educational reforms cannot be adequately understood without an understanding of the historical background context of educational developments, issues and problems that have taken place between 1900-1990 that have influenced and ultimately have given rise to the present educational reforms of decentralization of education and school management that started in the early 1990s. Educational developments in Tanzania can be said to have passed through three major periods, which include: (a) the colonial period 1900-1961, which was characterized by colonial government intent to use education for servicing the exploitative colonial economy and for the production and reproduction of colonial political, economic and social relations, as well as an ideological tool for legitimation and justification of colonialism; (b) the independence period 1961-1990, which was characterized by the struggle of the independent Tanzanian government to break completely from the legacy of colonial education system and make education better attuned to contribute to national development, national unity and national identity; and (c) the present period 1990-2004, which is characterized by the struggle and need to raise the quality of education and use education to achieve global economic competitiveness and looking for the best way of organizing the education system to achieve the goal of quality education as well as resolving other pertinent issues related to access and equity. In each of the three periods governments have been confronted by specific educational



problems that needed to be resolved to achieve economic and social development. In addressing the different educational issues and problems, the various governments have applied and implemented different policy measures. The chapter, therefore, highlights the major educational developments, issues and problems of each period and shows the different policy measures that were taken by the colonial and the Tanzanian independent governments to resolve the specific educational problems of each period, and the resulting problems that arose due to the implementation of the policy measures.

## **2.1 The Colonial Period: The Colonial Society and Colonial Education System 1900-1961**

The colonial period seems to be an appropriate time to start discussing and analyzing the educational developments, issues, problems, and policy reforms in Tanzania for several reasons:

- (a) First, this is the period when the German and later the British colonial government declared Tanzania as their colony and established a formal colonial government in Tanzania, which formed a basis for a modern state in Tanzania. The establishment of the colonial state in Tanzania brought two things: (1) it integrated Tanzania into the world capitalist economy, (2) the new capitalist political and social relations that were forcibly introduced in Tanzania contrasted sharply with the egalitarian African traditional political and social relations. The colonial state completely stifled African development and forced the Africans to follow the capitalist path of economic and social development. The dominant capitalist mode of production and class relations, which exist today in Tanzania, developed out of the transformation that occurred in the colonial period.
- (b) Second, this is also the period when the structure of the modern system of western education was established in Tanzania by the German and British colonial governments. In the process of managing and administration of the colonial education system, a lot of inequalities were ushered in the education system, including racial segregation, geographical disparities, gender inequa-

lities, just to mention a few. Some of these inequalities are still haunting the Tanzanian education system today.

- (c) Third, most of the educational problems experienced after independence in 1961 up to the present moment have their origins in the German and British colonial period. During the colonial period, the German and British colonialists had shown no genuine interest to develop Tanzania economically and educationally, but instead they were interested in exploiting the human and natural resources of Tanzania for the economic benefit of Germany and Britain. In the course of this exploitation they committed numerous atrocities, which left the country economically and educationally backward at the time of independence in 1961. During the colonial period Tanzania mainly represented a source of raw materials and a market for European manufactured industrial goods. There was therefore no serious industrial development. This partly explains the much lower development of education in Tanzania during this period. Thus, Tanzania continues to suffer from this backwardness of colonial economic and educational legacy.

Thus, the first phase from 1900 to 1961, which is a period of 60 years, is characterized by the colonization of Tanzania by the Germans and later the British. The Germans colonized Tanzania in the last decade of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and by 1900, the Germans had firmly established an administrative machinery to govern the country. After the First World War, the British colonial government took over the administration of Tanzania. Both colonial governments established and maintained a colonial economy that was typified by large cash crop plantations, roads and railway networks, harbors and communication services and political administrative machinery composed of armies, police and prison services. The major objective for the both colonial governments was to maximize colonial exploitation of raw materials from Tanzania for the economic support and industrial development of the German and British metropolitan industrial economies in Europe. To service the established colonial economy and administrative structure/machinery was the need for trained and skilled manpower that had to maintain and expand the colonial infrastructure. Therefore, the

demand for educated and trained manpower became the greatest problem that confronted the colonial government. Apart from the demand for manpower, two other problems to be resolved included; the legitimation of the colonial system to the colonized African population so that they could cooperate with the colonial government, and the financing of the colonial education system. To resolve the above educational problems and achieve the objective of colonial exploitation, the following strategic measures were implemented:

- (a) Establishment of the colonial education system that had the following two objectives: to produce the necessary educated and skilled manpower to service the colonial economy, and using schools as ideological facets of justifying colonialism and colonial social relations.
- (b) Restricting expansion of African education for political reasons: The central issue here was how much education to offer to the African people so that they don't become conscious of colonial relations of oppression and therefore demand political independence.
- (c) Financing of education: The colonial governments used different strategies to finance the education system, which guaranteed less financial costs on the colonial government purse.

Below we explain in detail how the three strategic policy measures were implemented, in order to serve the objectives of colonial political, economic and social interests.

### **2.1.1 Establishment of the colonial education system for production of skilled manpower and the ideological role played by the colonial schools**

Under this heading we will discuss three issues, that is, the structure of colonial education, the content or curriculum of colonial education and the ideological role played by the colonial education system.

*The structure of the colonial education system*

In order to produce the much-needed trained skilled manpower to service the colonial economy and administrative structure, the colonial governments established schools for this purpose. In this regard, Hirji (1980) points out that the German and British administrations' interest in education was derived from the growing need for cheap middle layers of administrative personnel that could provide a proper level of communication, and for technical personnel that could secure colonial economic development. The colonial government demand for manpower was basically of two types: artisans and white collar workers. The latter were needed to man the lower and middle ranks of the colonial administration. Skilled craftsmen were needed in workshops, the colonial army, the railways, as copper smiths, boilermakers, turners and casters. Also in demand were blacksmiths, masons, leather workers, carpenters, etc (Hirji, 1980, p. 207). The established colonial education system was, however, organized on a racial basis for Europeans, Asians and Africans, as Buchert (1994, p. 23) noted that education was provided in racially separate educational systems, in different categories of schools run by different agencies, and according to different curricula. Therefore, three different school systems developed, African, Asian, and European, separated from each other on a racist basis, and in turn divided internally into education for the 'leaders' and education for the 'masses' (Mbilinyi, 1980). At the top of the education system, there were schools for Europeans only, whose intent was to produce and re-produce the ruling elite. The European education system was rooted in the metropolitan system itself and European children received higher levels of schooling in Europe (Mbilinyi, 1980). The European schools were all located in urban areas. In general, the Europeans got first class education, which prepared them for administration of the highest political posts in the colonial government administrative structure. Second, there were schools that were exclusively for the Asians, who were being prepared to administer middle level positions in the colonial administrative structure, as clerks, teachers, middle level civil servants, self-employed craftsman, and retail traders. Third, at the lowest ladder of the colonial education system there were schools for the Africans, who were being prepared to occupy the lowest levels of the colonial economic and administrative structure, in such jobs as junior administrators,

tax-collectors, clerks, interpreters, messengers, soldiers in the colonial army, and police. Therefore, each race had its own kind of education to prepare its members for the future places in the colonial society. In this way, racial segregation was maintained and strengthened with the Europeans maintaining their position at the top of the colonial structure, and the Asians in the middle and Africans at the lower bottom of the colonial structure (Buchert, 1994; Hirji, 1980; Mbilinyi, 1980; Morrison, 1976).

The organization of the colonial education system into different racial groups was also consistent with colonial policy of 'divide and rule', a policy which was applied in almost all colonies. In Tanzania, this policy of 'divide and rule' was more specifically intended to be applied towards Asians and Africans. Thus in Tanzania, the colonial governments deliberately maintained a racially segregated school system to produce the division of labor for several reasons. However, the most important reason was political, in that, given the experiences of other colonies, for example India, it was thus assumed that the integration of the two races in the same schools might promote political consciousness and agitation. A confidential letter, dated 24th July, 1925 from the Director of Education in Tanzania to the Chief Secretary clearly states the position of the colonial government with regard to racial segregation of Asian and African schools. The Director of Education clearly stated that, 'for facility of education administration and from the financial point of view, co-education offers many advantages. But there is the political aspect, which all schemes of education should keep constantly in view. With the knowledge of political developments during the last few years in India, we cannot afford to ignore the possibility of unfortunate African political repercussion in future years as a result of the developments of a closer liaison between the two races, which might be a result of co-education. At present we have a healthy rivalry and a growing race-consciousness among the African and a certain feeling of resentment that the Asians get so many of the pulms. Co-education might conceivably weaken this healthy and natural rivalry and eventually lead to make common cause for political ends' (Mbilinyi, 1980, p. 242). The colonial governments were always skilful in manipulating and perpetuating whatever conflicts already existed or which developed during the colonial period among the groups under its rule. To set Asians against Africans and Africans against Africans suited the interests

of the colonial government policy of 'divide and rule' very well (Mbilinyi, 1980, p. 245).

*The content (curriculum) of the colonial education system*

The school curriculum in the colonial period highly reflected the political and economic roles that the school graduates were going to perform in the service of the colonial political and economic structure. The curriculum in the European schools, in which Europeans were being prepared to man the higher posts in the colonial administration structure was literary and used the English language as a medium of instruction. For Asian schools, in which Asians were being prepared to man middle level positions in the colonial administrative structure, the curriculum, which in some respects was similar to that of Europeans was also literary and English was used as a medium of instruction. The curriculum included the following subjects: reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, technical subjects and Hindu language. African schools were vocational and the medium of instruction was Swahili and the curriculum included the following subjects: reading, writing, arithmetic; languages including Kiswahili, German and later English; geography, history, technical and practical skill subjects including carpentry, masonry, shoe making, and printing work, drawing, singing, music and gymnastics. The education provided in the colonial period was functional, that is, it was directly related to the jobs pupils were expected to take up after completing school (Hirji, 1980; Mbilinyi, 1980).

*The ideological role of the colonial education system*

The establishment of the colonial education system was not only intended to produce the skilled manpower that was needed for serving the colonial economy but also the education system became an ideological tool of the colonial state for legitimating and justifying colonialism and the oppressive colonial political, economic and social relations. It should be remembered that the survival of the colonial system itself depended highly on the acceptance of the system by the colonised. Also the colonial system could not wholly be maintained through coercive apparatus alone, for this would prove to be very costly. Therefore, the colonial state in Tanzania, which represented the interests of the German and British metropolitan governments,

functioned to develop and maintain the colonial mode of production through a coercive and ideological structure (Hirji, 1980; Mbilinyi, 1980). The colonial police and colonial army, the judiciary system of courts and laws represented the coercive structure geared towards promoting greater production of goods exported to the metropole. The African formal educational system under the government and the missions, and missionary activities in general represented essential parts of the ideological structure of the colonial state. It served the objective function of providing the African with the skills and knowledge necessary to be productive peasant producers, workers or petty-bourgeois servants of the state, and shaped his willingness to accept his place in the colonial social structure (Mbilinyi, 1980, p. 236). Furthermore, the ideological role of colonial education system can be derived from the official statements of the colonial governments with regard to the objective function of the colonial education system, which was spelled as follows: 'that our (colonial government) objective is an educational system, which will produce a small group of skilled, literate workers and administrative subordinates to work in the colonial government departments and for settlers and missions and at the same time produce a virile and loyal citizen of the Empire, where character, health, industry, and a proper appreciation of the dignity of manual labour rank as first importance. The school is the centre of all government propaganda work' (Hirji, 1980; Mbilinyi, 1980). It can therefore be concluded that the main objective of colonial education was not simply to make the colonized person work for the colonizers, but to make him accept the colonial system. Ideological enslavement perpetuated by the colonial governments and the missionaries was essential for colonial exploitation to be practiced smoothly (Hirji, 1980; Mbilinyi, 1980; Morrison, 1976). The role learning or attitude learning which arose through rituals of schooling - flag raising, caning, standing at attention when the teacher entered the classroom - was given as much attention by colonial educators as the subject matter, and they called it 'character' training. The African system was intended to produce submissiveness, a sense of inferiority, and an orientation towards extrinsic rewards and punishments (Mbilinyi, 1980).

### **2.1.2 Restricted expansion of African education**

The development or expansion of African education during the colonial period was highly restricted. This was based on several reasons but the major one was political in nature. The colonial government had greatly feared (again based on colonial experiences elsewhere) that if African education in Tanzania was to be expanded beyond primary level, to include secondary and higher education, this would inevitably lead to political agitation for independence. Therefore, in order to prevent the growth of political consciousness and political agitation of Africans in Tanzania, the colonial government restricted the education of Africans to primary education for most of the colonial period. Therefore, consistent with the policy of restricting expansion of African education, primary education was considered necessary and sufficient to produce a literate and effectively socialised African worker for government service. In this regard, it was considered that a bare minimum of skills and knowledge was therefore necessary to be an effective producer, because too much knowledge would lead the African to question his place in the set of colonial social relationships into which he was being drawn or forced (Mbilinyi, 1980). On a similar vein, Beare (1993, p. 201) points out that, 'education or more precisely, being well educated, produces its own political backlash in the form of an articulate probing, informed middle class who make life uncomfortable for the ruling elites. Political dissension, then, may result from there being a significantly large proportion of well educated, middle class people who are capable of articulate argumentation and lobbying on particular political issues which destabilise political boundaries, threaten the status quo, and produce profound insecurity for those in power'. As a consequence of this policy, African education was limited to primary education up to standard VI until 1937 and expanded to Standard VII thereafter (Mbilinyi, 1980). Apart from the restricted expansion of African education, the provision of education across different regions and districts was uneven. This resulted in geographical disparities as other regions went ahead in having more schools and as such had more educational opportunities than others. Gender differences in access to education, whereby more boys were enrolled in the school system than girls were also developed in the colonial period. In this regard, Hirji (1980) points out that during the entire period of German colonialism in Tanzania, there was no single girl who was educated in the German



government education system. However, very few girls received education in the mission schools.

### **2.1.3 Financing of the colonial education system**

In order to reduce government expenditure on education and make super profits out of the colonial enterprise, the colonial governments strategy was to offer the necessary social and educational services at the lowest cost possible. With regard to education the following three strategies, among others, were employed. One strategy was to let the consumer pay for the services. In this regard Hirji (1980, p. 333) pointed out that an important feature of the colonial government education system that needs to be emphasized is the contribution of the pupils towards the cost of their own education and to the development of the colonial economy. The value of work by the pupils while still at school generally constituted a source of revenue which was used to pay all the expenses incurred in construction of the school, buying teaching materials, maintaining school facilities, paying the teachers, etc. For example, the hinterland schools in Tanga district were allocated a coconut plantation so that the pupils acquire already from their youth an interest in and liking of plants and soil, and the revenue enabled the schools to obtain financial means for their equipment and enlargement (Hirji, 1980, p. 209). The second strategy was the establishment of special levies, which were imposed to meet costs not covered by the pupils' labour. In this case, the German and British colonial governments imposed taxes on the African population, which partly went to finance the colonial education system (Hirji, 1980).

The third strategy was that the majority of the African schools were left to be managed in the hands of the voluntary agencies, which included missionary agencies and African Native Authorities, so long as they adhered to the government guidelines with regard to staffing and curricular policy. With regard to the Missionary agencies they had under their jurisdiction many African schools, some of which were established even before the formal colonial period. Most, if not all of the costs of maintaining these schools were borne by the missionary themselves. However, here again pupils contributed heavily towards the maintenance of missionary schools. In this regard Hirji (1980, p. 206) pointed out that in mission schools pupils were

required to work for the missions. The pupils participated in road construction, building of schools, churches, houses for missionaries, large-scale commercial farming of coffee, cotton and vegetables and looking after cattle and poultry. With regard to African Native authorities, Morrison (1976) observed that these were created in 1920s by the colonial government to help in the administration of Tanzania at the local level. However, from 1925, African Native authorities were given a measure of responsibility for education. The government agreed to supply and pay teachers on the understanding that capital costs would be met by the native authorities and boarding expenses by parents. After a period of experimentation, during which a number of these schools proved successful in stimulating African interests in education and in reducing the financial burden of the central government, they were permanently incorporated into the education system with the expectation that native authorities would cover a rising proportion of recurrent costs (Morrison, 1976, p. 49). Thus the direct financial contribution of the German and British colonial governments towards developing and running the African education system was insignificant (Hirji, 1980).

In a whole, the use of above three strategies, among others, meant a great deal of reduction on the costs of financing education on the part of the colonial government. Since the mission and African Native authority schools produced skilled labour for the colonial government, the colonial government achieved its objective of acquiring skills labour at the least expense. In general missionary agencies, African Native authorities, and the pupils played a greater role in financing recurrent costs of running colonial schools in the colonial period. This clearly defines the character or essence of colonialism, which is to get super-profits through super-exploitation of the colonised country's human and natural resources, and using education to achieve these ends and goals of colonial exploitation.

In summary, it can be concluded that the colonial education system did indeed lay out the foundation for western education in modern Tanzania. However, as we have argued above, the purpose of the colonial governments was to use education for exploitative purposes of Tanzanian natural resources, through producing skilled manpower, that would serve the exploitative and repressive colonial administrative

machinery that supervised/overlooked the vast export oriented colonial economy for the benefit of German and British industrial economies in Europe. Therefore, in general the education provided by the colonial governments was designed for the purpose of and was motivated by a desire to inculcate the values of the colonial society and to train individuals for the service of the colonial state. The colonial state interest in education therefore stemmed from the need for educated and skilled manpower such as clerks and junior administrative officials.

However, by 1961, when the colonialists relinquished power, the colonial education system had created a pile of problems that became a headache to the independent Tanzanian government. These problems include the following: (a) the education system had been based on racial segregation and discrimination, with each race having its own education system; (b) there were very few Africans who were educated in the colonial period, and as a result by the time of independence there was a critical shortage of the middle and high level skilled manpower; (c) most of the educated Africans had received only primary education which was of low quality; (d) low school enrolments in African schools, and as a result by the time of independence the majority of the population were without education; (e) the system had created geographical as well as urban-rural disparities due to uneven distribution of educational opportunities. The colonial system had favoured urban and cash crop producing areas than rural areas; (f) disparities in school enrolment between boys and girls. The colonial system had enrolled more boys than girls in its school system, and as a result there were very few girls who had been educated during the colonial period; and (g) the colonial school curriculum was irrelevant to the needs of the new independent nation. These problems have greatly influenced educational developments in the second phase after independence in 1961. These problems became critical and thorny issues to be resolved by the independent Tanzanian government, as the government sought to use the education system for national development and reconstruction. We now turn to discuss the second phase of educational developments steering in Tanzania from 1961-1990.

## **2.2 The Independence Period: National Development, Socialism and Education for Self-reliance 1961-1990**

The educational developments and problems emanating from the colonial period discussed above have greatly influenced educational developments and policy reforms that were undertaken and implemented in the second phase of Tanzanian educational development soon after independence in 1961. With the attainment of independence, the Tanzanian government intended to break away from the colonial economic and political legacy and thus lead Tanzania to a new form of political, economic and social development. With the idea of achieving rapid economic development, education was called on to play a key role in promoting social change in Tanzania. Toward that end, the educational system was expected to foster the formation of a 'new person', a more critically conscious and participatory citizen motivated by collective goals, and also to promote the transmission of knowledge and skills necessary to overcome decades of underdevelopment and set the nation on the path of self-sustaining growth. However, as we have already indicated above, the independent government had inherited a colonial education system that had a host of problems. In this case, the education system had to be reformed and aligned to the new Tanzania national development objectives. Two specific sub-periods of reforming the education system can be seen in this second phase. The first and a brief one was from 1961 – 1967, which was devoted to restructuring the education system to get rid of the inequalities of the colonial education system, particularly its racial segregation. The second period 1967-1990, saw a more radical reform in all facets of government operation in which case Tanzania declared itself a socialist country building equality, national unity, and national identity and rapid economic development. In this regard education was regarded as one of the key factors to achieve fast political, economic and social development within socialist lines. Below we explain the salient features of the two sub periods.

### *The first sub-period 1961-1967*

As already indicated above, at the time of independence in 1961, Tanzania inherited a colonial education system, which was full of defects, and more notable and notorious was its racial segregation. Therefore, in order to address the defects of the colonial

education system, the independent government passed the Education Act of 1962 to regulate the provision of education (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1962). The major changes that resulted from the Education Act of 1962 included the following: (a) abolition of racial discrimination in the provision of education and the racially segregated educational systems were unified; (b) the new education system operated according to one national curriculum; (c) access to education was permitted in all educational institutions, irrespective of race and religion. It became unlawful to prevent a child from being admitted to any school on racial basis. The new policy catered for all learners irrespective of their racial, religious or economic background origins. This meant a step forward toward equal opportunities for all children; (d) the ordinance also provided for firmer government control of all schools. In this regard, the government extended its influence on voluntary agency schools by exerting supervision over primary schools, control of the selection of students and maintenance of discipline in secondary schools and teachers' colleges, and control of the salaries, working conditions, recruitment and posting of teachers to all voluntary agency institution; (e) private school could still be registered provided they fulfilled government conditions for the provision of education, which was always centrally planned; and (f) the ordinance also established new governance structures: local education authorities, school committees and boards for managing primary education in their local areas (see Buchert, 1994; Cameron & Dodd, 1970; Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995). In general this period is characterised by the cosmetic reforming of the colonial system with the main purpose being to get rid of the racial segregation in the education system. As a consequence the government established one integrated education system and abolition of racial discrimination in provision of education in order to allow every Tanzanian, irrespective of his colour, to gain equal access to the education system

#### *The second sub-period: 1967-2004*

However, by 1967, it became clear to the government that the above mentioned initial reforms in the education system were inadequate in attaining the development objectives of the independent nation. Therefore, in order to fulfil the development goals of the new independent Tanzania and achieve faster economic and social

development, the government initiated radical reforms of the education system in 1967, which affected its structure, organization, access criteria and contents. The government took the following strategies and measures to resolve the above mentioned education problems:

- (a) Massive expansion of the education system to produce the much needed middle and high level manpower and making education available to the majority of Tanzanians for the purpose of achieving fast economic and social development
- (b) Instituted radical reform in the school curriculum to achieve relevance of education to the independent Tanzania national manpower needs and making education support the new national economic and social development objectives
- (c) Increased role of the government in financing education so as to achieve the intended objective of making education easily accessible to the majority of Tanzanians

Below we explain in detail the implementation of the three strategies mentioned above.

### **2.2.1 Massive expansion of the educational system**

Having realized that education was a vital instrument of development, the independent Tanzanian government guided by its policy of education and self-reliance, which entailed egalitarian policy and social equality; it initiated a rapid expansion of education system. The expansion of the education system was intended to achieve, among others, the following objectives:

- (a) increasing the number of educated skilled middle and high level manpower considered critical for managing the national political, economic and administrative infrastructure.

- (b) attainment of universal primary education by 1977.
- (c) increasing educational opportunities to previously deprived groups, including women, and deprived geographical areas; groups that have been educationally marginalized during the colonial period.

To meet the above objectives of producing high-level manpower and make education available to the majority of Tanzanians, the independent Tanzanian government embarked on a massive expansion of the education system. The government had targeted to achieve self-sufficiency in educated manpower by 1980. Although expansion was directed at all levels of the education system, however, large-scale expansion occurred at the primary school level. *Primary school education* recorded an impressive expansion in this period to the extent that almost every village in Tanzania had its own primary school. The government declaration of universal and compulsory education for every school age child in this period and the abolition of primary school fees in 1973 resulted in increased enrollments and thus vast expansion of the primary school education system. Entry year to school was changed from five to seven years so as to enable pupils to complete primary education at a higher age of fourteen years and thus be able to contribute and be productive in society after school. The year 1977 was targeted for the achievement of universal primary education (UPE). The impressive quantitative effect of the government priority to primary education is testified by the increased number of pupil enrolments in this period. Enrollment in primary schools increased from 740,991 in 1966 to 1,954,442 in 1976 to 3,530,622 by 1981, and dropped slightly to 3,160,145 in 1981, and by 1989 the enrollment increased again to 3,252,934 pupils. In the case of *secondary education* there was also a marked increase in student enrollment in support of manpower planning policy. In 1964, secondary school fees were abolished and this was an important step towards providing more equal access to secondary schooling for all children. The number of secondary school students increased from 23,836 in 1966 to 39,947 in 1976, dropped slightly to 38,292 in 1981, and rose again to 42,322 in 1985, and by 1989 enrollment increased again to 62,822 students. The number of students in *teacher training* also increased in this period. The fast expansion of the education system at primary and

secondary school level necessitated also expansion of teacher training. This resulted in the increase in the establishment of Teacher Training Colleges, which increased from 20 in 1967 to 40 by 1975. Enrolment of teacher trainees also increased from 5,011 in 1966 to 9,471 in 1976, to 13,138 in 1981, and then dropped slightly to 12,311 in 1985 and by 1989 enrollment increased to 13,263 teacher trainees. In the case of *tertiary and university education* there was also a marked increase in student enrollment in support of manpower planning policy. The number of students in the local universities rose from 997 in 1966 to 2,828 in 1976, to 2,952 in 1981, to 3,414 in 1985 and by 1989 enrollment increased to 3,327 students.

In the process of massive expansion of the education system, the government also put up strong concerted efforts to remove inequalities and balance educational provision across geographical areas and gender. According to Buchert (1994) the adopted policies of universal primary education and direct access to higher education for women promoted regional and female participation. Certain patterns of inequality, nevertheless, remained. In formal education, female participation was highest at the primary education level. At the post-primary levels, particularly beyond form IV, females were never represented in equal proportions to males. While in 1961 constituting 40 percent of standard I and 23 percent of standard VII, in 1981 females accounted for 47.7 per cent of the total enrolment in standard I-VII (49.8 per cent of standard I and 43.3 per cent of standard VII). At the secondary level, female enrolment in 1961 equaled 29 per cent of form I but only 9 per cent of form VI. By 1981, it had increased to 34 percent of total public and private enrolment in forms I-VI, constituting 33.6 percent of form I in public schools (38.3 per cent in private) and 22.9 per cent of form VI in public schools (14.3 per cent in private). The female student population was concentrated in traditional female subject areas. In the diversified secondary schools which were created in the early 1980s, well over half of the girls attended domestic science and commerce but only very few the technical stream. The number of female undergraduates increased from 8 percent of the total in 1961 to 24 percent in 1981 (Buchert, 1994, p. 113). Regional and socio-economic disparities in education were, like gender inequality, positively affected by the comprehensive mass education efforts. At the secondary level, free secondary



education and the introduction of a quota system which allocated form I places in relation to the total number of primary school leavers in each region and district, in addition to promoting relative female participation, evened out the regional and socio-economic proportionate enrolment for form I (Buchert, 1994).

### **2.2.2 Radical reforms in the content of education (curriculum)**

With the attainment of independence and the urgent need to realise its own vision of a new Tanzanian society, as well as making education relevant to the new economic and social development needs of Tanzania, curriculum reform became a much more vital issue. There were several reasons for this: (a) first in search for national identity there was the natural desire to Africanize the curriculum so as to reflect traditional values and culture; (b) the emphasis on education as an investment, and as the producer of the educated high level manpower required for the rapid advance and modernization of the economy, demanded a change in the content of education; and (c) Tanzania aspirations to be a socialist country meant change of colonial and capitalist values, and creation of new values through education; and to achieve this object education content had to be changed (Cameron & Dodd, 1970). Therefore, the government outlined the new purpose and objectives of education, which were contained in the Education for self-reliance policy document of 1967. The document clearly stated that the education provided by Tanzania for the students of Tanzania must serve the purposes of Tanzania. It must encourage the growth of socialist values we aspire to. It must encourage the development of a proud, independent and free citizenry, which relies upon itself for its own development, and which knows the advantage and problems of cooperation. It must ensure that the educated know themselves to be an integral part of the nation and recognise the responsibility to give greater service for the greater opportunities they have had. Let our children be educated to be members and servants of the kind of just and egalitarian future to which Tanzania aspires (Nyerere, 1967). Having in this way given full recognition to education as a powerful instrument of radical social change, the independent government called for major changes in both content of education (curriculum) and methods of teaching including evaluation of students.

The content of the *primary school curriculum* was gradually adapted to Tanzania's status as an independent state and to its expressed socialist political ideology. The curriculum was Africanized, politicized and directed to developing needed manpower skills in accordance with the manpower development strategy. Primary school subjects included: Kiswahili, arithmetic, English, reading, writing, history, geography, technical and practical skill subjects, agriculture and general science subjects. Subjects such as history, geography and citizenship were made relevant to Tanzanian society, that is, the content was changed to reflect a proper African and Tanzanian perspective and included material on local conditions and problems. Kiswahili was designated in 1964 as the national language. In 1967, Kiswahili became the medium of instruction in all primary schools. At the *secondary school level*, the curriculum was equally Africanized. Kiswahili became a compulsory subject for all secondary schools in 1964. English continued to be used as the medium of instruction for secondary education. In accordance with the vocational diversification programme, each secondary school specialized in one of the following specializations: agriculture, domestic science, commerce, or technical subjects. Secondary school curriculum consisted of the following subjects: history, geography, political education, civics, Kiswahili, English, mathematics, physics, chemistry, integrated physical science and domestic science. At the higher education levels, including colleges and universities, political education and development studies were introduced as subjects in order to familiarize students with the history and principals of socialism and the Tanzanian interpretation of Socialism and Self Reliance. These were for the purpose of orienting the students to the understanding and appreciation of historical realities and culture of Tanzania and construction of a socialist nation (see Buchert, 1994; Cameron & Dodd, 1970).

Curriculum change did not only affect the content of education, but also entailed changes in teaching methods and forms of student evaluation. The teaching and evaluation methods were also changed to include varied teaching methods and diverse methods of evaluation. Student evaluation in primary and secondary schools, which became as a mode of selecting mechanism for secondary schools and for university and teacher training, consisted of three components, which included: (a) evaluating

students progress by means of national examinations, (b) evaluating students daily progress in class through exercises and tests, and (c) evaluating students daily progress through observing his behaviour, attitudes and his devotion to duty. Curriculum reform as the independent nation saw it, was not however, merely a matter of content and method but of national spirit and ethos. As all these changes in textbooks and teaching techniques took place, more attention was paid to inculcating a feeling of national unity and purpose in schools by introducing of self-help schemes, open days, and parades. Schools were progressively made part of the whole nation-building efforts, in the process, attempts were made to associate them more closely with the general community, particularly with regard to primary schools. Work attitudes and social commitment were also promoted at the post-primary education level by the introduction of one-year national service, which included para-military training and community development work. Students had to serve one year of national service before being employed or joining higher education institutions (see for example, Buchert, 1994; Cameron & Dodd, 1970).

### **2.2.3 Increased role of government in financing education**

'In its agency desire to prepare the people for their effective roles in bringing about the intended development objectives, and in consistent with its socialist policy and the drive to produce educated manpower, the government met all the costs of providing essential social services, including education' (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995). Therefore, like government expenditure overall, total expenditure on education was increasing during this period when education was considered to be a leading force in the social change process. Thus, since independence through the decades of 1970s and 1980s, the general approach adapted by the government in the provision of education was that of centralized state monopoly; in which case the government became the major provider of education at all levels, from primary through higher and vocational education. During this period massive progress was made both quantitatively and qualitatively in the education sector. The reforms of education by the independent government were based on an increased overall priority of the education sector during 1961-1990 compared with the time before independence. In this regard, Buchert (1994, p. 103) provides statistical evidence that shows the follow-

ing budget allocation to education:. The education sector share of the monetary GDP was increasing during 1962/63-1975/76 (from 2.7 percent) and largely retained in 1980/81 (5.3 percent), although it was declining as a proportion of total government expenditure. By far the larger part of educational expenditures derived from the recurrent rather than the development budget. As a percentage of total expenditure, recurrent expenditures on education peaked in 1966/67 (23 per cent), followed by a falling trend to an estimated 18 per cent in 1980/81. Of the development budget, education was allocated its largest share/proportion in 1962/63 (13 per cent) and its lowest in 1980 (6.5 per cent). In general, these trends indicate that public spending for education in real terms has declined over time, with the downward trend being especially pronounced in the second half of 1980s. However, it can be concluded that education seems to have been primarily financed by the Tanzanian Government during this period (Buchert, 1994).

