



**ADAMA SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
TEACHERS EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT**

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND TRAINERS' JOB
SATISFACTION IN ADAMA TVET COLLEGE OF OROMIA REGIONAL STATE**

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JUNE, 2015

ADAMA, ETHIOPIA



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KEBEDE BULTUMA NATEI

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY TEACHER EDUCATION IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
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SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

This is to certify that the paper prepared by Kebede Bultuma entitled: *The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Trainers' Job Satisfaction in Adama TVET College of Oromia Regional State*: Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Masters of Arts in Educational Leadership compiles with regulation of the university and meets the accepted standards with to originality and quality.

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January, 2015

Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this research paper is my original work and that all sources of the materials in the research paper have been duly acknowledged. The matter embodied in the paper has not been submitted earlier for award of any mark to the best of my knowledge and belief.

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This research has been submitted for examination with my approval as advisor.

Name of Advisor _____

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Date _____

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ASTU: Adama Science and Technology University

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

CR: Contingent Reward

d: Effect Size

df: Degree of Freedom

DV: Dependent Variable

FRLM: Full Range Leadership Model

IC: Individualized Consideration

IIA: Idealized Influence (Attributed)

IIB: Idealized Influence (Behavior)

IM: Inspiration Motivation

IV: Independent Variable

IS: Intellectual Stimulation

JSS: Job Satisfaction Survey

LF: Laissez-Faire

MBEA: Management by Exceptions (Active)

MBEP: Management by Exceptions (Passive)

MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

MoE: Ministry of Education

OJS: Overall Job Satisfaction

RC: Recognitions

SD: Standard Deviation

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Science

TA: Transactional Leadership

TF: Transformational Leadership

TVET: Technical and Vocational Education & Training

Abstract

The general objective of this study was to assess the relationship between Leadership styles and full-time Trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State. The whole TVET College, 14 college leaders and 95 trainers' members, of the chosen TVET College was defined as the sample. A descriptive correlation research design and Cross-sectional survey type was employed. To select the samples a combination purposive, non-proportional stratified and simple random sampling techniques were used. The data was collected in March and April, 2015 by using MLQ and JSS. The findings highlight that trainers were moderately satisfied. The transformational leadership style, in relation to the other two independent variables (transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) is the dominant leadership, and has a weak positive and no statistically significant effect on college trainers' overall job satisfaction. Whereas, the transactional leadership style is the second, relatively, has weak positive and statistically insignificant effect on College trainers' overall job satisfaction. On the other hand, laissez-faire leadership has comparatively weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on TVET College Trainer's overall job satisfaction. In addition, the educational qualification and age demographic factor are also weak positive predictor on the Overall job satisfaction while the Sex and Work experience are a negative predictor of trainers overall job satisfaction. Therefore, the current rate of trainer turnover experienced within Adama TVET College is not only due to incorrect usage of leadership styles but also demographic factors matter. Adama TVET College suggested to adopt a TF leadership style but has to use a mix of transactional managerial abilities with a paper dose of and transformational abilities. Therefore, Adama TVET College leaders need to avoid any laissez-faire behavior and spend time instead coaching, paying attention to employees' desires, abilities and needs, help them develop their talent, and provide a supportive environment. This would help achieve minimize trainers turn over and higher performance standard within the college.

Keywords: Leadership style, job satisfaction, TVET College, College leaders, Trainers, Leadership

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Leadership is one of the most pressing issues, prominent agenda, and widely discussed topic across the world and countries. According to Burns (1978, as cited in Awan and Mahmood, 2010) it was stated that leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. Due to its complexity, there is no single consensually agreed up on definition of leadership (Yukl, 2002).

Kotter (1999) has defined leadership as it is about setting a direction or developing a vision of the future together with the necessary strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve this vision. Other researcher Ezeuwa (2005) that defined; leadership is the act of influencing people so that they strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the accomplishment of organizational goal. De Jong and Den Hartogo (2007) viewed leadership as the process of influencing others towards achieving some kind of desired outcome. According to Hamidfar (2009), leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers to perform in such a way to reach a defined goal or goals. What is meant by influence is that the relationship among people is not passive but multidirectional instead, and is where superiors influence subordinates and subordinates influence superiors. Leadership is the process of interaction between leaders and followers where the leader attempts to influence followers to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2005).

From the above definitions, we can understand that leadership has been defined in many different ways, but most definitions share three important components of leadership: the leader, the followers and the goal. So, no single, “correct” definition of leadership covers all situations; what matters is how useful the definition is for increasing our understanding of effective leadership.

Organizations in corporate world thoroughly focused on finding, searching and developing leadership for their respected organizations. This implies that leadership is gear for the organizations success by establishing vibrant and high performing teams regardless of the type of organizations. In the modern world era, due to the nature of the organizations change, complexity and dynamic environment the leaders do face greater challenges than ever before. Leaders in

educational institutions are the same as leaders in other organizations, and inevitably face the challenge of maintaining the goals of institutions (Northouse, 2010).

It is quite clear that education is the most important tool and to deal with the changing social and physical environments. It is a process designed to shape the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for individuals to manage the environment to which they live. Verma (2001) argues that the primary purpose of education is to advance and promote the fullest individual self-realization for all and it is considered as the basic right for everyone. Thus, education particularly, TVET institutions through technology acquisition, accumulation and transfer play a pivotal role in skill development and have significant contribution to fight against poverty. Hence, poverty reduction is impossible unless the economy generates opportunities for investment, entrepreneurship, job creation and sustainable livelihood. In this regard, Riaz and Haider stated that leaders should have the ability to draw out changes in relation with environmental demands (Riaz and Haider, 2010).

Many of the leadership theories developed over the years, major theories posited as Bolden include Great Man Theories, Trait Leadership theory, Behavioural Leadership theory, Situational Leadership theory, Transactional Leadership theory, Transformational Leadership theory (Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Beside these and among others, Bass (1985) also developed the full range leadership (FRL) theory which is a new leadership theory approach which is known as also the transformational leadership model (Bass, 1985, 1999). While those early theories tend to focus upon the characteristics and behaviors of successful leaders, recent theories begin to consider the role of followers and the correlated nature of leadership.

In Bolden (2004), it was stated that, the concept of leadership starts with the unique focus in the theory of trait-theory. The proponent of the great man theory assumes that leaders are born and have innate qualities; therefore, leaders cannot be made. The undefined philosophy pertained, if anyone has traits such as adaptive, responsive, ambitions, achievement oriented, assertive, decisive, energetic, persistent, self-confident, etc., and then he is a leader or potential leader (Stogdill, 1974). Then after, the leadership theories were more inclined towards behavioral styles that leaders exhibited in the past. As it was stated in Robbins and Coulter (2009), behavioral paradigms were stimulated to know the behavioral aspects of leaders so that people could be trained as leaders. The next school of thought in leadership theories originated in the form of situational, which assumed that appropriate leaders behavior varies from one situation to another.

According to Griffin (1999), the best course of action or leadership behavior is required in accordance with the situational variable. Subsequent and almost similar theories were proposed as contingency theory which was primarily concerned with specific environmental variables that determine the best leadership style suited with the situation. From the above no uniform leadership is the best suit rather various variables like the leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation play significant role in overall success.

In transactional theory, it emphasizes the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers (Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, in transformational theory the central concept is change and the role of leadership is envisioning and implementing the transformation of organizational performance (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

Therefore, for the organizations success it is measured by its administration and achievement. In this regard, leadership style is one of the main factors that determining the effectiveness of the leaders which in turn, is vital for the overall organizational success. That is why, educational leaders are supposed to possess an appropriate leadership styles that influences staff job satisfaction and performance, and should be employed if to attain academic excellence in most of our educational institutions.

In recent years, leadership style has become an important topic of study in the management field (Fang, 2006). There are many different styles of leadership. Mosadeghard (2003) had pointed out the following styles of leadership: autocratic, bureaucratic, laissez-faire, charismatic, democratic, participative, situational, transactional, and transformational leadership. In this current study, the researcher will use the following three leadership styles: transactional, transformational and laissez-faire which they are together considered as elements of full range model. These three styles are known as the new leadership theory and are used by most academics who study organization leaders (Bogler, 2002; Timothy and Ronald, 2004). In addition to this, FRL theory approach is a new comprehensive leadership model (Walumbwa *etal.*, 2005)and universally applicable (Bass,1997).However, the literature on transformational leadership model/ FRLM is extremely little in the Ethiopia educational settings since there were little literatures done

on similar setting. Therefore, it is essential to state some overview about these three leadership styles, hence the overview serve as entry point for this study.

Transactional leadership style focuses and emphasizes on completion and accomplishing of allocated tasks on hand. This type of leader maintains and preserves harmony working relationships coupled with promises on rewards for satisfactory performance (Dessler and Starke, 2004). It is an exchange-based relationship where self-interest is dominated. As Bass and Avolio (1993) stated transactional leaders work with their organization culture and follow existing rules, procedures and operative norms. They communicate with their subordinates to explain how a task must be done and let them know that there will be rewards for a job done well (Avolio *et al.*, 1991). According to Pearce and Sims (2002), transactional leadership relies on the use of the appropriate reward to motivate followers. The rewards shall include negative based rewards such as punitive and penalized actions in the event that the followers or subordinates fail to perform as per the instruction, while positive rewards are such as complimentary comments, praise and recognition upon successful compliance with instruction from the leaders and achievement of objectives (Riaz and Haider, 2010). According to Bass (1998), transactional leadership comprises three components usually characterized as instrumental in followers' goal attainment, namely contingent reward, management by exception (active or passive), and Laissez-faire.

On the other hand, transformational leadership style; As Bryman (1992, cited in Thean and Long, 2011) it is part of the "New leadership" paradigm which gives more attention to charismatic and effective elements of leadership. As Avolio (2007) transformational leadership is the ability to motivate and to encourage intellectual stimulation through inspiration. McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2005) further defined transformational leadership style as guidance through individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspiration motivation and idealized influence. Transformational leaders do more with followers and colleagues than transactional leaders do (Avolio *et al.*, 1991). Instead of a simple exchange and agreement, transformational leaders provide a vision and a sense of mission, inspire pride, and gain respect and trust through charisma (Bass *et al.*, 1990). Besides, transformational leaders are change agents and visionaries encouraging individuals and having the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty (Tichy & Devanna, 1996).

As it was stated in Flood et al. (2000), laissez-faire leadership is extremely passive as compared to transformational and transactional leadership. Laissez-faire leaders avoid decision-making and supervisory responsibility. Such leaders are not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties (Hartog and Van Muijen, 1997).

Newly, in the full range leadership (FRL) theory approach the range of behaviors starts with transformational leader behaviors to transactional leader behaviors reaching to the lowest leader interaction of laissez-faire leader behaviors which are represented by nine distinct factors (Bass *et al.*, 2003). The most widely used survey instrument to assess these factors in the FRLT has been the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Hunt, 1999; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Yukl, 1999).

Leadership style affects a range of factors such as job satisfaction, performance, turnover intention, and stress (Chen and Silverthorne, 2005) and so contribute to organizational success (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). As Laohavichien *et al.*, (2009), transactional and transformational leadership has been of great interest to many researchers in the current era. Both transformational leadership and transactional leadership help in predicting subordinates satisfaction with their leaders (Bennett, 2009). However, in some situations both cannot provide the ultimate satisfaction to their subordinate and partially contribute as explanatory variables. Hence, leadership style and job satisfaction seem to go hand in hand with fulfilling their roles and functions to wards trainers' job satisfaction, leaders adopt various leadership styles or they exhibit various behaviors patterns. Due to the reason that many academicians and researchers considered in the recent years that transactional and transformational leadership as independent variables and explored their relationship with dependent variables. One of the variables is job satisfaction.

Armstrong (2003) defined job satisfaction as the feelings and attitudes of people toward their job. He mentioned that if people have favorable and positive attitudes towards their job, this means job satisfaction, but if they have unfavorable and negative attitudes towards their job, this means job dissatisfaction.

Spector (1997) stated that the antecedents of job satisfaction can be categorized into two groups. The first group includes the job environment itself and some factors related to the job. The second group includes individual factors related to the person, who will bring these factors to the job

including previous experiences and personality. Often both groups of antecedents of job satisfaction work together to influence. According to Mullins (1998), the level of job satisfaction is affected by social, personal, cultural, environmental, and organizational factors. In addition, Armstrong (2003) suggested a classification into extrinsic factors, intrinsic factors, social relationships in work place, individuals' abilities to do their work, and the quality of supervision.

Based on the above stated facts organization care is important to employee satisfaction and loyalty. It gives us an insight that leadership play vital role how employees perceive their superior and how obtaining the desired work outcomes. In this regard, Rugg (2005) also explain that numerous studies have indicated that leadership can make difference in organizational performance as well as individual satisfaction.

The relationship between perceived leadership styles of the leaders and the employees' job satisfaction has been studied by many researchers. As Hamidifar (2010) also viewed in the study that there was significant positive influence of transformational leadership factors on staff job satisfaction but there was no significant influence of transactional leadership on a subordinate's job satisfaction. In the study conducted by Ramey (2002) showed that transformational leadership is positive and moderate with the job satisfaction. In a survey of 244 nursing school faculty members, Chen (2005) found that Taiwanese nursing directors were more transformational leaders than transactional or laissez-faire ones. The results also indicate that the nursing faculty members were moderately satisfied with their jobs and felt that the heavy workloads as opposed to the directors' leadership styles were possible reasons for their dissatisfaction with their jobs. In another study, expanding Chen's previous study, Chen *et al.* (2005) found that the followers were satisfied with the contingent reward dimension of transaction leaders and individualized individual consideration of transformational leaders.

In a study on the relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes by using a sample of 402 staff in China and India in the banking and finance sectors, Walumbwa *et al.* (2004) positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment. Ejimofor (2007) has also conducted a study on investigate the results have again demonstrated a the relationship between a teacher's perception of his or her principal, transformational leadership skills possessed by teachers, and job satisfaction in two large Local Government Areas in Southeastern Nigeria. The results of the study show that a teacher's

perceptions of his or her principal's transformational leadership skills have a substantial impact on job satisfaction.