In summary, the educational reforms during this period led to widespread expansion of the system compared with the colonial period. It can thus be pointed out that during this period Tanzania did successfully gain impressive progress in provision of education at least when measured from quantitative terms. Education was intended to play a primary integrating role in the development of independent Tanzania. On the assumption that an educated population was crucial to the promotion of political stability and economic development, the Tanzanian government initiated educational reforms to redress the situation inherited at independence in 1961. These policy measures greatly expanded access to education for the majority of Tanzanians, especially at primary school level. These policy measures also enabled Tanzania to gain self-sufficiency in high and middle-level level manpower requirements that was needed to run the political administrative system. These policies also helped to provide education to a large majority of the Tanzanian population that had greatly contributed to the economic and social development of the country. However, in a situation of rapid expansion, the quality of primary education was badly affected because of the sheer lack of infrastructure and the unavailability of sufficient and satisfactory inputs into the educational process, for instance trained teachers, book supplies and other equipment (Buchert, 1994). Furthermore, due to the adverse

economic problems that were encountered by Tanzania during the 1980s, the government encountered difficulties in financing and managing the basic services that had been put in place. As a consequence, the impressive investment and accomplishments of the 1970s could not be sustained and by the end of the 1970s decade and into the 1980s the system that had promised rapid improvements in human welfare had not met its ambitious coverage targets and progress (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995; United Republic of Tanzania, 1992). As a result of the severe financing pressures the quality of the education provided declined, coupled with problems of many eligible children who were not going to school at all, enrolling late, or dropping out of school (increased rates of dropouts). These problems became critical and thorny issues to be resolved by the government in the decades of the 1990s and beyond. We now turn to discuss the third phase of educational developments steering in Tanzania from 1990-2004.

### **2.3 The Present Period: High Quality Education for Scientific and Technological Development and Global Economic Competitiveness 1990-2004**

The educational developments and problems emanating from the previous two periods discussed above covering the period from 1900-1990 have greatly influenced educational developments and policy reforms that are currently being undertaken and implemented in the present third phase of Tanzanian educational development, which started in 1990. However apart from the national or domestic issues and problems, the international and global context has also greatly influenced educational events in Tanzania in present period. In this regard Therkildsen (2000, p. 1) points out that the current educational reforms taking place in Tanzania are driven by both domestic forces and external influences. An important domestic rationale for reform of primary education is the widespread dissatisfaction with its quality. There is agreed notion that the quality of education provided is declining and that it is regarded low by many educationalists (Therkildsen, 2000). With regard to the international context, which provided Tanzania with both challenges and experiences to draw from, there was the change agenda and reform initiatives taken by many countries across the world with the goal of improving the quality of education to make them capable of producing

high quality labor force needed for global economic competitiveness. Thus, from the international perspective the educational reforms in Tanzania are undertaken on the rationale that Tanzania needs to compete in the competitive global economy, which is highly depended on quality labor force. In this regard, the Tanzanian government clearly stated in its Development Vision 2025 document that an increasing significant external challenge, that necessitates current educational reforms, comes from a desire for Tanzania to proactively take a place in the new global arena with the consequent demand for individual and national human resource development geared towards modern technological advancement (United Republic of Tanzania, 1999). This is consistent with what Guthrie and Koppich (1993) had long noted that the impetus of these global education reforms, though based on several reasons or rationales, but one reason for reform is based on the idea that, modern manufacturing and service industry techniques demand a workforce capable of making informed decisions. Highly developed human intelligence is increasingly viewed as a nation's primary economic resource, and it is needed in large amounts. It is the human-capital imperative that is driving widespread national education-reform efforts. Everywhere the objective is the same: expand the supply of human capital such that a nation is capable of technological innovation (Guthrie & Koppich, 1993).

Thus, as Tanzania prepared to enter into the twenty-first century, it had high hopes of achieving greater political, economic and social development. This intention was made explicit by Tanzania through its Development Vision 2025, which had as its major goal to achieve fast scientific and technological development. Consistent with this vision, education was considered as the crucial factor in producing highly skilled labour force required to achieve fast scientific and technological development. In this regard, the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 states that education should be treated as a strategic agent for mind set transformation and for the creation of a well educated nation sufficiently equipped with the knowledge needed to competently and competitively solve the development challenges which face the nation. In this light, the education system should be restructured and transformed qualitatively with a focus on promoting creativity and problem solving (United Republic of Tanzania, 1999, p. 19). But with this vision in mind, Tanzania realised that it had too many problems in

its education system. In order to go forward, it had to resolve the education problems, in order to guarantee the contribution of the education system to national development. This then necessitated a review of the economic and social sector structure and performance to see problems and get proposals of rejuvenating the economy and education system to make them be competitive regionally and globally. The review of the education system carried out in 1992 by the Tanzanian government and the World Bank identified, among others, the following general problems in the education sector; inequality in access to education, inefficiency of the system and wastage, poor school environment, poor quality graduates and poor teacher qualifications. More specifically the Social Sector Review (United Republic of Tanzania, 1992) noted the following bottlenecks in the primary education system:

- Overcrowding of classrooms, shortage of basic supplies (textbooks and teaching aids) and lack of sufficiently qualified and motivated teachers,.
- Enrolments in primary schools had been declining. Gross enrollments fell from 93% in 1983 to 73,5% by 1990,
- A high population of primary students drop out of school. For example, among the 1978/84 cohorts, 28% of the students dropped out before completing primary education. At std. VII among the 1983/89 cohort, 47% dropped out,
- Though most children attend some primary school, data suggest that quality of that education is inadequate. Furthermore, official illiteracy rates have risen from 10% in 1986 to 16% in 1992,
- Girls appear to be somewhat disadvantaged in terms of the primary school education they receive. Although girls' enrollment rate is approximately equal to boys', girls are somewhat less likely than boys to complete primary education.

Therefore, as a consequence of the above issues and problems in the education system, as well as to fulfil the Tanzania development goals of achieving scientific and technological development and competitive economy in the international scene, the government took the following strategies and measures to resolve the above mentioned education problems:

- (a) The government re-examined its previous macro-economic policy measures and ultimately formulated new economic and educational policy reforms and interventions that are both appropriate and relevant to the current Tanzanian political and economic conditions and that are also likely to stimulate growth of school enrollments and promote provision of quality education, access and equity.
- (b) The government called for decentralization of education and school management towards a new model of school-based management (or local management of schools) which empowers school heads and school committees with more decision making powers and enhances active participation of parents and the community in management of schools; school based management is considered to be a model which is likely to promote provision of quality education, access and equity.

Below we explain in detail the implementation of the two policy strategies and interventions mentioned above.

### **2.3.1 Re-examination of previous macro-economic policy measures and formulation of new macro-economic and educational policy strategies and interventions**

Thus, in addressing the economic and educational problems, the government re-examined the development plans and policies of the 1960s (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995). In the examination process, the government drew some insights of the change process from the international experiences where numerous governments faced with similar problems have reformed their economic and educational systems to achieve educational quality. Thus, taking cognisance of international experiences, the Tanzanian government re-examined its previous economic and educational plans and policies, and formulated new economic and education policies to guide provision of social services, including education. The government previous economic and education policies had gone to a greater extent of having monopoly in the financing and control of education. This phenomenon is not surprising for it was a necessary



strategy that after independence, the government had to undertake national reconstruction and provision of education and social services to the majority of the people who were denied these services during the colonial period. But now with changed circumstances, the government realised its huge burden of providing education and other social services by itself, which in fact had resulted in the deterioration of the quality of the services provided. Thus, the government reviewed the shortcomings of previous policies and realised change of policy was needed in order to guarantee better provision of educational services. As a consequence, at the macro-economic level the government liberalized the economy and invited the partnership of the private sector in the provision of social services including education. The macro-economic policies revolve around issues of rationalization of investment, liberalization, entrepreneurship, self-reliance, enhancement and integration of development efforts. Most of these policies reflect a shift from the policy emphasis of the 1960s to the early 1980s, which placed strong reliance on government control of the economy and the public sector. It is this shift of emphasis, which has also influenced the form and direction of the education and training policies.

Having defined the macro-economic policy that would govern the conduct and provision of social services, the government then set out the micro-policy direction that would guide the conduct and provision of the education sector now and in the future. Thus, in reference to the Education Sector the policy reforms that are designed to guide the provision, management and administration of education in Tanzania at the present period, are enumerated in the Ministry of Education and Culture (1995) document titled, Education and Training Policy. The Education and Training policy spells out the major thrust of the education system in the present educational reform process. Consistent with the broad macro economic policy, the thrust of the policy initiative is partnership, cooperation, widening fiscal support, decentralization, quality and equity, holistic and integrative approaches, enhanced access, improved relevance, better coordination, gender balance, economies of scale, improved funding, consideration of under-privileged groups and greater emphasis on the development of

science and technology. From the foregoing shift of emphasis, the Education and Training Policy intends to:

- (a) Decentralize education and training by empowering regions, districts, communities, and educational institutions to manage and administer education and training,
- (b) Improve the quality of education and training through strengthening in-service teacher training programmes; the supply of teaching and learning materials; rehabilitation of school/college physical facilities; teacher trainers' programmes; research in education and training, and streamlining the curriculum, examinations and certification,
- (c) Expand the provision of education and training through liberalization of the provision of education and training, and the promotion and strengthening of formal and non-formal, distance and out-of-school education programmes,
- (d) Promote access and equity through making access to basic education available to all citizens as a basic right; encouraging equitable distribution of educational institutions and resources; expanding and improving girls' education; screening for talented, gifted and disabled children so that they are given appropriate education and training, and developing programmes to ensure access to education to disadvantaged groups,
- (e) Broaden the base for the financing of education and training through cost sharing measures involving individuals, communities, NGOs, parents and end-users, and through the inclusion of education as an area of investment in the Investment Promotion Act.

The government expressed high hopes that these new policy strategies and interventions that involved partnership between the government and the private sector, as well the atmosphere of market competition would stimulate and enhance both

economic development and increased school enrolments and enhance provision of quality education. Consistent with these macro-economic and educational policy changes, and the desire of the government to attain educational quality, decentralization of education and school management has been considered as one of the main strategy for attaining the goal of quality education. Below we explain in detail the decentralization of education initiatives in Tanzania.

### **2.3.2 Decentralization of education and school management towards a new model of school-based management (or local management of schools)**

One of the major reforms in education in Tanzania at the present period is the decentralization of education and school management to the district and the school level. According to the Ministry of Education and Culture policy documents, decentralization and transfer of the responsibilities for school management from the central ministry to the districts and schools lies at the heart of the Local Government Reform Programme, which forms the primary mechanism for the decentralization and devolution of power to local levels. Together with these responsibilities goes an obligation for schools to be more accountable for the ways in which they execute these newly acquired functions (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2001). The reforming of education and school management in Tanzania is consistent with the assumption that school based management and thus school based decision making is likely to be an appropriate school management structure that will help to effectively address most of the education problems related to education quality, access and equity. The school is very much aware of its local problems and that it can easily address these problems at the local level using school and community human and material resources. Therefore, making schools the focal point for decision-making provides the best way to deliver education as well as to achieve quality education, access and equity. The reforming of management and governance of schools being attempted in Tanzania is in many ways similar to initiatives introduced in other education systems, across the world, notably United Kingdom and Ireland. This similarity is not surprising, since the main policy platform on which the Tanzanian school management reform is built, 'the Local Government Reform Programme' is heavily based on an exported model of school restructuring from the United Kingdom

and Ireland. Thus, the international experience has to a greater extent provided a background scenario on how Tanzania can also try to reorganize its school management towards a new model of school-based management. Below we explain the definition of the concept of school-based management and try to provide the type or form of school based management being established in Tanzania.

The concept of 'school-based management' is a term that has now become a common feature when one talks about decentralization of education and school management. According to Malen, Ogawa, and Kranz (1990, p.1) school-based management 'can be viewed conceptually as a formal alteration of governance structure, as a form of decentralization that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement and relies on the redistribution of decision-making authority as the primary means through which improvements might be stimulated and sustained'. Another conceptualization of school based management is provided by Candoli (1995, p. xi) as 'a way of forcing individual schools to take responsibility for what happens to the children under their jurisdiction and attending their schools. The concept suggests that, when individual schools are charged with total development of educational programmes aimed at serving the needs of the children in attendance at that particular school, the school personnel will develop more cogent programmes because they know the students and their needs'. The reasons for advocating school-based management are many and varied. However, one line of reasoning, based largely on school effectiveness research, suggests that improvements in student achievement are most likely to be gained in schools which are relatively autonomous, possess a capacity to resolve their own problems, and in which strong leadership, particularly by the principal, is a characteristic (Caldwell, 1994).

In spite of the fact that a focus on school-based management is assumed to be a basis for improving the quality of education the term school-based management may, however, be applied to a number of different arrangements, all of which concentrate management functions at the school level. The actual distribution, pattern and exercise of these functions at the school level may vary considerably from one country to another. Consequently, it is important to understand the characteristics of different

types of school-based management (SBM), so that we can characterize the type of school-based management being attempted in Tanzania. Research literature has identified at least four types of school-based management that have been implemented in different countries across the world (Leithwood & Menzies, 1998). The SBM types include: Administrative Control SBM (principal decides), Professional Control SBM (teachers' decide), Community Control SBM (parent/community members decide), Balanced Control SBM (parents and teachers as equals decides). Furthermore, Leithwood and Menzies, (1998) point out that the criteria used to identify and make a typology of the school-based management include the following:

- (a) The purpose that school-based management (SBM) is intended to serve
- (b) Basic assumptions on which it is premised
- (c) The type of decision areas, which are usually addressed
- (d) The role and membership of the site council, school board, governing board
- (e) Where the locus of decision making lies (administrators, school professionals, or community members served by the school).

Using the five criteria of identifying types of school based management, below we describe the type of school-based management that is unfolding in Tanzania. We use the term 'unfolding' in Tanzania because the school-based management in Tanzania at the moment is in transition stage, therefore not yet completed. That being the case, we only offer current trends of school-based management as they are unfolding at the present moment based on the official view and our own knowledge and experience. In other words, only a tentative picture of school-based management can be traced in Tanzania, given the limits on the present state of knowledge.

*The purpose the school-based management is intended to serve in Tanzania.*

The purpose of school-based management in Tanzania is to decentralize authority and responsibilities to school levels. The intention is to empower school heads to exercise autonomy in decision-making and to strengthen school committees such that school heads are directly answerable to their respective school committees/boards. Furthermore, school-based management intends to encourage the active participation

of various stakeholders in school affairs including: teachers, pupils, parents and the larger community. The purpose of school based management in Tanzania is contained in the Education and Training policy (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995), which clearly states that (a) the existing system whereby powers and decision making in the management and administration of education and training are heavily concentrated at the ministerial level, does not empower education managers at lower levels to exercise autonomy in decision-making. Therefore, Ministries responsible for education and training shall devolve their responsibilities of management and administration of education and training to heads of schools and institutions; (b) management and administration of education and training institutions, including primary schools, has to a large extent rested in the hands of those institutions. This system has excluded community participation and involvement in the management of schools. It is necessary to rectify this system by strengthening institutional committees and boards so that institutional heads become directly answerable to the committees/boards. In addition, parents are invaluable allies to the teachers. Where there is a good teacher-parent relationship, the development of pupils is enhanced. The success of such education and training institutions is as much the concern of parents and communities as the teachers. In a whole, the purpose of School based management in Tanzania is consistent with what Levacic (1995) had observed about decentralization, when he noted that the decentralization process worldwide has placed emphasis on the re-structuring of school management in the form of placing more decisions making powers to the school head, school committees/boards and inviting the active participation in school affairs, teachers, parents and students in deciding effective and efficient ways that schools will operate. The involvement of stakeholders at the local school level in the management of schools is also in line with the democratic principals, which advocates the involvement of people in decision making that affect their lives (Lauglo, 1995).

*Basic assumptions on which school-based management is premised.*

The basic assumption of Tanzanian school-based management is that when schools have their own power to decide, it is assumed that this is going to improve education. That is increasing school autonomy coupled with parental and more stakeholder

participation in school affairs is going to improve the quality of education provided at each school. This will result in better and improved student academic performance. It will also increase the accountability of schools to the parents and other stakeholders. The involvement of various stakeholders in decision-making at the school level can augment the flow of ideas and the sense of commitment through ownership. It is further assumed that stakeholders (including, school heads, teachers, pupils, parents and the community) who identify closely with the objectives of the school are more likely to contribute positively towards their realization. Stakeholders who are involved in school activities and are better informed about the school circumstances are more likely to willingly participate in planning resource acquisition and utilization. In the same vein Abu-Duhou, (1999, p. 109) points out that, 'the assumptions for school-based management policy is that by devolving increased responsibility and authority to schools, as well as a much higher proportion of the funds to support the achievement of policy objectives within a more explicit set of policy guidelines, and laying over the top of this arrangement an articulated performance management strategy, this will facilitate and encourage improvements in both effectiveness and efficiency in public education'. This means that the school management tasks are set according to the characteristics and needs of the school itself and therefore school members (including principals, teachers, parents, and students, etc.) have a much greater autonomy and responsibility for the use of resources to solve problems and carry out effective education activities for the long-term development of the school (Cheng, 1996, p. 44).

*Decision areas addressed at the school level.*

Consistent with decentralization of education and school management initiatives, the government has delegated a number of decision areas to school level. However, schools are expected to make their decisions within a centrally controlled system framework, which includes, a nationally controlled curriculum, levels of student attainment, process of assessment, inspection and reporting of results and financial allocation and control system. Within this national framework, primary schools have been delegated a number of decision areas including, financial decision (school budget and financial allocation), competitive tendering for services, the delivery of the

curriculum, the management of human resources, including teachers' in-service training (about ten hours a week for in-service training for teachers), training of heads of schools and school committees. Consistent with the policy of empowering schools to make their own decisions with regard to curriculum implementation, utilization of human and material resources, the government has allocated a certain amount of funds to each school (in the name of Block Grants), which covers such aspects as; administration expenses (telephone, water bills, office stationary), construction and rehabilitation of school buildings and infrastructure, purchase of teaching and learning materials, in-service training of school staff, including heads of schools, school committee members and teachers. The amount of funds allocated to each school is based on the number of pupils enrolled in the school. The funds are directly allocated to the schools.

*The role and membership of the school committee/boards.*

Following these educational and school management reforms, the Education Act of 1978 was amended to be in line with the school reform agenda as well as to give the different changes a legal mandate. Subsequently, changes were made, for example, providing additional powers to the school committees/boards, changing the composition of the school committee/boards to include pupils in the school board, and making equal gender representation in the school committee/board composition. According to the Education Act 1978 (as amended in 1995), the role of school committees/boards includes advisory, participatory powers and approving school development plans. Specifically, school committee/boards will advise the head of school on any matters pertaining to the day-to-day running of the school. Also promote better education and life of the school and initiate projects and programmes for the general progress of the school and do any other activity within its capacity. Therefore, the school committee/board (made up of elected parents, teachers, local authority appointees and co-opted members of the local community, and students) are made responsible for seeing that the school is run effectively and provides the best possible education for the pupils. Although the roles of school committees/boards are similar in primary and secondary schools, the composition of membership in terms of numbers may differ at the two levels of education. For example, according to the



Ministry of Education Circular No 14 of 2001, the total number of school committee members, for primary schools is supposed to be eleven members. The school committee membership includes five parents (elected by parents meeting, and it is from this group of five parents that the chairperson and vice-chairperson of the school committee/board are nominated), the head of the school (serves as a secretary to the committee), two teachers (the academic coordinator and project coordinator of the school), two pupils (elected by the students). The major task of the school committee/boards is to prepare the school development plan, in collaboration with the head of the school, teachers, parents and the community. The school development plan is based on the school's aims, objectives and policies, within the overall national guidelines for education. Under the present arrangement the school development plan is approved by the district education office. It then becomes a contract between the head of the school, parents and the community and the district education office. The school development plan is used in the monitoring of schools. To make these plans to be viable, training of heads of schools and school committees/boards in understanding their new roles and responsibilities has been undertaken by the Ministry of education and Culture in collaboration with the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government. According to the Ministry of Education and Culture (2001) the broad responsibilities of the school committee/boards include management, development planning, discipline and finance of institutions under their jurisdiction. However, specific responsibilities of the school committee/board include the following: (a) to sensitise and involve all parents and school staff in respect of the roles they can play in maximizing the benefits of schooling; (b) to oversee the day to day affairs of the school; (c) to work together with the head of the school and other teachers to prepare a three year whole school development plan; (d) to approve whole school development plans and budgets and submit them to the district; (e) to facilitate implementation of the central government education plans and activities; (f) to open bank accounts and efficiently and effectively manage funds received for implementation, while guaranteeing maximum accountability and transparency in the processes used; (g) to ensure safe custody of school property; (h) to prepare and submit accurate and timely progress and financial reports to the ward and district; and (i) to effectively

communicate educational information to ward and district authorities and to other local stakeholders.

*Where does the decision powers lie (administrators, school professionals, or community members served by the school)?*

The form of school-based management attempted in Tanzania fits the framework described by Leithwood and Menzies, (1998) as balanced or mixed control school-based management in which school heads, teachers and parents, as equals make decisions on the running of schools under their jurisdiction. According to Leithwood and Menzies (1998) this form of school-based management attempts to accomplish the purpose of both community control and professional control of SBM. That is, it aims to make better use of teachers' knowledge for decisions in the school, as well as to be more accountable to parents and the local community. Unlike the pure community control SBM, balanced control forms assume that professionals are willing to be quite responsive to values and preferences of parents and the local community under conditions in which parents are in a position to act as partners with schools in the education of their children. Both parents and teachers, it is assumed, have important knowledge to bring to bear on key decisions about curriculum, budget, and personnel. Site councils associated with form of SBM have decision making power, and their membership is balanced between school staff and parent/community members. Leithwood and Menzies (1998) point out that although described as a single form, the specific features of balanced or mixed control school-based management vary considerably from site to site, depending on the context of implementation.

Therefore, the school-based management being attempted in Tanzania can be characterised as a school-based management model based on 'balanced or mixed control type of school-based management' in which case the heads of schools and teachers have been given major decision making powers with regard to the day to day running of the school. This is consistent with what the Education and training policy advocated when it declared that, 'the existing system whereby powers and decision making in the management and administration of education and training are heavily concentrated at the ministerial level, does not empower education managers at lower

levels to exercise autonomy in decision-making. Therefore, Ministries responsible for education and training shall devolve their responsibilities of management and administration of education and training to heads of schools and institutions' (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995). However, in making the day-to-day decisions in the school, the heads of school and the teachers are supposed to consult their school committees/boards. Consistent with these powers, the heads of the school are directly accountable to their school committees/boards. Therefore, although the heads of schools are responsible for the day-to-day management, they are, however, held to account by the school committees/boards. According to the Education and Training Policy (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995) the heads of schools will be responsible for the coordination of the planning, provision, management, administration and quality control of education at their areas and levels of jurisdiction. However, to assist heads of schools in making viable decisions, school committees/boards have been established to advise the school heads. The Education Act of 1978 (amended in 1995) states clearly that school committees will advise the head of the school on matters pertaining to the implementation of the day-to-day activities of the school.

In summary, this chapter has described and discussed educational developments in Tanzania from the colonial period to the present time. In doing so the chapter has tried to illuminate significant educational developments, issues and problems that emerged in each of the three periods of educational steering in Tanzania. The chapter also shows the various policy measures taken by the various colonial and independent governments to address and resolve the various problems that dominated in each of the three periods. In a whole, our general objective in this chapter was to show how the previous educational developments and problems that emerged between 1961-1990 have influenced the present policies of economic liberalization and current educational reform initiatives of decentralization of education and school restructuring towards school-based management in Tanzania.

## 2.4 Conclusion

A few things can be learned which arise from the survey of educational developments and policy changes in Tanzania. First, we learn that between 1900 and 2004 Tanzania had experienced dramatic changes in its political system. The political changes were paralleled by marked shifts in educational policy, as education was first used by the German and British colonial regimes to inculcate colonial culture and produce manpower for colonial service and exploitation of Tanzanian resources and integration of Tanzania into the world capitalist economy. This was followed by the independent Tanzanian government, which aimed at setting the country on a socialist path to development, used education to create a social transformation and new social order. During this period the entire system of publicly financed and regulated schooling from primary to higher education, was viewed as an instrument of state indoctrination to create a socialist Tanzania. The present third phase Tanzanian government, armed with neo-liberal political ideology, which has led to drastic reduction in the states role in social spending, deregulation of the economy, has instituted moves to decentralise education and school management with the objective of achieving quality education. In the present third phase, which is faced with globalisation and global economic competitiveness, the state is using education as an instrument of economic development. These educational trends and policy changes are briefly summarised below:

- (a) The German and British colonial governments armed with the philosophy of political and economic domination of Tanzania, used education as an instrument of oppression and exploitation of Tanzania, which drew Tanzania into the web of global capitalist economy. Therefore, in the colonial period the colonial governments used education as a means of exploitation and domination over the African people.
- (b) The culmination of independence in 1961 and the rise of the independent Tanzanian government armed with a vision of national political, social and economic reconstruction and creating new Tanzanian goals of socialism and self-reliance, which is based on egalitarianism, equality and equity, used

education as an instrument of bringing equality and egalitarianism in the Tanzanian society. In short, during the early independence period in 1961 up to 1990 the Tanzanian government used education as tool for liberation, national development and unity, as well as, a tool for building egalitarian society where education will be used to serve society and not for exploitation. Education in this period was more oriented towards national development, egalitarianism and equity. Emphasis was on accessibility to education and education for all. The school system was strongly under central government control and steering and used as ideological instrument to bring about national unity and social cohesion. The education system was more nationally oriented to resolve national problems.

- (c) However, during the present period starting from 1990, the present Tanzanian government armed with neo-liberal policies, which typically advocate free trade and small public sectors and oppose excessive state intervention and tight market regulation, has changed the use of education from being a social and political service orientation to a more economic use and outward or internationally oriented. Thus, with the changing global political and economic scenario in which countries have to compete in global markets, the Tanzanian government is now using education as an instrument for development and building of competitive skilled manpower necessary for production of quality products for global markets. Education now is internationally oriented to attain global economic competitiveness by producing quality goods for export to global markets. The education provided at the present time is guided by market forces and metriotic issues. Education has changed from central government control and steering to decentralised education and school-based decision-making.

In summary, from this overview of Tanzanian educational developments and policy changes, we learn that in the present phase of Tanzanian educational development, the use of education has changed in the following ways: (a) the use of education has changed from a more national building and reconstruction orientation in the second

phase to a more international orientation at the present time; (b) from a social and ideological orientation in the second phase to a more political and economic one at the present time; (c) from accessibility, that is, education for all in the second phase to an orientation for quality of education in the present phase; (d) from a more ideological instrumental use in the second phase to a more economic instrumental use at the present time; and (e) from central government control and steering in the second phase to decentralised education and school management and delegation of decision-making at district and school levels.

In a whole, it can be argued that the present educational reforms being of large scale in nature and directed towards raising education quality, calls for efforts of school leaders who would orchestrate as well as guarantee the success of the change process in schools. The present research study is therefore explicitly linked and is motivated by these educational changes, and we have tried to investigate one potential form of leadership, that is, transformational leadership, which has been advocated worldwide as the kind of leadership needed by schools in the current school reform initiatives. Therefore, the current Tanzanian education policy context of school-based management (local management of schools), creates a platform on which the present study is based, as we investigate the effects of transformational leadership in the Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. The research study sets out to establish that transformational forms of leadership are also appropriate for Tanzania as the case in other countries. The success of the decentralization of education and school management and the attainment of quality education in Tanzania, which is faced with fiscal constraints and limited resources, unlike the western developed countries, is of vital importance in the current environment of global economic competitiveness. Therefore, for Tanzania to achieve quality education, effective school leadership can be seen as one of the key variables or answers to guarantee the success of the reform agenda. The form of school leadership needed in Tanzania is transformational leadership, which is the subject of the present research study.



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## CHAPTER 3

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### **Theoretical Framework: The Nature and Relationship of Transformational and Transactional Leadership to Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour**

This chapter presents the theoretical framework for the present study. First, the chapter presents the Transformational and Transactional leadership theory as developed by Burns (1978) and further elaborated by Bass (1985). Second, the chapter touches on some critical issues and problems related to transformational and transactional leadership research. Third, we offer a theoretical discussion of the other three study constructs (dependent variables); that is, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour. Fourth, we make a summary of the relationship of the study variables and lastly we provide research assumptions (expectations) that guided the present study.

#### **3.1 Transformational and transactional leadership theory**

The search for identification of those behaviours that increase a leaders' effectiveness has been a major concern for practicing managers and leadership researchers alike for the past several decades (Bass, 1985; Hughes et al., 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Yukl, 2002). This search has culminated in the recent conceptualization of transformational and transactional leadership theory (Bass, 1985, Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership theory is a prominent representative of the new theories that have occupied centre stage in leadership research in the last two decades (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Follower development and follower performance are the targeted outcomes of such leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The concepts of



transformational and transactional leadership seems to have their origins in the work of Downtown (1973) when he contrasted transformational from transactional leadership to account for differences between revolutionary, rebel, reform and ordinary leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Leithwood et al., 1996; Silins, 1994). However, systematic inquiry or research about transformational and transactional leadership in different work organizations, seems to have taken firm roots following the work of Burns (1978) who wrote a best-selling book on political leaders (Yukl, 2002). Burns's seminal work provided a solid footing on which to build the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership, and he also illustrated the meaning of these forms of leadership in many different contexts (Leithwood et al., 1996).

According to Hughes et al. (1999), Burns (1978) in his study of political leaders, focused on the differences between power versus leadership and charismatic versus non-charismatic leadership. Burns borrowed the word power and charisma from Weber (1964) to explain the power of charismatic leaders in arousing the emotions and motivation of their followers. Burns maintained that power and leadership were two distinct entities. Based on a sweeping historical analysis, Burns argued that most understanding of leadership not only overemphasised the role of power but held a faulty view of power as well (Leithwood et al., 1996). Burns (1978) claimed there were two aspects of power – motives or purposes and resources – each possessed not only by those exercising leadership but also by those experiencing it. The essence of leadership is to be found in the relationship between motives, resources, leaders, and followers. Thus, contrasting between power and leadership, Burns (1978) pointed out that power-wielders were those individuals who marshalled resources and influenced followers to behave in such a way as to accomplish their own (i.e., the power wielder's) personal goals or satisfy personal needs. These personal goals and needs are usually different from followers' goals, and power-wielders tended to see followers as things or objects to be manipulated, rather than as individuals. Thus power-wielders often saw followers as a means to an end and treated them accordingly. Examples of power-wielders might include Adolph Hitler; they used their followers to pursue their own selfish needs of power, control, and self-

aggrandizement. Leaders, on the other hand, mobilized institutional, social, or political resources in order to arouse and satisfy followers' motives. According to Burns, leadership is inseparable from followers' needs and goals. Using Burns definition, it would appear that both Khomeini and Gandhi were leaders; they mobilized followers in order to satisfy followers' needs to create a better society. From this perspective, all leaders were power-wielders, but not all power-wielders were leaders (Hughes et al., 1999). The fundamental difference between the power-wielders and leaders concerns whose needs and goals were being satisfied; power-wielders rallied followers for personal gain, whereas leaders marshalled resources for their followers' benefit (Burns, 1978).

Apart from clarifying the difference between power and leadership, Burns (1978) further clarified the concepts of charisma, transformational and transactional leadership. Burns (1978) postulated that leaders differ in a number of important ways; one distinct characteristic these leaders differ is charisma. Charisma is defined as the power of a leader to have vision of the future. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 89) a vision is 'a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization; it may be as vague as a dream or as precise as a goal or mission statement'. It serves the important purpose of articulating a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future, which is better than what now exists. Through the vision they are able to generate high levels of excitement among followers and build particularly strong emotional attachment with them. The combination of a compelling vision, heightened emotional levels, and strong personal attachments, often compels followers to put forth greater effort to meet organizational or societal changes. Many researchers consider vision to be the critical factor which differentiates transformational and transactional leaders. In this case, many researchers have viewed charisma (and therefore vision) as an important component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1978; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978). Burns (1978) maintained that anyone who articulates a compelling vision of the future, tied this vision to followers' values, worked to raise followers' standard of conduct, and ultimately caused change in a society, an organization, or an institution, was capable of being a transformational leader. According to Burns, only leaders who

manifest modal values and advance the standards of good conduct for humankind, work to achieve end values, and have a positive impact on the people whose lives they touch should be judged as transformational. Leaders not meeting the abovementioned criteria are either power-wielders or transactional leaders. (Hughes et al., 1999, p. 291).

Burns (1978) further pointed out that it is important to note that all transformational leaders are charismatic, but not all charismatic leaders are transformational. Transformational leaders are charismatic in that they are able to articulate a compelling vision of the future and form strong emotional attachments with followers. However, this vision and these relationships are aligned with followers' value systems and help followers to get their needs met. Charismatic leaders who are not transformational can convey a vision and form strong emotional bond, but they do so in order to get their own needs met. Although both charismatic and transformational leaders strive for organizational or societal change, the difference is whether the changes are for the benefit of the leader or the followers (Hughes et al., 1999, p. 291).

Thus, subsequently in his study of leadership, Burns (1978) distinguished two forms of leaders, that is, transactional and transformational leaders. He considered transformational and transactional leadership as opposite ends of the leadership continuum. Based on the ideas propounded by Burns (1978), Bass (1985) developed further the concept of transformational and transactional leadership. Whereas Burns (1978) considered transformational and transactional practices as opposite ends of the leadership continuum (essentially more and less effective forms of leadership), Bass (1985) offered a quite different conception, a 'two factor theory' of leadership: transactional and transformational forms of leadership, in his view, build on one another (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). For Bass (1985), transformational and transactional leadership comprise two conceptually independent but related dimensions of leadership. According to Burns (1978) the main distinction and which is the central feature, of transformational and transactional leadership is based on the process by which leaders motivate followers or how leaders appeal to the followers' values and emotions (Hater

& Bass, 1988; Yukl, 2002). Transactional leadership motivates followers by appealing to their self-interest and it is based on exchange relationship, whereby follower compliance is exchanged for expected rewards. For example, political leaders exchange jobs, subsidies and lucrative government contracts for votes and campaign contributions. Corporate leaders exchange pay and status for work effort. Transactional leadership may involve values but they are values relevant to the exchange process, such as honesty, fairness, responsibility, and reciprocity (Yukl, 2002). Transactional leadership entailed the exchange value of things with no mutual pursuit of higher order purpose or just enough to produce minimum organizational production. Transactional practices foster ongoing work by attending to the basic needs of organizational members. Such practices do little to bring about change in the organization. For change to occur, organizations need transformational leadership that enhances organizational members' commitment and the extra effort usually required for organizational change (Leithwood et al., 1996, p. 787).

In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership appeals to the moral values of followers in an attempt to raise their consciousness about ethical issues and to mobilize their energy and resources to reform institutions (Yukl, 2002). Thus, transformational leadership entails raising the level of motivation of their followers beyond exchange values and thus achieve higher level of performance and followers self-actualisation. Transformational leadership is development oriented for the purpose of change. Furthermore, Bass (1985) saw transformational leaders constantly interact with subordinates in order to cause organizational change. The leaders focus on the individual development of subordinates, enhances their performance, which, in turn, leads to organizational growth. Routines are transcended by illuminating and focusing on vision and mission, creating and maintaining a positive image in the minds of followers, showing confidence in and respect for followers and behaving in a manner that reinforces the vision and mission. In a whole, transformational leadership increases follower motivation and performance more than transactional leadership, but effective leaders use a combination of both types of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988). Below we explain in detail the

distinctive character of the two major types of leadership and their characteristic leader behaviours that are associated with each of the two major leadership types.

### **3.1.1 Transformational leadership**

Transformational leadership is one of the groups of models describing leadership as an influencing social interaction or process. That is a process in which one or a group of individuals influence the behaviour of other people in an organizational setting for the purpose of achieving or accomplishing organizational objectives (Yukl, 2002). Transformational leadership behaviour raises the consciousness of followers about what is important, raises their concerns for higher level needs on Maslow's hierarchy, and moves followers to transcend their self-interest for the good of the group, organization and society (Bass, 1999). Transformational leadership consists of those behaviours which are typically associated with charismatic leaders, such as having a vision of the future and causing subordinates to rethink the way in which they see the world. These behaviours are believed to result in heightened emotions, which in turn inspire followers to exert extra effort toward goal accomplishment. According to Bass and Avolio (1994) transformational leadership is seen when leaders (a) stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their own work from new perspective, (b) generate awareness of the mission and vision of the team and organization, (c) develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential, and (d) motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests towards those that benefit the group. Such total engagement (emotional, intellectual and moral) of both leaders and followers, encourages followers to develop beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Transformational leadership bonds leaders and followers within a collaborative change process that impacts on the performance of the whole organization resulting in a responsive and innovative environment. Transformational leadership augments transactional leadership by focusing on the development of followers as well as addressing the goals of the leader, follower, group and organization (Bass & Avolio, 1990). For Bass, the success of a transformational leader is demonstrated both by increased performance outcomes and the degree to which followers develop their own leadership potential and skills (Bass & Avolio, 1990). What is more, transformational

leadership has been found to enhance significantly satisfaction with and perceived effectiveness of leadership beyond levels achieved with transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Transformational leadership augment the impact of transactional leadership on employee outcome variables, because followers feel trust and respect toward the leader and they are motivated to do more than they are expected to do (Yukl, 1989, p. 272). In general, the real essence of transformational leadership is that these leaders change the basic values, beliefs and attitudes of followers so that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 108). Transformational leaders should motivate followers to perform at a level 'over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization' (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528).

Transformational leaders establish goals and objectives for performance while also emphasizing that followers should take more responsibility as appropriate, systematically assuming greater leadership responsibilities. These leaders shift from a purely transactional approach to transformational by emphasizing development as a necessary step towards maximizing performance. Development and performance are both judiciously monitored by the leader. The process of transforming followers does not involve merely empowering or delegating to followers the responsibility to take on a goal, rather, followers develop their capability to determine the appropriate course of action. Ultimately, followers are prepared to take on the responsibilities of the leaders position. Followers are developed to be leaders, not simply to improve performance or to meet a specific task objective, but to eventually take full responsibility for their own personal development and the development of others (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 241).

The heightened level of motivation is linked to four empirically derived factors of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), and these include; Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized consideration.

**(a) Charisma:** Charisma is the most important sub-component for transformational leaders who also have high self-confidence, a strong need to influence others and

super communication skills. They also articulate goals in ideological terms and engage in behaviours that create the image of success, and have an action orientation. Key behaviours on the part of the leader include articulating a vision and sense of mission, showing determination, and communicating high performance expectations. Favourable attributional effects on followers include the generation of confidence in the leader, making followers feel good in his/her presence, and the generation of strong admiration or respect. It is very difficult to define charisma without simultaneously considering some of the consequences and attributions resulting from the charismatic relationship. Members identify with a leader's vision and with the organization to which that vision pertains, and thus a high level of collective cohesion is developed. Individuals experience a heightened sense of self-efficacy as a result of their cohesion and the leader's expressions of confidence in their ability to attain the vision (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Moreover, a charismatic leader may show persistence and enthusiasm in pursuing goals over the long haul and be demanding of others through the communication of high performance expectations (Kanter, 1983; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Charisma also includes aspect of inspiration on the part of the transformational leaders. Transformational inspirational leaders can articulate in simple ways shared goals and a mutual understanding of what is appropriate and important to consider. They provide vision of what is possible and how to attain specific goals. They enhance meaning and promote a positive attitude about what needs to be accomplished.

**(b) Individualized consideration:** Individualized consideration is a key distinguishing character of transformational leadership. It means understanding and sharing in the followers' concerns and developmental needs, while treating each follower uniquely. Individualized consideration also represents an attempt on the leaders part to both recognize, understand and satisfy current needs of his or her followers, while also elevating those needs to develop followers to higher levels of potential. One way is for transformational leaders to set examples, act as role models and delegate challenging tasks. Such leaders also provide opportunities and develop organizational cultures and support growth and development, risk-taking and innovation (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leadership can affect change

directly and indirectly in followers by defining or redefining the organizational culture which followers operate. Zaleznik (1977) highlights the importance of these one-to-one interactions between leader and follower to the transformation of followers into leaders. Individualised consideration is a key part of the transformational process. It is a method of communicating timely information to followers, and providing continuous follow-up and feedback. More important, it helps to link followers' current needs to the organizational mission, while elevating those needs when the time and conditions are appropriate. Establishing congruence between the individual's and organizational needs is critical to the ability of the transformational leader to affect change at the individual, group and organizational level (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

**(c) Intellectual Stimulation:** In addition to charisma and individualized consideration, transformational leadership also involves the intellectual stimulation of followers' ideas, attitudes, and values. Through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders help followers think about old problems in new ways. Followers are supported in questioning their own beliefs, assumptions, and values and where appropriate, those of the leader, which may be outdated or inappropriate for solving the current problems confronting an organization. As a consequence of being intellectually stimulated by their leaders, followers develop their own capabilities to recognize, understand and solve future problems (Bass & Avolio, 1990). One key long-term measure of the leader's effectiveness is how capable followers are in operating without the leaders direct involvement in the problem-solving process. Thus, the benefit of intellectually stimulating leadership is the effects it has on the followers ability to solve individual, group and organizational problems. An intellectually stimulating leader arouses in followers an awareness of problems, an awareness of their own thoughts and imagination, and recognition of their beliefs and values, as well as those of other followers around them. Intellectual stimulation is seen in followers' conceptualisation, comprehension, and analysis of problems and in solutions they generate. Intellectual stimulation can occur at both the dyadic (one-to-one), group and organizational level. For example, a manager may make a suggestion about how an individual worker could develop a new or innovative approach to deal with quality problems in his or her job. A school principal may have a vision for a better school that manifests itself



in new, alternative educational programming (Sashkin & Fulmer, 1988). Leaders fulfil the role of a transforming, intellectually stimulating leader to the extent that they discern, comprehend, conceptualise, and articulate to their followers opportunities and threats facing their organizations, as well as the organizations strengths, weaknesses and comparative advantages. Followers are developed into more effective problems solvers by the process of intellectual stimulation. It is through intellectual stimulation of followers that the status quo is questioned and new creative methods for developing the organization to more effectively accomplish its mission are explored (Bass, 1985).

### **3.1.2 Transactional leadership**

Transactional leadership behaviour caters to the self-interest of followers. It uses contingent reinforcement: constructive rewards, praises and promises for follower success in meeting commitments to the leader, and negative feedback, reproof, or disciplinary action to correct failure to meet those commitments (Bass, 1999, p. 5). A transactional leader is one who operates within the existing system or culture (as opposed to trying to change them) by (1) attempting to satisfy the current needs of followers by focusing on exchanges and contingent reward behaviour and (2) paying close attention to deviations, mistakes, or irregularities and taking action to make corrections (Bass, 1985, Burns, 1978). Transactional leadership primarily consists of the administration of rewards and punishments contingent upon subordinate performance. Transactional leadership is conceptually similar to the cultural maintenance form of leadership described by Trice and Beyer (1993), which acts to strengthen existing structures, strategies, and culture in organizations. Bass (1985), Burns (1978), and Hollander (1978) agreed that reinforcement theory formed the basis of transactional leadership, which involved a social exchange between leader and follower. Transactional leaders have been characterised as focussing on basic needs and extrinsic rewards as a source of motivation and basis for management. The leader approaches the followers with some transaction in mind and obtains compliance (effort, productivity, loyalty) in exchange for expected rewards (economic, political, psychological). Transactional leaders recognize what followers need and want and recognize and clarify the roles and tasks required for followers to achieve the desired outcomes. This form of leadership may produce an efficient and productive workplace

but is limited when compared with transformational leadership. Transactional leaders do not bind leaders and followers in any enduring way and promotes a routinized non-creative but stable environment. Transactional leaders work to preserve the status quo and find support within a more mechanistic bureaucratic organization (Silins, 1994).

Transactional leadership is an essential component or basis for effectively running organizations. It is not, however, sufficient to explain the full range of effort and performance that some leaders are able to extract from their followers (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990). Transactional leadership is most effective in predicting expected levels of effort and performance that follow from agreements established between a leader and his/her followers. Levels of effort that go beyond what is expected as a consequence of the transaction cannot be accurately explained by a simple exchange of reward for effort (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Referring to Burns (1978), Bass (1985) defined the transactional military, industrial, public and educational leader as one who (a) recognizes what his/her followers want to get from their work and tries to see that followers get what they desire if their performance warrants it, (b) exchange rewards and promises of reward for appropriate levels of effort, and (c) responds to the self-interest of followers as long as they are getting the job done.

Bass (1985) also hypothesized four behaviour dimensions that underlie transactional leadership, According to Bass (1985) the relationship among the transactional dimensions beyond the fact that they are, to a varying degree, oriented toward leader-follower exchanges, is that they represent relatively low forms of leader activity and involvement (at least when compared with the transformational dimension). The four transactional dimensions from highest to lowest activity level include:

**(a) Contingent Reward** is defined as providing an adequate exchange of valued resources for follower support. Contingent reward is the most active form of transactional leadership but is less active than transformational leadership, because one can engage in contingent reward without ever being closely engaged with followers (e.g., implementing a pay for performance plan).

(b) **Active and passive management by exception** make up the other two components of transactional leadership and occur when leaders interact with followers only when standards of performance are not being met. The difference between the two factors is the degree to which leaders monitor followers' performance levels. With **active management by exception**, leaders closely monitor followers' performance and keep track of mistakes; with **passive management by exception**, leaders may not even be aware of problems until informed by others and generally fail to intervene until serious problems occur. Moreover, because leaders exhibiting these behaviours only interact with followers during times of substandard performance, these interventions often consist of negative feedback or punishment (Hughes et al., 1999). Both active and passive management by exception involve enforcing rules to avoid mistakes (Bass, 1997).

(c) **Laissez-faire leadership**: this leadership factor is associated with behaviour whereby leaders avoid leadership duties and responsibilities, fail to make decisions, are absent when needed and fail to follow up on requests.

In summary, based on the above discussions, it can be concluded that the actions taken by leaders that change the behaviour of followers can be examined at two levels (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The first level of change can be handled adequately by viewing leadership as an exchange process, a transactional relationship in which followers' needs are met if their behaviour satisfies the agreement or contract with the leader. But a higher level of change and development calls for something distinguishable from such first order exchanges; this higher level of change is produced by transformational leaders. Despite little interest prior to the 1980s by empirically-oriented behavioural scientists, transformational leadership has now been systematically observed in varying degrees at all organizational levels in industrial, government, military and educational organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Geijsel et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 1996). In more recent research on transactional and transformational leadership, both constructs of leadership have been shown to exist to some degree at all hierarchical levels of profit, non-profit and military organizations. According to Bass and Avolio (1990, p. 234) transformational

leaders have been identified at top of organizations as well as supervisory project directors at the lowest level of management. Often, and in different circumstances, both transactional and transformational leadership has been exhibited by the same leader. Bass and Avolio (1990, p. 247) point out that contrary to popular belief, the presence of transformational leadership behaviour does not necessarily inhibit a leader from being transactional, nor the reverse. In fact, there are numerous instances in prior research where leaders have been rated highly on both leadership constructs. Therefore, both transformational and transactional leadership independently contribute to the development of organizational culture and climate that is more receptive to innovation and risk-taking. As with individual follower behaviour, the combination of transformational and transactional leadership is likely to be a key factor in the successful development of organizational effectiveness. A key point is that using full range of leadership behaviours associated with effective transformational and transactional leadership is a more effective strategy than using any one in isolation (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 257).

### **3.1.3 Measurement of transformational and transactional leadership: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)**

In order to empirically measure the Transformational and transactional Leadership behaviours, Bass (1985) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ is used to assess the extent to which leaders exhibit transformational and transactional leadership behaviours and the extent to which followers were satisfied with their leader and believed the leader was effective. The MLQ has since then been modified and improved overtime based on both the experiences of field studies and from opinions of other researchers who used the MLQ. The theoretically distinguished dimensions of the MLQ have also been empirically tested by a number of researchers using a variety of samples drawn from different organizations in both non-educational organizations and educational organizations. In non-educational organizations the MLQ has been tested in the business and military organizations (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990, Hater & Bass, 1988), in health service organizations (Bycio et al., 1995) and in the petroleum industry (Podsakoff et al., 1990). In educational organizations the MLQ has also been tested (Bogler, 2001; Koh

et al., 1995; Silins, 1994). With slight differences all these researches have empirically confirmed the MLQ factor scales and behaviours associated with transformational and transactional leadership facets as derived by Bass (1985; for detailed discussion of the MLQ see Avolio et al., 1999). Although the original version of the MLQ has undergone a number of modifications over the past 15 years, the MLQ basically assesses three transformational and four transactional leadership factors (see for example, Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988; and section 3.1.5 on methodological reflections).

**(a) Transformational leadership**

Based on empirical research, (Bass, 1985; and later Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988), the MLQ measures the following three dimensions of transformational leadership:

- *Charismatic leadership*: the extent to which leaders are a role model for followers and inspire those around them including practices aimed at creating attractive visions of future states, elevating follower goals and inspiring enthusiasm and optimism. This dimension consists of two theoretically distinguished dimensions: Idealised influence and Inspirational motivation (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Although these two dimensions have been distinguished theoretically as separate dimensions, research have shown that they are strongly correlated and that the distinction between these two dimensions of transformational leadership could not be empirically confirmed. Because of these results, idealised influence and inspirational motivation are often conceptualised as one charismatic leadership dimension in a lot of research into transformational leadership.
- *Intellectual stimulation*: the extent to which the leader's vision and those behaviours that increase follower's understanding of problems they face. Transformational leaders use intellectual stimulation to point out problems in the current situation and contrast them with their vision of the future.
- *Individualized consideration*: the extent to which leaders treat followers as individuals and how much of mentoring or coaching orientation leaders have

for followers. This entails how much leaders give their followers personal attention, coaching, personal advice and opportunities to develop.

### **(b) Transactional leadership**

Bass (1985) and his associates (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988) also hypothesized four behaviour dimensions that underlie transactional leadership. As already said, the relationship among the transactional dimensions beyond the fact that they are, to a varying degree, oriented toward leader-follower exchanges, is that they represent relatively low forms of leader activity and involvement (at least when compared with the transformational dimension). Therefore, the MLQ measures the following four dimensions of transactional leadership:

- *Contingency reward*: the extent to which leaders set goals, make rewards on performance, obtain necessary resources, and provide rewards when performance goals are met.
- *Active management by exception*: the extent to which leaders closely monitor followers' performance and keep track of mistakes.
- *Passive management by exception*: the extent to which leaders may not be aware of problems until informed by others and generally fail to intervene until serious problems occur.
- *Laissez-faire leadership*: the extent to which leaders avoid responsibility, fail to make decisions, are absent when needed, or fail to follow up on requests.

#### **3.1.4 The augmentation hypothesis**

Bass (1985) proposed a model for the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership. One of the fundamental propositions in Bass (1985) model of transformational and transactional leadership is that transformational leadership will augment transactional leadership in predicting effects on follower satisfaction and performance. Specifically, in statistical terms, transformational leadership should account for unique variance in ratings of performance (or other outcomes) above and beyond that accounted for by active transactional leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass &

Avolio, 1990). In non-educational and educational organizations the augmentation hypothesis has been tested and confirmed (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Bycio et al., 1995; Curphy, 1992; Hater & Bass, 1988; Koh et al., 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al., 1990; Silins, 1994; Waldman et al., 1990). In these investigations, different subjective and objective performance criteria were used. In each case, transformational leadership added significantly to the prediction of performance, thus augmenting transactional leadership behaviours. Howell and Avolio (1993) also report that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting levels of innovation, risk-taking and creativity.

According to Bass and Avolio (1990) the results of the above-cited research studies demonstrate a fundamental point emphasized by Bass's (1985) model of leadership, which suggests that transactional leadership provides a broad basis for effective leadership, but a greater amount of effort, effectiveness and satisfaction is possible from transactional leadership if augmented by transformational leadership. Because studies in the west confirm the augmentation hypothesis we have every reason to believe that the same results might be found in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. Therefore, we made an assumption that transformational leadership factors will augment transactional leadership factors in predicting outcomes in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools.

### **3.1.5 Some critical issues and problems related to the transformational and transactional leadership research**

It has been pointed out that over the last 15 to 20 years, the definitions of transformational and transactional leadership have remained relatively consistent (Goodwin, Wofford, & Whittington, 2001). The general proposition related to two styles of leadership and their relationship with subordinate, leader, and organizational outcomes are that transformational leaders when compared to transactional and laissez-faire leaders were shown to have subordinates who report greater satisfaction and more often exert extra effort, and have higher performing work groups and receive higher ratings of effectiveness and performance (see, for example, Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992, Hater & Bass, 1988; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Yammarino, Spangler,

& Bass, 1993). However, some researchers have pointed out that although Bass (1985) has demonstrated that transformational leadership is a useful concept, which can be operationalized in the context of organizations, there are several problems which make careful examination of the results obtained with the MLQ necessary (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Goodwin et al., 2001; Yukl, 1989). Some of the critical issues and problems in transformational leadership research vacillate around the following issues, which include: problems with the MLQ structure, that is, incorporation of behaviours and attributions in the same scale, strong correlation between transformational leadership factors and a transactional leadership factor of contingent reward, lack of distinction between passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership and problems with individualized consideration leadership dimension. These issues are briefly discussed below.

First, researchers have pointed out that Bass's framework for examining transformational and transactional leadership has produced an impressive array of findings over the last decade (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Transformational leadership has been shown to play an important part in many of the outcomes that have traditionally been of interest to organizational researchers as well as practitioners. However, one prior criticism of the MLQ survey was that it included behaviours, attributions and impact items to represent charismatic leadership. The suggestion was made to develop scales that included only behavioural items. In response to this critique, Avolio et al. (1999) have attempted to differentiate attributional from behavioural charismatic leadership in the development of the latest version of the MLQ. According to Avolio et al. (1999) the current MLQ (form 5X)-survey contains behaviour items for all scales, except the charismatic scale. An argument for retaining behavioural and attributional items to represent charisma comes from prior research on charismatic leadership theory (see Brymann, 1992, Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Specifically, many authors have suggested that there are certain behaviours associated with being viewed as charismatic, yet it is too difficult to think of charisma not being in the 'eye of the beholder', or attributed to some degree by raters. Consequently, including both behavioural and attributional items to assess charisma potentially trade-off the behavioural purity of the survey, to obtain a more comprehensive evaluation of the



central component of transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999, p. 444). To further improve the items in the MLQ, Avolio et al. (1999) have called for use of other research methods to supplement the survey method, which may not capture sufficiently well the dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours across different cultures.

Second, Den Hartog et al. (1997) have also raised another issue with the MLQ. They point that one problem with the concepts in the MLQ and their operationalization is the distinction made between passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. Hater and Bass (1988) suggest that passive management by exception is not the same as laissez-faire leadership. The status quo is guided and respected in passive management by exception; the status quo is ignored by the laissez-faire leader who essentially avoids decision-making and supervisory responsibilities. However, Den Hartog et al. (1997) point out that the distinction between passive management by exception and laissez-faire is not clear when the empirical data are examined. In a study by Yammarino and Bass (1990), passive management by exception and laissez-faire correlate positively with each other and negatively with the other leadership dimensions. According to Den Hartog et al. (1997), when one considers the items in the MLQ, the distinction between the two types seems hard to make, both are extremely passive leaders, avoiding rather than tackling problems. From the results of their study using samples from the Dutch context, Den Hartog et al. (1997) suggested combining passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership in one passive factor. These researchers point out that the question that remains is that, can and should new items be written to distinguish between management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. According to Bass (1985) they refer to different components of leader behaviour, however, discriminating among them may call for preparing new ones (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

Third, Goodwin, et al. (2001) also noted problems with the MLQ, pointing out that several research studies show contingent reward to have a stronger association with the transformational rather than the management by exception subscale of the MLQ (Bycio, et al., 1995; Goodwin et al., 2001). This calls into question the proposition

that contingent reward behaviour is strictly a component of transactional leadership. Goodwin et al. (2001) believe that the problem may lie within the contingent reward subscale itself. Upon examination of the correlation between subscales of the MLQ and/or the second order factor loadings in the recent research, and correlations between the MLQ subscales and outcome criteria, there is evidence suggesting that the contingent reward items may measure two separate factors rather than one (Goodwin et al., 2001). Empirically, the association between contingent reward and transformational leadership behaviour appears to be supported, while at the same time, the relationship between contingent reward and transactional behaviour cannot be completely discounted. Although empirical evidence suggests at the very least that the transformational construct needs further examination and clarification, there also may be a theoretical justification for consideration of contingent reward as both a transformational and transactional behaviour. Goodwin et al. (2001) point out that the contingent reward items show that there is clear separation between two sets of items. First are those items that describe explicit leader behaviour associated with the negotiation of rewards for good performance and the related obligation that are established. Second are those behaviours that describe implicit expectations for leader behaviours related to the provision of rewards based on performance.

Based on their research results, Goodwin et al. (2001, p. 763) suggested that, the contingent reward subscale items can be divided into two separate item groups:

- (1) Four items of the contingent reward subscale represent a separate subscale that can be referred to as the explicit psychological construct. These items represent explicit leader behaviours associated with the negotiation of reward in the psychological contract. These items include:
  - (a) makes clear what I can expect to receive, if my performance meets designated standards;
  - (b) works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I do what needs to be done;
  - (c) negotiates with me about what I can expect to receive for what I accomplish;and

- (d) tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts.
- (2) The other five items represent a separate subscale that can be referred to as the implicit psychological contract. These items represent the psychological contract that is associated with the employee's implicit expectations that rewards for good performance and pursuit of the shared vision will be given by the leader. These items include:
- (a) gives me what I want in exchange for my support;
  - (b) makes sure that we receive appropriate rewards for achieving performance targets;
  - (c) provides his/her assistance in exchange for my effort;
  - (d) I can earn credit from him/her by doing my job well; and
  - (e) expresses his/her satisfaction when I do a good job. As defined, the explicit psychological contract subscale is expected to relate to transactional leadership, and the implicit psychological contract subscale is expected to relate to transformational leadership.

Goodwin et al. (2001) point out that the above arguments provide a basis for extending the transformational leadership construct to include a reward dimension. However, the authors caution that, whereas their study is only the first study that has examined this dimension of transformational leadership, it is therefore important that caution must be maintained until confirming results are obtained with other samples. The authors, however, speculated on the implications that positive confirmation of these results would have for the understanding of transformational leadership. They point out that in addition to the sets of behaviours categorised as attributed charisma, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, behaviours involving the rewarding of performance would be seen as crucial to transformational leadership. Goodwin et al. (2001) expect transformational leaders to provide credit, expressions of satisfaction, and appropriate rewards when followers perform their jobs well. There is an implication in these behaviour statements that transformational leaders recognize tacit follower expectations about a fair reward for good performance, even though these rewards are not the bases for the leader-follower

relationship. Transformational leaders get their followers to 'buy into' their visions and internalise them so that the followers become intrinsically motivated to strive for the common goals and visions. The fact that they do not include reward for performance into their leadership scheme does not prevent them from providing appropriate social, monetary, and other forms of rewards (Goodwin et al., 2001).

Fourth, recently Geijsel et al. (2003) have also raised concern with the MLQ dimension of individualised consideration. In their research using samples of Dutch and Canadian teachers they had theoretically expected individualized consideration leadership dimension to have significant influence on teachers' commitment and extra-effort. However, contrary to their expectations, they found out that overall the results of both studies suggest that teachers' individualized consideration has the weakest impact on teachers' commitment and extra effort, compared with the impact of vision building and intellectual stimulation. They pointed out that one possible explanation is the partly ambiguous nature of individual consideration dimension. Referring to Yukl (1989), the authors noted that individualized consideration is usually operationalized in terms of both developmental (coaching and mentoring) and support (respect, consideration, appreciation); they suggested that the developmental part of this dimension has proven to be quite influential with respect to followers motivation and the 'supporting' part is mostly found to have specific impact on followers' satisfaction with the leader and generally appears to have only weak effects on followers' motivation. The authors further pointed out that because in their research study individualized consideration was operationalized as supporting, therefore, their research results confirms Yukl's (1989) conclusion concerning non-educational studies of transformational leadership. The authors, therefore, suggested that it might be useful to add a more developmental oriented operationalization of individual consideration into the research design of future studies into transformational leadership effects on commitment and extra effort.

### **3.2 Theoretical discussion of the dependent variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour**

This part of the chapter is devoted to the theoretical discussion of the other three study variables (dependent or outcome variables), that is, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. The discussion shows how these three constructs have been defined and studied by various researchers, as well as their antecedents and outcomes. The section ends with a conclusion and the hypothesized relationships of the study variables and research assumptions and expectations that have been hypothesized to guide the present study.

#### **3.2.1 Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction has stimulated a great deal of research interest, partly because it is viewed as important in its own right and partly because of its association with other important organizational outcomes, such as, absenteeism, turnover and organizational effectiveness (Currivan, 1999; Van Scotter, 2000) The concept of job satisfaction has been defined in a number of ways. Vroom (1964) defines job satisfaction as ‘the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation toward employment by the organization’. Locke (1976, p. 1300) defined job satisfaction as ‘a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experience’. It results from the perception that an employee’s job actually provides what he or she values in the work situation. For Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) the concept of job satisfaction represents a ‘person’s evaluation of his or her job and work conditions’. Based on the above definitions of job satisfaction, Griffin and Bateman (1986) point out that central to all these definitions, however, is the idea that job satisfaction is presumed to be a global construct encompassing a variety of specific aspects of the job that influence a person’s levels of satisfaction with it. These specific aspects of the job usually include attitudes toward pay, benefits, promotion, working conditions, colleagues and supervisor, career prospects, the intrinsic aspects of the job itself, and organizational practice. These various facets are assumed somehow to aggregate into an overall orientation termed job satisfaction (Griffin & Bateman, 1986). In short, the basic element in the definition is that job satisfaction has to do

with an affective state or how one ‘feels’ about ones’ job in contrast to simply describing it (Arvey, 1998).

According to Bogler (2001) and Dinham and Scott (2000), most research in teacher job satisfaction is rooted in the pioneering work of Herzberg, Mouser and Syderman (1959). In this respect, Arvey (1998) points out that an important framework for understanding job satisfaction, known as the ‘two-factor’ Motivator-Hygiene theory, was developed by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959), who argued that there are two general independent types of factors that affected job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction differently. They argued that ‘intrinsic’ factors (called motivators) would only enhance job satisfaction, and that ‘extrinsic’ factors (called hygiene factors) would only operate to reduce or eliminate job dissatisfaction (Arvey, 1998). In particular, job satisfaction was associated with factors related to the job itself or to outcomes directly derived from it, such as the nature of the job, achievement in the work, promotion opportunities, and chances for personal growth, and recognition. Because such factors were associated with high levels of job satisfaction, Herzberg et al. called them ‘motivators’. By contrast, job dissatisfaction was associated with conditions surrounding the job, for example, working conditions, pay, security, quality of supervision and relations with other co-workers. Because these factors prevent negative reactions, Herzberg et al. referred to them as hygiene or maintenance factors. According to Greenberg and Baron, (1995), Herzberg’s theory is useful for describing the conditions that people find satisfying and dissatisfying on the job. The theory also has been useful in emphasising the importance of factors such as the opportunity for personal growth, recognition, and increased responsibility. Attention to such variables has stimulated much of the research and theory on job enlargement and job enrichment. In this way, Herzberg’s theory has contributed much to the field of organizational behaviour (Greenberg & Baron, 1995, p. 183).

Researchers have identified several organizational benefits associated with employees’ job satisfaction. In this regard, job satisfaction, has been linked to a number of positive organizational effects, which include: reduced employee turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Bridges, 1980), reduced employee absenteeism (Breugh,

1981), high levels of employees' job involvement (Steers & Black, 1994), high levels of employees' organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1979; Reyes, 1989), high levels of organizational citizenship behaviour (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983), and organizational effectiveness (Ostroff, 1992).

Following the work of Herzberg et al. (1959), researchers have studied, defined and measured job satisfaction as a global concept and as a concept with two distinct facets, which include 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' job satisfaction (Arvey, 1998; Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Dinham & Scott, 1998). The two facets of job satisfaction are as explained below:

- (a) *Intrinsic job satisfaction* refers to employees' level of satisfaction with the various features associated with the job itself, which involves, achievement, recognition, promotional opportunities, responsibility and chances for personal growth.
- (b) *Extrinsic job satisfaction* refers to employees' level of satisfaction with various features associated with the environment in which the work is performed, which includes, supervision, working conditions, salary, company policies and administrative practices, benefits, relationship with co-workers and job security.

In previous research studies, job satisfaction has been studied both as an antecedent and an outcome variable. Most previous research has studied job satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational commitment (Bluedorn, 1982, Koch & Steers, 1978; Porter et al., 1974; Williams & Hazer, 1986) and organizational citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1982; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Koh et al., 1995). Those researchers who consider job satisfaction as an antecedent of organizational commitment (Porter et al., 1974), argue that job satisfaction is associated with aspects of the work environment and thus would develop more quickly than organizational commitment, which would require a worker to make a more global assessment of his/her relationship to the organization. In the same vein, Williams and Hazer, (1986) point out that the instability and rapid formation of job satisfaction would suggest it as a cause of organizational commitment, rather than vice versa. Although research is not

conclusive on the causal order of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, it seems the overwhelming majority of researchers consider job satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (Van Scotter, 2000). In the present study, job satisfaction will be studied as an antecedent to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Furthermore, researchers have identified several causes or determinants of job satisfaction, which have been divided into three main categories, which include: *personal factors*, *job-related factors* and *organizational factors*. Personal factors include: demographic variables such as age, race, gender, status, seniority, sense of competence and educational level. For example, research studies have reported the following findings about job satisfaction: that white collar personnel (e.g. managers and professional people) tend to be more satisfied than blue collar personnel (e.g. physical laborers, factory workers); that older people are generally more satisfied with their jobs than younger people; that people who are more experienced on the jobs are more highly satisfied than those who are less experienced; that women tend to be more dissatisfied with their jobs than are men (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). In educational settings, Ma and MacMillan (1999) found that female teachers were more satisfied with their professional role as a teacher than were their male counterparts. Teachers who stayed in the profession longer were less satisfied with their professional role. Job-related factors include skill variety, task-identity, task significance, job autonomy, feedback from the job, and social stimulation (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Organizational factors surrounding the job include pleasant working conditions, pay and reward systems, the extent of employees' involvement in decision making process in the organization, and relationship with co-workers, that is, the extent to which co-workers are friendly, technically competent and supportive (Arvey, 1998).