Nebiat N. *et al.* (2013) study conducted at Jimma university specialized hospital from January to June 2012 on relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) of nurse managers and nurses' job satisfaction and the result showed that nurses tended to be more satisfied with the transformational leadership than transactional leadership style. However, Robbins *et al.* (2010) argue that leader using the style laissez-faire could increase job satisfaction among employees because of freedom given to them to make decisions when is needed.

In spite of the abundance of research exploring the correlation between the leadership styles and job satisfaction in a wide variety of fields and in an equally wide variety of settings in different parts of the world, in the context of Ethiopia we can say that there were no sufficient studies that explored the effect of perceived leadership style (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) on the job satisfaction of Trainers' working in Government TVET College of Ethiopia. Hence, the purpose of this study then emerged as the need to identify the prevalent leadership styles and to measure Trainers' job satisfaction, with a view to assess the relationship between College leaders' leadership styles and full-time Trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

As it was stated in Kennelly (1989), the fundamental factors influencing the effectiveness of an organization are leadership and employee job satisfaction. Leadership is considered as one of the most important determinants of employee job satisfaction. It extensively influences employees' motivation and dedication. The successes of the organizations depend on effectiveness and efficiency of both leadership and employees. Therefore, it is difficult to ensure organizational success without employees' co-operation and leadership efforts.

According to Barsh (2009, as cited in Parrish, 2011) it suggested that effective leaders who manage to overcome the feeling of dissatisfaction do so by consciously stopping the "emotional downward spiral" that can result from adverse events. Instead of engaging in the negative aspects of the workplace, Barsh further suggested that academics with high job satisfaction will deliberately and

willfully address the actual problem the subjecting to the emotional negatively that is often the automatic reaction in such circumstance.

In his study of job satisfaction, Akalewold (2004) stated that work related variables are the most important factors that attribute to teachers'/ trainers' level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to Akalewolds' findings, out of the working conditions considered in his study of job satisfaction and its implication to secondary schools, only school administrators' support was related to satisfaction. Therefore, it is rational to assume that leadership behavior would have a significant relationship with the development of employee job satisfaction.

According Hanson and Miller it was stated that, there is clear evidence that employees/trainers with high level of job satisfaction are less likely to leave the organization and dissatisfied workers/trainers are more likely to resign (Hanson and Miller, 2002). High level of employees'/trainers' job satisfaction has been highly associated with more work performance and less employee turnover and absenteeism.

Established in 1939 E.C. as an educational institution, Adama TVET College for the last sixty eight years (68 years) of advancement towards its present college status has witnessed several significant transformations. By now i.e., 2014/15 G, C it has 10 departments. From these departments it has 42 occupations. When we see the leaders, trainers, trainees and administrative staff it has 19 leaders 141 full time trainers, 4,465 trainees and 69 administrative staff.

The achievements made by Adam TVET College right from its conception in line with the new Curricula were tremendous. Its acclaimed vanguard in the field of industrial occupation training deserves a great reputation.

In 2013/14 G.C academic year from total of full-time trainers it has been observed that 4.6% trainers attrition from different qualification level in Adama TVET College, which from this level-B qualification accounts 35.7%. Regarding this attrition, there are different rumors including leadership behaviors which must be investigated. It is therefore critical for principals/leaders to realize that perhaps their own leadership behaviors can assist in keeping teachers/ trainers' more satisfied, which will consequently impact student/trainee achievement in a positive manner and assist in decreasing teacher/ trainers attrition rates (Mathieu, 1991; Leithwood *et al.*, 1998; Ostroff,

1992).Hence trainers’ job satisfaction is very important for the Colleges, otherwise these trainers can move to another area for more comfort, facilities and satisfaction.

Although the abundance of research exploring the correlation between the leadership styles and job satisfaction in a wide variety of fields and in an equally wide variety of settings in different parts of the world, we can say that there are no sufficient studies that explored the effect of perceived leadership style (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) on the job satisfaction of Trainers’ working in Government TVET Colleges of Ethiopia where Adama TVET is no exceptional. In this regard, thus, Edward and Gill (2012) have strongly argued that more research is needed to understand the effects of leadership styles on teachers’/trainers’ job satisfaction in school/college settings.

Consistent with this, the present study examined the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction in the context Government owned TVET College of Ethiopia. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between College Leaders leadership styles and full-time Trainers’ job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State.

Thus the study was attempted to obtain reliable response for the following basic questions.

1.3 Research Questions and Its Hypotheses:

Research Question 1: Which leadership style (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire) is dominant among College leaders in Adama TVET College?

Research Question 2: What is the extent of the relationship between transformational leadership style such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, and job satisfaction variables in Adama TVET College?

In analyzing this question, the following hypothesis was generated:

H2₀: There is no significance relationship between the facets of transformational leadership style [idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, recognition, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

H2_a: There is a significance relationship between the facets of transformational leadership style [idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, recognition, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

Research Question 3: What is the extent of the relationship between transactional leadership style such as contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive) and job satisfaction variables in Adama TVET College?

Regarding with this question, the following hypothesis was developed for testing:

H3_o: There is no significance relationship between the facets of transactional leadership style [contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive)] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

H3_a: There is a significance relationship between the facets of transactional leadership style [contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive)] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

Research Question 4: What is the extent of the relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction variables in Adama TVET College?

In addressing the problem, the question was transformed to the following hypothesis:

H4_o: There is no significance relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

H4_a: There is a significance relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

Research Question 5: What are the demographic facts that are associated with Adama TVET College trainers' job satisfaction?

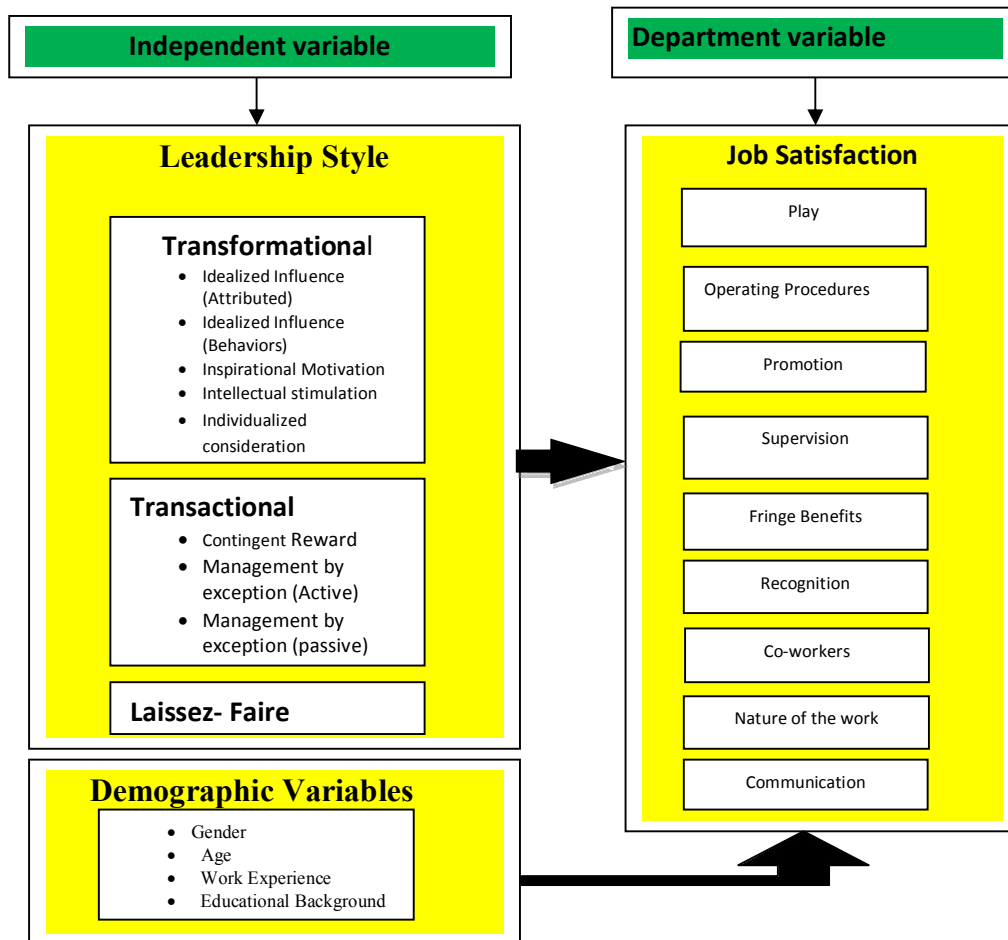
Consistent with this question of the study, the following hypothesis was developed for testing:

H5_o: There is no significance relationship between demographic aspects such as gender, age, work experience and educational background and (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall) job satisfaction.

H5_a: There is a significance relationship between demographic aspects such as gender, age, work experience and educational background and (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall) job satisfaction.

1.4 Conceptual Framework

Figure II. Conceptual Framework



- Source: created by the researcher for this study.

As Figure II shows, it reflects the fact that trainer's job satisfaction, as measured in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, recognition, operating procedure, coworkers, nature of the work and communication can be influenced by either one of the three different leadership styles considered in this study: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Five factors (sub-variables) were identified as characteristic of transformational leadership: idealized influence (attributed /behavior), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual

stimulation. Three facets (sub-variables) were found to be characteristic of transactional leadership: contingent reward, management by exception active, and management by exception-passive. Laissez-faire is self-described. Accordingly, leadership style as measured by Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is the independent (predictor) variable and trainer job satisfaction as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey is the dependent (criterion) variable. The independent variable (IV) and dependent variable (DV) includes 9 sub-variables each. The demographic variables in this study from trainers' perspective include four sub-variables: gender, age, work experience, and educational background as moderating variable. Moderating variable-available to delineate how a relationship of interest changes under different conditions or circumstance.

1.5 Objective of the Study

1.5.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess the relationship between Leadership styles and full-time Trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State.

1.5.2 Specific Objectives

This study has the following specific objectives:

- 1) To identify the prevalent practiced leadership styles at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State.
- 2) To examine whether there is a relationship (positive or negative) between transformational leadership style facets such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, and Trainers' job satisfaction.
- 3) To investigate whether there is a relationship (positive or negative) between transactional leadership style facets such as contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive), and Trainers' job satisfaction.
- 4) To assess whether there is a relationship (positive or negative) between laissez faire leadership styles and Trainers' job satisfaction.
- 5) To identify whether there is a relationship (positive or negative) between trainees' Job satisfaction with demographic variables such as sex, age, work experience and educational background.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to assess the possible relationships between leadership styles and full-time Trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State. Hence, the researcher strongly believed that the finding of this study report and recommendations will present the following contributions:-

- 1) Assist the College leaders to understand more clearly whether the trainers' job satisfaction is related to the College leadership style and to differentiate what the trainers' need to make necessary improvements based on the findings of the study which may contribute to improved levels of Trainers' job satisfaction.
- 2) It create the awareness and raises leadership capacity of the Leaders of the TVET College and Experts at Regional level by examining the three important leadership styles(transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) relationship and its effect on trainers' job satisfaction.
- 3) Provide some suggestions to TVET College, Oromia Regional State TVET Commission and other interested bodies that which may help as an input for future improvement of the relationship and to take remedial actions in the area of problems identified. This may ultimately contribute to improvement in the overall performance of College.
- 4) Unavoidably, this study will narrow the gap of literature in the area, initiates the college leaders, trainers' and other researchers interest for further study, in that it could serve as stepping stone for researchers, in providing additional information to the existing findings to serve as source of literature for related topics and other organization those faces similar problems. Especially, in the Ethiopian settings since there were little literatures done on similar setting.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

Due to constraints of time and other resources to make the study more manageable and feasible, this study was delimited to Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State. With regard to its content, the study was delimited to the contemporary leadership styles (transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles) and some variables of job satisfaction. These three leadership styles were selected or focused for: they are recent, new, timeliness and not well understood and studied theories. There were little literatures done on them in the Ethiopian context. More specifically, transformational leadership style was selected because of its supportive, motivation, ethical aspirations, productive and innovative nature; transactional

leadership style was focused because of its exchanges of value items between leaders and followers and laissez-faire leadership was emphasized for it's the reason that leaders avoid the responsibilities towards followers and organizations based on how motivate followers. Furthermore, the other styles, especially like Autocratic (authoritative) and Democratic-have been extensively studied by various researchers in a wide variety of fields and in an equally wide variety of settings including education in different parts of world. Besides, it was impossible to address all the existing styles only by this single thesis within a given short study period of time.

This study also has its share of delimitation in the sampling frame which only considered particular groups: leaders and trainers of Adama TVET College and therefore the result cannot be generalized to the whole educational system of the country. Therefore, any term found in this study should be interpreted in relation to leadership styles and trainers job satisfaction of Adama TVET College.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

Any research process is not free of certain limitations, in such a way that the study found shortage of reference materials and insufficient known research evidence or findings on leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and trainers job satisfaction in TVET College in Ethiopia in general and specifically at Adama TVET College in particular. Therefore, this shortage of updated reference materials and research works, specifically to the Ethiopian context, also tapered the content of the study. Since there were little literatures done on similar setting.

The researcher was faced shortage of finance and time to conduct the whole research process from the beginning to the end. During conducting this research, few respondents were not willing to give more attention in completing correctly and returning the questionnaire with the given time. Hence, the researcher tried his best to provide them extra time to respond and return properly.

1.9 Operational Definition of Basic Terms

Sometimes words are interpreted in various ways and they may affect plausibility of the finding. Therefore, in this section basic terms are defined operationally according to the exact meaning they are intended to convey and that the researcher wanted the reader to understand them to avoid misinterpretation as follows:

TVET College: In this study, it means an educational institution under the Regional State which providing technical and vocational education and training for different types of occupation from level I-V and that offers industrial extension Services and technology for small and micro enterprises that helps trainees to become self-employed or wage employed in particular area.

College leaders: In this study, it consists of persons such as the TVET dean, vice deans, process owners, sector heads, and department heads that take part in the leadership of training and management in Adama TVET College.

Job Satisfaction: In present study, job satisfaction is the degree of satisfaction or gratification experienced by trainers/employees, as measured by scores of Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) Instrument which was designed to assess trainer/employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job (Spector, 1985; 1994).