However, of particular interest in the present study was the influence of school leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, more specifically, the extent to which transformational and transactional forms of leadership contribute to teachers' job satisfaction. In numerous theoretical and empirical studies, largely emanating from



non-educational settings, it has been established that leadership styles have an influence on employee job satisfaction. In this regard, earlier research studies linking leader behaviour and employee job satisfaction generally confirm that a more considerate leader style and democratic supervisors style of leadership greatly facilitates higher levels of employees' job satisfaction (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Griffin & Bateman, 1986; Smith et al., 1983; Tossi Rizzo, & Carroll, 1994). For example, Griffin and Bateman (1986) have observed that, in general, most studies report significant and positive correlations between leader behaviours such as initiating structure and consideration, and job satisfaction. From their review of research studies, Griffin and Bateman (1986) then concluded that leader behaviour is important in explaining job satisfaction. Empirical evidence of the above assertions of the influence of leadership on employees' job satisfaction can be found in a research study by Smith et al. (1983). Using samples of bank employees, Smith et al. (1983) found out that leader behaviour indeed had an influence on job satisfaction. In general they concluded that leader behaviour has a profound and consistent influence on employees' job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1983). In educational settings research has also shown that leader behaviours has influence on teachers' job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Dinham & Scott, 1998; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Maeroff, 1988; Ostroff, 1992; Rossmiller, 1992). For example, in school settings, many researchers have reported that job satisfaction is positively related to participative decision-making and to school leadership. They point out that generally teachers report greater satisfaction in their work when they perceive their principal as someone who shares information with others, delegates authority, and keeps open channels of communication with teachers. They concluded that many research studies indicated that strong principal leadership emerged as a consistent factor affecting teacher job satisfaction and motivation (Bogler, 2001; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Rossmiler, 1992). Empirical evidence of the influence of leadership on job satisfaction in educational settings comes from a study by Bogler (2001). Using samples of elementary and secondary school teachers drawn from Israeli elementary and secondary schools, Bogler (2001) found evidence of the influence of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction. Transformational leader behaviours (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual

stimulation) were found to be positively related to teacher job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001).

Because studies in the west confirm positive relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and job satisfaction we have every reason to believe that the same results might be found in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. Therefore, we may expect transformational leadership to have a significant positive influence on teachers' job satisfaction in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools.

### **3.2.2 Organizational commitment**

Organizational commitment has emerged as a very important construct in organizational research owing to its presumed relation with such significant organizational outcomes as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction; job involvement and greater organizational productivity (Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wright & Bonnett, 2002). The extensive body of literature on organizational commitment, largely within organizational and behavioural psychology has produced various definitions of the construct and considerable discussion about its development, consequences, and measurement (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001, Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, Meyer & Allen, 1997, Morrow, 1983). It has been pointed out that at a general level, most researchers would agree that organizational commitment refers to a psychological state that characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization for which he or she works and that has implications for whether or not the employee will choose to remain with the organization (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001). There are different views, however, about the nature of the psychological state that binds employees to the organization. Attempts to accommodate these differences have resulted in various multidimensional approaches to organizational commitment and indeed wide acceptance of organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001). While taking cognizance of the various approaches to the study of organizational commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) and Allen and Grisaffe (2001) point out that the most prevalent approach to organizational commitment in the literature is one in which organizational commitment is considered an affective or emotional attachment to the

organization and that this approach is perhaps best represented by the work of Porter and his colleagues (Mowday et al., 1982; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974,). Therefore, the present study will concern itself with the organizational commitment construct, which is advanced and based on the most frequent cited origins: the work of Porter and his associates (Mowday et al., 1982; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974).

Porter et al. (1974) defined organizational commitment as the strength of the individual identification with and involvement in a particular organization. According to Porter et al. (1974, p. 604) organizational commitment can generally be characterised by at least three factors, which include:

- (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values,
- (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and
- (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership.

According to Kushman (1992, p. 6), the first component is almost synonymous with the idea of work motivation and clearly places organizational commitment within the motivational domain. The second component describes loyalty and, like the first, hints of behavioural intentions rather than attitudes per se. Finally, the third component describes an alignment between individual and organizational values and goals that allows the organization to achieve its ends. Furthermore, Greenberg and Baron, (1995, p. 87) suggest that 'organizational commitment as defined by Porter and his associates represents something beyond passive loyalty to the organization. It involves an active relationship with the organization in which individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to help the organization succeed and prosper'. Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 3) suggest that an employee who has high levels of organizational commitment is the one who will stay with the organization through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in full day (and may be more), protects company assets, and who shares company goals. Therefore, in general, organizational commitment represents a relative but more global evaluative linkage between the employee and the organization. It is predicted, therefore, that employees who have high organizational commitment will devote a great deal of energy toward achieving

organizational goals and that they would be inclined to remain with the organization in an effort to assist in the realization of the organizations' highly valued objectives (Angle & Perry, 1981, Porter et al., 1974).

There are several benefits that accrue to organizations arising out of high levels of employees' organizational commitment. In this regard, organizational commitment research has shown that organizational commitment is positively related to low levels of employee absenteeism, low levels of voluntary turnover, high levels of willingness to share and make sacrifices and positive employee personal life and successful career, participation, teamwork and professionalism (Angle & Perry, 1981; Aranya et al., 1986; Eby et al., 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter et al., 1974, Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Moreover, organizational commitment is not only a predictor of employee retention but may also be a predictor of employee effort and performance (Koch and Steers, 1978; Mowday et al., 1979; Ostroff, 1992; Welsch & LaVan, 1981; Wright & Bonett 2002).

Following the work of Porter et al. (1974), researchers have studied, defined and measured organizational commitment as a global concept and as a concept with two distinct facets, which include value commitment and commitment to stay with the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981). The two facets of organizational commitment are defined as follows:

- (a) *Value commitment* represents employees' commitment to support the goals of the organization, as well as pride in association with the organization (i.e., identification, willingness to perform for the organization, concern for the fate of the organization, and congruence of personal values with those of the organization). In other words, value commitment is a distinct attitudinal component addressing the individual's internalisation of organizational values. The idea of the individual internalising organizational values provides an important perspective on employee motivation, particularly in organizations like schools where normative and symbolic controls take precedence over material incentives and rewards (Angle & Perry, 1981; Kushman, 1992).

- (b) *Commitment to stay* reflects or portrays the employee's intention to remain a member of the organization. It is closer to the 'economists' idea on how weighing the costs of leaving versus staying produces the employee's decision to leave or stay – in that it involves calculative or instrumental assessment of the perceived utility of remaining with the organization, relative to leaving. In other words, commitment to stay embodies cognitive decision processes of weighing alternatives and cost/benefits in individual decisions to stay with or leave the organization. Becker's (1960) notion of 'side bets' is often discussed here. Side bets are perceived individual investments in an organization (e.g. salary, pension, and status) that figure in considerations to stay or leave (Angle & Perry, 1981; Kushman, 1992). In general, Becker's side-bets orientation focuses on the accumulated investment an individual stands to lose if he or she leaves the organization. The idea is that over time, leaving an organization becomes more costly because people fear losing what they have invested in the organization and become concerned that they cannot replace these things.

In previous research studies, organizational commitment has been studied both as an outcome variable and mediator variable. Job satisfaction has been considered as an antecedent of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Randal & Hatter, 1998; Williams & Hazer, 1986). The dominant view in the literature assumes that job satisfaction causes organizational commitment (Currivan, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982,). Researchers taking this position implicitly assume employee orientation toward a specific job necessarily precede orientation toward the entire organization (Currivan, 1999). On the other hand, other researchers have advanced alternative arguments and therefore consider organizational commitment as an antecedent to job satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). These researchers have argued that employees adjust their job satisfaction levels to be consistent with current organizational commitment levels. According to Currivan (1999), this position is consistent with a general social psychological view or perspective that assumes that individuals develop attitudes consistent with situations to which they are already committed (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Straw, 1980). Yet the evidence of this second proposition is rather limited, compared to the first

assumption (Currivan, 1999). The causal direction of these two constructs is however still inconclusive. In the present study, organizational commitment will be studied as an outcome variable with job satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational commitment.

Researchers have identified various factors or determinants that influence employee organizational commitment and these include personal characteristics, and organizational factors. *Personal characteristics* include sex, age, educational level, tenure, and work experience. For, example, research studies indicate that older workers tend to have higher levels of organizational commitment compared to younger ones, whereas education shows an inverse relationship with more educated workers reporting lower levels of organizational commitment, and employees who have more tenure with their organization are more highly committed to them than those who have been employed for shorter periods of time (Angle & Perry, 1981; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Griffen & Bateman, 1986, Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Koch & Steers, 1978; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Stevens, Beyers, & Trice, 1978). For example, in a research study, using samples of employees in a transport company, Angle and Perry (1981) found organizational commitment positively correlated to age, but negatively related to education level. The relationship of age and of educational level with organizational commitment were generally consistent with findings from related research (Sheldon, 1971; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Steers, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978). The arguments often used to explain these relationships is that increasing age and decreasing levels of education tend to reduce the feasibility of obtaining desirable alternative education and therefore tend to restrict the individual to the present organization (Angle & Perry, 1981, p.7). Furthermore, Angle and Perry (1981) found that female employees were strongly committed to the organizations than males. This is consistent with research findings of Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972). The rationale usually presented for such findings is that female employees enjoy less interorganizational mobility than males and, therefore, tend to become restricted to their present organizations. They also found no significant sex differences in educational levels. In educational settings, using samples of teachers from public

schools, Reyes (1989) concluded that teachers were more committed to small schools than to large schools, and that women were more committed than men were.

Research also report that certain *organizational factors* do also influence employees' organizational commitment. These factors include: employees' perception of a high degree of responsibility over the jobs they perform, perceived personal competence and participation in decision making, the nature of rewards that employees receive including fairness in the way the rewards are awarded or distributed, organization's treatment of new comers, and the existence of alternative employment opportunities (Fukami & Larson, 1984; Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, Morris & Steers, 1980; Rhodes & Steers, 1981; Steers, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978).

However, of particular interest in the present study was the influence of school leadership on teachers' organizational commitment, more specifically, the extent to which transformational and transactional forms of leadership contribute to teachers' organizational commitment. In various previous studies, mostly from non-educational settings, researchers have pointed out that leadership style have an influence on organizational commitment (Bycio et al., 1995; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Steers, 1977). For example Steers (1977) had argued that leader behaviour was instrumental in building subordinate organizational commitment. Likewise, Katz and Kahn (1978) in their analysis of organizations also described the powerful influence that leadership can have in encouraging the development of employee organizational commitment. Empirical support for Steers's (1977) and Katz and Kahn's (1978) theoretical propositions can be found in research studies by Morris and Sherman (1981) and Bycio et al. (1995) of the effects of leader behaviours on organizational commitment. In this regard, Morris and Sherman (1981, p. 519) in their research on organizational commitment concluded that leader behaviours of high structure and high consideration behaviours tended to be associated with high levels of subordinate organizational commitment. Therefore, they concluded that leadership behaviour might constitute an important and underresearched component in the organizational commitment process. Similarly, Bycio et al. (1995) in their research in the health care field using nurses as samples, found that transformational leadership

behaviours (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) to be more highly associated with higher levels of subordinate organizational commitment, than transactional leadership factors (contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez faire leadership). In educational settings, as the case in non-educational settings, it has been confirmed also that leadership style has an influence on teachers' organizational commitment (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990; Kushman, 1992). Using samples of Singaporean secondary school teachers, Koh et al. (1995) confirmed that transformational and transactional leadership had an influence on teachers' organizational commitment. The kind of transformational leadership behaviours, which have considerable influence on teachers' organizational commitment, include charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. In general their research indicates that transformational leadership factors (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) had more influence on organizational commitment than transactional leadership factors (contingent reward, management by exception and laissez-faire leadership).

Because studies in the west confirm positive relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and organizational commitment we have every reason to believe that the same results might be found in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. Therefore, we may expect that transformational leadership will have a significant positive influence on teachers' organizational commitment in the Tanzanian primary and secondary schools.

### **3.2.3 Organizational citizenship behaviour**

In recent years, the topic of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has generated a considerable amount of scholarly attention because of its assumed association with employees' teamwork, cooperation, innovation and organizational effectiveness (Allen, Bernard, Rush, & Russell, 2000; Van Scotter, 2000). According to Smith et al., (1983, p. 653) the concept of organizational citizenship behaviour seems to have its origins in the work of Katz (1964) who identified three basic types of behaviour essential for a functioning organization, which include:

- (a) people must be induced to enter and remain in the system,



- (b) they must carry out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion, and
- (c) there must be innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions.

Concerning the third category, Katz (1964, p. 132) noted that ‘an organization which depends solely upon its blue prints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system’. Every factory, office or bureau depends on a myriad of acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures and goodwill, altruism and other instances of what we might call citizenship behaviour (Smith et al., 1983). Following the work of Katz (1964) a number of researchers have discussed how organizations can enhance employees’ extra-role behaviours that go beyond specific task performance or psychological contract with the employer. These extra-role behaviours are intended to either help people or the organization (Schnake, 1991, Spector & Fox, 2002). Researchers have used many different terms to describe these extra-role behaviours including: prosocial behaviours (McNeely & Meglino, 1994), prosocial organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992) and organizational citizenship behaviour (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Although some of the researchers suggest that all these constructs have much in common (Schnake, 1991, Spector & Fox, 2002, Van Scotter, 2000), however for the purpose of the present research study we shall deal mainly with the definition and the stream of research that has followed the work of Bateman and Organ, (1983). According to Spector and Fox (2002) serious research in organizational citizenship behaviour has followed the work of Organ and his associates (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983).

Organ (1988, p. 41) defined organizational citizenship behaviour as ‘work-related behaviors that are discretionary, not related to the formal organizational reward system, and in the aggregate, promote the effective functioning of the organization’. Organizational citizenship behaviour are helping or cooperating behaviours shown by employees in an organizational setting, which are not formally prescribed, but yet they are desired by organizations, for they enhance social relations and cooperation within organizations. A central component of organizational citizen-ship behaviour involves

offering help to others without the expectation of immediate reciprocity on the part of the individuals receiving such aid. Organ (1988) further suggests that organizational citizenship behaviour should be considered an important component of job performance because citizenship behaviours are part of the spontaneous and innovative behaviours that are instrumental for effective organization. According to Brief and Motowidlo (1986, p.), the characteristic feature of organizational citizenship behaviours is that these voluntary behaviours are:

- (a) performed by a member of an organization,
- (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and
- (c) performs with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group or organization toward which it is directed.

Employee's organizational citizenship behaviour is usually directed at three levels, which include one's *co-workers*, *customers* and the *organization* as a whole. At the level of *co-workers* employees can help those who have been absent, offering help to co-workers when it is requested and demonstrating a cheerful and cooperative attitude. With regard to *customers*, employees can help customers to give directions, help with a phone call, and listen sympathetically to the customer's problems. With regard to the *organization*, employees can help organizations by following rules and regulations, suggesting ways to improve operations, putting forth the extra effort needed to succeed, willingly accepting extra work assignments without extra pay, speaking well of the organization to outsiders and staying loyal to the organization, protecting or conserving the organization's resources, tolerating temporary inconveniences without complaint, punctuality, volunteering for things that are not required, making innovative suggestions to improve a department, and not wasting time (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983). It also includes behaviours that a person refrains from doing, even though he or she has every right to do so, such as frequently finding fault with other employees, expressing resentment, complaining about insignificant matters, and starting arguments with others (Organ, 1990).

These organizational citizenship behaviours, being extra-role behaviours, appear to be largely unaffected by organizational reward/punishments systems for several reasons (Katz & Kahn, 1978). First organizational citizenship behaviours are subtle difficult to measure, and therefore difficult to include in formal performance appraisal systems. While managers may notice these behaviours and consider them as subjective ratings of employee performance, the linkage between rewards and citizenship behaviour is likely to be very weak. Second, since organizational citizenship behaviours are not formerly prescribed, punishment for failing to engage in these behaviours seems unlikely. Furthermore, in a recent research study, Van Scotter (2000) suggests that while a single act of organizational citizenship behaviour is not likely to earn anyone a pay raise or promotion, over time and situations, employees' organizational citizenship behaviour should influence supervisors' decisions about their contributions to the organization and potential for advancement. Thus employees who are more helpful, cooperative, and team-oriented are more likely to be judged effective employees. They are also more likely to receive positive supervisory feedback concerning their chances of advancing to the next level of the organization and more likely to be encouraged to remain in the organization.

The benefits of organizational citizenship behaviour are well documented (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Smith et al., 1983, Van Scotter, 2000). It has been pointed out that organizational citizenship behaviour benefits organizations in several ways. Organizational citizenship behaviours involving persistence, effort, compliance, and self-discipline are expected to increase the effectiveness of individual workers and managers. Helpful, considerate, and cooperative behaviours are expected to increase workgroup effectiveness and improve organizational coordination and control by reducing friction among organizational members and promoting a social and psychological context that facilitates task performance. Innovative and voluntary behaviours enhance an organization's ability to solve unanticipated problems and adapt to change. In the aggregate, these behaviours are expected to improve organizational efficiency by freeing up resources that would otherwise be needed to handle disciplinary problems, solve communication difficulties, and resolve conflicting demands, or provide closer monitoring of

employee performance. It is not difficult to make the case that employees who follow instructions, display initiative, persist on difficult tasks, cooperate with others effectively, or voluntarily act on the organization's behalf contribute more to the organization than employees who do not (Van Scotter, 2000).

Following the work of Smith et al. (1983), Organ (1988), and Organ and Konovsky (1989), researchers have studied and considered organizational citizenship behaviour as a global concept and as a concept having two main dimensions, which include, *altruism* and *generalized compliance*. The two facets of organizational citizenship behaviour are as explained below.

(a) *Altruism or altruistic behaviours.*

The dimension of *Altruism* emerges as a class of helping behaviours aimed directly at specific persons. The eliciting stimuli seem to appear to be situational, that someone has a problem, needs assistance or requests a service. In short, altruism or altruistic behaviours are acts, which help another specific person with a work problem. For example, much mentoring behaviour by higher-level managers is altruistic acts for helping younger managers learn the job.

(b) *Generalized compliance.*

The dimension of *Generalized Compliance*, on the other hand, is a factor defined by a more impersonal sort of conscientiousness, more of a good soldier or good citizen syndrome of doing things that are right and proper but for the sake of the organization rather than for the specific person. In short, generalized compliance pertains to compliance with peripheral organizational norms, those which are desired but which need not necessarily be accepted. For example, going beyond the minimal work requirements by regular attendance, being on time for work, and generally showing respect for rules and policies.

In most research studies organizational citizenship behaviour has been studied as an outcome variable with job satisfaction being one of the antecedents to organizational citizenship behaviour (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Koh et al., 1995; Organ & Konosky,

1989, Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983). However, in few studies, organizational citizenship behaviour has been studied as an antecedent to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Van Scotter, 2000). Although the overwhelming majority of the researchers content that organizational citizenship behaviour is an outcome of job satisfaction, however, the causal order of these three variables is not conclusive (Van Scotter, 2000). In the present research study, organizational citizenship behaviour will be studied as an outcome variable with job satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational citizenship behaviour.

Researchers have identified various factors, which include personal and organizational factors as antecedents to organizational citizenship behaviour. *Personal or demographic variables*, for example, sex, age, academic level and work experience have, with varying degrees of consistency, been cited as predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour (Smith et al., 1983, Shaw & Reyes, 1992). *Fair treatment*: organizational citizenship behaviour is also enhanced when organizations treat employees fairly; *Interactive justice*; citizenship behaviours are also strongly related to employees perception of interactive justice, that is, the extent to which employees are shown a high degree of courtesy, dignity, and interpersonal sensitivity (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Moorman, 1991).

However, of particular interest in this study was the influence of school leadership on teachers' organizational citizenship behaviour, more specifically, the extent to which transformational and transactional forms of school leadership contribute to teachers' organizational citizenship behaviour. In numerous theoretical and empirical studies, largely emanating from non-educational settings, it has been established that leadership styles had an influence on employees' organizational citizenship behaviour. For example, Smith et al. (1983) suggested that leader supportiveness (leader consideration) is related to organizational citizenship behaviour for two reasons. First of all, much of supervisor consideration is, in itself, organizational citizenship behaviour, that is, discretionary acts aimed at helping others. Thus, the supervisor serves to some extent as a model. Social psychological studies strongly suggest that many forms of organizational citizenship behaviours are influenced by models.

Models provide cues for what behaviour is appropriate and make salient the situational needs for prosocial gestures. Second, at some point leader supportiveness initiates a pattern of exchange that is a social and noncontractual in character. The exchange becomes subject to broader norms of reciprocity. Subordinates choose citizenship behaviour as a means of reciprocation to supervisors.

Empirical support for the relationship between leadership style and organizational citizenship behaviour can also be found in various research studies mainly derived from non-educational context (Goodwin et al., 2001; Hui, Law & Chen, 1999; Moorman, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983). For example, Moorman (1991) using samples of employees drawn from two medium sized chemical companies in the Midwestern United States, found evidence of the influence of leader behaviours on employees organizational citizenship behaviour. He pointed out that employees who believed that their supervisors personally treated them fairly appeared to be more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviour. Moorman (1991) concluded that the strongest implication for his study was that supervisors can directly influence employees' citizenship behaviour. He therefore, argued that managers should be concerned with how they treat their employees because employees' perception of that treatment could affect the occurrence of organizational citizenship behaviour (Moorman, 1991, p. 854). Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (1990) in their study carried out in a sample of petro-chemical employees in the United States reported positive correlations between transformational leadership and subordinates' organizational citizenship behaviour. Transformational leadership behaviours that contributed to high levels of organizational citizenship behaviour included articulating a vision, role modelling, intellectual stimulation and communicating high performance expectations. Podsakoff et al. (1990) concluded that although transformation leadership influenced organiza-tional citizenship behaviour, in fact, such a relationship may be moderated by the degree of trust subordinates have on their leader. Moreover, Goodwin et al. (2001) in their research using samples drawn from a wide variety of organizations also found that transformational leadership had positive effects on organizational citizenship behaviour. Taken together, this research stream

suggests that subordinates reciprocate supportive leadership behaviours by performing organizational citizenship behaviours (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

In educational settings, the empirical evidence of the influence of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviour comes mainly from one study of Koh et al. (1995). In their research study carried out a study in the Singaporean Secondary schools, Koh et al. (1995) confirmed that transformational and transactional school leadership had a positive influence on organizational citizenship behaviour. However, their conclusion showed that the group of transformational leadership behaviours (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) had stronger positive influence on teachers' organizational citizenship behaviour than the group of transactional leadership behaviours (contingent reward, management by exception and laissez-faire).

Because studies in the west confirm positive relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and organizational citizenship behaviour we have every reason to believe that the same results might be found in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. Therefore, we may expect that transformational leadership will have a significant positive influence on teachers' organizational citizenship behaviour in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools.

#### **3.2.4 Theoretical implications for research**

In this chapter we have theoretically defined and discussed the leadership and outcome variables that will be tested in the present study. In the chapters that follow, we will empirically test the relationship of these variables. In this regard the purpose of the present study is to examine the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Based on the above theoretical discussions, the framework used to guide this inquiry takes transformational leadership behaviours (*charismatic leadership, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation*) and transactional leadership behaviours (*contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception and laissez-faire*) to have direct effects

on teachers' job satisfaction (*general job satisfaction*) organizational commitment (*value commitment* and *commitment to stay*) and organizational citizenship behaviour (*general citizenship behaviour*). Such leadership also has indirect effects on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via teachers' job satisfaction. It should be noted that the role of job satisfaction as a mediator variable in the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teacher's organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour has not been examined in prior research in educational settings. Therefore, the present study contributes new knowledge and advances our understanding of the mediating role of job satisfaction by examining the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in school settings. Moreover, we will estimate the relative importance of job satisfaction as an explanatory factor. Our aim is to test these relationships using a set of data collected from a sample of Tanzanian primary and secondary school teachers. To guide the study, we set out our research expectations as suggested by the theoretical work on this topic. In short, our expectations suggest that transformational leadership behaviours will serve to facilitate more positive attitudes and behaviours in the three areas of teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. That is, transformational leadership behaviours will be strongly and positively related to outcome variables than the transactional leadership behaviours (which will be less strongly or negatively related to the outcome variables). Specifically, our research expectations are: (a) the more transformational school leaders are the more satisfied their teachers are with their job, which in turn increases teachers' commitment to their organizations and their organizational citizenship behaviour; (b) the more transformational school leaders are the more teachers have commitment to their organizations; and (c) the more transformational school leaders are the more teachers show organizational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, in keeping up with Bass's (1985) and later Hater and Bass's (1988) and Bass and Avolio's (1990) postulation of the augmentation hypothesis that the effects of transformational leadership behaviours augment the effects of transactional leadership behaviours in predicting organizational outcomes, we also examined the augmentation hypothesis. Moreover, previous research has also suggested that



teachers' background characteristics have an influence on the perception of leadership and outcome variables, we also tested the influence of teachers' background variables in our study.

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# CHAPTER 4

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## Method

In order to answer the research questions we have formulated in chapter 1, we conducted two survey studies. The first study contained a survey study on primary school teachers in Tanzania. The second study was a similar study on secondary school teachers in Tanzania. In this chapter we will address the method of our research for both studies.

### Study 1: Primary school teachers

#### 4.1 Sample

The first study was carried out in public primary schools in Tanzania. The participants for this study consisted of 700 primary school teachers who were selected from 70 schools located in the eastern educational zone of Tanzania. From the eligible number of 286 primary schools, 70 primary schools were randomly selected. A school was considered eligible if (a) the head of the school has been at the school for at least a period of one calendar year, and (b) at least 20 teachers have been at the school and have worked with the head of the school for at least a minimum period of one year. Schools that met these criteria constituted the sampling frame from which the 70 primary schools were randomly selected. Schools that did not meet these criteria were not included in the study. In each of the six districts in the eastern education zone, schools were randomly selected from a list of schools kept by each District Education Office. In each of the 70 primary schools, teachers who had been at the school and worked with the head of the school for at least a minimum period of one year formed the sampling frame. Ten teachers were randomly selected from each of the participating primary schools. The ten teachers from each primary school were selected from the list of teachers kept by the District Education Office.

A total of 560 primary school teachers, representing a response rate of 80 percent, responded to the questionnaire, and provided personal information on gender, marital status, academic and professional qualifications and organizational tenure. However, further incomplete questionnaires reduced the total to 545 for a 78 percent usable rate of return. Responses were received from all the 70 primary schools, however, the response rate per school varied from 50-100 percent. The sample consisted of 17.2 percent male teachers and 82.8 percent female teachers. The mean age of the respondents was 40 years (ranging from 20 to 66 years). With regard to professional qualification, 3.5 percent were Grade B/C teachers, 84.1 percent were Grade A teachers, 12.5 percent had Diploma in education (see Appendix D on teacher training and qualification categories). The mean length of service as a teacher was 14 years (ranging from 1 to 37 years), and mean length of time in current school was 6 years (ranging from 1 to 27 years). The mean length of time of staying with the present headteacher was 3 years, (ranging from 1 to 20 years). The heads of primary schools (headteachers) provided their personal demographic information and school data. Out of 70 headteachers, a total of 53 headteachers (70%) were able to provide their personal and school data. This information has been used in the data analysis and results.

## **4.2 Instrumentation**

The questionnaire consisted of 95 items, referring to the following four themes:

1. Transformational and Transactional leadership
2. Job satisfaction
3. Organizational commitment
4. Organizational citizenship behaviour
5. Background characteristics (personal data)

In the following section, we will address the operationalization of these four themes. (All the questionnaires used in this study are included in the text as Appendix A).

#### **4.2.1 Measurement of Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

To assess the independent variables, we used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, version 1, as used by Bycio et al. (1995), plus some additional items from version 5X) for teachers' rating of their school heads' leadership. The MLQ measures the degree of transformational and transactional leadership exhibited by the subject. For the measurement of transformational and transactional leadership items were drawn from the MLQ (Bass, 1985, p. 209-212), which has been elaborated by Bycio et al. (1995). Bycio et al. (1995) distinguished three factors of transformational leadership: charismatic leadership (17 items), individualized consideration (7 items), and intellectual stimulation (3 items), and two factors of transactional leadership, that is, contingent reward (7 items) and management by exception. Hater and Bass (1988) expanded on the transactional leadership factor of management by exception. According to Hater and Bass (1988; see also Bass, 1999), active management by exception (4 items) was differentiated from passive management by exception (4 items), and laissez-faire leadership (4 items).

The reliability of these subscales has been found to be satisfactory (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio 1990; Bycio et al., 1995; Hater & Bass, 1988; Koh et al., 1995). For example, in Hater and Bass's (1988) study the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for the transformational and transactional leadership distinct subscales (charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingency reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership) varied from .67 to .94. The MLQ has been used in several research studies of transformational leadership (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway; 1996, Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bycio et al., 1995; Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Koh et al., 1995, Leithwood, 1994; Silins, 1994; Waldman et al., 1990). According to Bass (1997, 1999) the MLQ has been used in numerous studies across different countries and in all kinds of organizations both non-educational and educational organizations, including in nearly 200 research programmes, doctoral dissertations and masters' theses around the globe.

In the present study, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly

disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The following aspects of transformational and transactional leadership were measured (for each aspect an example of the questionnaire is provided):

(a) *Transformational leadership*

- (i) Charisma ('The headteacher makes me feel proud to be associated with him/her') and ('The headteacher sets a vision and future direction of what we may be able to accomplish and achieve if we work together');
- (ii) Individualized consideration ('The headteacher treats each teacher as an individual with different needs, abilities and aspirations');
- (iii) Intellectual stimulation ('The headteacher helps me to think and solve old problems in new and alternative ways').

(b) *Transactional leadership*

- (i) Contingency reward ('The headteacher tells me what I should do, if I want to be rewarded for my efforts');
- (ii) Active management by exception ('Most of the time the headteacher follows closely my mistakes');
- (iii) Passive management by exception ('The headteacher does not take action until problems become serious');
- (iv) Laissez-faire leadership ('The headteacher avoids making decisions in the school').

In the present study the reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha) for the transformational and transactional leadership distinct sub-scales (charisma, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingency reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception and laissez-faire) varied from .43 to .90 (see Table 4.1 for all reliability estimates). In the present study we have used the whole range of transformational and transactional leadership factors because, among other things, we wanted to test the augmentation hypothesis propagated by Bass (1985) that transformational leadership factors augment transactional leadership factors in predicting organizational outcomes (See chapter 3, section 3.1.4 for a detailed treatment of the augmentation hypothesis).

#### 4.2.2 Measurement of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967). According to Arvey et al. (1989), the Manual for the MSQ indicates that factor analytic procedures have produced an 'Intrinsic' Satisfaction Scale and an 'Extrinsic' satisfaction scale. The *Intrinsic Satisfaction* scale consists of 12 items that reflect ability utilization, achievement, the chance to do things for other people in the job, and so forth. The *Extrinsic Satisfaction* scale consists of 8 items that concern the way company policies are administered, the quality of working conditions, and so forth. The *General Satisfaction* scale is simply a summation of the 20 items and can be viewed as a composite of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The Manual for the MSQ indicates reliability on the basis of a wide variety of studies on different occupational groups shows a median reliability coefficient of .86 for the intrinsic satisfaction scale, .80 for the extrinsic satisfaction scale and .90 for the General Satisfaction scale (Arvey et al., 1989, p. 188). Furthermore, Thoms et al. (2002) point out that the MSQ is a well-regarded measure of job satisfaction and it has been widely used in academic research for over thirty years. In addition to the evidence of its validity, provided in Weiss et al.'s scale manual (1967), Scarpello and Campbell (1983) further tested and validated the MSQ scale. Thoms et al. (2002) have recently used the MSQ scale in their research and they tested the reliability of the instrument and found a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .88 for the General job satisfaction scale. They therefore concluded that this suggests that the items on the scale were consistent and were measuring the same construct. In the present study we will focus on the general job satisfaction scale in reporting our results for the simple reason that there is a very high correlation between the intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction scales.