Leadership: In the context of current study, leadership ranges along a continuum from one end by laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership lies in the middle of the continuum, and on the other is transformational leadership. The leadership continuum is within full range leadership (FRL) that covers the highly ineffective laissez-faire leadership to the highly active and effective inspirational and, ideal influential transformational leadership (Northouse, 2007).

Leadership Styles: In the context of this study, it means the behavior patterns that a leader uses to achieve a goal, as measured by scores of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Instrument (MLQ-5X) and Scoring Guide (form 5x-short) which are developed by Bass and Avolio (1995).

Trainers: In current study it means a person who demonstrates competences through skills, knowledge and attitudes and establishing his/her credibility in the process of teaching learning activity (MoE, 2010f). It includes full-time TVET trainers with three qualification levels (A-level=MA/instructors, B-level=first degree/teachers, C-level=Diploma/ others /teachers) who responsibly to give training for different types of occupation from level I-V and others full-time trainers those assigned to offer industrial extension Services and technology for small and micro enterprises being under training process owner and extension industry services process owner of Adama TVET college respectively.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This study was organized in to five chapters. The first chapter dealt with the introductory part that include the background, statement of the problem, objectives, and significance of the study,

delimitation of the study, limitation of the study and definition of terms. Chapter two was dedicated to the review of the related literature to lay down the theoretical foundation of the study. Chapter three contained the research design and methodology under which the method; sources of data and type, samples and sampling techniques, instruments of data collection, procedures of data collection and data analysis techniques used. Chapter four discussed about presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data. The fifth chapter dealt with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

House (1976) argues that leadership style affects followers' job satisfaction. The qualities of a leader may determine a specific style for the leader, which may create a positive picture of the leader among subordinates. This constructive opinion about leader may lead towards a positive change in the group members' attitude and behaviour, which in turn may enhance the subordinates' job satisfaction and efficient performance (Grosso, 2008). This assumption signals the transformational capacity of charismatic leadership and the influence it may have on the subordinates (Grosso, 2008). Otherwise, the leadership may range up to the most ineffective and inactive leadership type which is strongly associated with subordinate dissatisfaction, conflict and ineffectiveness (Bass, 1997; 1998).

There are a number of studies from a variety of cultural contexts and settings that investigated the conceptual framework involving leadership styles and Employee, teachers/trainers job satisfaction to examine the relationship between them; these studies reveal this relationship to be significant (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Evans, 2001; Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). More specifically, extensive research undertaken in different countries across the world and in a variety of organizational contexts, both non-educational and educational, showed that transformational leadership affected employee... job satisfaction... [However] despite the accumulated evidence on the effects of transformational leadership on job satisfaction... in business, military, [and] health service organizations..., research into the effects of transformational school [and college] leadership on teachers'[trainers'] job satisfaction... is scarce (Nguniet *al.*, 2006).

The leadership style that the leaders of an institution choose to exercise is underpinned by the culture and context of that institution, which may affect the teachers/trainers' job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008). So, it might be inferred that the leadership style may result in a satisfied or dissatisfied teacher/ trainers' member. This indicates that leadership style is an independent variable and job satisfaction is a dependent variable. These two variables have been taken, with the same arrangement, in the current study. Not, only leadership style but also other factors that can influence on job satisfaction like demographic/biographic factors. In line with this, this literature

review examines the leadership and its concepts, the leadership theories, the full range leadership model (FRLM) [transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-Faire leadership styles with their dimensions], Multi leadership questionnaires (MLQ), the Concepts of job satisfaction, the theories of job satisfaction, the dimensions of job satisfaction, Antecedents of job satisfaction, Job Satisfaction Survey, and the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

In addition, a review of leadership style and job satisfaction, research follows a summary and critical analysis of the literature.

2.1 Leadership

2.1.1 The Concept of Leadership

Leadership is the key to the progress and survival of any organization whether it is an enterprise or institution. It is of inestimable importance in educational administration because of its far reaching effects on the accomplishment of institution programmes, objectives and attainment of educational goals.

Leadership is one of the most pressing issues, prominent agenda, and widely discussed topic across the world and countries. Scholars and researchers have been interested in leadership for thousands of years (Cantu, 1997) Leadership has been widely discussed, written about, and practiced for thousands of year and still remains an active area of inquiry (Kouzes & Posner 1995, Yukl 2002; Bass, 1997; Bass, 1990). Though leadership has long been of interest to historians and philosophers, scientific studies only began in the early 1900s. Still, the body of knowledge has since been fast growing as attested by the more than 350 definitions of the term which scholars have come up with. Giving one specific definition of leadership is a thus very complex task (Bass 1985).

The term leadership is different things for different people. Researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1974) concluded that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” The stream of new definitions has continued unabated since Stogdill made his observation. Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position.

Yukl (2008) cited ten representative definition of over the past 50 years to show the development of the concept (see figure II)

Figure II Definitions of Leadership

1. Leadership is “the behavior of an individual . . . directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal.” (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, pg. 7)
2. Leadership is “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.” (Katz & Kahn, 1978, pg. 528)
3. “Leadership is exercised when persons... mobilize...institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers.” (Burns,1978)
4. “Leadership is realized in the process whereby one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality of others.” (Smircich & Morgan, 1982, pg. 258)
5. Leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement.” (Rauch & Behling, 1984, pg. 46)
6. “Leadership is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished.” (Richards & Engle, 1986, pg. 206)
7. “Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose.” (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, pg. 281)
8. Leadership “is the ability to step outside the culture . . . to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive.” (Schein, 1992, pg. 2)
9. “Leadership is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed.” (Drath & Palus, 1994, p. 4)
10. Leadership is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization. . . ” (House et al., 1999, pg. 184)

Figure II Definitions of leadership over the past 50 years

Source: Yukl, 2008. P.3

As figure II, leadership has been defined in many different ways, but most definitions share the assumption that it involves an influence process concerned with facilitating the performance of a collective task. Otherwise, the definitions differ in many respects, such as who exerts the influence, the intended beneficiary of the influence, the manner in which the influence is exerted, and the outcome of the influence attempt. Some theorists advocate treating leading and managing as

separate roles or processes, but the proposed definitions do not resolve important questions about the scope of each process and how they are interrelated. No single, “correct” definition of leadership covers all situations; what matters is how useful the definition is for increasing our understanding of effective leadership.

In terms of what the right definition of leadership is Bass (1990) argues that “the search for the one and only proper and true definition of leadership seems to be fruitless, since the appropriate choice of definition should be depend on the methodological and substantive aspects of leadership in which one is interested,” and the definition can be used to suit the purpose. In relation to this, leadership is identified by researchers in the manner that fits their perspectives of leadership and contains the factors of interest to the researcher (Yukl, 2002).

In educational organization, a strong educational leader is a necessity because they play a potential role in effectiveness of a school. From an organisational perspective, Schermerhorn (1999) believed that leading is a process used to motivate and to influence others to work hard in order to realize and support organisational goals, while Hersey *et al.* (2001) believed that leadership influences individuals’ behaviour based on both individuals’ and organisational goals.

Summary

In conclusion, leadership has been defined in many different ways, no single definition of leadership is agreed to in the literature. However, most definitions share three important components of leadership: the leader, the followers and the goal. A leader has one or more followers-one cannot be leading if no one is following and there must be leader, influence, and followers in pursuit of goals (Vroom & Jago, 2007, Yammarino & Dansreau, 2008). They share also the assumption that it involves an influence process concerned with facilitating the performance of a collective task. Therefore, the definitions differ in many respects, such as who exerts the influence, the intended beneficiary of the influence, the manner in which the influence is exerted, and the outcome of the influence attempt (Yukl, 2008). No single, “correct” definition of leadership covers all situations; what matters is how useful the definition is for increasing our understanding of effective leadership (Yukl, 2002).

Based on the above definitions and concepts, a leader cannot work alone; he must have people to influence, direct, carry along, sensitize and mobilize towards the achievements of shared goal. Leaders motivate people to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to

contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization in various ways by articulating the organization's vision, setting goal, inspiring others through interpersonal relationship, creating the environment within which things can be accomplished, involving people in decision making in the organization and supporting people to enhance their self-esteem.

Leaders of TVET colleges have to have dynamic leaders who influence trainers who are their immediate subordinates in the college management system. Therefore, leadership in the organizational context in this study worked on the definition of leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes (Daft,2005).

2.1.2 Leadership Theories Overview

Beginning with the leadership studies of Lewin and Lippitt in 1938, there have been numerous studies of leadership and numerous leadership theories developed. Major theories posited include Great Man Theories, Trait Theories, Behaviorist Theories, Situational Leadership, Contingency Theory, Transactional leadership and Transformational leadership. While early leadership theories concentrated on the characteristics of successful leaders, their traits, behavior, power, influence and situational approaches (e.g. Likert 1967; Mintzberg 1973; McClelland & Burnham 1976), recent ones have focused on the role of followers and the correlated nature of leadership. The earliest theories of leadership focused on the performance of great men. For instance, “without Moses, the Jews would have remained in Egypt and without Winston Churchill the British would have given up in 1940” (James & Burgoyne, 2001). Analysis of such heroic tributes gave rise to the Great Man Theory of Leadership, which contends that leaders are born, not made. This theory posits that certain individuals are endowed with leadership traits that cannot be learned (Perren& Burgoyne, 2001).

The following sub-section provides an overview of some of the leadership theories developed over the years such as: Great Man Theories, Trait Leadership theory, Behavioural Leadership theory, Situational Leadership theory, Transactional Leadership theory, and Transformational Leadership theory.

2.1.2.1 Great Man Theories

This theory assumes that great leaders are not made but born. It promotes the mentality that leaders inherit inborn leadership skills. In line with this theory, you can be a born leader or not made (Northouse, 2007).

Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, they destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

2.1.2.2 Trait Theories

With similarities in some ways to the Great man theories, it promotes the idea that leadership is inborn. It means that a successful leader must inherit certain quality that produces greatness (Northouse, 2007). Trait theories profess that leaders are born with certain traits and characteristics that distinguishes them from other people (Taylor, 2009). Leader characteristics, which involved influence, intelligence, power, and energy were assumed inborn. Trait theories stress the qualities of the leader without covering the traits of followers (Northouse, 2004).

The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

In such a way that, trait theory differs from other theories in the sense that it focuses on personal qualities and characteristics rather than on the behaviours displayed by leaders (Gehring, 2007).

2.1.2.3 Behaviorist Theories

After trait theories become popular in the early 20th century, the pendulum swung to behavioural theories. Behavioural theories attempted to identify the behaviors that create effective leadership (Wren, 1995).

The fundamental difference between trait theories and behavioral theories are based on the fact that trait theories maintain that leaders are born and cannot be created whereas behavioral theories, on the contrary, maintain that leaders can be created by mimicking the leadership behavior of successful leaders (Robbins, Judge, Odendal & Roodt, 2009: 295).

These Behaviorist Theories concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behavior are observed and categorized as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practicing managers (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

The leadership literature identified two types of behavioural styles: (a) task behaviours, and (b) relationship behaviours (Bass, 1990). Task behaviours focus on the tasks and actions needed to be effective, while relationship behaviours focus on the working relationship between leader and followers (Bass, 1990).

2.1.2.4 Situational Leadership Theory

In this school of thought, situational variables are the bases of every action taken. For example, when a leader is the most experienced, the leader is in the position of calling all the shots. Different styles of leadership can be applied to different situations (Northouse, 2007).

According to Hersey & Blanchard's (1993) situational leadership theory, leadership can be subdivided into two categories namely task oriented leaders and relationship oriented leaders (Blank, Weitzel & Green, 1990). The correct leadership style would depend on the maturity level of the follower in a given work situation. Hersey & Blanchard's (1993) situational leadership theory includes Directing leadership, Coaching leadership, Participating leadership and Delegating leadership. Directing leadership will be used in a situation where the follower shows low competence, low commitment and unwillingness to do his job. A leader in this situation will show high task and low relationship focus. Coaching leadership will be used where the follower shows little competence and variable commitment, but is willing to do the job. A leader in this situation will show high task and high relationship focus. Participative leadership will be used where the follower shows high competence and variable commitment but is unwilling to do the required job. A leader in this situation will show low task and high relationship focus. Delegating leadership will be used where the follower is competent, committed and willing to do his job. A leader in this situation will show low task and low relationship focus (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003).

Situational leadership theory approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, whilst some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organization (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

2.1.2.5 Contingency Theory

This theory focus on variables that are environmentally related which determines the style of leadership that fits the situation best. It also promotes the idea that no single leadership style is the best, rather success are based on variables, subordinates and type of the situation (Northouse, 2007) Contingency theory is concerned with leadership styles and situations. Leadership styles are relationship-motivated and task-motivated. Relationship-motivated Leaders focus on developing close interpersonal relationships, while task-motivated Leaders primarily focus on reaching a goal. The Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale developed by Fielder is used to measure leadership styles. Relationship-motivated leaders have high score on this scale, but task-motivated Leaders leaders have low score on this scale. There are three situational variables: leaders-member relationship, task structure, and position power (Northouse, 2007).

Contingency theory is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

2.1.2.6 Transactional Theory

Transactional Leadership Theory professes that people are motivated by rewards and punishment. Leaders that practice Transactional Leadership tend to be more to the management side of the leaders/manager continuum (Taylor, 2009). According to Bass (1990), Transactional leaders determine and define goals of their employees (Laka-Methebula, 2004). Followers are remunerated with money and other simple rewards if they complete what they were required to do. The followers are given full responsibility for the tasks that are delegated to them even though they might not have the required resources or competencies to perform those tasks (Taylor, 2009).

This approach emphasizes the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

2.1.2.7 Transformational Theory

Transformational Leadership Theory focuses on the importance of the relationship between the leader and the follower. Nichols & Shaw (as cited in Taylor, 2009) are of the opinion that

Transformational Leadership focuses on the empowerment and development of follower potential in attaining long term goals. According to Bass (1990), it is evident that Transformational leaders focus on the long and short term needs of their followers. Transformational leaders create an environment of trust in which ideas can be shared (Laka-Mathebula, 2004). Transformational leaders also transform the values of followers in such a way that they support the vision and goals of the organisation by creating a climate where relationships can be formed (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2004).

The central concept of transformational theory is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organizational performance (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

Each of these above discussed theories takes a rather individualistic perspective of the leader, although a school of thought gaining increasing recognition is that of “dispersed” leadership. This approach, with its foundations in sociology, psychology and politics rather than management science, views leadership as a process that is diffuse throughout an organization rather than lying solely with the formally designated ‘leader’. The emphasis thus shifts from developing ‘leaders’ to developing ‘leaderful’ organizations with a collective responsibility for leadership (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

Summary

Major theories posited include Great Man Theories, Trait Theories, Behavioural Leadership theory, Situational Leadership, Contingency Theory, Transactional leadership and Transformational leadership. While early leadership theories concentrated on the characteristics of successful leaders, their traits, behavior, power, influence and situational approaches, recent ones have focused on the role of followers and the correlated nature of leadership. These over viewed theories take a rather individualistic perspective of the leader, although a school of thought gaining increasing recognition is that of “dispersed” leadership. The emphasis shifts from developing ‘leaders’ to developing ‘leaderful’ organizations with a collective responsibility for leadership (Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Also, after a careful exploration of the topic, the researcher found out that some more theories still exist but the clues obtained. Now the researcher has a full comprehension of the topic and understands how to continue about the research. The next sub section outlines Full Range Leadership Model.

2.1.3 Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)

Full range leadership model proposed by Burns (1978), developed and refined by Bass (1985) continuously tested by various researchers, also known as transformational-transactional leadership theory, has been a topic of much interest and research in the literature. Professor Robbins (2005) has termed the model as cutting-edge leadership theory. This model is popularly known as full range leadership (FRL) approach (Bass, 1985) and is universally applicable (Bass, 1997). However, the literature on the transformational leadership model is scarce in the Ethiopian context, particularly, in the specific context of Adama TVET College of Ethiopia.

Bass (1997) argues that the worldwide applicability of the paradigm is due to its universal characteristics. The transactional-transformational leadership paradigm has five universal characteristics. These are:

A simple universal-refers to the statement that any time a group of human beings come together, there is always a leader.

- (1) A variform universal-refers to a simple regularity influenced to some extent by organisations or cultures. Business organisations almost everywhere are ordinarily led by a single executive officer or managing director.
- (2) A functional universal-refers to a universal correlation between variables. This functional universal is the correlation between perceived ineffectiveness and laissez-faire leadership. Everywhere, the leaders who often avoid responsibilities and shirk duties are perceived as dissatisfying and ineffective by followers.
- (3) A systematic universal-refers to the paradigm that involves a theory about relationships explaining if-then outcomes across cultures and organizations. FRL theory provides the measurable relationships.
- (4) A variform functional universal-refers to a positive, sizable relationship being found almost everywhere between attributed charisma and job satisfaction (Bass, 1997).

The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) describes a full range of influencing styles from 'non-leadership' to powerful transformational leadership behaviors. The model captures different kinds of behaviors which make a difference to outcomes for associates of the leader. In other words, the range of behaviors starts with transformational leader behaviors to transactional leader behaviors

reaching to the lowest leader interaction of laissez-faire leader behaviors (MLQ, undated; Bass *et al.*, 2003).

As we can describe an ideal or "pure" transactional leadership styles and a "pure" transformational one, it is clear that organizations are likely to have cultures that are characterized by both styles of leadership. A leader may employ both styles at different times or in differing amounts at the same time. Considerable recent research provides evidence that shows transformational leadership as eliciting extra effort and performance from followers, over and above that expected in an exchange relationship with a purely transactional leader. The authors' argument is that organizations should move in the direction of more transformational qualities in their cultures while also maintaining a base of effective transactional qualities (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass *et al.*, 2003).

Trottier *et al.* (2008) emphasized that as Bass's full range leadership model is an important part of the leadership research as well as it presents researchers with a theory that can be empirically tested and provides insight into the duality that leaders face in current organizational settings.

Full range leadership model comprises of three distinct leadership styles transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. These three styles are represented by nine distinct factors of leadership using the survey instrument called Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Original theory of Bass (1985) consisted of 'seven factors': charismatic behaviour, inspirational leadership, Intellectual stimulation, Individualized consideration, Contingent reward, Management by exception and Laissez-Faire leadership. These seven factors were then reduced in to six factors by merging charismatic behaviour and inspirational leadership into a single charisma due to being empirically indistinguishable despite their unique their constructs. However, a number of researchers found the six leadership factors could not be replicated. Therefore, they recommended revisions of the model(Bass, Avolio, and Jung, 1999).The theory was further tested validated by Bass and his colleagues throughout 1985 to1990 and still it is being tested and validated. Until now the full range theory of leadership comprises of nine factors: five transformational leadership factors, three transactional leadership factors and one non-transactional laissez-faire leadership.

Although multifactor theory is probably the most widely cited and comprehensive theory, leadership is often conceptualized within behavioral domains varying from non-leadership, or laissez-faire, to transactional leadership, which hinges on rewards and punishments, to transformational leadership, which is based upon attributed and behavioral charisma Bass and Avolio,(1993, as cited in Bučiūnienė & Škudienė, 2008).Figure III depicts these concept

Transformational leadership Elements

Individualized consideration (IC): develops, coaches, and teaches each follower.

Idealized influence, attributed (II-A): instills pride and builds trust.

Idealized influence, behavior (II-B): emphasizes collective sense of mission, & talks about values and beliefs.

Intellectual stimulation (IS): Stimulates followers to view the world from new perspectives; encourages problem solving, critical thinking, and creativity.

Inspirational motivation (IM): expresses enthusiasm, optimism, and confidence.

+

Transactional Leadership Elements

Management by exception, passive (MBE-P): Only intervenes when standards are not met.

Management by exception, active (MBE-A): Monitor follower performance and takes immediate action when deviations occur.

Contingent reward (CR): Clarifies what needs to be done and exchanges psychic and material rewards for services rendered.

+

Laissez-Faire leadership (LF)

Acts non-involved, displays indifference, overlooks achievements, and ignores problems.

Figure III: Bernard Bass's Revised Full Range Leadership Model (Bass 1996a).

Therefore, the term leadership style in this study is taken as the pattern of the TVET college leaders' interaction or behaviour that he/she exerts to guide structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a college. The three selected leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) further have nine dimensions in total, and the questionnaire items map these nine dimensions, which then map the three leadership styles. These nine dimensions are important in terms of engaging with the affective domain and demonstrating a critical engagement with values and morals which potentially goes beyond charismatic leadership subsumed within transformational leadership (Gunter, 2001). The three leadership styles and their nine dimensions are briefly discussed as follows.

2.1.3.1 Transformational Leadership

The transformational leaders interact with followers in such a way as to stimulate their thinking, to inspire their performance and to perform beyond expectations. Transformational leadership is a process of influencing in which leaders change their associates' awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way (Bass and Avolio, 2004).

Transformational leaders are proactive: they seek to optimize individual, group and organizational development and innovation, not just achieve performance "at expectations". They convince their

associates to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership, but augments it in achieving the goals of the group (Bass, 1997; Hall *et al.*, 2002).

In a transformational style, there is generally a sense of purpose and a feeling of family.

Leaders and followers share mutual interests and a sense of shared fates and interdependence. They go beyond their self-interests or expected rewards for the good of the team and the good of the organization. The inclusion of transformational assumptions, norms, and values does not preclude individuals pursuing their own goals and rewards. Superiors serve as mentors, coaches, role models, and leaders, socializing members into the culture, not necessarily because they are expected to do so but because they feel a personal obligation to help new members assimilate into the culture. There is a rich set of norms which cover a wide range of behaviors, norms that will adapt to and change with external changes in the organization's environment (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Bolden *et al.*, 2003; MLQ, undated).

According to Bass *et al.* (2003), transformational leaders will focus on developing their followers by tapping them of their potentials, inspiring them, promoting collaboration, motivating them, and by reinforcing positive behaviors. The employees often develop a high level of trust and confidence in such a leader. The employees are proud to identify themselves with the leader and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. Similarly, Bass (1997) argues that transformational leaders are pertinent especially during turbulent times when rapid changes and globalization takes place.

Transformational leadership fosters capacity development and brings higher levels of personal commitment amongst 'followers' to organizational objectives. According to Bass & Avolio (1993) transformational leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group. Together, heightened capacity and commitment are held to lead to additional effort and greater productivity (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Mannheim & Halamish, 2008).

According to Bass (1997), the goal of transformational leadership is to 'transform' people and organizations in a literal sense – to change them in mind and heart; enlarge vision, insight, and understanding; clarify purposes; make behavior congruent with beliefs, principles, or values; and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building.

2.1.3.1.1 Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

Regarding the dimensions, the original formulation of the theory (Bass, 1985) included three types of transformational behavior: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. A revision of the theory added another transformational behavior called “inspirational motivation,” which includes communicating an appealing vision, and using symbols to focus subordinate effort (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). Yet another revision by Bass and Avolio (1997) distinguished between idealized influence behavior and idealized influence attributions.

As it was stated in Bass and Avolio (1993) and Bass and Riggio (2006) cited in Garden (2010), there are four components of transformational leadership, namely idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. They are discussed as follows:

- (1) **Idealized Influence:** Idealized influence describes leaders who function as strong role models for their subordinates due to their exceptional abilities and high principles of ethical and moral conduct. The leader instills pride and faith in followers, provides a vision and a sense of mission, gains respect and trust and sets high standards for emulation. They prioritise subordinates’ needs as compared to their own needs and offer them a vision. Idealised influence has two aspects: first, idealised influence behaviour (II-B), which is linked with the leader’s behaviour, and second, idealized influence attributed (II-A), which is related to the elements that are attributed to the leader by their subordinates (Avolio *et al.*, 1999; Gill, 2006). In idealized influence (attributed) leaders instills pride and builds trust. The leader has the followers respect, faith and trust. While leader Idealized influence (behavior) emphasizes collective sense of mission, and talks about values and beliefs with the followers.
- (2) **Inspirational motivation (IM):** The leaders increase the optimism, enthusiasm and confidence. Accordingly to Bass (1998), leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards, talk optimistically with enthusiasm, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done. Avolio (1994) and Kelloway and Barling (2000) also discussed that these leaders encourage their subordinates to achieve levels of performance beyond their own expectation. They do so by using stories and symbols to communicate their vision and message.
- (3) **Intellectual Stimulation (IS):** Leaders promote intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving from a new perspective. Leaders question old assumptions, traditions and beliefs, stimulate in other new perspectives and ways of doing things, and encourage the expression if ideas and

reasons Bass (1998, As it was stated in Avolio et al (1991), Intellectual stimulation is also helpful when the leader is attempting to maintain excitement and a high level of motivation among the workforce who prefer to have their options at least considered by the leader. Through intellectual stimulation, transformational leader help followers to think about problems in new and unique ways. As a consequence of being intellectually stimulated by their leaders, followers develop their own capabilities to recognize, understand and eventually solve future problems. According to Champoux (2000), such leaders induce changes in the values and beliefs of their subordinates. They stimulate subordinates to imagine new and different future states for the groups.

- (4) Individualized consideration (IC):** The leader treats followers as individuals but all are treated equitably. Individual's needs are recognized and assignments are delegated to followers to provide learning opportunities. It refers to leaders paying special attention to each individual follower's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Nicholson, 2007). According to Kelloway and Barling (2000), these leaders treat employees as individuals, by being compassionate, appreciating and responding to their needs, and recognizing and celebrating their achievements. Individualized consideration is practiced when new learning opportunities are created with a supportive climate (Bass, 1998). A key assumption of individualized consideration is that each employee has different needs and that for a specific employee, those needs will change over time, based partially on the influence of the leader (Avolio et al., 1991).

2.1.3.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is underpinned by exchange theory, where a leader and subordinates decide the aims and the procedure of attaining objectives by means of an exchange of rewards and the use of coercion to acquire the subordinate's compliance and endeavour in order to accomplish organisational performance (Bass, 1985).

A "pure" transactional style focuses on everything in terms of explicit and implicit contractual relationships. All job assignments are explicitly spelled out along with conditions of employment, disciplinary codes, and benefit structures. Self-interests are stressed. Employees work as independently as possible from their colleagues. Cooperation depends on negotiations not problem solving or a common mission. There is little identification of the employees with the organization,

its mission or vision. Superiors primarily are negotiators and resource allocators (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leadership is based more on "exchanges" between the leader and follower, in which followers are rewarded for meeting specific goals or performance criteria (Trottier *et al.*, 2008; Bass *et al.*, 2003). Rewards and positive reinforcement are provided or mediated by the leader. Thus transactional leadership is more practical in nature because of its emphasis on meeting specific targets or objectives (James & Collins, 2008; Sosik & Dinger, 2007). An effective transactional leader is able to recognize and reward followers' accomplishments in a timely way. However, subordinates of transactional leaders are not necessarily expected to think innovatively and may be monitored on the basis of predetermined criteria. Poor transactional leaders may be less likely to anticipate problems and to intervene before problems come to the fore, whereas more effective transactional leaders take appropriate action in a timely manner (Bass *et al.*, 2003).

Transactional leaders display behaviors associated with constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is labeled Contingent Reward and the corrective style is labeled Management-by-Exception (active and passive). Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Contingent Reward and Management-by-Exception are two core behaviors associated with 'management' functions in organizations. Full range leaders do this and more (MLQ, undated; Bass *et al.*, 2003; Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

2.1.3.2.1 Dimensions of Transactional Leadership

The three dimensions associated with transactional leadership are discussed below (Avolio *et al.*, 1995).

- (1) Contingent reward (CR):** Contingent reward is an exchange process between a leader and their subordinates in which a leader with the concurrence of subordinates decides the aims, defines rewards for achievement of those aims and provides agreed compensation when performance objectives are fulfilled (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2010).
- (2) Active management by exception (MBE-A):** This is a leadership behaviour where the leader observes subordinates closely for mistakes and deviances from criteria in their jobs, and takes corrective measures as required (Bass, 1998; Gill, 2006).

(3) Passive Management by exception (MBE-P): In this form of leadership the leader waits inactively for mistakes and deviances from benchmarks to happen or until issues have arisen before taking corrective measures (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2007).