In the present study respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction with various aspects of their job on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The original scale was modified to reflect more relevant job related behaviours found in school settings in Tanzania. Examples of items were, 'The teaching job I am doing provides me with a chance to keep busy all the time', 'The teaching job I am doing provides me with a chance to get recognition from the

community'. In the present study the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for the general job satisfaction scale was .82.

#### **4.2.3 Measurement of organizational commitment**

Organizational Commitment was measured using the Organizational commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1982). The 15 items of the OCQ are designed to assess respondents' loyalty and desire to remain with the organization, their belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization, and the willingness to put in extra effort to help the organization succeed. According to Angle and Perry (1981, p. 5-6), the 15 questionnaire items measure two sub-scales of organizational commitment, which include *Value commitment* and *Commitment to stay*. The *Value Commitment* sub-scale represents respondents' commitment to support the goals of the organization. Value commitment includes items connoting pride in association with the organization (i.e., identification, willingness to perform for the organization, concern for the fate of the organization, and congruence of personal values with those of the organization). In the aggregate, these items indicate a form of organizational involvement, which Etzioni (1975) termed 'Moral' and which is clearly analogous to Stebbins (1970) notion of 'Value Commitment'. The *Commitment to Stay* sub-scale reflects respondents' commitment to retain their organizational membership. The commitment to stay sub-scale includes a cluster of questionnaire items that pertain to membership in itself. Unlike the value commitment related items, these items do not connote an affective bond to the organization. On the contrary, the wording of this set of items convey a general impression of Etzioni's (1975) 'Calculative Involvement'.

The reliability of the OCQ subscales has been found to be satisfactory and that Cronbach's alpha coefficients reliability ranging from .70 to .93 have been reported in literature (see Angle & Perry, 1981; Reyes & Pounder, 1993; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). For example, in Angle and Perry (1981) study the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for the OCQ distinct sub-scales (value commitment and commitment to stay) varied from .72 to .90. Furthermore, Wright and Bonett (2002) point out that although several operationalizations of this construct exist, attitudinal

commitment has been most commonly measured by the OCQ. The OCQ has been widely used in research studies of organizational commitment (see for example Dee, Henkin, & Duemer, 2003; Griffin & Bateman, 1986; Reyes & Pounder, 1993; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Van Scotter, 2000).

In the present study, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the 15 statements using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The word 'organization' was changed to read 'school'. In addition, similar item modifications were made to reflect the local Tanzanian context. The following aspects of organizational commitment were measured (for each aspect an example of the questionnaire is provided)

- (a) *Value commitment*: A sample of items include the following: 'I am willing to up in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally required in order to help this school be successful'.
- (b) *Commitment to stay*: A sample of items include the following: 'I am prepared to accept any kind of extra duties in order to remain and continue working in this school'.

In the present study the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for value commitment was .72, while for commitment to stay it was .57.

In the present study, we shall not be concerned with general organizational commitment of teachers. We are concerned with studying the two distinct facets of organizational commitment, that is value commitment and commitment to stay, which we think will be interesting to know out of our sample. We consider these two distinct constructs to be important distinction for studying the relationship of transformational leadership and teachers' organizational commitment in Tanzania. This is because teachers in Tanzania do not choose schools that they are interested to teach. Instead the District Education Officer (for primary school teachers) and The Ministry of Education and Culture (for secondary school teachers) allocate teachers to various schools depending on the actual demands of specific schools. Therefore, the teacher



allocation system to schools may shed light on the value commitment and commitment to stay of teachers to schools to which they are not necessarily part of their own choice.

#### **4.2.4 Measurement of organizational citizenship behaviour**

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was operationalized and measured using an instrument developed by Smith et al. (1983). The 16 item questionnaire assesses citizenship gestures through items such as 'helping others who have been absent', 'volunteers for things that are not required' and 'does not take unnecessary time off'. The instrument has two sub scales, which measure Altruism and Generalized Compliance. *Altruism* refers to acts that are directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situation (e.g. orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload). The eliciting stimulus, in other words, is someone needing aid. *Generalized Compliance* pertains to a more interpersonal form of consciousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behaviour (e.g. punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a 'good employee ought to do'. What makes the latter (i.e. generalized compliance) organizational citizenship behaviour is that the person is going beyond what is specifically required in displaying conscientiousness and initiative. Organ and Konovsky (1989, p. 159) point out that the different factors of OCB have been found to have adequate reliability and appear to be phrased at a level of generality sufficient to use in different work settings. In their research, Organ and Konovsky (1989) reported Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability of .89 for Altruism, and .81 for Generalized compliance. In the study by Smith et al. (1983) the coefficient alpha reliability estimates were .91 for Altruism and .81 for Generalized compliance.

In the present study, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with 15 statements using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The OCB scale was completed by each of the respondents as they self-evaluated their OCB. For the purpose of the present research study, the original scale was modified to reflect more relevant gestures of

organizational citizenship behaviour in the Tanzanian school environment. Two of the items were (1) 'I am willing to teach classes of absent teachers', and (2) 'I do not take extra leave/holidays apart from those shown in the school regulations/timetable'. In the present study we will focus on organizational citizenship behaviour as a global concept of overall OCB rather than the two distinct facets of OCB that is, Altruism and Generalized compliance. This is because the two subscales are highly correlated, suggesting that the items are related. In the present study the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for the general organizational citizenship behaviour scale was .76.

### **4.3 Procedure**

Before undertaking the research study, the researcher made some adjustments to the questionnaires with intent to make them relevant to the Tanzanian educational and cultural context. The English language was retained since English is one of the official languages in Tanzania and it is one of the subjects taught in primary schools and used as a medium of instruction at secondary schools and higher education. The adjusted questionnaires were subjected to scrutiny by a number of focus groups and individuals including: two independent education researchers, two education management trainers, five education officers from two district education offices, and 20 primary school teachers in two primary schools. All these groups were conversant with issues of primary and secondary education. The comments from these various groups made it necessary to make further alterations in the questionnaire wording to make it readily understandable. For example, the word 'subordinates' was changed to read 'teachers'; the word 'organization' was changed to read 'school'. Questions that were considered to be clearly and readily understood were left unchanged.

Soon after having the final questionnaire instruments, the main study was undertaken. With the support of the District Education Officers, we contacted all the 70 primary schools in the zone. The final version of the questionnaires and the covering letter were distributed to each of the schools by the researcher assisted by the District Logistics officers in each of the five districts. The study purpose and procedures were explained in a meeting involving the head of the school and the participating teachers. At that time the teachers were given a packet containing a letter explaining the study

purpose, procedures and methods to protect their anonymity. The covering letter also explained that the study was conducted both for pure research purposes as well as part of the researchers dissertation project, the aim of which was to obtain teachers' perceptions of leadership behaviours practiced by their school heads. The teachers were also provided with an envelop in which to put their responses and return it personally to the researcher, who would come to collect them on the agreed date. The heads of schools were requested to provide their personal data and school data including school location, number of teachers, number of students, number of desks, number of classrooms, etc. At the meeting also, a specific date was set on which the researcher would come to collect the responses from the school. The sample of 700 teachers provided ratings of leadership and the outcome variables of teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (see Appendix A: Research Questionnaire). In addition to the above mentioned questionnaire instruments, respondents were also asked to provide demographic information, including sex, age, marital status, educational level, professional qualification, work experience and years of teaching in the present school and the number of years he/she had worked with the present headteacher. Demographic information has been included because some previous studies have linked employee work attitudes and behaviour to be influenced by demographic variables, that is, sex, age, work experience or tenure, and education level (Angle & Perry, 1981; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Shaw & Reyes, 1992; Smith et al., 1983).

#### **4.4 Data analysis**

To assess the effect of transformational and transactional leadership factors on the outcome variables, multiple regression analyses were applied. These analyses were aimed at assessing the influence of each transformational and transactional scale as well as the extent to which the transformational leadership factors augment the effect of transactional leadership factors (see chapter 3, section 3.1.4). After having assessed the effects of job satisfaction on the outcome variables, path analyses using regression models have been performed, to assess the extent to which transformational and transactional leadership factors effect organizational commitment and organizational

citizenship behaviour indirectly, via job satisfaction. Finally, the impact of background characteristics has been analyzed, also with separate regression analyses.

## **Study 2: Secondary school teachers**

### **4.5 Sample**

The second study was carried out in public secondary schools in Tanzania. The participants for this study consisted of 150 secondary school teachers who were selected from 15 secondary schools located in the eastern educational zone of Tanzania. From the eligible number of 55 secondary schools, 15 secondary schools were randomly selected. A school was considered eligible if (a) the head of the school has been at the school for at least a period of one calendar year, and (b) at least 20 teachers have been at the school and have worked with the head of the school for at least a minimum period of one year. Schools that met these criteria constituted the sampling frame from which the 15 secondary schools were randomly selected. Schools that did not meet these criteria were not included in the study. In each district schools were randomly selected from a list of schools kept by each District Education Office. In each of the 15 secondary schools, teachers who had been at the school and worked with the head of the school for at least a minimum period of one year formed the sampling frame. Ten teachers were randomly selected from each of the participating secondary school. The ten teachers from each secondary school were selected from a list of teachers kept by the head of the school.

A total of 120 secondary school teachers representing a response rate of 80 percent responded to the questionnaire, and provided personal information on gender, marital status, academic and professional qualifications and organizational tenure. However, further incomplete questionnaires reduced the total to 118 for a 78 percent usable rate of return. Responses were received from all the 15 schools, however, the response rate per school varied from 30-100 percent. The sample consisted of 45.8 percent male teachers and 54.2 percent female teachers. The mean age of the respondents was 38 years (ranging from 24 to 55 years). With regard to professional qualification, 73 percent had Diploma in education, while 22.9 percent had a degree in education, and

2.5 percent had a master's degree in education (see Appendix D on teacher training and qualification categories). The mean length of service as a teacher was 12.8 years (ranging from 1 to 36 years), and mean length of time in current school was 6.6 years (ranging from 1 to 25 years). The mean length of time of staying with the present head of school was 4.3 years (ranging from 1 to 12 years). The heads of secondary schools (headmasters/headmistresses) provided their personal demographic information and school data. Out of 15 heads of secondary schools only 3 school heads (20%) were able to provide their personal and school data. However, since some of this data was incomplete, this information was not used in the data analysis and results. Most of the non-respondents among the heads of secondary schools cited lack of time due to heavy administrative duties within and outside the school.

#### **4.6 Instrumentation**

For the second study, the same questionnaire was used as for the first study. (see paragraph 4.2). Below, in Table 4.1, we present the reliability estimates of the scales for the secondary school teachers. For comparative purposes, we also show the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) of the scales for primary school teachers that have already been reported in section 4.2.

From Table 4.1 we see that for both studies there is an acceptable high reliability of the transformational and transactional leadership scales (independent variables) ranging from .48 to .90 (for primary school teachers) and ranging from .47 to .92 (for secondary school teachers). In comparison, results show that there is an observed similar trend of reliability coefficient scores across the two studies. However, in spite of the general similarity there are exceptions related to some items being higher or lower in both studies. For the primary school teachers two scales, that is, intellectual stimulation and active management by exception have a moderate reliability, whereas for secondary school teachers one scale, that is, passive management by exception has shown a moderate reliability.

**Table 4.1**  
**Comparison of reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for primary and secondary school teachers.**

	Primary school teachers			Secondary school teachers	
	Number of items	alpha	<i>N</i>	alpha	<i>N</i>
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>					
Charismatic leadership	17	.90	545	.92	118
Individualized Consideration	7	.76	545	.79	118
Intellectual Stimulation	3	.43	545	.65	118
<i>Transactional leadership</i>					
Contingent Reward	7	.76	545	.76	118
Active Management by Exception	4	.48	545	.63	118
Passive Management by Exception	4	.67	545	.47	118
Laissez-Faire	4	.73	544	.80	118
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>					
General Job Satisfaction	20	.82	539	.88	117
<i>Organizational Commitment</i>					
Value Commitment	9	.72	545	.84	112
Commitment to Stay	5	.57	545	.77	111
<i>Organizational Citizenship Behaviour</i>					
General Citizenship behaviour	17	.76	545	.62	117

The observed low reliability of the intellectual stimulation (.43), active management by exception (.48) and passive management by exception (.47) leadership scales may be due to the fact that the number of items being few (only 3 to 4 items for each factor) thus failing to capture sufficiently well the behaviours associated with the two constructs. With the exception of intellectual stimulation, active management by exception and passive management by exception, the remaining reliability results show similarities to results obtained elsewhere in previous research (see for example, Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bycio et al., 1995; Geijsel et al., 2003; Geijsel et al., 1999; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood et al., 1999). With regard to the reliability of the outcome variable scales, that is, teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour they are also sufficient to high ranging from .57 to .82. The reliability of the outcome variables are also consistent with previous research (see for example Angle & Perry, 1981; Arvey et al., 1989; Bogler, 2001; Bycio et al., 1995, Koh et al., 1995; Scandura & Lankau, 1997).

#### **4.7 Procedure**

Soon after having the final questionnaire instruments, the main study was undertaken. With the support of the District Education Officers, we contacted 15 secondary schools in the zone. The final version of the questionnaires and the covering letter were distributed to each of the schools by the researcher assisted by the District Logistics officers in each of the five districts. The study purpose and procedures were explained in a meeting involving the head of the school and the participating teachers. At that time the teachers were given a packet containing a letter explaining the study purpose, procedures and methods to protect their anonymity. The covering letter also explained that the study was conducted both for pure research purposes as well as part of the researchers dissertation project, the aim of which was to obtain teachers' perceptions of leadership behaviours practiced by their school heads. They were not told of the research hypotheses. The teachers were also provided with an envelop in which to put their responses and return it personally to the researcher, who would come to collect them on the agreed date. The heads of schools were requested to provide their personal data and school data including school location, number of teachers, number of students, number of desks, number of classrooms, et cetera.

At the meeting also, a specific date was set on which the researcher would come to collect the responses from the school. The sample of 150 teachers provided ratings of leadership and the outcome variables of teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (see Appendix A: Research Questionnaire). In addition to the abovementioned questionnaire instruments, respondents were also asked to provide demographic information, including sex, age, marital status, educational level, professional qualification, work experience and years of teaching in the present school and the number of years he/she had worked with the present head of school. Demographic information has been included because some previous studies have linked employee work attitudes and behaviour to be influenced by demographic variables, that is, sex, age, work experience or tenure, and education level (Angle & Perry, 1981; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Shaw & Reyes, 1992; Smith et al., 1983).

#### **4.8 Data Analysis**

Data analyses for the second study (secondary schools) were similar to analyses that were performed for the primary school study (see paragraph 4.4).





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## CHAPTER 5

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### Results

In this chapter we present the results of the two research studies that were carried out in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania. First the means, standard deviations and correlations of all the study variables are presented. Second, we present the results of regression analyses showing the effects of the transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Third, we present the effects of teachers' background characteristics on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Lastly, we present the mediation effects of job satisfaction on the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In presenting the results we start with the *primary school teachers study results* (Study 1), and then followed by *secondary school teachers study results* (Study 2).

#### **Study 1: Primary School Teachers Study**

##### **5.1 Means, standard deviations and the correlations of the questionnaire scales**

The means and standard deviations of the primary school teachers' scores for all the variables in the study are presented in Table 5.1. Teachers responded to questions related to the constructs in our study on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

From Table 5.1 we can see that the mean rating of each leadership factor was above the mid-point of 3.0 on the rating scale, with the exception of passive management by

exception ( $M=2.19$ ) and laissez-faire ( $M=2.25$ ). The three transformational leadership factors were rated particularly high. Overall, teachers' rating of leadership on the MLQ factor scales produced a more positive profile of their headteachers' transformational than their transactional leadership.

**Table 5.1**  
Means, standard deviations, and number of respondents ( $N$ ) of each study variable.

	Number of Items	Mean	Standard deviation	$N$
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>				
Charismatic leadership	17	4.01	.52	545
Individualized consideration	7	3.99	.56	545
Intellectual stimulation	3	3.51	.68	545
<i>Transactional leadership</i>				
Contingent reward	7	3.34	.69	545
Active management by exception	4	3.51	.69	545
Passive management by exception	4	2.19	.83	545
Laissez-faire	4	2.25	.85	544
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>				
General job satisfaction	20	3.60	.46	539
<i>Organizational commitment</i>				
Value commitment	9	4.00	.49	545
Commitment to stay	5	3.65	.67	545
<i>Organizational citizenship behaviour</i>				
General organizational citizenship behaviour	17	4.10	.37	545

From Table 5.1 we also see that the teachers thought quite positively about the extent to which they experienced job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. From the results, it seems teachers experienced more organizational citizenship behaviour ( $M = 4.10$ ) and value commitment ( $M = 4.00$ ) than commitment to stay ( $M = 3.65$ ) and job satisfaction ( $M = 3.60$ ). The higher mean scores organizational citizenship behaviour suggest that teachers saw themselves displaying behaviours including punctuality (coming to work on time), not wasting time and implement school activities to the best of their abilities and generally being compliant to school rules and regulations. In the case of value commitment, the higher mean score on this variable implies that teachers felt pride to be associated with their schools. The low mean scores for commitment to stay may be explained by the fact that teachers in Tanzania do not choose schools where they want to teach. Instead the primary school teachers are centrally allocated to schools by the District Education Office. Furthermore, the lower mean scores on job satisfaction may suggest that

teachers felt less satisfied with the various facets of their teaching job. One of the job satisfaction items that was rated lowest by the primary school teachers had to do with the salary that teachers receive. This item, which reads, 'I like the teaching job because the salary I get as a teacher is equal to the amount of work I do' was rated lowest ( $M = 1.4$ ). The lower mean scores of this item suggest that teachers felt they did not receive a fair salary for the amount of work they do. Other issues that teachers felt to be dissatisfied with were related to conditions surrounding the teaching job, which include: delays in promotions, poor working conditions, and lack of in-service training. According to the job satisfaction theory of Herzberg et al. (1959), these factors are referred to as hygiene factors.

The relations between the variables in the conceptual model were exploratively examined by calculating Pearson correlations (see Table 5.2). Almost all the correlations were found to be significant and point to the expected direction. All the transformational leadership factor scales were positively correlated with each other ranging from .56 to .76. Also, all the transformational leadership factor scales correlated positively with the two transactional leadership factors of contingent reward and active management by exception ranging from .38 to .44. All transformational leadership factors correlated negatively with the other two transactional leadership factors of passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership ranging from -.07 to -.37; although correlations of intellectual stimulation with both factors were non-significant.

The transactional leadership factors of contingent reward and active management by exception correlated positively with each other. Contingent reward correlated significantly but weakly with passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, whereas active management by exception had a non-significant negative correlation with passive management by exception and laissez-faire. An interesting result is that contingent reward correlated positively with all the other transformational and transactional leadership factors. However, some prior research found that contingent reward correlated negatively with passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership (Godwin et al., 2001).

Furthermore, from Table 5.2 we also observe that almost all of the correlations between transformational and transactional leadership factors and the outcome variables were found to be significant and point to the expected direction. Transformational leadership factor scores were almost uniformly correlated moderate to high with ratings of teachers job satisfaction, value commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, with correlations ranging from .36 to .66 and correlated low to moderate with commitment to stay, with a range of .09 to .34. Transactional leadership factors contingent reward and active management by exception were also moderately positively correlated with teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, ranging from .16 to .39; which was less stronger compared to the three transformational leadership factors. As expected, the two transactional leadership factors of passive management by exception and laissez faire leadership had both negative correlations with all the outcome variables of teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, ranging from -.46 to -.06. Apart from small-observed differences, our results are consistent with previous research (see for example, Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bycio et al., 1995; Hater & Bass, 1988). In general, all the intercorrelations between the dependent variables were positive and statistically significant, which might indicate relatedness among the presumed effects of transformational leadership on teachers' attitudes and behaviours.

**Table 5.2****Pearson Correlation Coefficients for the study variables.**

Scale	CL	IC	IS	CR	AME	PME	LF	JS	VC	CS	OCB
<i>Transformational leadership</i>											
CL Charismatic leadership	-										
IC Individualized consideration	.76*	-									
IS Intellectual stimulation	.59*	.56*	-								
<i>Transactional leadership</i>											
CR Contingent reward	.41*	.41*	.38*	-							
AME Active management by exception	.44*	.44*	.39*	.43*	-						
PME Passive management by exception	-.37*	-.23*	-.07	.20*	-.03	-					
LF Laissez-faire	-.33*	-.21*	-.07	.20*	-.02	.66*	-				
<i>Job satisfaction</i>											
JS Job satisfaction	.53*	.46*	.42*	.39*	.28*	-.08	-.06	-			
<i>Organizational commitment</i>											
VC Value commitment	.66*	.49*	.36*	.29*	.32*	-.23*	-.25*	.50*	-		
CS Commitment to stay	.34*	.25*	.09	-.14*	.16*	-.44*	-.46*	.17*	.37*	-	
<i>Organizational citizenship behaviour</i>											
OCB Organizational citizenship behaviour	.52*	.44*	.36*	.20*	.30*	-.22*	-.23*	.42*	.53*	.30*	-

\*  $p < .05$

In the next section we present more detailed analyses of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, as we address our two research questions.

## 5.2 Effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour

With regard to the first question about the effects of the transformational and transactional leadership on the outcome variables, we conducted multiple regression analyses to examine the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, successively. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.3, Table 5.4, and Table 5.5.

**Table 5.3**  
**Regression analysis of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on job satisfaction.**

Leadership factor	df	$\beta$	$R^2$ - change
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>			
Charismatic leadership	1	.38*	.03*
Individualized consideration	1	.09	.00
Intellectual stimulation	1	.11*	.01*
Transformational leadership total	3		.15*
<i>Transactional Leadership</i>			
Contingency reward	1	.14*	.01*
Active management by exception	1	-.02	.00
Passive management by exception	1	.10*	.01*
Laissez-faire	1	.03	.00
Transactional leadership total	4		.04*
Total	7		.33*
Residual	530		

\*  $p < .05$

The regression analysis reported in Table 5.3 indicates that the transformational and transactional factors explained 33% of the variance in teachers' *job satisfaction*. Both the transformational and the transactional leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of job satisfaction (15% and 4% respectively). These figures indicate that 14% of the variance of job satisfaction (33% minus 19%) was jointly explained by transformational and transactional leadership factors. Bass's

augmentation hypothesis (transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors) can be confirmed by these data. The level of transformational leadership adds 15% of explained variance to the percentage (18%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factors (a total of 33% minus 15% that can be explained uniquely by transformational leadership factors).

The positively significant regression coefficients of charismatic leadership, intellectual stimulation and contingent reward and passive management by exception indicate that the higher the level of these experienced transformational and transactional leadership factors, the higher the amount of job satisfaction was.

**Table 5.4**  
**Regression analysis of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on organizational commitment.**

Leadership Factor	Organizational Commitment					
	Value commitment			Commitment to Stay		
	df	$\beta$	$R^2$ - change	df	$\beta$	$R^2$ - change
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>						
Charismatic leadership	1	.60*	.12*	1	.20*	.01*
Individualized consideration	1	-.04	.00	1	.04	.00
Intellectual stimulation	1	-.03	.00	1	-.04	.00
Transformational Leadership total	3		.18*	3		.03*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>						
Contingency reward	1	.07	.00	1	-.18*	.02*
Active management by exception	1	.04	.00	1	.11*	.01*
Passive management by exception	1	.04	.00	1	-.17*	.01*
Laissez-faire	1	-.11*	.01*	1	-.24*	.03*
Transactional leadership total	4		.01	4		.18*
Total	7		.39*	7		.28*
Residual	530			530		

\*  $p < .05$

The regression analysis reported in Table 5.4 indicates that the transformational and transactional leadership factors explained 39% and 28% of the variance in teachers' *value commitment* and *commitment to stay* respectively. The transformational leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of value commitment (18%) and commitment to stay (3%). The transactional leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of commitment to stay (18%), but not of value commitment (1%). The individual factors did not seem to explain a large amount of variance in the full model, which is due to the fact that the intercorrelations of these



factors were relatively high. Bass's augmentation hypothesis (transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors) can be confirmed by these data. The level of transformational leadership adds (18%) of explained variance to the percentage (21%; 39% minus 18%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factors on *value commitment*. The level of transformational leadership adds (3%) of explained variance to the percentage (25%; 28% minus 3%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factor on *commitment to stay*.

The positively significant regression coefficients for charismatic leadership indicates that the higher the level of this experienced transformational leadership factor, the higher the amount of value commitment and commitment to stay was. Also the level of active management by exception contributed to the level of commitment to stay. Contrarily, the negatively significant regression coefficients for laissez-faire leadership indicate that the higher the level of this experienced transactional leadership factor, the lower the amount of value commitment and commitment to stay was. Additionally, negative regression effects of contingent reward and passive management by exception on commitment to stay were found statistically significant.

Contributions to the explained variance of groups of transformational and transactional leadership factors suggest that teachers' value commitment was more positively affected by transformational leadership factors, whereas commitment to stay was more affected by transactional leadership factors, albeit in a negative way.

The regression analysis reported in Table 5.5 indicates that the transformational and transactional factors explained 28% of the variance in teachers' *organizational citizenship behaviour*. Again, the individual factors did not seem to explain a large amount of variance in the full model, which is due to the fact that the intercorrelations of these factors were relatively high. Due to these intercorrelations, the individual factors shared a large amount of explained variance of organizational citizenship behaviour. The transformational leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of organizational citizenship behaviour (12%). The transactional leadership

did not explain a significant amount of variance of organizational citizenship behaviour (1%). Bass's augmentation hypothesis (transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors) can be confirmed by these data. The level of transformational leadership adds (12%) of explained variance to the percentage (16%: 28% minus 12%) that can be explained by transactional leadership factors.

**Table 5.5**  
**Regression analysis of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on organizational citizenship behaviour.**

Leadership Factor	df	$\beta$	$R^2$ - change
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>			
Charismatic leadership	1	.39*	.05*
Individualized consideration	1	.04	.00
Intellectual stimulation	1	.08	.00
Transformational leadership total	3		.12*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>			
Contingency reward	1	-.03	.00
Active management by exception	1	.10*	.01*
Passive management by exception	1	.02	.00
Laissez-faire	1	-.06	.00
Transactional leadership total	4		.01
Total	7		.28*
Residual	530		

\*  $p < .05$

The positively significant regression coefficients for charismatic leadership and active management by exception indicate that the higher the level of these experienced transformational and transactional leadership factors, the higher the amount of organizational citizenship behaviour was.

Summarized, the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction show that these leadership factors positively affected the outcome variables. Except for commitment to stay, transformational leadership had a stronger effect on the outcome variables than transactional leadership factors.

### **5.3 Effects of background characteristics on transformational and transactional leadership, and teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour**

With regard to the relationship of the background characteristics on leadership and the outcome variables, we conducted multiple regression analyses to examine the effects of the background characteristics on transformational and transactional leadership factors and teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Three types of background variables were distinguished: (1) teacher characteristics (sex, age, level of experience, and academic qualifications) and (2) headteacher characteristics (sex, age, training in management), and school size as a school characteristic. Results of the regression analyses are presented in Table 5.6.

Results of regression analyses as shown in Table 5.6 show that background variables account on the average for approximately 10 per cent of variance of the scores of all variables. With regard to leadership variables, teachers experience more charismatic leadership when they have more teaching experience ( $\beta = .27$ ). Teachers' level of experienced charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation seemed to increase with teachers' experience with their present headteachers ( $\beta = .24, .17, \text{ and } .24$  respectively). Contrarily, teachers' experienced passive management by exception seemed to decrease with teachers' experience with their present headteachers ( $\beta = -.17$ ). Teachers with the lowest level of professional qualification (i.e. grade b/c) experienced high levels of active management by exception ( $M = 3.71$  versus  $M = 3.49$  and  $M = 3.48$  for grade a teachers and teachers with a diploma in education). Contingent reward seemed to be experienced at a higher level from older headteachers, whereas intellectual stimulation seemed to be experienced at a lower level from older headteachers. Teachers whose headteachers have been trained by MANTEP experienced lower levels of laissez-farie leadership ( $M = 2.11$  versus  $M = 2.51$  for headteachers who have not been trained by MANTEP). Table 5.6 also reveals that teachers' level of experienced active management by exception increases with school size ( $\beta = .23$ ).

**Table 5.6**

**Regression analyses of the influence of teacher characteristics, headteacher characteristics, and school characteristics on transformational leadership factors and teachers' organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction (N=249).**

	Organizational commitment										
	Charismatic leadership	Individualized consideration	Intellectual stimulation	Contingent reward	Active management by exception	Passive management by exception	Laissez-faire	Value commitment	Commitment to stay	Organizational citizenship behaviour	Job satisfaction
	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
<i>Teacher characteristics</i>											
Sex	-.04	.03	-.05	-.10	.02	-.03	-.01	-.03	.02	-.02	-.02
Age	-.11	.08	-.06	-.22	.01	.04	-.10	.03	-.01	-.12	-.22
Number of years teaching experience	.27*	.08	.05	.17	.01	-.15	-.07	.19	.22	.25	.24
Number of years working with present headteacher	.24*	.17*	.24*	-.11	-.01	-.17*	-.05	.20*	.18*	.22*	.17*
Professional qualification <sup>1</sup> grade b/c	.07	.01	.06	.05	.15*	-.04	.05	.01	.05	.04	.14*
Professional qualification grade a	.07	.02	-.06	.04	.06	-.10	-.05	.03	.08	.00	.08
<b>Teacher characteristics: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.11*</b>	<b>.07*</b>	<b>.07*</b>	<b>.03</b>	<b>.03</b>	<b>.06*</b>	<b>.04</b>	<b>.11*</b>	<b>.10*</b>	<b>.09*</b>	<b>.06*</b>
<i>Headteacher characteristics</i>											
Sex	-.07	-.03	-.01	-.11	.06	.08	.09	.03	-.11	-.02	-.21*
Age	-.08	-.03	-.21*	.21*	-.06	.03	.10	-.13	-.08	-.13	-.15*
Trained by MANTEP vs not trained by MANTEP	-.06	.07	.06	.08	-.03	.06	.20*	.02	-.04	.06	.04
<b>Headteacher characteristics: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.02</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>.05*</b>	<b>.03</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>.05*</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>.02</b>	<b>.03</b>	<b>.10*</b>
<i>School characteristic</i>											
School size	-.04	-.05	.01	-.07	.23*	.11	.05	-.12	-.06	.06	.00
<b>School characteristic: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.05*</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>.12*</b>	<b>.08*</b>	<b>.10*</b>	<b>.06</b>	<b>.08*</b>	<b>.07*</b>	<b>.09*</b>	<b>.13*</b>	<b>.12*</b>	<b>.11*</b>	<b>.15*</b>

Note <sup>1</sup>: for the categorical data of professional qualification dummification was applied with professional qualification level 'diploma' as reference category.

\*  $p < .05$

Scores on value commitment, commitment to stay, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction seemed to increase with the number of years of teachers' experience with their present headteacher ( $\beta = .20, .18, .22,$  and  $.17$  respectively). Teachers with the lowest level of professional qualification (i.e. grade b/c) experienced high levels of job satisfaction ( $M = 3.80$  versus  $M = 3.57$  and  $M = 3.53$  for grade a teachers and teachers with a diploma in education). Teachers seemed to experience higher levels of job satisfaction from male headteachers ( $M = 3.68$ ) than from female headteachers ( $M = 3.50$ ). Contrarily, teachers' levels of job satisfaction seemed to decrease with headteachers' age.

With regard to the effects of the background variables and leadership factors on the outcome variables, we conducted multiple regression analyses to examine the effects of the background variables and transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Three types of background variables were distinguished: (1) teacher characteristics (sex, age, level of experience, and academic qualifications), (2) headteacher characteristics (sex, age, training in educational management), and (3) school size as a school characteristic. Results of the regression analyses are presented in Table 5.7.