2.1.3.3 Laissez-Faire Leadership (LF)

Both the transformational and transactional leaders are described as leaders who actively intervene and try to prevent problems, although they use different approaches. When researching these two active forms of leadership, one finds that they are often contrasted with the third style of leadership, called laissez-faire leadership Bass (1990, as cited in Bučiūnienė & Škudienė, 2008). James & Collins (2008) describe the laissez-faire leader as an extreme passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates' considerable freedom, to the point of handing over his/her responsibilities. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership.

Laissez-faire leadership style has a negative impact on followers and associates- opposite to what is intended by the leader - manager. There are many behaviors that represent laissez-faire leadership as a “do nothing” or “hands-off” approach. Such behaviors include staying away from employees, shirking supervisory duties, and being “inactive, rather than reactive or proactive” (MLQ, undated). It is the avoidance of leadership and is the most ineffective form of leadership style. The leader abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions. Laissez-faire leadership style is the most ineffective and inactive style of leading and is strongly associated with subordinate dissatisfaction, conflict and ineffectiveness (Bass, 1997; 1998).

Researchers have consistently reported that laissez-faire leadership is the least satisfying and least effective style of leadership. That is because these leadership behaviors are accompanied by little sense of accomplishment, little clarity, little sense of group unity, and followers do not hold as much respect for their supervisors (Trottier *et al.*, 2008; Lok & Crawford, 1999).

It is probably for these reasons that many researchers choose to exclude laissez-faire leadership from their research involving only transformational and transactional leadership. Bass (1990, as cited in Lok & Crawford, 1999 and Bučiūnienė & Škudienė, 2008) uses the following statement to differentiate laissez-faire leadership from other types of leadership behaviors and styles:

Laissez-faire leadership should not be confused with democratic, relations oriented, participative, or considerate leadership behavior. Nor should it be confused with delegation or management by

exception. Delegation implies the leader's active direction of a subordinate to take responsibility for some role or task. The leader who practices management by exception allows the subordinate to continue on paths that the subordinate and the leader agreed on until problems arise or standards are not met, at which time the leader intervenes to make corrections.

2.1.4 Comparison of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

When we compare transactional and transformational leadership styles, transactional leadership style is appropriate in many settings and may support adherence to practice standards but not necessarily openness to innovation and risk taking. A transformational leadership style creates a vision and inspires subordinates to strive beyond required expectations, whereas transactional leadership focuses more on extrinsic motivation for the performance of job tasks (Bolden *et al.*, 2003; Trottier *et al.*, 2008; Bass *et al.*, 2003). Thus it is likely that transformational leadership would influence attitudes by inspiring acceptance of innovation through the development of enthusiasm, trust, and openness, whereas transactional leadership would lead to acceptance of innovation through reinforcement and reward. Bass outlines the beginnings of his theory of leadership, in which both transactional and transformational leadership are needed to enhance performance. Bass developed the full range leadership model based on his belief that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are not ends on a single continuum but rather are leadership patterns that all leaders possess and use in differing amounts. For exceptional performance, transformational leadership behaviors need to augment transactional leadership behaviors (Bass and Avolio, 1993). Therefore, according to Bass, the best performance is the result of using both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors with subordinates.

Summary

In this sub section the concept of full range leadership model, Elements of full range leadership model (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-Faire leadership styles with their dimensions), Comparison of transformational and transactional Leadership were overviewed, the full range leadership model as sub section is highlighted.

The FRLM underlined for the following reasons:

- (1) Bass's full range leadership model(FRLM) is an important part of the leadership research, it presents researchers with a theory that can be empirically tested and provides insight into the duality that leaders face in current organizational settings (Trottier *et al.*,2008).
- (2) It is new comprehensive leadership model (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005). Professor Robbins (2005) has termed the model as cutting-edge leadership theory.
- (3) This leadership model is universally applicable (Bass, 1997).
- (4) It is compatible with the current situation. Vera &Crossan (2004) argue that highly turbulent and uncertain environments need transformational leaders who enhance confidence and self – efficacy, and help them to see their environments as sources of opportunity In contrast, stable environments need transactional leaders who focus on strengthening existing culture, structure, and strategies.
- (5) FRL theory has the instrument (MLQ Form 5X-Short) that has been well validated.
- (6) This theory approach is enjoying importance and continuous research and development (Bodla& Nawaz, 2010), and has been the focus of more empirical studies than other theories for the past two decades (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005).
- (7) More prominently, the literature on Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) is scarce in Ethiopia TVET college context.

The next sub-section briefly discussed Multi Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) as instrument as follows.

2.1.5 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X)

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) For 5X-Short is the most recent MLQ version used to describe leadership styles. These leadership styles, as identified as including transformational leadership style, transactional leadership styles, and laissez-faire non-transactional leadership style. The range of effective and ineffective leadership behaviours in the MLQ is typically much broader than in other leadership surveys.

The most widely used instrument in the world to assess transformational and transactional leadership is the MLQ. It was originally developed by Bass (1985, 1995) and is applicable to organisations (Northouse, 2007; Tejada *et al.*, 2001).However, after the initial widespread use of the MLQ, results of different studies revealed that the earlier MLQ version might not always be consistent due to its

psychometric properties. Therefore, there have been several revisions to strengthen its validity and reliability (Antonakis et al., 2003; Northouse, 2007; Tejada *et al.*, 2001).

The earlier version of the MLQ was Bass (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. It initially consisted of seven leadership factors: charismatic behavior, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception and laissez-faire leadership. These seven factors were then reduced into six factors by merging charismatic behavior and inspirational leadership into a single charisma factor due to being empirically indistinguishable despite their unique constructs.

However, a number of researchers found the six leadership factors could not be replicated. Therefore, they recommended revisions of the model (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

MLQ Form 5x-Short is the new version of an earlier MLQ which was developed based on previous research and revised in response to criticisms. The MLQ Form 5X-Short consists of 45 items -36 items represent nine leadership factors, originally six factors as previously mentioned, (i.e. each leadership scale comprises four items), and nine items measure three leadership outcome scales. The nine leadership factors are: five transformational leadership factors: (1) idealised influence (attributes), (2) idealised influence (behaviour), (3) inspirational motivation – these three factors previously labelled charisma, (4) intellectual stimulation, and (5) individualised consideration; Three transactional leadership factors; (1) contingent reward, (2) management-by-exception active, and (3) management-by-exception passive- these last two factors previously labelled management-by-exception; and one non-transactional laissez-faire leadership factor (Antonakis et al., 2003).

The three outcomes of leadership profile are: (1) Extra effort, (2) effectiveness, and (3) Satisfaction.

The MLQ Form 5X-Short is evaluated on a five-point Likert scale that ranges from 0 to 4. Participants' choices associated with these scales are: 0= Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2= Sometimes, 3=fairly often, and 4= Frequently, if not always (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

For scoring, the MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. If an item is left blank, the total for that scale is divided by the number of items answered. Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items, and Satisfaction has two items. The scores in the rating ranged from 0 to 4 (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

There have been studies whose findings indicate the consistency of the MLQ Form 5X-Short, one of which is research results of Antonakis *et al.*, (2003). They revealed consistent evidence that the nine

factors best represented the factor structure underlying the MLQ Form 5X-Short instrument. An earlier study conducted by Avolio, Bass *et al.*, (1999), supported the findings that the instrument had a high degree of consistency in estimated reliability, factor loadings and interrelationships among factors. More importantly, using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with 2003 normative samples when testing the nine factor model, Bass and Avolio (2004) indicated conclusive results for examining a broader and fuller range of leadership styles. The nine factor model involves the following: (1) Idealised Influence (Attribute) or II(A) (2) Idealised Influence (Behaviour) or II(B), (3) inspirational motivation or IM (4) Intellectual Stimulation or IS, (5) Individualised consideration or IC, (6) Contingent Reward or (CR), (7) Management-by-Exception (Active) or MBEA, (8) Management-by-Exception (Passive) or MBEP, and Laissez-Faire (LF). The nine factor model has resulted in the best fit and has a clear pattern of consistency across the respective findings by region and participant.

Reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor scale ranged from 0.74 to 0.94. All the reliabilities of the scales were generally high, exceeding standard cut-offs for internal consistency recommended in the literature (Bass & Avolio, 2004). A common rule of thumb is that an alpha (α) of 0.60-0.70 indicates acceptable reliability (Wikipedia, 2011; Yellen & Cella, 2007; Yellen, Cella, Webster, Blendowski, & Kaplan, 1997).

This is supported by Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) who reported the acceptable reliability of the original MLQ Form 5X-Short (Cronbach alpha = 0.86) and the Thai MLQ version (Cronbach alpha = 0.88), and the acceptable construct validity of the instrument. They suggest that the MLQ Form 5X-Short is successful in adequately capturing the full leadership factor constructs of transformational leadership theory. This provides researchers with confidence in using the MLQ Form 5X-Short to measure the nine leadership factors representing transformational, transactional, and non-leadership (laissez-faire) behaviours.

Summary

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) captures the full range of leader behaviors, which include those that distinguish among transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

2.2 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is generally believed to be a very complicated phenomenon (Bull, 2005) that can be considered as a multidimensional construct (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). In order to fully comprehend the concept of job satisfaction, one first needs to define what it is and how it has evolved in terms of the peer reviewed literature based on the subject. The following discussion aims to provide a summary of job satisfaction in terms of its various definitions, dimensions of Job Satisfaction, the importance thereof, job satisfaction theory, models of job satisfaction, antecedents of job satisfaction and lastly job satisfaction survey. The relevance of this discussion, as far as this study is concerned, is to give the researcher a clear and concise understanding regarding job satisfaction which is one of the dependent variables within this study. This will, in turn, help the researcher to illustrate relevant conclusions while conducting this study.

2.2.1 Concepts of Job Satisfaction

There are various definitions of job satisfaction. One of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction was given by Robert Hoppock in 1935. Hoppock (1935) stated that the construct of job satisfaction is grounded in the psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances which cause an individual to experience job satisfaction. According to Graham (1982) job satisfaction can be seen as a measurement of an individual's feelings and attitude towards their job.

Spector (1997) and Ellickson & Logsdon (2002) support Graham's (1982) view by defining job satisfaction as the degree to which employees like the different aspects of their jobs. Job satisfaction is defined by Locke (1976) as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". Locke (1976) further posited that the difference between job satisfaction and morale is found in the fact that job satisfaction focuses on the individual whose temporal orientation is on the present and the past whereas morale focuses on a group whose temporal orientation is towards the future. Churchill, Ford & Walker (1974) are of the opinion that job satisfaction can be seen as the characteristics of the job and the work environment which can be found to be worthwhile, gratifying and satisfying or annoying and unsatisfying.

Glick (as cited in Graham & Messner, 1998) defines job satisfaction as the response that a person exhibits after an appraisal of his/her current job within the workplace. Lofquist & Davis (1991) take Glick's notion of job appraisal a step further by positing that job satisfaction can be seen as "an individual's positive affective reaction of the target environment as a result of the individual's

appraisal of the extent to which his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment". According to Sancar (2009) job satisfaction can be seen as an amalgamation of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Popoola (1984) defined job satisfaction as the totality of employees' social and psychological well-being relative to job performance. It culminates in satisfactory interpersonal relations, financial rewards, fringe benefits, training and promotion, decision-making and free channels of communication among others. This predisposes employees to hard work and optimum productivity.

Armstrong (2003) defined job satisfaction as the feelings and attitudes of people toward their job. He mentioned that if people have favorable and positive attitudes towards their job, this means job satisfaction, but if they have unfavorable and negative attitudes towards their job, this means job dissatisfaction.

"Job satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Spector, 1997). This definition suggests job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. According to Griffin and Bateman (1986), job satisfaction is determined by factors such as goal setting, job design, demographic profile, rewards, leadership and individual differences. While researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in measuring different "facets" or "dimensions" of satisfaction. Examination of these facet conditions is often useful for a more careful examination of employee satisfaction with critical job factors. According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction can also be considered as a global feeling or attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job. Job satisfaction encompasses aspects such as pay, supervision, benefits, and promotion opportunities, working conditions, co-workers and organizational practices (Griffin and Bateman, 1986). According to Mckenna (2000), job satisfaction is associated with how well peoples' personal expectations at work are aligned with outcomes. Job satisfaction can also be defined as a predominantly positive attitude towards the work some aspects of their work and satisfied with others, but if they feel or think positively about relatively more aspects, it may be deduced that there is general factor that can be labeled job satisfaction (Theron, 1999).

Job satisfaction has been defined as perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what are perceived it as offering (Lund, 2003). Jones and George (2004) stress that job satisfaction is the collection feelings and beliefs that employees' have about their jobs. Employees' general attitude towards his or her job is also referred as job satisfaction (Rezaieanet *al.*, 2010).

Although the definitions of job satisfaction vary from scholar to scholar, these definitions are not contradictory but complementary. In this regard, although no uniform definition of job satisfaction exists (Siegel & Lane (1982, as cited in Stemple Jr. J. 2004)) job satisfaction is generally considered to be the overall feeling that a worker has about a job.

High level of employees' job satisfaction has been highly associated with more work performance and less employee turnover and absenteeism. Job satisfaction, as suggested by Locke and Crawford (1999) is the most determining factor that encourages the highest level of organizational commitment. There is clear evidence that employees with high level of job satisfaction are less likely to leave the organization and dissatisfied workers are more likely to resign (Hanson & Miller, 2002). Employee satisfaction is generally regarded as an important ingredient for organizational success. According to Galup, Klein and Jiang (2008), successful organizations normally have satisfied employees whereas poor job satisfaction can cripple an organization.

Institutions are grappling with a new organizational climate, with a need for improved productivity and performance. These changes have impacted on employee perceptions and morale. The need for employee satisfaction has become paramount to organizations in order to survive. It is now universally accepted that motivated and committed employees contribute significantly to and determine organizational success (Hofmeyr, 1997). Hofmeyr also pointed out that supervisors play a key role in the satisfaction and well-being of subordinates. Institutions need to take the idea of a 'supervisor' or 'manager' more seriously as someone who gives regular feedback and recognition, supports and develops subordinates and builds team work.

Similar to leadership, job satisfaction has been widely studied by researchers and theorists in various organizations, content, industries or professions in the last four decades (Curry, 1999, Lund, 2003). Researchers and theorists from different continents have been trying to explore and develop various factors and theories on job satisfaction. This includes the exploration of relationship between job satisfaction and organization variables such as performance, cohesion, organizational commitment, age and gender, industries and organizational environment (Lund, 2003). The focus of this study was also to assess the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of these trainers working in Adama TVET College as an Ethiopian context.

Summary

The definitions of job satisfaction vary from scholar to scholar, these definitions are not contradictory but complementary. Job satisfaction in general is simply "how people feel about their

jobs and different aspects of their jobs...it is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs” (Spector, 1997, p. 2). Employee satisfaction is generally important ingredient for organizational success. In this study, job satisfaction is the degree of satisfaction or gratification experienced by employees, as measured by scores of Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) Instrument which was designed to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job (Spector, 1985; 1994).

2.2.2 Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

According to Spector (1985; 1994), Paul Spector’s refers to job satisfaction as “a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job” and identifies nine facets/dimensions of job satisfaction that are measured by the Job satisfaction:

- (1). **Pay-** amount and fairness or equity of salary
- (2). **Promotion-** opportunities and fairness of promotions
- (3). **Supervision-** fairness and competence at managerial tasks by one’s supervisor
- (4). **Benefits-** insurance, vacation, and other fringe benefits
- (5). **Contingent rewards-** sense of respect, recognition, and appreciation
- (6). **Operating procedures-** policies, procedures, rules, perceived red tape
- (7). **Coworkers** - perceived competence and pleasantness of one’s colleagues
- (8). **Nature of work-** enjoyment of the actual tasks themselves
- (9). **Communication-** sharing of information within the organization.

According to Mullins (1999) and Theron (1999) emotional and behavioral components of attitudes are also involved in job satisfaction. They also viewed that the following factors are conducive to job satisfaction:

- (1) Mentally challenging work involving a fair amount of variety freedom, utilizing workers’ skills and abilities and receiving feedback on their work
- (2) Equitable rewards, such as pay and promotion policies and practices that workers perceive as fair, based on the demands of a job. Many people are prepared to work for less money if their work has other rewards.
- (3) Working conditions that are conducive to doing the job well, including safety and comfort, a clean environment and adequate equipment.

- (4) Working with coworkers and bosses who are friendly and supportive. Supervisors who facilitate job satisfaction show an interest in workers, offer praise for good performance and listen to workers' opinions.

According to O' Malley (2000), a satisfying job has three properties:

- (1) it has intrinsically enjoyable features,
- (2) it provides an opportunity for growth and development, and
- (3) it makes employees feel effective in the execution of their duties.

Summary

Paul Spector's nine facets/dimensions of job satisfaction includes: Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Benefits, Contingent rewards, Operating procedures, Coworkers, Nature of work and Communication.

2.2.3 Job Satisfaction Theory

The phenomenon of job satisfaction is closely related to motivation (Mbua, 2003). This implies that the theories of motivation are regarded as theories of job satisfaction. There are many theories of motivation and job satisfaction and those theories are categorized into two, the content and process theories.

The content theories discussed in this section include: (1) Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Theory, (2) Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, (3) McClelland's Need Achievement Theory, and (4) Aldefer's The Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) Theory. These four theories can help to develop better working environment by enhancing employees' job satisfaction and motivation. It is heavily based on need fulfillment in general they address the question of what causes motivation and satisfaction.

The process theories researcher consider include; (1) Expectancy Theory, (2) Equity Theory, and (3) Locke's Value Theory (Robbins & Judge, 2008).

Models of job satisfaction are also dealt here. The process theories deal with the question of how teachers/trainers behavior is started, directed, sustained and stopped.

2.2.3.1 Content and Process Theories

2.2.3.1.1 Content Theories

According to Fincham and Rhodes (1999), content theory is based on the premise that a similar set of needs can be attributed to all individuals. These theories identify factors which lead to

satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Staples and Higgins, 1998). Content theories focus on the needs and incentives that cause behavior (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999). This study over-viewed Maslow's hierarchy of need theory, Herzberg's motivation theory, and Alderfer's the Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) Theory.

Several factors are believed to influence a person's desire to perform work or behave in a certain way. The need-based theories explained these desires; they explained motivation primarily as a phenomenon that occurs intrinsically, or within an individual. We can widely recognize four need-based theories. These are: (1) Abraham Maslow's Needs, (2) Herzberg's two factor theory, (3) McClelland's Need Achievement Theory and (4) Alderfer's the Existence, Relatedness and Growth Theory.

(1) Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Theory

Abraham Maslow's (1970) need-based theory of motivation is the most widely recognized theory and perhaps the most refereed of the content theories. According to this theory, a person has five fundamental needs: physiological, security, affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization. The physiological needs include pay, food, shelter and clothing, good and comfortable working conditions. The security needs include the need for safety, fair treatment, protection against threats and job security. Affiliation needs include the needs of being loved and accepted. Whereas esteem needs include the need for recognition, respect, achievement, autonomy and independence.

Finally, self-actualization needs, which are the highest in the level of Maslow's need theory, include realizing one's full potential or self-development. According to Maslow, once a need is satisfied it is no longer a need. It ceases to motivate employees' behavior and they are motivated by the need at the next level up the hierarchy.

(2) Herzberg's Two Factor Theory/ Motivation –Hygiene theory/

The second content theory is Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Herzberg *et al.* (1959) two-factor theory is heavily based on need fulfillment. Their interest is to explore how best organizations satisfy the need of their workers. They carried out several studies to explore those things that cause workers in white-collar jobs to be satisfied and dissatisfied. The outcome of their study showed that the factors that lead to job satisfaction when employees are at work are not the same factors that lead to dissatisfaction and low motivation when they are absent.

Thus, they say job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as independent factors. They referred to those environmental factors that cause workers to be dissatisfied as Hygiene Factors/ extrinsic factors.

The presence of these factors according to Herzberg et al. does not cause satisfaction and consequently failed to increase performance of workers in white-collar jobs.

The hygiene factors are organization policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relationship with supervisors and work conditions. They are associated with job content Herzberg et al. (1959). These factors are perceived as necessary but not sufficient conditions for the satisfaction and motivation of workers.

They further identified motivating factors/intrinsic factors as those factors that make workers work harder. They posited that these factors are associated with job context or what people actually do in their work and classified them as follows: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement.

Achievement is represented by the drive to excel, accomplish challenging tasks and achieve a standard of excellence. The individuals' need for advancement, growth, increased responsibility and work itself are said to be motivating factors. Herzberg et al. (1959) pointed out that the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but no dissatisfaction. Both hygiene factors and motivators are important but in different ways (Naylor 1999).

Applying these concepts to education for example, if TVET college improvement depends, fundamentally, on the improvement of the teaching/training process, ways to increase teacher/trainers motivation and capabilities should be the core issues upon which efforts should be made to make the TVET Colleges more effective and efficient.

In addition, highly motivated and need satisfied teachers/trainers can create a good social, psychological and physical climate in the classroom. Exemplary teachers/trainers can integrate professional knowledge (subject matter and pedagogy), interpersonal knowledge (human relationships), and interpersonal knowledge (ethics and reflective capacity) when he/she is satisfied with the job (Collinson, 1996).

Nonetheless, commitment to teaching/training and the workplace have been found to be enhanced by psychic rewards (acknowledgement of teaching/training competence) which includes work, task autonomy and participatory decision-making administrative support, reasonable work load, adequate resources and pay (Rosenholtz 1989).

In contrast, researches conducted in Nigeria teachers/trainers indicate that extrinsic incentives such as merit pay or effective teaching rewards have not been found to affect teacher/trainer job satisfaction (Ubom, 2001). The extrinsic factors evolve from the working environment while the

actual satisfiers are intrinsic and encourage a greater effectiveness by designing and developing teachers/trainers higher level needs. That is giving teachers/trainers greater opportunity, responsibility, authority and autonomy (Whawo, 1993).

Conversely, Ukeje et al. (1992) are of the opinion that however highly motivated to perform a teacher/trainer may be, he/she needs to possess the necessary ability to attain the expected level of performance.

Nevertheless, it is hoped that if educational/TVET/ administrators and education policy maker can understand teachers/trainers job satisfaction needs, they can design a rewarding system both to satisfy teachers/trainers and meet the educational goals.

(3) McClelland's Need Achievement Theory

The third content theory was proposed by McClelland (1969) and it is called Need Achievement Theory. This theory of motivation and job satisfaction is called "the values theory" (Mbua, 2003).

McClelland is of the opinion that people's needs are acquired from their respective culture while others are learnt and these include the need for achievement (self esteem and self actualization), affiliation (Social), and power (Mbua, 2003). This is a replica of Maslow's need hierarchy theory in some way, but condenses the needs from five categories to just three. The first is the need for achievements (nach) or to do better. When individuals desire to achieve something, they follow an internal motivation to obtain fulfillment, obviously, achievements have their difference in grade, and high achievements require a willingness to take responsibility to solve problems, to systematically work to set and appropriate target, and to work for rewards (Robbins, 2001).

The second is the need for affiliation (naff) this is the need for admission affection and friendship as well as the desire to establish socially interactive behavior relationships. High affiliation needs focus on intercommunicative activities and preference for social relationships above organization tasks (Robbins 2001).

Finally, there is the need for power (npow), or the desire to obtain power and authority those who have a high need for power always desire to dominate or control others (Robbins, 2001).

(4) Aldefer's the Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) Theory.

The last key content theory of motivation and job satisfaction reviewed in this study is called The Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) Theory. The theory was hypothesized by Alderfer. This theory is also "a reformulation of Maslow's need hierarchy theory".

Alderfer like McClelland condenses Maslow's human needs into only three categories and these include the existence, relatedness and growth needs. According to him, existence needs are what Maslow calls physiological needs.

Relatedness needs refer to social and esteem needs that a person desires for affiliation or belongingness or love, whereas growth needs are those needs that are to do with the "desire to be self confident, productive and creative" (Mbua,2003).

2.2.3.1.2 Process Theories

What all process theories have in common is an emphasis on the cognitive processes in determining employee level of need satisfaction. The process theories include the Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, and Locke's Value Theory (Robbins & Judge, 2008). They are discussed below.

(1) Adam's Equity theory

Adams formulated the equity theory of job motivation in 1965 (Robbins, 2001) it is based on the idea that people will make comparison with others to help decide what is fair and reasonable in an exchange, Adams considered that job satisfaction was decided by individuals' understanding of the equity between work and reward, the framework for equity theory, which is also called social comparison theory, consists of three variants: (a) all the input that individuals put in work; (b) all rewards they achieve; and (c) the comparison between input and output and the parallel comparison between those with equal levels. In other words, employees compare their own outcome-to-input to the outcome-to-input ratio of relevant others (Green, 2000). If the outcome (rewards)-to-input (contributions) ratio of person A, as shown below, is equal to the outcome (rewards)-to-input (contributions) ratio of person B, then the social exchange relationship will be considered equitable.

$$\frac{\text{Rewards of person A}}{\text{Contributions of Person A}} = \frac{\text{Rewards of person B}}{\text{Contributions of Person B}}$$

Workers examine their experience, age, educational background, status, and efforts, and then estimate whether their rewards including salary, status, and promotion chance are appropriate. If they find inequality in reward, they may try to change their input or their outcomes, distort their perception of self, distort their perception of others, choose a different referent, or level the field

(Walster et al., 1978) thus, whether the subjective estimation is fair or not can be decided through the comparison. When individuals find fairness, they may have satisfactory feelings; if not, they may have dissatisfactory feelings. Adams believed that the strength of an individual's motive lies in the inequality of input and reward. When individuals receive a complaint, they may take actions to increase or decrease their effort according to their motivation. Research by McKenna (2000) and Sweeney (1990) confirms equity theory as one of the most useful frameworks for understanding and has a role to play in the study of work motivation.

(2) Vroom's Expectancy theory

Secondary process theory is expectancy theory. Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) posits that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Robbins, 2001). Expectancy theory focuses on three key elements (effort, performance and outcomes): effort-performance relationship-performance-reward personal goals relationship.

According to Lewis et al. (1995), expectancy theory is the most comprehensive motivational model that seeks to predict or explain task-related effort. The theory suggests that work motivation is determined by two factors: (1) the relationship between effort and performance and (2) the desirability of various work outcomes that are associated with different performance levels. Simply put, the theory suggests that the motivation that will lead to job satisfaction is a function of the perceived relationship between an individual's effort, performance, and the desirability of consequences associated with job performance (Lawler, 1973). That is, employees are influenced by the expected outcomes of their behaviors and motivation at work or the perceptible link between effort and reward. This theory helps explain why some workers are not motivated and only do the minimum to get by. Moreover, as a contingency model, the theory also recognizes that there is no universal principle for explaining every one's motivations (Robbins, 2001).

(3) Locke's Value Theory

This Theory was developed by Edwin Locke (1969). Locke's Value Theory, also called the Goal-setting Theory, and suggests that employees' goals help to explain motivation, job satisfaction and performance. The Theory assumes that behaviour is a result of the individuals' conscious goals and intentions (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010). According to Locke, when employees perceive that the goals they set for themselves or are set by the managers, are fulfilling and attainable, their

commitment and productivity will increase. This could lead to job satisfaction (Badenhorst, et al., 2008).

Successful attainment of the intended goal creates a pleasurable emotional state (called job satisfaction) on the part of the individual. Exceeding the set goals increases satisfaction (Latham & Locke, 2002). According to them (2002), the more goal-success an employee has attained, the higher his/her job satisfaction.

Locke (1969) also indicated that job dissatisfaction is a function of the size of the perceived discrepancy between the intended and the actual performance (Miner, 2005). The non-fulfillment of a goal creates a non-pleasurable emotional state, called job dissatisfaction.

Different variables affect the attainment of goal-directed performance. These variables include effort, organisational support, individual abilities and personal traits (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010). In a study of goal-setting, Hansson, Hasanen, and Hellgren (2011), indicated that providing organisational support (through a supervisor), and letting employees participate in setting goals affected job satisfaction positively. Hansson, et al. (2011) also stated that rewarding employees for improved performance, giving feedback and recognising their performance, getting support from their managers, and having low levels of goal-conflict and goal-stress have been found to be positively related to job satisfaction.