**Table 5.7**  
**Regression analyses of the influence of teacher characteristics, headteacher characteristics, and school characteristics on teachers' organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction (N=249).**

	Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment		Organizational citizenship behaviour
		Value commitment	Commitment to stay	
	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
<i>Teacher characteristics</i>				
Sex	.02	-.01	-.01	-.00
Age	-.14	.08	-.06	-.09
Number of years teaching experience	.11	.02	.16	.11
Number of years working with present headteacher	.09	.08	.09	.08
Professional qualification <sup>1</sup> grade b/c	.11	-.02	.05	.01
Professional qualification grade a	.05	-.02	.05	-.03
<i>Headteacher characteristics</i>				
Sex	-.17*	.08	-.09	.02
Age	-.16*	-.09	-.01	-.07
Trained by MANTEP vs not trained by MANTEP	.04	.08	.03	.10
<i>School characteristic</i>				
School size	.04	-.10	-.06	-.03
<b>Background variables: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.09*</b>	<b>.04*</b>	<b>.03</b>	<b>.03</b>
<i>Transformational leadership</i>				
Charismatic leadership	.33*	.62*	.20*	.41*
Individualized consideration	.07	.01	.14	.05
Intellectual stimulation	.04	-.09	-.10	.07
<i>Transactional leadership</i>				
Contingent reward	.21*	.03	-.20*	.01
Active management by exception	-.03	.04	.10	.08
Passive management by exception	.01	.04	-.06	-.04
Laissez-Faire	-.02	-.13*	-.20*	-.10
<b>Transformational and transactional leadership: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.24*</b>	<b>.38*</b>	<b>.20*</b>	<b>.31*</b>
<b>Total: R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>.39*</b>	<b>.50</b>	<b>.32*</b>	<b>.41*</b>

Note <sup>1</sup>: for the categorical data of professional qualification dummification was applied with professional qualification level 'diploma' as reference category.

\*  $p < .05$ ,

Table 5.7 shows results of regression analyses of background characteristics and transformational leadership scores on organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction. The results of these regression analyses show to what extent effects of transformational leadership scores on the outcome variables are affected by background variables. Regression analyses reported in Tables 5.3, 5.4, and 5.5 indicated that transformational leadership scores accounted for 33 percent, 39 percent, 28 percent, and 28 percent of variance of scores on job satisfaction, value commitment, commitment to stay, and organizational citizenship behaviour, respectively. Table 5.7 shows that these percentages are slightly affected

by taking background variables into account. Table 5.7 shows effects of transformational leadership factors on job satisfaction and commitment to stay to decrease the most by taking background variables into account (the percentage of explained variance dropped from 33 to 24 percent for job satisfaction and from 28 to 20 percent for commitment to stay). For one variable, that is, organizational citizenship behaviour the percentage increased slightly from 28 to 31 percent. The decrease in explained variance indicates that the relationship between transformational leadership on the one hand and teachers' job satisfaction and commitment to stay on the other hand can partly be explained by their background characteristics.

The regression analyses also reveal that the amount of explained variance in scores on the outcome variables increased by taking background variables into account. This means that background characteristics and transformational leadership factors both affect the level of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

#### **5.4 Indirect effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via teachers' job satisfaction**

In order to assess the extent to which the influence of transformational and transactional leadership scores on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour is indirect, via job satisfaction (the second question), path analyses were performed for each of the outcome variables. The models that were tested followed the general mediational model as depicted by Baron and Kenny (1986). For each leadership factor, three regression models were tested: (1) a model containing the transformational leadership factor as predictor and value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour as the dependent variables; (2) a model containing job satisfaction as predictor and value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour as dependent variables; and (3) a model containing both transformational leadership factors and job satisfaction as predictors and value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour as the dependent variable. In the last, partial

effects for the transformational leadership factor and job satisfaction (on value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour) could be estimated. (For a detailed description of the testing procedure, see Appendix B). The results of the mediation effects are shown in Table 5.8, Table 5.9 and Table 5.10 below.

Table 5.8 reports on the regression models that were estimates for the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on *value commitment*.

**Table 5.8**  
**Regression analyses for assessing the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on value commitment.**

predictor:	effect of predictor on value commitment		effect of predictor on job satisfaction		partial effect of job satisfaction on value commitment		partial effect of predictor on value commitment		Sobel's test for mediation effect
	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>z</i>
<i>Transformational leadership</i>									
charismatic leadership	.611*	.036	.469*	.038	.219*	.046	.513*	.041	4.44*
individualized consideration	.424*	.039	.380*	.038	.368*	.049	.287*	.041	6.01*
intellectual stimulation	.262*	.035	.294*	.032	.444*	.051	.133*	.035	6.32*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>									
contingent reward	.212*	.035	.267*	.032	.477*	.050	.084*	.034	6.28*
active management by exception	.230*	.035	.194*	.034	.468*	.048	.142*	.033	4.92*
passive management by exception	-.148*	.032	-.005	.031	.508*	.046	-.124*	.028	-0.16
laissez-faire leadership	-.153*	.030	-.003	.030	.518*	.045	-.139*	.027	-0.10

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.8 shows that job satisfaction mediated the effect of five leadership scores, charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and active management by exception. For each of these five leadership scores, the mediation effect was partial, for the effects of these leadership scores on value commitment remained significant, when job satisfaction was part of the regression model. For the remaining two leadership scores, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, the test for the mediation effect was non-significant, although job satisfaction affected value commitment, when these leadership scores are in the regression model. The absence of a significant mediation test was due to the absence of effects of these leadership scores on job satisfaction, which indicates that the required Step 2 from the four steps distinguished by Baron



and Kenny (the independent variable has to be related to the mediator, see Appendix B) was not met.

Table 5.9 reports on the regression models that were estimates for the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on *commitment to stay*.

**Table 5.9**  
**Regression analyses for assessing the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on commitment to stay.**

predictor:	effect of predictor on commitment to stay		effect of predictor on job satisfaction		partial effect of job satisfaction on commitment to stay		partial effect of predictor on commitment to stay		Sobel's test for mediation effect
	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	
<i>Transformational leadership</i>									
charismatic leadership	.424*	.059	.469*	.038	-.029	.079	.440*	.070	-0.37
individualized consideration	.285*	.057	.380*	.038	.095	.078	.251*	.065	1.21
intellectual stimulation	.090	.049	.294*	.032	.217*	.078	.026	.054	2.66*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>									
contingent reward	-.132*	.048	.267*	.032	.363*	.075	-.229*	.051	4.19*
active management by exception	.153*	.049	.194*	.034	.186*	.073	.117*	.051	2.33*
passive management by exception	-.377*	.039	-.005	.031	.183*	.064	-.366*	.039	-0.16
laissez-faire leadership	-.376*	.037	-.003	.030	.192*	.063	-.370*	.037	-0.10

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.9 shows that job satisfaction mediated the effect of three leadership scores, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and active management by exception. For two of these three leadership scores, that is, contingent reward and active management by exception, the mediation effect was partial, for the effects of these leadership scores on commitment to stay remained significant, when job satisfaction was part of the regression model. For intellectual stimulation there were no significant direct effects on commitment to stay, and as such the effects of intellectual stimulation on commitment to stay were completely indirect via job satisfaction. For the two leadership factors charismatic leadership and individualised consideration there were significant direct effects on commitment to stay, but no mediation effects of job satisfaction. For the remaining two leadership scores, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, the test for the mediation effect was non-significant, although job satisfaction affected commitment to stay when these leadership scores were in the regression model. The absence of a significant mediation

test was due to the absence of effects of these leadership scores on job satisfaction, which indicates that the required Step 2 from the four steps distinguished by Baron and Kenny (the independent variable has to be related to the mediator, see Appendix B) was not met.

Table 5.10 reports on the regression models that were estimates for the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on *organizational citizenship behaviour*.

**Table 5.10**  
**Regression analyses for assessing the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on organizational citizenship behaviour.**

predictor:	effect of predictor on organizational citizenship behaviour		effect of predictor on job satisfaction		partial effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behaviour		partial effect of predictor on organizational citizenship behaviour		Sobel's test for mediation effect
	b	se	b	se	b	se	b	se	z
<i>Transformational leadership</i>									
charismatic leadership	.351*	.030	.469*	.038	.154*	.039	.283*	.034	3.76*
individualized consideration	.279*	.029	.380*	.038	.212*	.038	.202*	.032	4.87*
intellectual stimulation	.190*	.025	.294*	.032	.249*	.038	.120*	.027	5.33*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>									
contingent reward	.106*	.026	.267*	.032	.309*	.039	.023	.027	5.75*
active management by exception	.158*	.026	.194*	.034	.280*	.036	.106*	.025	4.60*
passive management by exception	-.105*	.023	-.005	.031	.310*	.035	-.090*	.021	-0.16
laissez-faire leadership	-.102*	.022	-.003	.030	.312*	.035	-.094*	.021	-0.10

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.10 shows that job satisfaction mediated the effect of five leadership factors, charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and active management by exception. For contingent reward the effect on organizational citizenship behaviour was completely mediated by job satisfaction. For the remaining four leadership factors, the mediation effect of job satisfaction was partial. For the two leadership scores passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, the test for the mediation effect again was non-significant although job satisfaction affected commitment to stay when these leadership scores were in the regression model. The absence of a significant mediation test was due to the absence of effects of these leadership scores on job satisfaction, which indicates that the required Step 2 from the four steps distinguished by Baron

and Kenny (the independent variable has to be related to the mediator, see Appendix B) was not met.

## **Study 2: Secondary School Teachers Study**

In this section we report the results of our second research study carried out in the secondary schools in Tanzania. First the means, standard deviations and correlations of all the study variables are presented. Second, we present the results of regression analyses showing the effects of the transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Third, we present the effects of teachers' background characteristics on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Lastly, we present the mediation effects of job satisfaction on the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

### **5.5 Means, standard deviations and number of respondents of the questionnaire scales**

The means, standard deviation and correlations of the secondary school teachers' scores for all the variables in the study are shown in Table 5.11 respectively. Teachers responded to questions related to the constructs in our study on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

From Table 5.11 we can see that the mean rating of each leadership factor was above the mid-point of 3.0 on the rating scale, with the exception of passive management by exception ( $M = 2.19$ ) and laissez-faire ( $M = 2.16$ ). The three transformational leadership factors dimensions were rated particularly high. Overall, teachers' rating of leadership on the MLQ factor scales produced a more positive profile of their head-teachers' transformational than their transactional leadership.

**Table 5.11**  
**Means, standard deviations, and number of respondents (*N*) of each study variable.**

	Number of items	Mean	Standard deviation	<i>N</i>
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>				
Charismatic leadership	17	3.95	.59	118
Individualized Consideration	7	3.80	.62	118
Intellectual Stimulation	3	3.45	.70	118
<i>Transactional leadership</i>				
Contingent Reward	7	3.12	.65	118
Active Management by Exception	4	3.38	.64	118
Passive Management by Exception	4	2.19	.81	118
Laissez-Faire	4	2.16	.82	118
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>				
General Job Satisfaction	20	3.45	.55	117
<i>Organizational Commitment</i>				
Value Commitment	9	4.00	.56	112
Commitment to Stay	5	3.81	.72	111
<i>Organizational Citizenship Behaviour</i>				
General Citizenship behaviour	17	4.07	.45	117

From Table 5.11 we also see that the teachers thought quite positively about the extent to which they experienced job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. From the results, it seems teachers experienced more organizational citizenship behaviour ( $M = 4.07$ ) and value commitment ( $M = 4.00$ ) than commitment to stay ( $M = 3.81$ ) and job satisfaction ( $M = 3.45$ ). The higher mean scores on organizational citizenship behaviour suggest that teachers saw themselves displaying behaviours including punctuality (coming to work on time), not wasting time and implementing school activities to the best of their abilities and generally being compliant to school rules and regulations. In the case of value commitment, the higher mean scores on this variable implies that teachers felt pride to be associated with their schools. The lower scores for commitment to stay may be explained by the fact that secondary school teachers in Tanzania do not choose schools where they want to teach. Instead secondary school teachers are centrally allocated to schools by the Ministry of Education and Culture. Furthermore, the low scores on job satisfaction might suggest that teachers felt less satisfied with the various aspects of their teaching job. One of the job satisfaction item that was rated lowest by the secondary school teachers had to do with the salary that teachers

receive. This item, which reads, 'I like the teaching job because the salary I get as a teacher is equal to the amount of work I do' was rated lowest ( $M = 1.6$ ). The lower rating of this item indicates that teachers felt they did not receive fair salary for the amount of work they do. Other issues that teachers felt to be dissatisfied with were also related to conditions surrounding the teaching job, which include: delays in promotions, poor working conditions, and lack of in-service training. According to Herzberg et al. (1959) job satisfaction theory, these factors are referred to as hygiene factors.

The relations between the variables in the conceptual model were exploratively examined by means of Pearson correlational analysis (see Table 5.12). Almost all the correlations were found to be significant. All the transformational leadership factor scales were positively correlated with each other ranging from .54 to .80. Also, all the transformational leadership factor scales correlated positively with the two transactional leadership factors of contingent reward and active management by exception. All transformational leadership factors correlated negatively with the other two transactional leadership factors of passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership.

The transactional leadership factors of contingent reward and active management by exception correlated positively with each other. However, both contingent reward and active management by exception negatively correlated with passive management by exception and laissez-faire. These results are consistent with previous research (see for example, Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bycio et al., 1995; Hater & Bass, 1988)

All the intercorrelations between the dependent variables were positive and statistically significant, which might indicate relatedness among the presumed effects of transformational leadership on teachers' attitudes and behaviours.

From Table 5.12 we observe that almost all of the correlations were found to be significant and point to the expected direction. Transformational leadership factor scores were almost uniformly correlated more strongly with higher ratings of teachers

job satisfaction, value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour, with correlations ranging from .24 to .60. Transactional leadership factors; contingent reward and active management by exception factors were moderately and positively correlated with higher levels of teachers' job satisfaction, value commitment and commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour, ranging from .05 to .38; which was less stronger compared to the three transformational leadership factors. As expected, the two transactional leadership factors of passive management by exception and laissez faire leadership had both negative correlations with all the outcome variables of teachers' job satisfaction, value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour, ranging from -.24 to -.44. Apart from small observed differences, our results are consistent with previous research (see, for example, Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bycio et al., 1995; Hater & Bass, 1988).

In the next section we present more detailed analyses of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, as we address our two research questions.

**Table 5.12**  
**Pearson Correlation Coefficients for the study variables.**

Scale	CL	IC	IS	CR	AME	PME	LF	JS	VC	CS	OCB
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>											
CL Charismatic Leadership	-										
IC Individualized Consideration	.80*	-									
IS Intellectual Stimulation	.67*	.54*	-								
<i>Transactional Leadership</i>											
CR Contingent Reward	.44*	.45*	.38*	-							
AME Active Management-by-Exception	.37*	.33*	.24*	.39*	-						
PME Passive Management-by-Exception	-.62*	-.53*	-.32*	-.19*	-.12	-					
LF Laissez-Faire	-.55*	-.43*	-.27*	-.07	-.02	.72*	-				
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>											
JS Job satisfaction	.44*	.35*	.29*	.23*	.05	-.34	-.24*	-			
<i>Organizational Commitment</i>											
VC Value Commitment	.60*	.54*	.43*	.38*	.14	-.37*	-.28*	.63*	-		
CS Commitment to Stay	.34*	.36*	.24*	.19*	.10	-.37*	-.44*	.43*	.52*	-	
<i>Organizational Citizenship Behaviour</i>											
OCB Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	.40*	.32*	.30*	.18*	.08	-.34*	-.35*	.31*	.40*	.24*	-

\*  $p < .05$

### 5.6 Effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour

With regard to the first question about the effect of the transformational and transactional leadership on the outcome variables, we conducted multiple regression analyses to examine the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction, successively. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.13, Table 5.14 and Table 5.15.

**Table 5.13**  
**Regression analysis of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on job satisfaction.**

Leadership factor	df	$\beta$	$R^2$
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>			
Charismatic leadership	1	.38*	.03*
Individualized consideration	1	.12	.01
Intellectual stimulation	1	-.05	.00
Transformational leadership total	3		.08*
<i>Transactional Leadership</i>			
Contingent reward	1	.08	.00
Active management by exception	1	-.12	.01
Passive management by exception	1	-.15	.01
Laissez Faire	1	.09	.00
Transactional Leadership total	4		.02
Total	7		.25*
Residual	103		

\*  $p < .05$

The regression analysis reported in Table 5.13 indicates that the transformational and transactional factors explain 25% of the variance in teachers' job satisfaction. The transformational leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of organizational citizenship behaviour (8%). The transactional leadership did not explain a significant amount of variance of organizational citizenship behaviour (2%). These figures indicate that 15% of the variance of job satisfaction (25% minus 10%) was jointly explained by transformational and transactional leadership factors. Bass's augmentation hypothesis (transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors) can be confirmed by these data. The level of transformational



leadership adds 8% of explained variance to the percentage (17%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factors (a total of 25% minus 8% that can be explained uniquely by transformational leadership factors).

The positively significant regression coefficient for charismatic leadership indicate that the higher the level of this experienced transformational factor the higher the amount of job satisfaction was.

**Table 5.14**  
**Regression analysis of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on organizational commitment.**

Leadership Factor	Organizational Commitment					
	Value commitment			Commitment to Stay		
	df	$\beta$	$R^2$	df	$\beta$	$R^2$
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>						
Charismatic leadership	1	.52*	.06*	1	-.16	.01
Individualized consideration	1	.14	.01	1	.18	.01
Intellectual stimulation	1	-.00	.00	1	.07	.00
Transformational Leadership total	3		.16*	3		.02
<i>Transactional leadership</i>						
Contingent reward	1	.13	.01	1	.11	.01
Active management by exception	1	-.13	.01	1	.04	.00
Passive management by exception	1	-.13	.01	1	-.02	.00
Laissez faire	1	-.20	.01	1	-.40*	.06*
Transactional leadership total	4		.04	4		.10*
Total	7		.40*	7		.23*
Residual	103			103		

\*  $p < .05$

The regression analyses reported in Table 5.14 indicate that the transformational and transactional leadership factors explained 40% and 23% of the variance in teachers' *value commitment* and *commitment to stay* respectively. The transformational leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of value commitment (16%) but not of commitment to stay (4%). The transactional leadership factors explained a significant amount of variance of commitment to stay (10%), but not of value commitment (2%). The figures indicate that 20% (40% minus 20%) of the variance of value commitment and 11% (23% minus 12%) of the variance of commitment to stay was jointly explained by transformational leadership and transactional leadership factors. The individual factors did not seem to explain a large amount of variance in the full model, which is due to the

fact that the intercorrelations of these factors were relatively high. Bass's augmentation hypothesis (transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors) can be confirmed by these data for *value commitment*, but not for *commitment to stay*. The level of transformational leadership adds 16% of explained variance to the percentage (24%; 40% minus 16%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factors on *value commitment*. The level of transformational leadership adds but 2% of explained variance to the percentage (21%; 23% minus 2%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factor on *commitment to stay*.

The positively significant regression coefficients for charismatic leadership indicates that the higher the level of this experienced transformational leadership factor, the higher the amount of *value commitment* was. Contrarily, the negatively significant regression coefficients for *laissez-faire* leadership indicate that the higher the level of this experienced transactional leadership factor, the lower the amount of *commitment to stay* was. Additionally, negative regression effects of charismatic leadership on *commitment to stay* was found to be negative but weak and statistically non-significant. Contributions to the explained variance of groups of transformational and transactional leadership factors suggest that teachers' *value commitment* was more positively affected by transformational leadership factors, whereas *commitment to stay* was more affected by transactional leadership factors, albeit in a negative way.

The regression analysis reported in Table 5.15 indicates that the transformational and transactional factors explained 20% of the variance in teachers' *organizational citizenship behaviour*. Again, the individual factors did not seem to explain a large amount of variance in the full model, which is due to the fact that the intercorrelations of these factors were relatively high. Due to these intercorrelations, the individual factors shared a large amount of explained variance of *organizational citizenship behaviour*. Both the transformational and the transactional leadership factors did not explain a significant amount of variance of *organizational citizenship behaviour* (3% and 2% respectively). Bass's augmentation hypothesis (transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors) therefore, can not be confirmed by these

data. The level of transformational leadership adds but 3% of explained variance to the percentage (17%; 20 minus 3%) that can be explained by the transactional leadership factors.

**Table 5.15**  
**Regression analysis of the influence of transformational and transactional leadership factors on organizational citizenship behaviour.**

Leadership Factor	df	$\beta$	$R^2$
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>			
Charismatic leadership	1	.16	.01
Individualized consideration	1	.11	.00
Intellectual stimulation	1	.01	.00
Transformational leadership total	3		.03
<i>Transactional leadership</i>			
Contingency reward	1	.09	.01
Active management by exception	1	.01	.00
Passive management by exception	1	-.07	.00
Laissez faire	1	-.13	.01
Transactional leadership total	4		.02
Total	7		.20*
Residual	103		

\*  $p < .05$

The positively but non-significant regression coefficients for charismatic leadership, individualized consideration and contingent reward indicate that the higher the level of these experienced transformational and transactional leadership factors, the higher the amount of organizational citizenship behaviour was. Contrarily, the negative but non-significant regression coefficients for passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership indicate that the higher the level of these experienced transactional leadership factors, the lower the amount of organizational citizenship behaviour was.

Summarized, the effects of transformational and transactional leadership factors on organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction show that these leadership factors positively affected the outcome variables. Except for commitment to stay, transformational leadership had a stronger effect on the outcome variables than transactional leadership factors.

### **5.7 Effects of background characteristics on transformational and transactional leadership, and teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour**

With regard to the relationship of the background characteristics (teachers' demographic variables) on the dependent and outcome variables, we conducted multiple regression analysis to examine the effects of the background variables on transformational and transactional leadership factors and teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Due to the absence of information about secondary school headmasters/headmistresses characteristics and school size (see section 4.5), only effects of teacher characteristics (sex, age, level of experience and academic qualifications) could be tested. Results of the regression analyses are presented in Table 5.16.

Results of regression analyses as shown in Table 5.16 show small effects of teachers' background variables on the study variables. Intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and job satisfaction seemed to be slightly affected by teachers' background characteristics. Table 5.16 shows only one significant unique effect: teachers' level of experienced intellectual stimulation to significantly increase with teachers' experience with their present headmaster ( $\beta = .41$ ).

**Table 5.16**

**Regression analyses of the influence of teacher characteristics on transformational leadership factors and teachers' organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction ( $N = 90$ ).**

	Organizational commitment										
	Charismatic leadership	Individualized consideration	Intellectual stimulation	Contingent reward	Active management by exception	Passive management by exception	Laissez-faire	Value commitment	Commitment to stay	Organizational citizenship behaviour	Job satisfaction
	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
<i>Teacher characteristics</i>											
Sex	-.07	-.16	-.05	-.15	-.05	.01	.09	.18	.21	-.01	.13
Age	-.45	.03	-.26	-.08	-.10	-.04	-.10	.32	.74	.19	-.49
Number of years teaching experience	.27	-.23	-.18	-.22	-.21	-.01	.04	-.51	-.71	-.16	.36
Number of years working with present headteacher	.05	.10	.41*	-.08	-.02	.06	.08	.21	-.03	-.14	.16
Professional qualification <sup>1</sup>	-.10	-.11	-.19	.05	-.01	-.04	-.03	-.12	-.07	.09	-.14
<b>Teacher characteristics: Total <math>R^2</math></b>	<b>.05</b>	<b>.06</b>	<b>.13*</b>	<b>.17*</b>	<b>.09</b>	<b>.00</b>	<b>.02</b>	<b>.06</b>	<b>.06</b>	<b>.02</b>	<b>.08*</b>

Note <sup>1</sup>: professional qualification consisted of two categories: 'diploma in education' and 'degree in education'. Regression coefficients point at the difference between the mean scores of these two groups.

\*  $p < .05$ ,

With regard to the effects of the background variables (demographic variables and school characteristics) and leadership factors on the outcome variables, we conducted multiple regression analysis to examine the effects of the background variables and transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.17.

**Table 5.17**

**Regression analyses of the influence of teacher characteristics, headteacher characteristics, and school characteristics on teachers' organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction ( $N = 90$ ).**

	Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment		Organizational citizenship behaviour
	$\beta$	Value commitment $\beta$	Commitment to stay $\beta$	$\beta$
<i>Teacher characteristics</i>				
Sex	.21*	.27*	.32*	.03
Age	-.45	.48	.56	.28
Number of years teaching experience	.34	-.57	-.45	-.16
Number of years working with present headteacher	.24	.25	-.02	-.19
Professional qualification	-.15	-.09	-.08	.13
<b>Background variables: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.10*</b>	<b>.10*</b>	<b>.10*</b>	<b>.03</b>
<i>Transformational leadership</i>				
Charismatic leadership	.24	.44*	-.36*	.17
Individualized consideration	.25	.32*	.28	.13
Intellectual stimulation	-.21	-.20	.07	.11
<i>Transactional leadership</i>				
Contingent reward	.19	.24*	.17	.06
Active management by exception	-.06	-.09	.14	-.09
Passive management by exception	-.11	-.07	.06	-.07
Laissez-Faire	-.05	.17	-.51*	-.04
<b>Transformational and transactional leadership: R<sup>2</sup>-change</b>	<b>.29*</b>	<b>.42*</b>	<b>.27*</b>	<b>.19*</b>
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>.37*</b>	<b>.48*</b>	<b>.33*</b>	<b>.21</b>

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.17 shows results of regression analyses of background variables and transformational leadership scores on organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction. The results of these regression analyses show to what extent effects of transformational leadership scores on the outcome variables are affected by background variables. Regression analyses reported in Tables 5.13, 5.14 and 5.15 indicated that transformational leadership scores accounted for 25 percent, 40 percent, 23 percent, and 20 percent of variance of scores on job satisfaction, value commitment, commitment to stay, and organizational citizenship

behaviour, respectively. Table 5.17 shows that these percentages are not affected by taking background variables into account. The absence of a decrease in explained variance indicates that the relationship between transformational leadership and teachers' commitment to stay cannot be explained by their background characteristics. In contrast to the analysis presented in Table 5.16, Table 5.17 shows some sex-differences to exist: Male teachers compared to female teachers seemed to experience low levels of job satisfaction ( $M = 3.34$  and  $M = 3.54$  respectively), low value commitment ( $M = 3.93$  and  $M = 4.06$  respectively) and low commitment to stay ( $M = 3.67$  and  $M = 3.92$  respectively).

### **5.8 Indirect effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via teachers' job satisfaction**

In order to assess the extent to which the influence of transformational and transactional leadership scores on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour is indirect, via job satisfaction (the second question), path analyses were performed for each of the outcome variables. As formulated in chapter 3, it is hypothesized that job satisfaction plays a mediating role between transactional and transformational leadership scores as predictors on the one hand and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour as outcome variables on the other hand. The models that were tested followed the general mediational model as depicted by Baron and Kenny (1986). For each leadership factor, three regression models were tested: (1) a model containing the transformational leadership factor as predictor and value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour as the dependent variables; (2) a model containing job satisfaction as predictor and value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour as dependent variables; and (3) a model containing both transformational leadership factors and job satisfaction as predictors and value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour as the dependent variable. In the last, partial effects for the transformational leadership factor and job satisfaction (on value commitment, commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour) could be estimated. (For a detailed description

of the testing procedure see Appendix B). The results of the mediation effects are shown in Table 5.18, Table 5.19, and Table 5.20 below.

Table 5.18 reports on the regression models that were estimates for the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on *value commitment*. For each leadership factor, three regression models were tested as elaborated above.

**Table 5.18**  
**Regression analyses for assessing the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on value commitment.**

predictor:	effect of predictor on value commitment		effect of predictor on job satisfaction		partial effect of job satisfaction on value commitment		partial effect of predictor on value commitment		Sobel's test for mediation effect
	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>z</i>
<i>Transformational leadership</i>									
charismatic leadership	.568*	.073	.409*	.078	.460*	.076	.366*	.072	3.96*
individualized consideration	.520*	.078	.316*	.078	.500*	.077	.319*	.073	3.44*
intellectual stimulation	.343*	.068	.226*	.070	.560*	.074	.211*	.058	2.97*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>									
contingent reward	.328*	.076	.195*	.077	.581*	.074	.201*	.063	2.41*
active management by exception	.123	.085	.039	.080	.635*	.075	.082	.066	0.05
passive management by exception	-.257*	.062	-.237*	.060	.584*	.079	-.115*	.055	-3.48*
laissez-faire leadership	-.193*	.063	-.164*	.061	.611*	.078	-.072	.053	-2.54*

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.18 shows that job satisfaction mediates the effect of six leadership scores, charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. For five of the leadership scores, the mediation effect is partial, for the effects of these leadership scores on value commitment remain significant, when job satisfaction is part of the regression model. The effects of laissez-faire leadership on value commitment is completely mediated by job satisfaction. For the remaining one- leadership score, active management-by-exception, the test for the mediation effect was non-significant, although job satisfaction affects value commitment, when these leadership scores are in the regression model. The absence of a significant mediation test was due to the absence of effects of these leadership scores on job satisfaction, which indicates that the required Step 2 from the four steps distinguished by Baron and Kenny was not met.



Table 5.19 reports on the regression models that were estimates for the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on *Commitment to Stay*.

**Table 5.19**  
**Regression analyses for assessing the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on commitment to stay.**

predictor:	effect of predictor on commitment to stay		effect of predictor on job satisfaction		partial effect of job satisfaction on commitment to stay		partial effect of predictor on commitment to stay		Sobel's test for mediation effect
	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>b</i>	se	<i>z</i>
<i>Transformational leadership</i>									
charismatic leadership	.419*	.110	.409*	.078	.446*	.126	.224	.118	2.93*
individualized consideration	.441*	.111	.316*	.078	.440*	.122	.264*	.116	2.69*
intellectual stimulation	.241*	.094	.226*	.070	.510*	.118	.121	.092	2.59*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>									
contingent reward	.215*	.104	.195*	.077	.527*	.116	.100	.099	2.21*
active management by exception	.109	.110	.039	.080	.551*	.113	.075	.100	0.05
passive management by exception	-.336*	.081	-.237*	.060	.443*	.117	-.227*	.082	-2.73*
laissez-faire leadership	-.389*	.077	-.164*	.061	.429*	.110	-.303*	.076	-2.21*

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.19 shows that job satisfaction mediates the effect of six leadership scores, charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. For three of these six leadership scores, that is, individualized consideration, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, the mediation effect is partial, for the effects of these leadership scores on commitment to stay remain significant, when job satisfaction is part of the regression model. For effects of charismatic leadership, intellectual stimulation and contingent reward, on commitment to stay is completely mediated by job satisfaction. For the remaining one leadership scores, active management by exception, the test for the mediation effect was non-significant, although job satisfaction affects commitment to stay when these leadership scores are in the regression model. The absence of a significant mediation test was due to the absence of effects of these leadership scores on job satisfaction, which indicates that the required Step 2 from the four steps distinguished by Baron and Kenny was not met.

Table 5.20 reports on the regression models that were estimates for the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on organizational citizenship behaviour.

**Table 5.20**  
**Regression analyses for assessing the mediation effect of job satisfaction of the effect of transformational and transactional leadership scores on organizational citizenship behaviour.**

predictor:	effect of predictor on organizational citizenship behaviour		effect of predictor on job satisfaction		partial effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behaviour		partial effect of predictor on organizational citizenship behaviour		Sobel's test for mediation effect
	b	se	b	se	b	se	b	se	
<i>Transformational leadership</i>									
charismatic leadership	.298*	.065	.409*	.078	.140	.077	.241*	.071	1.72
individualized consideration	.230*	.064	.316*	.078	.186*	.075	.171*	.067	2.12*
intellectual stimulation	.191*	.057	.226*	.070	.201*	.073	.145*	.058	2.10*
<i>Transactional leadership</i>									
contingent reward	.126	.063	.195*	.077	.232*	.074	.080	.063	1.97*
active management by exception	.057	.065	.039	.080	.251*	.072	.042	.062	0.05
passive management by exception	-.190*	.049	-.237*	.060	.180*	.074	-.147*	.051	-2.07*
laissez-faire leadership	-.193*	.048	-.164*	.061	.196*	.071	-.161*	.048	-1.93

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5.20 shows that job satisfaction mediates the effect of four leadership scores, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and passive management by exception. For three of these four leadership scores (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation and passive management by exception the mediation effect is partial, for the effects of these leadership scores on organizational citizenship behaviour remain significant, when job satisfaction is part of the regression model. In the case of contingent reward, the effect of this leadership factor on organizational citizenship behaviour is completely mediated by job satisfaction. For the remaining three leadership scores, charismatic leadership, active management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, the test for the mediation effect was non-significant. (The absence of a significant mediation is due to the fact that the effects are too small).

In conclusion, in this chapter we have reported the results of our two studies undertaken in the Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. The results largely lend support to assumptions and expectations that we made regarding the influence of

transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In the next chapter we discuss these results of our two studies and we draw conclusions of our research results and we also propose the implications of research and practice arising out of our studies.

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## CHAPTER 6

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### **Discussion of Results and Recommendations for Research and Practice**

In this chapter, the results of the two empirical studies are discussed and summarized. First, we answer our two research questions we have formulated in chapter one. Second, we provide recommendations for practice and further research that arise from the present study.