2.2.3.2 Models of Job Satisfaction

(1) Affect Theory

Edwin A. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the famous job satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderated how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met.

When a person values a particular facet of a job, his/her satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectation are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet.

(2) Dispositional Theory

Dispositional Theory is very general job satisfaction theory that suggests people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction regardless of one's job.

This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction.

A significant model that narrowed the scope of the Dispositional Theory was the Core Self-evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy A. Judge in 1998. Judge argued that there are four Core Self-evaluations that determine one's disposition towards job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his/her self) and general self-efficacy (the belief in one's own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction, having an internal focus of control (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction.

(3) Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

Hackman & Oldham (1975) proposed the Job Characteristics Model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics or core dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual result), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, and work motivation). The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviors.

Summary

In this part the most important theories (Abraham Maslow of Needs, Herzberg et al two factor theory, McClelland's Need Achievement Theory, and Alderfer's the Existence, Relatedness and Growth Theory from content theories; and Adam's Equity theory, Vroom's Expectancy theory, and Locke's Value Theory from process theories) and model theories (Affect Theory, Dispositional

Theory, and Job Characteristics Model) on job satisfaction were identified and explained. These theories are, in many ways, complementary to one another. The review underlined the following content and process theories of job satisfaction, namely Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two-factor Theory, the Expectancy Theory, Adam's Equity Theory, Locke's Value Theory and Job Characteristics Model (JCM) from Models of job satisfaction for current study.

The next sub section will focus and discuss on Antecedents of job satisfaction as indicated by the findings of several researchers.

2.2.4 Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

According to Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sonon and Werner (as cited in Luddy, 2005), factors that have an influence on job satisfaction can be divided into two groups namely demographic/biographic determinants and organisational factors. A number of these determinants and factors are discussed below under their relevant headings.

2.2.4.1 Job Satisfaction and Demographic Variables

Research regarding the relationship between demographic variables among others such as gender, age, level of education and teaching experience, and job satisfaction deliver mixed and sometimes conflicting results. The level of job satisfaction perceived by different school teachers/trainers working in a similar working environment is often different. This may be accounted for by one of the many factors associated with job satisfaction, namely the demographic factors. These demographic characteristics have been found to influence the level of job satisfaction of trainers. Thus, in most job satisfaction studies it is common practice to include demographic/personal characteristics as some of the factors that influence the relationship between the work environment and job satisfaction. These are used as moderator variables. However, neither the level of their influence nor the direction of the relationship is clear. This shows that, though job satisfaction is influenced by personal characteristics, the literature is far from conclusive about the nature of the relationship (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008).

Ethiopia is committed to participating in the competitive global market economy. This requires technical and professional citizens trained in the "ability to learn" and in specific occupations. Hence, Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is often at the center of education aimed at marketable and entrepreneurial skills. Ethiopia is putting in place, in part via TVET, a

comprehensive human resource development program. TVET provides training on market oriented programs based on the demand of industry for various target groups including: graduates of grade 10, school leavers, people who are in employment, school drop outs, and groups marginalized in the labor market. Improving the quality of training by means of efficient teachers/trainers is a current and most sensitive issue. It is, therefore, imperative that the impact of demographic variables on the trainers' job satisfaction be empirically determined.

2.2.4.1.1 Gender

In studies on job satisfaction, gender is a frequently investigated variable. The investigation of this variable as a determinant of job satisfaction is a sensitive issue. This is because there is a substantial increase in the number of women joining the labour force in recent times (Gargallo-Castel, Garcia-Bernal, Marzo-Navaro, & Rivera-Torres, 2005; Oshagbemi, 2000), and this has generated considerable interest for the need to investigate the influence of gender on job satisfaction.

Although the relationship between gender and job satisfaction has been investigated extensively, the results of many of the studies so far have been found inconsistent, contradictory and far from unanimous. Where some studies found women more satisfied with their work, others indicated that the men were more content (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Ma & McMillan, 1999).

Numerous studies in different parts of the world have shown women to be more satisfied with the teaching profession than men (Akhtar & Ali, 2009; Bogler, 2002; Jyoti & Sharma, 2006; Kim, 2005; Koustelios, 2001; Ladebo, 2005; Ma & McMillan, 1999). Kim (2005) observed that in the Seoul Metropolitan Government studies of gender differences in Korea, the women reported more satisfaction with their jobs than the men, and the credible reasons are that women place greater value than men on intrinsic rewards. In a study Koustelios (2001) found that the women teachers were more satisfied with their working conditions than the men, because women employees tend to consider the working conditions to be more favourable than the men do. Other researchers who have studied gender also indicated that female senior secondary school teachers are significantly more satisfied than their male counterparts (Akhtar & Ali, 2009). Several reasons were posited for this significant difference in satisfaction. Female teachers' social aspiration, social acceptability, job responsibilities, experiences of challenges and career development were some of the reasons cited. Akhtar and Ali (2009) further believe that it is a great achievement for female teachers to be

part of the teaching profession and being treated equally where there is high competition in the world of work, and this facilitates job satisfaction. According to Kim (2005), the job aspects such as salary, job security, worth of providing a public service, the work itself, and promotion prospects that are important and valued by female employees are different from those that are important to male employees, because what women look for in a job is different to what men look for. Kim (2005) further argues that even in the same situation the satisfaction-level of women is different from that of men, because the unfulfilled job values that are valued by women are different from those that are valued by men.

In his study Kim (2005) indicated that women reported that the most important motive in their working life was worthwhile work achievement, whereas men reported that promotion, reputation and prestige as public employees were most important. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that women employees place more emphasis on intrinsic rewards, whereas men employees value extrinsic rewards more highly. The reasons for the job satisfaction differences between men and women, according to Kim (2005), in agreement with Chiu (1998), are, namely the fact that women have lower expectations than men do, because women tend to compare their jobs with those of other women, whereas men compare their jobs to jobs/positions of other men. Moreover, women may be socialised not to express their discontent, and women and men value different characteristics in a job.

In a study Chiu (1998) found that female lawyers have lower overall satisfaction than men do. He (1998:531) argued that the observed lower overall job satisfaction of female lawyers was mostly due to their sense of not having enough influence, promotional opportunities, and financial compensation.

Other studies differ from the above. Research has shown that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Ellsworth, et al., 2008; Mertler, 2002). Still other studies have found that there is no significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction (Akiri & Ogborugbo, 2009; Badenhorst, et al., 2008; Ellickson, 2002; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). Thus, the results are inconclusive and need further investigation.

2.2.4.1.2 Age

Studies regarding the relationship between age and job satisfaction ascertained the existence of significant relationships. However, the exact relationship between age and job satisfaction remains

uncertain (Spector, 1997). Early studies by Herzberg, *et al.*(1957) show the possibility of a U-shaped or curvilinear relationship between age and job satisfaction, implying that employees experience a high level of job satisfaction at the start of their careers, a decrease in the middle ages, and a rebound later on in life.

Other researchers who have studied age and its effect on job satisfaction indicated that job satisfaction appears to decrease with age. For example, Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) undertook a study to examine the effect of age on the job satisfaction of academics. Age was one of the factors found to impact negatively on their job satisfaction, in the sense that job satisfaction decreased with age (Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999).Garrett and Ssesanga (2005) showed that age significantly influences academics' teaching satisfaction, with the younger academics more likely to derive satisfaction from the extrinsic aspects of their job, and their older counterparts derived satisfaction from the intrinsic aspects of teaching. This finding was confirmed by Bolin (2007), who determined significant correlations between age and job satisfaction: older teachers derived greater satisfaction from self-fulfillment, salary and collegial relationships. Sargent and Hannum (2005) also pointed out that younger teachers were significantly less satisfied with their jobs than their older counterparts.

Other studies differ in their findings. Crossman and Harris (2006), using teachers as participants, found neither a typically linear nor a typically curvilinear relationship between the age of a teacher and his/her job satisfaction. The researchers found a relatively high job satisfaction in the 22-30 and 41-50 age groups, followed by a decrease in the job satisfaction in the 31-40 age groups, and a slightly declining level of job satisfaction in the 50+ age group. Although the exact explanation of this fluctuating level of job satisfaction is unclear, the researchers speculated that certain work-related life events may be a cause. Agreeing with Crossman and Harris, Mertler (2002) found similar fluctuating results regarding the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Mertler (2002) describes a U-shaped or curvilinear relationship, in which a higher percentage of teachers expressed satisfaction in the age range from 26-30 years, followed by a considerable decline in the age range from 31-35 years, and finally a rebound later in life (36-40 years).

Studies with other groups differed from the above. Findlay (2004) aimed to determine if significant differences in job satisfaction existed according to age, race, educational qualification, and years of teaching experience. He found no significant differences based on age. A study by Ellickson (2002)

showed that age had no effect on the job satisfaction of the employees. This issue has not been fully investigated in Adama TVET College.

2.2.4.1.3 Level of Education

With regard to education level and job satisfaction, a number of researchers indicated that job satisfaction decreases as the education level increases. Glenn and others (in Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999) indicate that education has a negative impact on job satisfaction. A feasible explanation offered by these researchers for this inverse (negative) relationship is that increased education is associated with higher expectations (e.g., in terms of fulfillment and responsibility), indicating that an employee may become dissatisfied with performing routine tasks. Similarly, Ting (1997), in his review, indicated that the more educated employees have high expectations that jobs or organizations may not be able to meet.

In respect of teachers the results were similar. Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009) found a negative relationship between educational level and job satisfaction. They concluded that the most educated teachers are the least satisfied because of the gap that existed between the teachers' expectations and the realities of professional work. Thus, the resultant disenchantment leads to the reduced satisfaction of the higher educated teachers. However, contrary to the findings of Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009), and Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999), Akhtar and Ali (2009) found that the level of education was inversely related to job satisfaction. Teachers/trainer with a lower level of education was significantly more satisfied than those with a higher level of education.

The possible reasons for this, according to Akhtar and Ali, were that highly qualified teachers/trainers lacked the possibility of growth, advancement and other school level-related factors. Findlay (2004), found that teachers with bachelor's degrees were less likely to be committed to remain in teaching than other teachers. In a study on teacher job satisfaction and factors that influence it, Bolin (2007) found significant correlations between educational levels and self-fulfillment and collegial relationships teachers with higher educational levels had lower self-fulfillment and collegial relationships. Similarly, Sargent and Hannum (2005), doing a multivariate analysis of teacher job satisfaction, found that teachers with higher levels of education were significantly less satisfied with the teaching profession, and significantly more likely to change careers.

The relationship between education and job satisfaction, however, remains unclear, because other studies refute the above findings. Badenhorst, et al. (2008), in their study of job satisfaction among urban secondary school teachers in Namibia, found no significant relationship between educational qualifications and the job satisfaction of teachers. Similarly, Turner (2007), regarding the relationship between educational level and the job satisfaction of teachers, found a non-significant relationship between the two. Ting (1997) also found that the educational level of employees had no effect on their job satisfaction.

The impact of their level of education on the job satisfaction of Ethiopian teachers/trainers particularly ADAMA TVET has not been investigated in depth.

2.2.4.1.4 Working Experience

Working experience is another factor that influences job satisfaction. The relationship between the teachers' 'working (teaching) experience and their job satisfaction is, however, not clear. A study done by Crossman and Harris (2006) on the job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in England indicated a curvilinear type of relationship between length of service (teaching experience) and the teachers' job satisfaction. The results indicated that satisfaction was high for early career teachers, decreasing at the midpoint of their careers, and rebounding again towards the end of their teaching careers. In the early periods of employment there were more new things to be learnt from the job, and teachers gained a sense of pleasure from their teaching jobs. But, through time, they develop confidence, new skills and abilities which influence their satisfaction. Research done by Mertler (2002) reported similar findings, with teachers early in their teaching careers as well as those nearing the end of their careers indicating higher levels of job satisfaction than teachers who were in the middle of their careers (a U-shaped relationship).

A different relationship was found in other studies. Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009) indicated that teaching experience and job satisfaction are negatively related - an increase in teaching experience was followed by a decrease in job satisfaction. They found (2009:54) that the most experienced teachers/trainers' are the least satisfied with their teaching/trainers' careers, and concluded that years of teaching/training experience significantly negatively influence the teachers' career satisfaction.

Bolin (2007) examined five dimensions (self-fulfillment, workload, salary, leadership and collegial relationships) that could influence job satisfaction. His findings showed significant correlations

between the teachers' satisfaction and length of service - the higher the teachers' length of service, the more the teachers were satisfied with their self-fulfillment, salaries, and collegial relationships. In contrast to the above, Tillman and Tillman (2008) found no significant relationship between the teachers' teaching experience and job satisfaction. He investigated the relationships between length of service, salary, supervision, and the teachers' job satisfaction in South Carolina, USA. The correlation, if any, of the Ethiopian teachers'/trainers' teaching/training experience with their job satisfaction has not yet been investigated.

Summary

Different Research regarding the relationship between demographic variables such as gender, age, level of education and working experience among others, and job satisfaction reviewed. The impact of those demographic determinants on job satisfaction of Ethiopian trainers particularly ADAMA TVET has not been investigated in depth. So, these issues will be further investigated in this study from trainers' perspective.

2.2.4.2 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Factors

Among other organisational factors, extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction factors are discussed as follows.

2.2.4.2.1 Job satisfaction and extrinsic factors

Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman (1959) postulated that there are extrinsic factors or hygiene as they are referred to, which cause an increase in job dissatisfaction (Schroder, 2008). According to Herzberg (1959, as cited in Smerek & Peterson, 2006) these extrinsic factors include aspects such as salary and benefits, company policy, administration, status, security, relationships with supervisors, relationships with peers, relationships with subordinates, work conditions and personal life. If these extrinsic factors were to be improved it could result in no job dissatisfaction on the part of the employee. This could, for instance cause employees to change their mind about leaving the organisation. The improvement of extrinsic factors does not mean that the employee will now suddenly become more productive in his/her job but that the employee will merely not be dissatisfied with their job situation. Thus a degradation of extrinsic factors can cause job

dissatisfaction whereas a rectification of extrinsic factors will not necessarily lead to job satisfaction but to no job dissatisfaction (Smerek & Peterson, 2006).