#### **6.1 Discussion of results**

The purpose of the present research study was to investigate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership practices on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour and the indirect effects of transformational and transactional leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via job satisfaction. The present study was undertaken for the following three reasons: first a recent review of research on transformational leadership in schools suggest that there are no studies that have investigated the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in a single study in school settings; secondly, no study has investigated the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership with teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in school settings; third, to date there has been no research study in Tanzania that has inquired about the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational behaviour in the Tanzanian educational setting. Therefore, in order to better understand the effects of transformational leadership, particularly in developing

countries where leadership studies are scarce, the present research study took the important step of examining the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour within the Tanzanian educational context.

Two questions guided the present study and the two questions include:

1. (a) What is the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools?
- (b) Do the individual dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership have different levels of influence on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour?
2. To what extent does job satisfaction mediate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools?

Furthermore, in keeping up with Bass's (1985) and later Hater and Bass's (1988) and Bass and Avolio's (1990) postulation of the augmentation hypothesis that the effects of transformational leadership behaviours augment the effects of transactional leadership behaviours in predicting organizational outcomes, we also examined the augmentation hypothesis. Moreover, previous research has also suggested that teachers' background characteristics have an influence on the perception of leadership and outcome variables, we also tested the influence of demographic variables in our study.

In order to explore the above relationships, a survey study was undertaken in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania, where data were collected from a sample of 700 primary school teachers and 150 secondary school teachers. The survey covered six districts in one large eastern educational zone in Tanzania.

With regard to the first question the study results show that both transformational and transactional leadership factors influence the outcome variables, but they differ in the magnitude and direction of their influence on the outcome variables. In this regard, the study findings for both studies show that the group of transformational leadership factors (*charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation*) had strong aggregate positive effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational and organizational citizenship behaviour, more than transactional leadership factors (*contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership*). More specifically, our findings generally showed that for both two studies the group of transformational leadership behaviours had strong effects on job satisfaction, value commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, but had weak effects on commitment to stay. Moreover, it is important to note that these strong positive effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, value commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour are independent of the effects of transactional leadership. In this case, the aggregate transformational leadership factors make greater contribution to teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour than the group of transactional leadership factors. In contrast, the effects of the group of transactional leadership behaviours on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour produced a marked different pattern. Unlike the transformational leader behaviours, the aggregate effects of transactional leader behaviours on the outcome variables were found to be moderate to weak. Specifically, the group of transactional leadership behaviours had strong effects only on commitment to stay. These results of our study confirm results obtained in prior studies conducted in both non-educational and educational settings, in which it was also found that the group of transformational leadership factors had more stronger positive influence on the outcome variables, including job satisfaction, organizational

commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour than the group transactional leadership factors (see for example, Bycio et al., 1995; Bogler, 2001; Koh et al., 1995). This indicates that when teachers perceive their heads of schools as articulating a realistic vision of the future that can be shared, mobilizes commitment to these visions, stimulates subordinates intellectually, and pays attention to the differences among the subordinates, teachers are more likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

With regard to the influence of the individual transformational and transactional leadership factors, the study results show that these individual leadership factors also have an influence on the outcome variables. However, there are differences in the magnitude and direction of the influence of the individual leadership factors on the outcome variables, that is, teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In this regard, the results of both our two studies show that among the individual transformational leadership dimensions, the *charismatic leadership* dimension was the transformational leadership dimension that had shown to have the significant influence and accounts for a large variation in teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In both studies, the charismatic leadership dimension had significant positive effects on job satisfaction, value commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This finding is consistent with prior research, where it was also found that transformational charismatic leadership dimension to be consistently and strongly related to higher levels of employees' work-related attitudes and behaviour, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (see for example, Bycio et al., 1995; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Bogler, 2001; Geijsel et al., 2003).

Results also show that *individualized consideration* generally had only moderate to weak positive influence on the outcome variables. However, the only exception was that individualized consideration had weak negative influence on value commitment for primary school teachers. The results are consistent with those of Geijsel et al. (2003) who in their study of Canadian and Dutch secondary school teachers, concluded that 'overall the results of both studies suggest that leaders' individualised

consideration has the weakest impact on teachers' commitment and extra-effort, compared with the impact of vision building and intellectual stimulation'. As already discussed in chapter 3 (see section 3.1.5, some critical issues of the MLQ), the problem of the weak influence of the transformational leadership dimension of *individualized consideration*, according to Geijsel et al. (2003) has to do with the operationalization of the individualized consideration dimension itself. Referring to Yukl (1989), Geijsel et al. (2003) pointed out that individualised consideration is usually operationalised in terms of both developmental (coaching and mentoring) and support (respect, consideration, appreciation). They concluded that the 'developing' part of this dimension had proven to be quite influential with respect to followers' motivation and the 'supporting' part is mostly found to have specific impact on followers' satisfaction with the leader and generally appears to have only weak effects on followers' motivation. In the present study individualised consideration was operationalised as supporting, and as such our results are in line with conclusions by Geijsel, et al., (2003), that the supporting part of individualised support dimension shows weak effects on teachers' motivation. Thus, as suggested by Geijsel, et al (2003), it might be useful to add a more developmental-oriented operationalization of individual consideration into the research design of future studies into transformational leadership effects on teachers' outcome variables, including teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Also contrary to our expectation, *intellectual stimulation* had generally shown for both studies to have weak positive to negative effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Specifically, intellectual stimulation had only a significant positive influence on job satisfaction for primary school teachers. In a research study by Podsakoff et al. (1990) intellectual stimulation was also found to have negative impact on both employee trust in their leaders and job satisfaction. According to Podsakoff et al. (1990), one possible explanation for these surprising findings may have to do with the effect of intellectual stimulation on role ambiguity, conflict and stress. Although intellectual stimulation may produce desirable effect in the long run, it may be that in the short run, leaders who continually urge or exhort followers to search for new and better methods of



doing things create ambiguity, conflicts, or other forms of stress in mind of the followers. If the increased task demands produced by a leaders' intellectual stimulation behaviour increase stress, ambiguity and conflict, we might expect that followers will express less job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (1990) suggest that another possible reason why intellectual stimulation may reduce follower job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour may have to do with the destabilizing nature of intellectual stimulation itself. They point out that according to other researchers, for example, Avolio and Bass (1988), intellectual stimulation causes a 'cognitive reappraisal of current circumstances', thus possibly reversing an individual's 'figure ground' and leading to a questioning of 'old' and perhaps comfortable assumptions. It may be that this process is dissatisfying, and that leaders who continually do this are trusted less because they are perceived as being less predictable and/or dependable (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

With regard to the effects of the individual *transactional leadership dimensions*, the results also reveal some interesting findings. The results show that only two transactional leadership factors; contingent reward and active management by exception had moderate to weak positive effects on some of the outcome variables. The most interesting finding was for transactional contingent reward factor. We had expected contingent reward behaviours to have significant effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, to the contrary contingent reward has shown to have both negative and positive effects on the outcome variables. Specifically, contingent reward had only significant positive influence on job satisfaction for primary school teachers as we had expected. But contrary to our expectations, transactional contingent reward had generally shown to have moderate to weak positive influence on the outcome variables. More interesting for both studies is the relatively weak to negative influence of contingent reward on teachers' commitment to stay in their present schools. The main explanation of the weak to negative influence of contingent reward to teachers' commitment to stay in their present schools might lie in the fact that heads of schools in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania do not play a major role in providing

contingent reward to teachers related to salary, promotion and status. All of these are allocated centrally by the central government. This leaves heads of schools with very little power in providing transactional contingent reward to their teachers for acknowledging individual teachers' performance. Another reason might be that since teachers in Tanzania do not choose schools in which they would like to teach, transactional contingent reward may not necessarily play a significant positive role in increasing higher levels of teachers' commitment to stay in their present schools. Again given the fact that teachers can be transferred by the district education office (for primary school teachers) and the Ministry of Education and Culture (for secondary school teachers) from one school to another at any time, this makes it difficult for teachers to cultivate commitment to stay in their present schools. Furthermore, due to the fact that commitment to stay is viewed as 'calculative involvement' by employees with regard to financial benefits accruing from maintaining membership with the organization, this fact is less applicable to teachers in Tanzania. This is because the generalized contingent rewards (expressed in terms of salary, pension, and status) are provided centrally to teachers by the government and is given irrespective of which schools teachers teach. Therefore, because government rewards are not pegged to schools where teachers teach, in this case contingent reward might not be expected to influence teachers' commitment to stay in their present schools.

In both studies, the *active management by exception* dimension has generally shown to have both positive and negative weak influence on the outcome variables. The only significant influence of active management by exception leadership dimension was on the teachers' commitment to stay and organizational citizenship behaviour in primary schools. We had expected that leaders who actively intervene to solve problems would be perceived by teachers to be effective leaders and this in turn would promote teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. The explanation for the moderate to weak effects of active management by exception on the outcome variables might be that leaders who constantly intervene on teachers work for the purpose of corrective action might create feelings of interference and thus causing resentment among teachers. However, as we had expected the two

transactional leadership dimensions of *passive management by exception* and *laissez-faire* had mainly shown, for both primary and secondary schools, to have generally significant and insignificant negative influence on all the three criterion variables, that is, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This is also consistent with prior research that found that passive-avoidance leadership (i.e., passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership behaviours) to be typically negatively related to unit commitment, satisfaction and performance effectiveness. This is because as Bass (1985) has argued that these leaders are perceived by followers as being ineffective and therefore these behaviours are counter productive in enhancing followers motivation (see for example, Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003; Bycio et al., 1995; Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Koh et al., 1995).

Three trends can be derived from the above results of the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. These trends have also been observed in prior research. First, it can be observed that in the present study, as the case with other previous studies, that there is mounting evidence to the fact that there is quite a substantial variation in the way that the individual leadership dimensions influence the criterion variables. In the present study, as the case with previous studies an important finding is the fact that charismatic leadership dimension is the leadership dimension that has the strongest positive influence on the outcome variables, thus accounting for higher positive motivational aspects on teachers work attitudes and behaviour including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This finding is important in the fact that it shows the important role that charismatic leadership dimension plays in motivating followers. This implies that school leaders who articulate attractive visions of future states, elevate follower goals and inspiring enthusiasm and optimism and mobilize commitment to these visions are likely to have teachers who experience higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In the current educational reform efforts in Tanzania, whose success is dependent on teachers' commitment and morale to the reform process, it is necessary to have school leaders who can use

charismatic leadership practices in developing teachers' motivation and morale towards educational reform and school improvement.

The second trend arising out of the above mentioned results is the fact that the individual leadership dimensions have varying degrees of influence on teachers' work attitudes and behaviour, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour confirms the arguments of Bass (1985) and later Bass and Avolio (1990) and Eden (1998) that in order to be effective, school leaders need to use a combination of the various leadership behaviours. This finding is also consistent with Bass and Avolio (1990) observation that effective school leaders reflect all of the three transformational leadership factors (charismatic leadership, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) and two transactional leadership dimensions (contingent reward and active management by exception) in their practice. Transactional contingent reward leadership builds the foundation for relationships between leaders and followers in terms of specifying expectations, clarifying responsibilities, negotiating contracts and providing recognition and rewards for achieving expected performance. Transformational leadership enhances the development of followers, challenging them to think in ways which they are not accustomed to thinking, inspiring them to accomplish beyond what they felt was possible, and motivating them to do so by keeping in mind the values and high moral standards that guide their performance. A key point here is that using the full range of leadership behaviours associated with effective transformational and transactional leadership is more effective strategy than using any one in isolation (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass et al., 2003).

The third observed trend from the above study findings is that two transactional leadership behaviours of passive management by exception and laissez faire have generally shown to have negative effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This is also consistent with prior research that also found that passive-avoidance leadership (i.e., passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership behaviours) to be typically negatively related to unit commitment, satisfaction and performance effectiveness

(Bass, 1985). It is argued that leadership styles in which leaders sit and wait for things to go wrong and then take action was not a very effective leadership style in terms of either motivating employees or predicting unit performance (Bass et al., 2003). In this regard, school leaders should be made aware that such leadership behaviours of passive-avoidance, which have negative consequences on teachers' attitudes and work behaviour do not serve the interests of the current school reform process. Therefore, it is important that school leaders should not practice these passive and ineffective leadership behaviours.

In general, the results of the present study described above supports our hypothesized assumptions and expectations (that were formulated on the basis of on our research framework in chapter 3) regarding the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In short our assumptions had predicted that the more transformational school leaders are the more teachers will experience high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, the results of the present study lend support to the existing literature about the importance of transformational leadership to influence high levels of subordinate work attitudes and behaviour, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Specifically, the general proposition related to the transformational and transactional leadership and their relationship with subordinate and organizational outcomes are that transformational behaviour will have strong positive relationship with these criteria than will transactional behaviour, or transformational leadership will be positively related to the criteria, whereas transactional behaviour will be negatively related to the criterion variables (see for example: Bass & Avolio, 1994; Goodwin, et al., 2001; Hater & Bass, 1988).

With regard to Bass's (1985) augmentation hypothesis, the results of the present study show that transformational leadership behaviours augment transactional leadership factors in predicting teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in our sample. Therefore, Bass's (1985)

augmentation hypothesis is supported by these findings in our Tanzanian primary and secondary school teachers sample. Prior research on transformational leadership has also confirmed the augmentation hypothesis, in which case transformational leadership factors augments transactional leadership in predicting unit and organizational performance (see for example, Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Hater, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Koh et al., 1995).

With regard teachers background characteristics, our research results also point to the expected direction and supports prior research on the basic notion that teachers' background characteristics influence teachers' perception of transformational leadership and work related attitudes and behaviour (see for example, Angle & Perry, 1981; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Reyes & Pounder, 1993). In this regard, the influence of teachers' background variables on transformational and transactional leadership variables, our research results suggest that primary school teachers with lower level of qualification (that is grade B/C) seem to experience higher levels of active management by exception than more qualified teachers (that is grade A and diploma teachers). The explanation for this might lie in the fact that these teachers having lower level of qualifications are therefore less critical, and are more dependant on the leadership and support from the headteachers. This finding might be consistent with the idea that less qualified employees are more likely to require guidance, interventions, and approval from the leader as they might feel less confidence in carrying out their daily organizational tasks and responsibilities.

With regard to the effects of teachers' background variables and leadership variables on the outcome variables, the results of the regression analysis show that the amount of explained variance in transformational leadership scores on teachers job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour are affected by taking teachers' background variables into account. For example, the effects of transformational leadership factors on commitment to stay decreased the most by taking background variables into account. The results, therefore, provide evidence of extra added effects of teachers' background variables compared with only

leadership variables in explaining variation in teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

With regard to the effects of the teachers' background variables on the outcome variables, our research results showed that male teachers seemed to experience lower levels of job satisfaction than female teachers in the case of secondary schools. This finding supports results of prior research in educational settings, where it was generally found that female teachers experience more job satisfaction than male teachers (Ma & MacMillan, 1999). The results also show that female teachers experienced more organizational commitment than male teachers for secondary school teachers. However, most prior research tends to suggest that female employees are less committed to their organizations than male employees (see for example, Angle & Perry, 1981; Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Our research results also suggest that primary school teachers with lower level of qualification (that is grade B/C) seem to experience higher levels of job satisfaction than more qualified teachers (that is grade A and diploma teachers). This finding might be consistent with the idea that less qualified employees are more likely to experience more job satisfaction because they are less likely to find another job.

In reference to the second question the results show that indeed job satisfaction mediates the influence of both transformational and transactional leadership factors on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, the mediating role of job satisfaction varies across the different individual transformational and transactional leadership factors. In general, however, the effects of both transformational and transactional leadership factors have both direct and indirect effects via job satisfaction on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Our findings confirm research findings found in non-educational context, where it was also found that job satisfaction mediated the relationship of leadership behaviours on outcome variables, including organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. For example, Smith et al. (1983), using samples of bank employees, found that job satisfaction mediated the influence of leader behaviours on organizational citizenship behaviour. In short, it can

therefore be concluded that indeed job satisfaction plays an important role of mediating the influence of transactional and transformational leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, our research findings are consistent with the basic notion that the influence of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours on certain outcome variables may be both direct and indirectly through other work related attitudes and behaviour, including job satisfaction (see for example, Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983). It is in this regard, that Hallinger and Heck (1996) called for designing more complex research designs for examining the influence of school leadership on organizational outcomes. They argued, for example, that the influence of school leadership on organizational outcome variables (e.g., student performance) may best be examined through its link with teachers' work-related attitudes and behaviour. In the same vein, Howell and Avolio (1993), while referring to Koh et al. (1991) indicated that transformational and transactional leadership had a more direct effect on process variables, such as the commitment levels of followers and organizational citizenship behaviour, which then, in turn, predict performance in a causal model sense. In this context, a research study by Koh, Steers and Terborg (1995) in Singaporean secondary schools found that transformational leadership indirectly affected student performance through such variables as teachers' organizational commitment. Likewise, Podsakoff et al. (1990) found that the impact of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviour could be best explained through its link with follower trust in leader. Howell and Avolio (1993) concluded that the results reported by Koh, et al. (1995) and Podsakoff et al. (1990) suggest that structural models could be examined that include variables that either mediate or moderate the impact of transactional leadership behaviours on various measures of performance.

## **6.2 Recommendations for Further Research and Practice**

A number of important implications for further research and practice arise from the results of the present study as discussed below.



*Implications for theory and further research*

The results of the present study have several implications for theory and future research. First, since most empirical evidence on the effects of transformational leadership has been more confined to the western world than in developing world including Africa, the present study, therefore, continues and extends this line of inquiry by examining the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in non-western societies and cultures by taking Tanzania as a case study. The results confirm Bass (1985, 1997) claim about the universality of the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm across different nations and societies. Bass suggested that the same conception of phenomenon and relationships can be observed in a wide range of organizations and cultures in different parts of the world. He argued that when exceptions to the generalizations occur, they are usually circumstances explained by the peculiarities of the organizations and cultures (Bass, 1997). The findings of the present study adds testimony to the fact that in spite of cultural differences across nations and continents, transformational and transactional leadership is not necessarily confined to the western world. It is also found in other societies in Asia that are more collective compared to the capitalist societies of the west (see for example, Koh et al., 1995; Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2002). However, we suggest that more research in the African and Tanzanian educational context is needed in order to further confirm Bass's (1985) claim of the universality of transformational and transactional leadership across different cultures.

As mentioned earlier, no research studies have systematically examined the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in a single study in educational settings. Most research in education had studied the effects of transformational leadership on either one or two of these three teacher outcome variables (See Bogler, 2001; Koh et al., 1995). Based on the present study findings, we now have at least some knowledge about the direct effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational behaviour and the indirect effects via job satisfaction in the school settings taking Tanzania as a case study. From a practical

standpoint, we can now use this information arising out the findings of the present study to develop general strategies for improving school leadership training programmes (see also below). And from a theoretical point of view, we at least now know how transformational leadership behaviours influence the three teachers' work attitudes and behaviour. However, school leadership explains and accounts only for some portion of influence on these three teacher variables. We therefore expect that in addition to leadership, other factors may also influence teachers' job satisfaction, organization commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, future research should try to explore the influence of these other factors that have effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. These other factors include, for example, ministry, district and parents support to schools. We expect that teachers perception of the extent of support they receive from these various outside agencies, that is, ministry, district and parents towards school change initiatives may influence teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (see, for example, Wolbers & Woudenberg, 1995).

Furthermore, the findings of the present study adds more knowledge to our understanding of the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship of transformational leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Systematic research in educational settings into the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via job satisfaction was missing. Therefore, by having research findings on the mediating role of job satisfaction from the Tanzanian educational context, we have not only extended our knowledge of the explanatory power of job satisfaction, but also further confirmed the important mediating role of teachers' job satisfaction on building teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in educational settings. However, further research is needed to confirm the results obtained in the present study. Future research will show us if it is worthwhile to use job satisfaction as a mediator variable in the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. We also suggest

that future research should use other potential mediating variables to investigate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. For example, instead of job satisfaction taken as a mediator, other constructs such as; organizational climate, trust in the leader and satisfaction with the leader could be used as mediators to assess the extent to which these variables mediate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This would enable researchers to know the explanatory value of the mediating role of different variables, in the relationship of transformational leadership and teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in school settings. Research studies mostly reported in non-educational settings have provided evidence of the potential mediating role of these variables in the relationship between leadership and various organizational outcome variables (see, for example, Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Furthermore, studies by Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) suggest that another area relevant to the current educational reform efforts and which deserves to be a focus for future research is student performance, engagement with school and student well being. Thus, although the present research did not measure the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on student outcomes, e.g., student academic performance, we do however expect that student performance would be highly enhanced by teachers who experience high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In the present research we had hypothesized that transformational leadership would influence positively teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. It was thus expected that teachers who are experiencing high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour will in turn positively and willingly exert extra effort on student learning and as such raise student academic performance. Most previous research studies have suggested that principal leadership may have direct effect on organizational characteristics and teachers' effectiveness and then the latter may have effects on students' performance (see, for example, Bogler, 2001; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood &

Jantzi, 2000). This reasoning is consistent, for example, with the conclusions made by Hallinger and Heck (1996) who, after reviewing research exploring the relationship between leadership and student achievement, concluded that principals can contribute to school effectiveness and improvement by exercising a measurable direct effect of teachers' effectiveness and a statistically significant though relatively small and indirect effects on student achievement. Therefore, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) suggest that the key to understanding performance is to study how school leadership, school conditions, family conditions influence student identification and engagement with school. They argue that our understanding of student performance is unlikely to progress much further without systematically inquiry about how school leadership, school conditions and families individually and collectively influence student identification and engagement with school. Therefore, since educational reform processes in Tanzania target improving student learning, future research should investigate school and family conditions that enhance student identification and engagement with school.

The present study has used only one research method of data collection. However, in order to uncover more about the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, there is need to use other methods of research to supplement the survey method used in the present study. It is argued that the use of one research method only tapes one part of the story and has its limitations. Therefore, the use of multiple or diverse research methods, such as field interviews, observations, case studies and longitudinal studies may help to enhance our knowledge of the transformational leadership phenomenon. For example, Kirby et al. (1992) and Yukl (2002) point out that the use of diverse research methods is warranted and yields better-informed results. We therefore, propose that future research in Tanzania should utilise other research methods to explore the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. It is also proposed that in order to capture dimensions not accounted for by the existing models, future research in Tanzania educational context should be based on mixed method approaches, including both quantitative and qualitative methods.

*Implications for practice*

The results of this study also have implications for leadership training and policymakers. The results show that transformational leadership behaviours and transactional contingent reward and active management by exception greatly foster higher levels of teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. These findings have obvious implications for the preparation and training of school leaders in Tanzania. It is important to train school leaders in Tanzania so that they can systematically acquire and internalise the effective transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward and active management by exception leadership behaviours. It has been argued that the increasing rate of change in the external world of schools and the many new challenges facing school leaders suggest that success as a leader requires a high level of skill and some new competences. And therefore as the need for new leadership skills and competencies increase, leadership training and development programmes is now becoming important than ever before (Yukl, 2002). Previous research, conducted in business and military organizations has shown that training in transformational and transactional leadership indeed enhances leadership effectiveness and organizational performance. (Barling et al., 1996; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Dvir et al., 2002; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Yukl, 2002). However, it is important to note that the leadership training and development programmes to be provided to school leaders should make a distinction between (a) leadership training programmes to be provided to existing practising school leaders who are already well experienced in school management and (b) the type of training programmes to be used in the preparation and training of future new prospective and aspiring school leaders. Our arguments here is that the existing practicing school leaders would need more training in transformational leadership behaviours, which to these practising school leaders will constitute new form of knowledge. In this way transformational leadership knowledge will add-on on to the already existing knowledge of transactional leadership, which is already known and being practised by these current practising school leaders. In the case of training of new and future prospective and aspiring school leaders, we propose that these would need extensive training in both transformational and transactional

leadership behaviours. Therefore, training programmes for the new aspiring future leaders should be designed systematically in the sense that they start learning about transactional leadership behaviours first and later followed by training in transformational leadership behaviours. Again consistent with current thinking of collaborative leadership in schools, it might be imperative that there should also be leadership training programmes for the other levels of leadership that support the school head in managing the day to day to day activities of the school. These other leadership levels include assistant school heads, heads of departments, and other levels of management in schools (see, for example, Leithwood et al., 1999; Yukl, 2002).

The finding that teachers' job satisfaction mediates the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour has implications for educational reform policy. Job satisfaction can be considered as an important variable that can strategically be changed in order to enhance teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. It is therefore important that governments that are implementing large-scale educational reforms need to pay great attention to teachers' job satisfaction because the tasks and increased workload handed on to teachers amidst the current large-scale educational reforms and changes puts a huge amount of strain on teachers. In this context, finding ways to increase teachers' job satisfaction seems to be a very important policy strategy in the Tanzanian context that will not only make teachers to develop higher levels of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, but also teachers are likely to exert the needed extra effort for the success of educational reforms. Likewise, teachers' job satisfaction is highly important for enhancing student learning, which is the ultimate goal of all educational reforms. Satisfied teachers will be more enthusiastic about investing more time and energy in teaching students. In this regard, critical issues that the Tanzanian government ought to consider for enhancing teachers' job satisfaction include, for example, improvement in teacher salaries, working conditions, promotions, fringe benefits, and retirement benefits, as well as, provision of in-service training programmes to teachers, so as to enable them to increase their capacity to do their teaching job better. Other strategies

that can help enhance teachers' job satisfaction is for policy makers, society and parents to give due recognition to the teaching profession and the important work done by teachers in educating the Tanzanian children.

Furthermore, the finding that teachers' commitment to stay in their present schools is very low, suggests that the Tanzanian government will have to reconsider its policy of allocating teachers to schools centrally, without taking into consideration the choice and preference of teachers themselves. It can be argued that the present policy of allocating teachers to schools by central authorities may somewhat guarantee a fair distribution of teachers even to the remote areas of the country, however, the results of this study suggest that teachers' commitment to stay in their schools is somewhat low. The implication for this might be that teachers are less committed to teach in their present schools and as a consequence students are the losers in such a situation. One suggestion to enhance teachers' commitment to stay in the schools to which they are allocated is to have a mixed policy whereby teachers are allowed to choose schools where they want to teach, and have a policy of incentives that can attract teachers to choose schools say in remote areas of the country. In short, this suggests that the Tanzanian government may have to rethink of its present policy and allow teachers to not only choose districts but also schools in which these teachers would like to teach. For those schools, which will have difficulties of teachers to choose, then certain policy incentives may be instituted and put in place so as to attract teachers to teach in those schools. For as long as Tanzania is committed to decentralize education and school management in the hope of raising the quality of education, it is important that we pay attention to teachers' choice of schools as a strategy to raise teachers' commitment to stay in the schools they teach. Teachers' commitment to stay in their schools may constitute an important variable in enhancing teachers' motivation towards exertion of extra effort to student learning.

Furthermore, given the role of research in the development and improvement of training programmes, we would propose that management and leadership training institutions should constantly engage and carry out leadership research studies within the current educational reform context in Tanzania. The role of research as a tool of obtaining reliable data and information for feedback to improve training and practice

in the field brings about the necessity of carrying out leadership research in the field for the purpose of improving (a) leadership training programme content and methodology, (b) improving leadership practice in the field and monitoring the effectiveness of training programmes, and (c) create a nationwide knowledge base about effective leadership.

In summary, it is our hope that the present study has made a modest contribution to our understanding of the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in the Tanzanian educational context. Thus, the present study serves as a starting point that will stimulate further research on the exploration of the effect of transformational leadership on organizational and teacher outcome variables in the Tanzanian educational context and elsewhere.





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## SUMMARY

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The purpose of the present research study was to investigate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership practices on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour and the indirect effects of transformational and transactional leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour via job satisfaction. The present study was undertaken for the following three reasons: first a recent review of research on transformational leadership in schools suggest that there are no studies that have investigated the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in a single study in school settings; secondly, no study has investigated the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership with teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in school settings; third, to date there has been no research study in Tanzania that has inquired about the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational behaviour in the Tanzanian educational setting. Therefore, in order to better understand the effects of transformational leadership, particularly in developing countries where leadership studies are scarce, the present research study took the important step of examining the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour within the Tanzanian educational context. Furthermore, in keeping up with Bass's (1985) and later Hater and Bass's (1988) and Bass and Avolio's (1990) postulation of the augmentation hypothesis that the effects of transformational leadership behaviours augment the effects of transactional leadership behaviours in predicting organizational outcomes, we also examined the augmentation hypothesis. Moreover, previous research has also suggested that teachers' background characteristics have an influence on the perception of leadership

and outcome variables, we also tested the influence of demographic variables in our study.

The theoretical framework that guided the study is based on Bass's (1985) transformational and transactional Leadership Theory. The framework used to guide this inquiry takes transformational forms of school leadership to have direct effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Such leadership also may have indirect effects on teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship via teachers' job satisfaction. In order to explore the above relationships, a survey study was undertaken in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania, where data were collected from a sample of 700 primary school teachers and 150 secondary school teachers. The survey covered six districts in one large eastern educational zone in Tanzania.

The questionnaires used in the survey contained 90 items measuring four sets of variables:

1). Transformational and Transactional Leadership: For the measurement of transformational and transactional leadership we used items developed by Bycio, Hackett, and Allen, (1995) which were adapted from Bass's (1985) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The following three dimensions of transformational leadership were measured: a) Charismatic leadership: the extent to which teachers feel involved in the development and articulation of a vision of for the school; b) Individualized consideration: the extent to which teachers experience the appreciation and respect of school leaders for themselves as individuals; c) Intellectual stimulation: the extent to which teachers perceive school leaders to support and facilitate their professional growth. The following four dimensions of transactional leadership were measured: d) Contingency reward: the extent to which leaders set goals, make rewards on performance, obtain necessary resources, and provide rewards when performance goals are met. e) Active management by exception: the extent to which leaders closely monitor followers' performance and keep track of mistakes; f) Passive management by exception: the extent to which leaders may not be aware of problems until informed by others and generally fail to intervene until serious problems occur; g)

Laissez-faire leadership: the extent to which leaders avoid responsibility, fail to make decisions, are absent when needed, or fail to follow up on requests

2). Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction has been defined as 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experience' (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction was measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The original scale was modified to reflect more relevant in school settings in Tanzania.

3). Organizational Commitment: Organizational commitment has been referred to as the degree to which people identify with the organization which employees them, as well as willingness to stay with the organization for a long time. Organizational commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982).

4). Organizational Citizenship Behaviour: Organizational Citizenship behaviour has been referred to as helping or cooperating behaviours shown by employees in an organizational setting which help to enhance social relations and cooperation within organizations. These behaviours include actions like offering help to co-workers even when it is not requested, demonstrating a cheerful and cooperative attitude or conserving the organization's resources, and tolerating inconveniences without complaint (Tossi, Rizzo, & Carroll, 1994). Organizational Citizenship behaviour was measured by an instrument developed by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983).

To analyze the data, multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine how well the transformational and transactional leadership factors predict teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In order to assess the extent to which the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour is indirect via job satisfaction (the second question), path analyses were performed for each of the outcome variables. The models were tested following the procedure developed by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Overall the results of the present study yielded some significant findings. The results show evidence of the positive effects of the three dimensions of transformational leadership: charismatic leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual

stimulation on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. More specifically, among these dimensions, charismatic leadership dimension seems to be the most influential dimension of transformational leadership for explaining variation in teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

With regard to transactional leadership factors as a group, the results show that transactional leadership affect the outcome variables, but their influence was lower as compared to the influence of transformational leadership factors. The individual transactional leadership factors that had positively influenced the outcome variables were contingent reward and active management by exception. The remaining two transactional leadership factors, passive management by exception and laissez-faire had mainly negative effects on the outcome variables. Furthermore, the results also showed that job satisfaction appears to be a relatively strong link between transformational and transactional leadership and teachers' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In total, the research model appears to have clear explanatory value for teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

In general, the results of the present study lend support to the existing literature about the importance of transformational leadership to influence high levels of subordinate work attitudes and behaviour, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. The results also supported Bass's (1985) augmentation hypothesis that suggests that transformational leadership factors augment the influence of transactional leadership factors. Moreover, our results show that the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour were slightly affected (that is, either increased or decreased) by taking teachers' background characteristics into account. The results for instance revealed gender difference with regard to levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Based on these results, the following implications for further research are formulated. First, more research in the African educational context is needed in order to further confirm Bass's claim (1985) of the universality of transformational and transactional leadership across different cultures. Second, further research should explore other variables, apart from leadership, that are assumed to influence teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Third, apart from job satisfaction, other potential mediator variables (e.g. organizational climate, trust in leadership) should be used in future research in examining the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and teachers' work related variables, for example, teachers' trust in leader and satisfaction with leader. Finally, although the present study did not measure the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on student outcomes, further research should investigate school and family conditions that enhance student performance, engagement with school and student well-being.

The results also have implications for the preparation and the training of school leaders in Tanzania. In order to enhance higher levels of teachers' work related attitudes and behaviour, it is strongly suggested that school heads in Tanzania should practice transformational leadership behaviours and practices. These transformational behaviour and practices would include, for example, formulating an appealing vision of the future, develop teachers' commitment to the vision and implement strategies to accomplish the vision. It is also advocated that school heads, both practising and aspiring school leaders, should receive training in both effective transformational and transactional leadership practices. Lastly, the fact that job satisfaction has shown to be an important mediator of leadership and teachers' work related attitudes and behaviour suggests that the Tanzanian government ought to pay attention to teachers' job satisfaction, in order to enhance teachers' commitment to the present educational reform process. The issues related to salary and working conditions seems to be the bones of contention and need urgent attention if we are to guarantee the success of the educational reform process in Tanzania.



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## SUMMARY IN DUTCH

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Doel van het onderzoek dat in deze dissertatie is beschreven, is het verkrijgen van inzicht in de effecten van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap in Tanzaniaanse scholen voor basis- en voortgezet onderwijs op de arbeidssatisfactie van docenten, hun betrokkenheid bij de organisatie en hun burgerschapsgedrag in de organisatie. Naast de directe effecten van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap zijn de indirecte effecten van dit leiderschap via arbeidssatisfactie op de betrokkenheid van docenten en hun burgerschapsgedrag in de schoolorganisatie onderzocht.

Drie redenen hebben ten grondslag gelegen aan het uitgevoerde onderzoek. Allereerst bleek dat systematisch onderzoek naar de effecten van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap op de arbeidssatisfactie, de betrokkenheid en het burgerschapsgedrag van docenten in scholen schaars is. In het verlengde daarvan, bleek er ook weinig zicht te zijn op de mediërende rol van arbeidssatisfactie als schakel tussen schoolleiderschap en betrokkenheid van docenten bij de organisatie. Een derde reden was dat er nauwelijks onderzoek verricht is naar leiderschap en effecten daarvan op het functioneren van docenten binnen het onderwijs in Tanzania of andere Afrikaanse landen.

Het theoretisch kader van deze studie wordt in hoofdzaak gevormd door de theorie van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap van Bass (1985). Uit dit theoretisch kader kon worden afgeleid dat met name transformatief leiderschap in organisaties de arbeidssatisfactie en de betrokkenheid van medewerkers, alsmede hun burgerschapsgedrag direct beïnvloedt. Bovendien is, in navolging van studies van Bass (1985), Hater en Bass (1988) en Bass en Avolio (1990), de zogenaamde ‘augmentation’-hypothese getoetst. De ‘augmentation’-hypothese stelt dat effecten van transformatief leiderschap in organisaties een toegevoegde waarde hebben ten opzichte van de effecten van transactioneel leiderschap. Ook zijn demografische leerkrachtfactoren in het onderzoek betrokken teneinde zoveel mogelijk variatie in de afhankelijke variabelen te verklaren.



Om de veronderstelde relaties te onderzoeken is een survey-onderzoek uitgevoerd bij scholen voor basis- en voortgezet onderwijs in Tanzania. Gegevens zijn verzameld bij 700 leerkrachten in het basisonderwijs en 150 leerkrachten in het voortgezet onderwijs uit zes districten in een oostelijke regio van Tanzania.

De vragenlijsten die in deze studie zijn gebruikt, bevatten 90 items die betrekking hadden op vier sets van variabelen.

1) Transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap: Voor het meten van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap is gebruik gemaakt van items die door Bycio, Hackett en Allen (1995) zijn ontleend aan de 'Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire', zoals door Bass (1985) ontwikkeld. De volgende drie dimensies van transformatief leiderschap zijn onderscheiden: a) Charismatisch Leiderschap: de mate waarin leerkrachten zich betrokken voelen bij de ontwikkeling en uitdrukking van de visie van de school; b) Individuele ondersteuning: de mate waarin leerkrachten zich als individu binnen de organisatie gerespecteerd en gewaardeerd voelen door de schoolleiding; c) Intellectuele stimulans: de mate waarin leerkrachten steun ervaren door de schoolleiding in hun professionele ontwikkeling. Daarnaast zijn vier dimensies van transactioneel leiderschap onderscheiden: d) Voorwaardelijke beloning: de mate waarin leiders doelen stellen, prestaties belonen en voldoende bronnen vergaren; e) Actief management: de mate waarin leidinggevendenden het gedrag van ondergeschikten nauwgezet volgen en oog hebben voor fouten; f) Passief management: de mate waarin leidinggevendenden niet bewust zijn van problemen totdat ze daarvan op de hoogte zijn gebracht door anderen en in het algemeen falen om in te grijpen; g) Laissez-faire leiderschap: de mate waarin leiders verantwoordelijkheid vermijden, falen om beslissingen te nemen, afwezig zijn als men ze nodig heeft en falen in het voldoen aan verzoeken.

2) Arbeidssatisfactie. Arbeidssatisfactie is gedefinieerd als 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experience' (Locke, 1976). Arbeidssatisfacite is gemeten met de Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

3) Betrokkenheid bij de organisatie. Betrokkenheid bij de organisatie heeft betrekking op de mate waarin mensen zich met de organisatie identificeren, alsmede de

bereidheid om werkzaam te blijven in de organisatie. Betrokkenheid bij de organisatie werd gemeten met de 'Organizational Commitment Questionnaire' (OCQ), ontwikkeld door Mowday, Porter en Steers (1982).

4) Burgerschapsgedrag met betrekking tot de organisatie. Burgerschapsgedrag met betrekking tot de organisatie heeft betrekking op het helpen van en samenwerken met collega's waardoor de sociale relaties tussen de leden van de organisaties wordt bevorderd. Het concept verwijst naar gedragingen als het aanbieden van onvoorwaardelijke hulp aan collega's, het tonen van een coöperatieve houding en het zonder klagen tolereren van ongeriefelijkheden (Tossi, Rizzo & Carroll, 1994). Burgerschapsgedrag werd gemeten met een vragenlijst die is ontwikkeld door Smith, Organ en Near (1983).

Voor het beantwoorden van de vragen zijn multiële regressieanalyses uitgevoerd waarmee de mate waarin transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap de criteriumvariabelen beïnvloeden is onderzocht. Tevens is gebruik gemaakt van padanalyses om de indirecte effecten van leiderschapsdimensies via arbeidssatisfactie op betrokkenheid bij de organisatie en burgerschapsgedrag met betrekking tot de organisatie te onderzoeken. Deze padanalyses zijn uitgevoerd volgens een procedure die is ontwikkeld door Baron en Kenny (1986).

Uit de resultaten van het onderzoek blijkt dat er sprake is van positieve effecten van drie dimensies van transformatief leiderschap, te weten charismatisch leiderschap, individuele ondersteuning en intellectuele stimulans, op arbeidssatisfactie, betrokkenheid bij de organisatie en burgerschapsgedrag met betrekking tot de organisatie. Van deze drie dimensies van transformatief leiderschap, bleek met name de dimensie charismatisch leiderschap het meest effect te hebben op de criteriumvariabelen. De dimensies van transactioneel leiderschap bleken als groep een matig effect te hebben op de criteriumvariabelen. Twee van de vier dimensies van transactioneel leiderschap bleken positieve effecten te hebben op de criteriumvariabelen, namelijk voorwaardelijke beloning en actief management. De twee andere dimensies van transactioneel leiderschap, passief management en laissez-faire leiderschap, bleken negatieve effecten te hebben op de criteriumvariabelen.

Verder bleek dat de invloed van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap op de criteriumvariabelen betrokkenheid bij de organisatie en burgerschapsgedrag met betrekking tot de organisatie deels via arbeidssatisfactie te lopen. Met behulp van het conceptuele model bleek voldoende variatie in arbeidssatisfactie, betrokkenheid van docenten en hun burgerschapsgedrag in scholen te kunnen worden verklaard.

De resultaten van deze studie bevestigen het belang van transformatief leiderschap voor het stimuleren van een positieve werkhouding van medewerkers, zoals uit de bestaande literatuur blijkt. De resultaten van het onderzoek ondersteunen bovendien de hierboven vermelde 'augmentation'-hypothese. Transformatief leiderschap bleek een significante bijdrage te leveren aan de verklaring van de variatie in de afhankelijke variabelen bovenop de verklaring die werd geleverd door transactioneel leiderschap. Verder kwam uit de resultaten naar voren dat achtergrondkenmerken van de leraren van invloed blijken te zijn op de relatie tussen transformatief leiderschap en de criteriumvariabelen. Zo bleek er onder meer gendersverschillen te bestaan met betrekking tot arbeidssatisfactie, betrokkenheid bij de organisatie en het burgerschapsgedrag van docenten met betrekking tot hun schoolorganisatie.

Op grond van de resultaten zijn de volgende implicaties voor verder onderzoek geformuleerd. Allereerst is er meer onderzoek in de Afrikaanse onderwijscontext nodig om de bewering van Bass (1985) dat de begrippen transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap universeel - over verschillende culturen heen - geldig zijn, verder te bevestigen. Daarnaast zou vervolgonderzoek gericht kunnen zijn op andere predictoren dan leiderschapkenmerken. Een derde implicatie heeft betrekking op het belang om naast arbeidssatisfactie ook nog andere interveniërende variabelen (b.v. organisatieklimaat, vertrouwen in en tevredenheid met de leider) in de relatie tussen transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap te onderzoeken. Hoewel in deze studie niet de effecten van transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap op uitkomsten bij leerlingen zijn onderzocht, zou in vervolgonderzoek tenslotte de invloed van gezin en school op de prestaties van leerlingen, de betrokkenheid van leerlingen bij school en het welbevinden van leerlingen meer onderzocht dienen te worden.

De resultaten van het onderzoek hebben ook consequenties voor de opleiding en nascholing van schoolleiders in Tanzania. Om de professionele attitudes en gedrag van docenten te bevorderen, is het van belang dat schoolleiders transformatief gedrag vertonen. Dit transformatief gedrag zou onder andere gericht moeten zijn op het formuleren en in stand houden van een visie, het ontwikkelen van betrokkenheid van docenten voor die visie en het uitvoeren van strategieën om de visie te implementeren. Aanbevolen wordt dan ook dat zowel beginnende als ervaren schoolleiders getraind worden in effectief transformatief en transactioneel leiderschap. Tevens wordt erop aangedrongen dat de regering in Tanzania aandacht besteedt aan de arbeidssatisfactie van docenten om de betrokkenheid van docenten bij de huidige onderwijshervormingen te vergroten. De resultaten tonen namelijk aan dat arbeidssatisfactie een belangrijke mediërende rol speelt bij de invloed van leiderschap op het professioneel functioneren van docenten. Voor het welslagen van de onderwijshervormingen in Tanzania lijken met name zaken als werkomstandigheden en salariëring van belang te zijn en vragen dan ook dringend om aandacht.



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## **APPENDICES**

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**Appendix A**  
**Research Questionnaires**





MANTEP Institute  
P. O. Box 71  
**Bagamoyo**  
**Tanzania**  
October, 2001

**Dear Teachers,**

*Re: A STUDY ON MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP STYLES PRACTISED IN  
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS*

The aim of this study is to identify various examples of management practices and processes in primary and secondary schools, which teachers have recognized as being common in their day-to-day life and interaction in their schools. The study is done through a series of questions.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain teachers perceptions and views on various aspects of management practices in their schools. The information you give will enable the researcher to establish a clear picture of teachers' views on school management practices.

**Please answer every question.**

**Section A** of the questionnaire seeks basic information about teachers' personal information.

The rest of the questionnaire (**Section B, C, D and E**) has been designed as a series of statements/questions where your views can be shown by putting a tick in the appropriate box.

I am doing this study as part of my work at MANTEP and partly as a major project for my studies for Doctorate in Educational Management.

I finally wish to assure you that all the information you provide will be kept confidential.

Thank you for your help and for your cooperation.

Yours Sincerely,

**S.C. Nguni**  
*Researcher*



**SECTION A**

**Teachers Personal Information**

Please, give your answer by putting a tick ( ✓ ) in the appropriate box or write your answer in the space provided.

1. What is your Gender/Sex:

- Male .....
- Female .....

2. What is your Age:-----

3. What is your Marital Status:

- Single .....
- Married .....
- Widower/Widow .....
- Separated .....
- Other (Specify)-----

4. What is your Highest Academic Qualification:

- Primary School Education .....
- Ordinary Level Secondary School Education .....
- Advanced Level Secondary School Education .....
- Diploma .....
- Advanced Diploma .....
- First Degree .....
- Other (Specify) -----

5. What is your Highest Professional Qualification:

- Grade B/C Teachers Certificate.....
- Grade A Teachers Certificate .....
- Diploma in Education .....
- Degree in Education .....
- Other (Specify)-----


6. How many years have you been teaching? -----

7. How many years have you been teaching at this school? -----

8. How many years have you been working with your present head of your school at this school?-----

What are your main teaching subjects?-----

## SECTION B

**Transformational School Leadership Questionnaire**

What are your views on the way your Headteacher in your school reflects the following school leadership practices? Please tick ( ✓ ) your answer in the appropriate box using the following 5-point scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = No Opinion
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

<i>Item</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1 The head of the school makes me feel good to be around him/her because he/she has an impressive and charming personality					
2 The head of the schools is respected by all teachers					
3 The head of the school is a good example of good work and behaviour for me to follow					
4 I consider the head of the school as a symbol and sign of success and accomplishment in our teaching profession					
5 I trust the head of the school ability and good judgment in solving problems					
6 The head of the school inspires and encourages teachers to aim high in our teaching job and in life					
7 The head of the school makes me feel proud to be associated with him/her					
8 The head of the school has a special ability and talent for seeing what is really important for me to consider in my teaching job and in life					
9 The head of the school encourages me to hope for a bright future in our teaching profession and in life					
10 The head of the school inspires loyalty and commitment to the school					
11 I have complete faith and trust in the head of the school because of the good way he/she manages the school					
12 The head of the school sets a vision and future direction of what we may be able to accomplish and achieve if we work together					
13 The head of the school encourages me to					

	express my ideas and opinions in staff meetings					
14	The head of the school encourages teachers to understand the points of views of other teachers during staff meetings					
15	The head of the school gives me a sense of overall meaning and satisfaction in my teaching job and in life					
16	The head of the school shows a sense of duty and work commitment which he transmits to me					
17	The head of the school stimulates and encourages teachers to participate willingly and happily in doing school duties					
	<b>Individualized Consideration</b>					
18	The head of the school shows his/her satisfaction to me when I meet required standards of good work					
19	The head of the school creates conditions that allow teachers to do their teaching job and complete various school duties even without his/her presence					
20	I get credit and praise from the head of the school for doing my work well					
21	The head of the school finds out what I want and he/she tries to help me get it					
22	You know for sure that the head of the school will praise you when you do a good job					
23	The head of the school gives personal attention to teachers who look neglected, lonely and keep away from the company of other teachers					
24	The head of the school treats each teacher as an individual with different needs, abilities and aspirations					
	<b>Intellectual Stimulation</b>					
25	The head of the school has provided me with new ways of looking at things which I did not understand before in my teaching job					
26	The head of the school has challenged my ideas and have made me change some of my own ideas which I had never questioned before in my teaching job and in life					
27	The head of the school helps me to think and solve old problems in new and alternative ways					
	<b>Contingent Reward</b>					
28	The head of the school assures me I can get what I personally want in exchange for my efforts for doing school duties					
29	The head of the school talks a lot about					

	giving teachers special recommendations, praise and promotion for good work					
30	I decide what I want and the head of the school shows me how to get it					
31	Whenever I feel necessary, I can negotiate or talk to the head of the school what reward I can get for what I accomplish					
32	The head of the school tells me what I should do, if I want to be rewarded for my efforts					
33	The head of the school gives me the reward I want in exchange for showing my support for him/her					
34	There is close relationship between what I am expected to contribute to the work in a group and the reward I get out of my contribution					
	<b>Active Management by Exception</b>					
35	The head of the school pays more attention in the school affairs when there are problems, irregularities and mistakes in the school					
36	The head of the school spends most of his time solving disputes, troubles and conflicts in the school					
37	Most of the time the head of the school follows closely my mistakes					
38	The head of the school, most of the time directs his/her attention towards failure to meet standards in the school					
	<b>Passive Management by Exception</b>					
39	The head of the school does not take action until problems become serious					
40	The head of the school waits until things have gone wrong in the school before he takes action					
41	The head of the school is a person who believes that if there are no problems, then there is no need to change anything in the school					
42	Problems must become very bad before the head of the school takes action					
	<b>Laissez-faire</b>					
43	The head of the school avoids getting involved when important issues and problems arise in the school					
44	The head of the school most of the time is absent from the school when needed					
45	The head of the school avoids making decisions in the school					
46	The head of the school delays responding to urgent problems that arise in the school					



## SECTION C

**Job Satisfaction Questionnaire**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements that reflect the extent of your satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the teaching job that you are doing now? Please tick ( ✓ ) your response/answer in the appropriate box using the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = No Opinion
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

<i>Item</i>		1	2	3	4	5
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The teaching job I am doing provides me the chance to keep busy all the time					
2	The teaching job I am doing provides me the chance to work independently					
3	The teaching job provides me with a chance to do different school activities from time to time					
4	The teaching job provides me with a chance to get recognition from the community					
5	I like the teaching job because of the way the head of the school treats people with respect					
6	I like the teaching job because of the ability of the head of the school in making good decisions					
7	The teaching job I am doing provides me with the opportunity to do things that go against my will or wishes					
8	The teaching job provides me with steady as well as security of employment					
9	The teaching job gives me a chance to help other people					
10	The teaching job provides me the chance to give orders to pupils in the school of what they should do					
11	The teaching job gives me a chance to teach subjects that make use of my abilities					
12	I like the teaching job because of the good way in which school rules and regulations are followed and obeyed in our school					

13	I like the teaching job because the salary I get as a teacher is equal to the amount of work I do					
14	The teaching job provides a chance of promotion on the job					
15	The teaching job gives me the freedom to make my own judgment and decisions in my work					
16	The teaching job provides with a chance to try out and learn new things					
17	The teaching job gives me a chance to try my own methods of teaching in the classroom					
18	The general physical, social and teaching conditions in the school are good					
19	I like the way teachers cooperate and get along friendly with each other in this school					
20	The teaching job gives me the chance to get praise for doing a good job					
21	My teaching job gives me a feeling of success that I get for doing my job well					
22	The teaching job provides me with a chance to attend in-service training courses from time to time					

## SECTION D

**Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**

To what extent as a teacher do you like your present school and how much are you committed to continue working at the present primary school where you are now working? Please tick( ✓ ) your response/answer in the appropriate box using the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = No Opinion
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

<i>Item</i>		1	2	3	4	5
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this school be successful					
2	I speak well and with pride about this school to my friends as a great school to work for					
3	I don't feel proud about this school					
4	I am prepared to accept any kind of extra duties in order to remain and continue working in this school					
5	I accept and obey the norms, rules and regulations set by the school					
6	I am proud to tell my friends and other people that I am one of the teachers of this school					
7	I feel I could as well be teaching in any other school instead of this one.					
8	To me the school inspires and drives me to work hard due to its high standards of academic performance					
9	For any minor conflict with the head of the school, I can leave this school					
10	I am extremely glad that I was posted/transferred to work at this school					
11	For me, there is not much to be gained by continuing to work in this school any longer					
12	Often, I find it difficult to agree with the rules and regulations for teachers in this school.					
13	I really care about the future development and success of this school					
14	When I compare with other schools, for me I consider this school to be the best school to work for and teach					
15	It was a mistake on my part to accept being posted/transferred to work in this school					

**SECTION E**

**Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Questionnaire**

**(OCB)**

To what extent do you rate the following statements which reflect the extent of your identification and interaction with your school, your fellow teachers and the community in and around your school? Please tick ( ✓ ) your responses/answer in the relevant box using the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = No Opinion
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

<i>Item</i>		1	2	3	4	5
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am willing to teach classes of absent teachers					
2	I am willing to do non-teaching duties of absent teachers					
3	I report to the school and duties on time					
4	I am always ready to volunteer to do any school duties and assignments given by the head of the school					
5	I sometimes absent myself from the school without the permission of the head of the school					
6	I am willing to volunteer to give orientation and guidance to new teachers who join our school					
7	My attendance at work is good and above average					
8	I help other teachers who have heavy work load in our school					
9	I evaluate myself at the end of the day to see what I have accomplished in my school work					
10	I give advance notice to the head of the school when I am not able to come to school					
11	I spend a lot of time talking to teachers and other people during school time					
12	I do not get out of the school compound unnecessarily during working hours					
13	I assist the head of our school in doing his/her work					
14	I make innovative and good suggestions which help to improve the school					

15	I do not take extra leave/holidays apart from those shown in the school regulations					
16	I am willing to attend social functions and ceremonies which help to improve the image of the school					
17	I do not unnecessarily waste time talking to teachers and other people during working hours					

**Appendix B**  
**The Mediation Model**



## The Mediation Model

As formulated in Chapter 3, it is hypothesized that job satisfaction plays a mediating role between transactional and transformational leadership scores as predictors on the one hand and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour as outcome variables on the other hand. The models that were tested followed the general mediational model as depicted by Baron and Kenny (1986, see Figure 1).

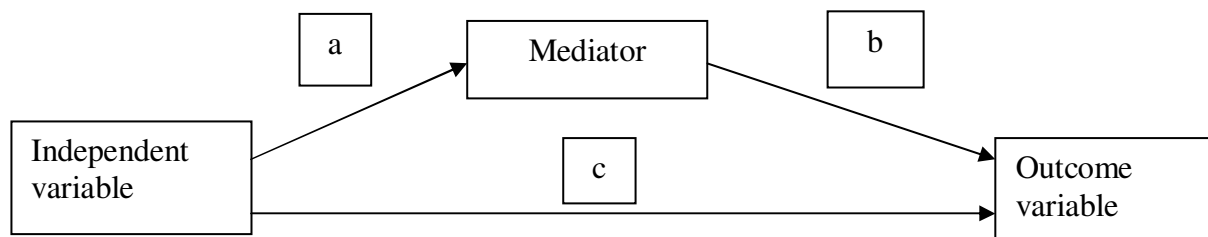


Figure 1: Mediational model (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176).

To test the mediation hypotheses, a series of regression models were estimated, following four steps for establishing mediation as described by Baron and Kenny (1986):

- Step 1: Show that the independent variable is correlated with the outcome (estimate path c from Figure 1).
- Step 2: Show that the independent variable is correlated with the mediator (estimate path a from Figure 1).
- Step 3: Show that the mediator affects the outcome variable (estimate path b from Figure 1). This effect should be assessed when controlled for the effect of the independent variable on the outcome variable; the mediator and the outcome variable may be correlated because they are both caused by the independent variable, thus the independent variable must be controlled.
- Step 4: To establish that the mediator completely mediates the relationship between the independent variable and the outcome variable, the effect of the independent variable on the outcome variable controlling for the



mediator should be zero.

The effects in both steps 3 and 4 are estimated in the same regression equation.

If all four steps are met, then the data are consistent with the hypothesis that the mediator completely mediates the effect of the independent variable on the outcome variable, and if the first three steps are met, but the step 4 is not, than partial mediation is indicated. To test the mediation effect, Sobel (1982) has developed a test (see also Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003) for an online interactive mediation test). The Sobel test for the mediation effect yields a z-value for the mediation effect<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> The calculation of the z-value for Sobel's test for the mediation effect is calculated with the formula  $a*b/\sqrt{b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2}$ , where b and  $s_b$  are estimated when controlling for a (Sobel, 1982).

## **Appendix C**

### **The structure of the Tanzanian formal education system**



## **The Structure of Formal Education System in Tanzania**

The Tanzanian formal education system provides 2 years of pre-school, 7 years of compulsory primary education to every child in the county. The educational structure is therefore structured 2-7-4-2-3/5, that is, 2 years of pre-primary education, 7 years of primary education, 4 years of ordinary secondary education, 2 years of Advanced level secondary education, and 3 to 5 years of tertiary education (university and other higher learning institutions). The details are provided below.

### ***Pre-primary education***

The Ministry of Education and Culture (1995) points out that in order to provide opportunities for children to prepare adequately for primary education, the government will formalized and promote pre-primary education for children of ages 5-6 years. Pre-primary education will serve the preparatory function for smooth continuation into primary education. This education will ensure maintenance of the Tanzanian cultural values. It will also promote the development of communication skills of children. Children at this level of education will have to be taught in a language, which is commonly used in Tanzania. The medium of instruction in pre-primary schools shall be Kiswahili, which is the national language of Tanzania and English shall be a compulsory subject.

### ***Primary school education***

Primary school education consists of 7 years of basic education. This education is universal and compulsory to all school age going children in Tanzania. The primary school cycle begins with Standard One (Std. 1) on entry and ends with Standard Seven (Std. 7) in the final year. Primary education in Tanzania is compulsory. At the moment all children aged 7-12 years are eligible for enrolment. The Education Act No. 25 of 1978 requires them to remain in school for seven years. The main objective of primary education is to lay the social-cultural foundation, which ethically and morally characterize the nation. This education is intended to enable every child to acquire broad and integrated knowledge, skills and understanding needed for survival, conservation of the environment and life-long education (Ministry of Education and

Culture, 1995). The medium of instruction in primary schools is Kiswahili, and English is a compulsory subject. At the end of primary school, that is standard seven, the pupils sit for a Primary School Leaving Examination. Those pupils who pass well are selected to continue with secondary education.

### ***Secondary education***

Secondary education is divided into two levels. The first cycle is a four-year Ordinary Level (O-Level) secondary education, while the second cycle is a two-year programme of Advanced Level (A-Level) secondary education. The o-level cycle begins with form 1 and ends with form 4, while A-level has form 5 and form 6. When students complete Ordinary level secondary education, they take a National Form 4 Examination and those who pass the exams well are selected to join Advanced Level, that is Form 5. Advanced level secondary school students sit for a National Form Six Examinations after two years of study. These students who complete Advanced Level secondary education join University education and other tertiary or higher education and training institutions or join the world of work. One of the main objectives of secondary education is to provide opportunities for the acquisition of knowledge, skills and understanding in prescribed or selected subjects of study so as to prepare students to join institutions of vocational and professional training, tertiary and higher education (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995). The medium of instruction in secondary schools is English.

### ***Tertiary education: University and other institutions of higher learning***

Students join the University and other higher learning institutions after completed advanced level secondary education and having passed well the National Form 6 examinations. There are several universities and higher learning institutions in Tanzania who offer wide range of specialized courses, including education, law, medicine, town planning, engineering, management, etc.

### The structure of the Tanzanian formal education system

Level of Schooling	Approximate Age	Explanation or Remarks
<b><i>Tertiary Institutions and University Degree</i></b>		
5 <sup>th</sup> Year	24	Medical Doctors Degree (5 Years)
4 <sup>th</sup> Year	23	Engineering degree (4 Years)
3 <sup>rd</sup> Year	22	Arts and Science Degree (3 Years)
2 <sup>nd</sup> Year	21	Advanced Diploma (3 Years)
1 <sup>st</sup> Year	20	Ordinary Diploma (2 Years)
<b><i>Advanced Secondary School Education (A-Level)</i></b>		
Form 6	19	Senior Secondary School or High School. It takes two years to complete this level of education
Form 5	18	
<b><i>Ordinary Secondary School Education (O-Level)</i></b>		
Form 4	17	Junior Secondary School or Ordinary Level It takes four years to complete this level of education
Form 3	16	
Form 2	15	
Form 1	14	
<b><i>Primary School Education</i></b>		
Std. 7	13	Primary Education consists of 7 years. Std. 8 was phased out in 1967 and 1968
Std. 6	12	
Std. 5	11	
Std. 4	10	
Std. 3	9	
Std. 2	8	
Std. 1	7	
<b><i>Pre-School Education</i></b>		
Year 2	6	The Education and Training Policy (1995) advocates establishment of Pre-School Education as part of formal school system
Year 1	5	



**Appendix D**  
**Teacher Training in Tanzania**





### **Teacher Training in Tanzania**

The training of teachers in Tanzania has been one of the main features of the education system since independence in 1961. Teachers are important both in quantity and quality for maintaining the education system. Since independence in 1961, the Tanzanian government has attempted to introduce innovations to help improve the quality of teachers suitable for maintaining the system. Therefore, teacher training in Tanzania has had to take into account the qualitative as well as the quantitative needs of the nation. Tanzania trains teachers of different types to teach at different levels of the education system. The types of teachers trained in Tanzania is as explained below:

- (a) The first type of teachers is the Grade B/C teachers. These are teachers who have had either the full seven year primary education plus two full years of teacher training and qualify for 'Grade C teaching certificate' or those who have full seven year primary education and two years of secondary education plus two years of teacher training and qualify for 'Grade B teaching certificate'. These teachers are posted to teach in primary schools. However, the government discontinued the training of these two types of teachers in 1995. These teachers are now required to up-grade to teacher Grade A.
- (b) The second type of teachers are the Grade A teachers. These teachers who had had 4 years of secondary education, plus a full additional two years of teacher training. After a successful completion of the two-year teacher training course programme they are awarded 'Grade A Teaching Certificate'. These teachers are also posted to teach in primary schools. From 1995, the lowest qualification required to teach in primary schools in Tanzania is Grade A.
- (c) The third type of teachers is the Diploma teachers. These teachers are those who have had an equivalent of six years of secondary education plus one year of teacher training. These diploma teachers are trained to teach in secondary schools and in teacher training colleges.

- (d) The fourth type of teachers is the university-trained teachers, who have studied education concurrently with their degree subjects. These University graduates possess Bachelor of Arts (Education) or Bachelor of Science (Education) or Masters degree in education. The graduates are posted to teach in secondary schools and in teacher training colleges. As secondary school teachers they are expected to teach at all levels of the six-year secondary education. The difference between graduate teachers and the diploma teachers is that the former had had a more profound academic preparation and is therefore expected to teach higher classes in the secondary school and in teacher training colleges.

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## CURRICULUM VITAE

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Samuel Crispin Nguni was born on 10<sup>th</sup> April, 1953 at Liuli village, Mbinga district, Ruvuma region in Tanzania. He attended primary education at Liuli primary school between 1962-1968, after which he was selected for his ordinary level secondary education at Kibaha secondary school from 1969-1972. He was selected to continue with advanced level secondary Education at Tanga secondary school between 1973-1974.

In 1975 he was conscripted for one-year compulsory military service. In 1976 he was employed by Tanzania Rural Development Bank (TRDB) as Credit Supervisor, the post he held for 2 years until 1978. In mid 1978 he joined the University of Dar es Salaam, where he studied for the Bachelor of Arts degree, in the following subjects: Education, History and Geography. After completing his B.A (Education) degree, he was employed by the Ministry of Education and Culture and was posted to teach at Minaki secondary school in Kisarawe district, Coast region, Tanzania where he taught History and Geography subjects for five years between 1981-1985. During this period he was involved in a number of activities including: Secretary to the Coast region Historical Association, an executive member of the Historical association of Tanzania, a member of the Institute of Curriculum Development (ICD) History Subject Curriculum Panel and a member of the National Examination Marking Panel of the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA). Also in this period, he has been co-author and co-editor to the history subject school textbooks being used in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania.

In 1985, he received a Commonwealth Scholarship, which was funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) to do a Masters degree in Education (Curriculum Development) at the University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. After completing his Masters degree in 1988, he joined the Institute

of Management Training for Educational Personnel (MANTEP institute) in Tanzania. Since he joined MANTEP he has undertaken several short courses related to educational management training, including designing and developing management training materials. He was Head of Curriculum department between 1988-1996. In 1997 he became the Director of Studies of MANTEP Institute. As Director of Studies, he was extensively involved in the planning, training and supervision of educational management training programmes involving different categories of educational managers, including primary school headteachers, secondary school heads, district education officers, regional education officers and inspectors. These programmes were funded by the government of Tanzania in collaboration with various donors including UNESCO-SIDA and the World Bank. He has also been co-author and co-editor to three management training manuals for primary school headteachers produced by MANTEP Institute between 1996-1998. He has also engaged in consultancy for the Ministry of Education and Culture (in particular the Education Sector Development Programme (EdSDP)), District Education Offices and the Aga Khan Foundation (STEPS-Project in Tanzania) in the area of Management Training and Development of Training Materials.

In 2000 Mr. S. C. Nguni received a scholarship under NUFFIC-EMLINK Project Programme to pursue a PhD study at the University of Nijmegen in the Netherlands in the area of School Leadership. On his return to Tanzania, after completion of his PhD he will be the Head of the Research and Consultancy Department of the Agency for the Development of Educational Management (ADEM-formally called MANTEP Institute).