2.2.4.2.2 Job Satisfaction and Intrinsic Factors

Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman (1959, in Schroder, 2008) posit that intrinsic factors or motivators as they are also referred to, will cause an increase in employee job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors with regard to employees include, but are not limited to, aspects such as the perception that they are doing meaningful work, the perceived amount of respect that is given to them, the degree to which they are allowed to use their own ability and the freedom that they experience by being allowed to use their own work methods, a sense of recognition, having a sense of responsibility and being given the chance to grow and develop as a professional and a person (Schroder, 2008). An improvement of intrinsic factors could lead to an increase of employee productivity but a decrease in intrinsic factors does not necessarily mean that an Employee will be dissatisfied with his/her job (Smerek and Peterson, 2006). According to Dodd-McCue & Write (as cited in Worrell, 2004) job satisfaction can be positively influenced by the value of an employee's job function and the way that the employee identifies with that particular job function. During a study performed by Martinez-Ponz (as cited in Worrell, 2004) it was found that in comparison to financial rewards, intrinsic rewards were more effective in increasing employee job satisfaction and commitment amongst teachers.

Summary

This part presented the results of studies conducted by researchers on the issue of job satisfaction. It identified and explained aspects of the teachers'/trainers work that could lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These factors included extrinsic and intrinsic factors among other organisational factors. These issues will be considered in this study.

2.2.5 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The job satisfaction survey (JSS) is a 36 item, nine facet scale which is developed by Spector in 1985, to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used with six choices per item ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine facets are pay, promotion,

supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), coworkers, nature of the work, and communication. Although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service (public) organizations, it is applicable to all organizations (Spector, 2001). Raters are requested to complete the questionnaire regarding their satisfaction about their job. The JSS is self-explanatory and is completed individually. The questionnaire provides clear instructions as to its completion. There is no time limit for the JSS. Individuals are allowed to complete the questionnaire without direct supervision (Spector, 1997).

In order to compute the various scores, the individual items need to be summed together. The responses to the JSS items are numbered from 1 to 6. A respondent can therefore have a score from 1 to 6 for each item. Some of the items are scored positively and some are scored negatively. A positively worded item is one for which agreement indicates job satisfaction and a negatively worded item is one that indicates dissatisfaction. Thus, respondents who agree with negatively worded items will have low scores representing dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). In order to accurately score the responses, the negatively worded item responses need to be reversed. After the items have been reversed, the numbered responses for the appropriate items are summed. The total satisfaction score is the sum of all thirty-six items. Individual scores are computed by summing the appropriate items and the scores can range from 4 to 24 (Spector, 1997).

Spector explained the process by which he measured the validity and reliability of the instrument when it was first developed. However, since then the instrument has been updated by Spector (1997) and has been continually re-evaluated for reliability and validity through its extensive use by researchers in organizations of all types.

With regard to the validity of the JSS, five of the subscales namely; pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers and nature of the work correlate well with corresponding subscales of Smith, Kendall and Hulin's Job Description Index (JDI). These correlations range from 0.61 to 0.80 for supervision (Spector, 1997). The JSS also correlates with a number of scales and variables that have been shown to correlate with other job satisfaction scales, including job characteristic as assessed by the Job Diagnostic Survey; age; organizational level, absenteeism, organizational commitment, leadership practices, intention to quit the job and turnover (Spector, 1985).

In Spector's (1997) study, a sample of 3067 individuals completed the JSS and the coefficient alphas ranged from 0.60 for the coworker subscale to 0.91 for the total scale. According to Bryman and Cramer (1997), the accepted minimum standard for internal consistency is 0.80, thus implying

that the coworker subscale is somewhat lower than what is expected. Secondly, the test-retest reflects the stability of the scale over time. The reliabilities ranged from 0.37 to 0.74. The relative stability of satisfaction was remarkable in that the time span was 18 months during which several major changes occurred (Spector, 1997).

Since the tool was initially validated and tested for reliability it has been used in multiple academic research studies, which have since helped to further validate the survey as an excellent method for collecting and analyzing data in relation to job satisfaction.

Summary

Armstrong (2003) defined job satisfaction as the feelings and attitudes of people toward their job. Job satisfaction encompasses nine facets/dimensions such as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), coworkers, nature of the work, and communication Spector (1997).

Researches and theorists from different continuous have been trying to explore and develop various factors, theories, and models on job satisfaction. According to Fincham and Rhodes (1999), there are two broad categories of job satisfaction theories namely content and process theories. Beside organizational factors, demographic variables also have an influence on job satisfaction. Job satisfaction survey (JSS) is an appropriate instrument to measure job satisfaction hence the content of the scale is applicable for the study.

The fundamental factors influencing the effectiveness of an organization are leadership and employee job satisfaction (Kennerly, S. M., 1989). Leadership is considered one of the most important determinants of employee job satisfaction. It extensively influences employees' motivation and dedication. The next part of this chapter discusses about the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

2.3 The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction

The importance of leadership was first researched in the 1920s with studies using surveys reporting that favorable attitudes toward supervision helped to achieve employee job satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Several studies were conducted during the 1950s and 1960s to investigate how managers could use their leadership behaviors to increase employees' level of job satisfaction

(Northouse, 2004). These studies confirmed the significance of leadership in making differences in employees' job satisfaction (Bass, 1990).

Furthermore, Yousef (2000) showed that leadership behavior was positively related to job satisfaction and therefore managers needed to adopt appropriate leadership behavior in order to improve it. Leadership style affects a range of factors such as job satisfaction, performance, turnover intention, and stress (Chen and Silverthorne, 2005). Employees are more satisfied with leaders who are considerate or supportive than with those who are either indifferent or critical towards subordinates (Yukl 1971). As Wilkinson & Wagner (1993) argued, it is stressful for employees to work with a leader who has a hostile behavior and is unsupportive. Negative leader-employee relations reduce productivity and increase absenteeism and the turnover to the organization can be quite high (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean 1994; Ribelin 2003). Thus, Leadership styles contribute to organizational success (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006).

Yousef (2000) argued that theories developed and tested in Western organizations are still valid for non-Western countries. Hence, the significant impact of leadership style on job satisfaction does not differ between west and east and can be considered an important factor in the success or failure of any organization (Lok and Crawford, 2004).

Specifically, Several studies have been conducted on the education profession (Silins and Mulford 2002; Blogler 2002; Rossmiller, 1992). A study by Silins and Mulford (2002) has revealed a high level of teacher satisfaction in secondary school systems where transformational leadership is implemented. Similarly, some previous investigations of job satisfaction among teachers reveal that lack of effective leadership skills had negatively affected their job satisfaction, as shown in Blogler's (2002) study. Other empirical studies, such as that carried out by Rossmiller (1992) reveal that a teacher's perception of their principal's transformational leadership skills has a significant impact on their job satisfaction and conclude that the principles of the school practicing transformational leadership are more likely to foster and enhance job satisfaction among teachers, as compare to those principles who are not transformative in their leadership styles.

In study, Everett (1987) found that significant relationships existed at the .05 levels between teacher job satisfaction and the perceived leadership style of the principal. Teacher job satisfaction scores were correlated to two leadership subscales, initiating structure and consideration. Teachers in schools with principals who demonstrated high levels on both initiating structure and consideration had high job satisfaction scores. The findings suggested that principals should be

encouraged to exhibit high levels of both initiating structure (task) and consideration (relationship) in their leadership styles, and principals and teachers should learn to recognize intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. Recognition of these variables may result in teachers attempting to increase intrinsic satisfaction with less extrinsic and general satisfaction (Everett, 1987).

Ejimofofor (2007) has conducted a study to investigate the relationship between a teacher's perception of his or her principal, transformational leadership skills possessed by teachers, and job satisfaction in two large Local Government Areas in Southeastern Nigeria. Participants include 518 secondary teachers and 48 principals, and the results of the study show that a teacher's perceptions of his or her principal's transformational leadership skills have a substantial impact on job satisfaction.

Hamidifar (2010) also conducted a similar study on the relationship between leadership and staff job satisfaction at Islamic Azad University 16 Branches in Tehran, Iran. 400 questionnaires have been distributed using the random sampling method and 386 were completed. The results of the study are consistent with similar studies, which have shown the significant positive influence of transformational leadership factors on staff job satisfaction. This study undertaken by Hamidifar also shows that there no significant influence of transactional leadership on a subordinate's job satisfaction.

Further studies aim to explore the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction has been carried out by Ramey (2002). Ramey (2002) has conducted a study to examine the relationship between leadership styles of nurse managers and job satisfaction of registered staff nurses in hospital settings in an Appalachian state, U.S.A. A total 200 participants has been selected using simple random sampling method from the total registered nurses of 7190. Similar to other research study such those mentioned earlier, a positive and moderate association was found between job satisfactions of registered staff nurses and nurse managers who practicing transformational leadership. The association between job satisfaction of staff nurses and their superiors who was practicing transactional leadership was found to be contrary. This finding has further supported the existence of positive relationship between transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction between staff nurse and nurse managers.

Walumbwa et al. (2004) also conducted a study on the relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes using a sample of 402 employees in China and India in the banking

and finance sectors. The result has again demonstrated a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment.

Wells and Peachey (2011) have conducted a study in the U.S.A on 200 participants from National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I softball and volleyball assistant coaches. They investigated the relationship between leadership behavior (transformational and transactional), satisfaction with the leaders, and voluntary turnover intentions. The results reveal a significantly negative association between transformational leadership behavior and voluntary organizational turnover intentions, as well as a correlation between transactional leadership behavior and voluntary organizational turnover intentions. Moreover, these two leadership styles can be said to be positively related to job satisfaction (Wells and Peachey, 2011).

In addition to this, Rowold and Rohmann's (2009) study looks into the effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership styles in the domain of German nonprofit orchestras, while exploring the role of the emotions within these leadership styles. Positive emotions among leaders were associated with both transactional and transformational leadership in this study. This implies that leaders that are directly in control of their emotions increase significantly the job satisfaction of their subordinates.

Furthermore, Erkutlu and Chafra (2006) found that laissez-faire leadership style in a boutique hotel led to negative results in organizational performance such as low satisfaction, high stress, and low commitment by followers. However, Robbins et al (2010) argue that leader using the style laissez-faire could increase job satisfaction among employees because of freedom given to them to make decisions when is needed.

The basic aim of Webb's (2003) study was to find a model comprising joint leadership behavior linked with transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles to better predict subordinates' job satisfaction as compared to any of these leadership styles alone. The results highlighted that a combined four-factor model, including attributed charisma, individual consideration, contingent reward and laissez-faire, accounts for faculty job satisfaction "slightly better than the transformation model and much better than the transactional or laissez-faire models" (Webb, 2003:89). The above debated studies highlight that there is a relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction, and leadership practices might vary in different contexts.

Generally, researchers maintain that there is no one best style of leadership that will succeed in every type of situation (Everett, 1987; Klawitter, 1985). An extensive search of the literature has

shown that no universally accepted style of leadership despite numerous research efforts no determine such a style.

Summary

Several studies were conducted during the 1950s and 1960s to investigate how managers could use their leadership behaviors to increase employees' level of job satisfaction (Northouse, 2004) These studies confirmed the significance of leadership in making differences in employees' job satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, Yousef (2000) showed that leadership behavior was positively related to job satisfaction and therefore managers needed to adopt appropriate leadership behavior in order to improve it. This study however was intended to assess the relationship between College leaders' leadership styles and full-time Trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design and Methodology

3.1 The Research Design

The general objective of the study was to assess the relationship between leadership styles and full-time trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State. The study sought to determine if a correlation existed between two or more variables. A descriptive correlation research design was employed to achieve the objectives of the study. Quantitative research has been described as assigning numerical values to all of the objectives under investigation and drawing a conclusion based on the collection and analysis of the numerical data (Hart, 2006). For the quantitative study, survey questionnaires were used to gather the relevant and important information with regard to leadership styles and trainers' job satisfaction. A survey is an appropriate research of collecting data for descriptive or exploratory studies (Pettit, 1993, cited in Stumpf, 2003). Cross-sectional survey type will be employed. The correlation study as being one of non-experimental research examines variables in their natural environment and does not include researcher-imposed treatments and is conducted after the variations in the variable have occurred naturally (Simon, 2006). The variables in the current study were not manipulated or controlled; therefore a correlation design was deemed appropriate for the quantitative portion of the study (Johnson, 2004).

Moreover, according to Sigh (2006), this research design helps to study immediate status of a phenomenon, facts findings and to examine the relationships of traits and characteristics. As a result, the researcher believes that, this research designs help to obtain information about the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of college leaders and trainers under study. Thus, this study classified as quantitative research methods.

3.2 Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources of data were employed to achieve the objective of the study. The primary sources of data were Dean of the college (process owners' team leader), process owners, sector heads, department heads & trainers of Adama TVET College. On other hand, the secondary data were compiled from many sources like e-sources (journals, articles, e-books and etc.), library books, and official documents such as educational policy, records, yearly booklet,

brochures & etc. The secondary data was used to get better insight on the research topic, to establish the viable platform for the theoretical framework constituting the bases of this research, and to regaining the primary data. In addition to this, using secondary data has comparability character advantage. Hence, the researcher was used it to validate and compare with the data obtained through questionnaires to the existing literature and articles.

3.3 Samples and Sampling Techniques

The target population of this study was comprised of 141 Trainers and 19 College leaders. That is, it was included both full-time trainers [(A-level=MA/instructors, B-level=first degree/teachers, C-level=Diploma/others/ teachers those responsible for provision of training) and trainers those assigned by the college to render industrial extension services and technology for small and micro enterprises in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State)] and College leaders (college deans, process owners, sector heads and department heads) of Adama TVET College. These population in the sample were made to have more than one year work experience in the college, as result they had deep knowledge and understanding about the subjects.

From the total of 19 college leaders 14(73.7%) samples was included in the study using purposive sampling technique, because they were supposed to be key players of the college's leadership role. According to Krishnaswami and Raganatham (2009) the power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information rich cases for in-depth analysis related to central issues being studied.

In addition to this, 95 trainers which account 67.4% out of the total trainers were selected from each department using non-proportional stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques. The reasons why the researcher prefers these techniques were: non proportional stratified sampling technique could help to guarantee the desired representation of the relevant subgroups within the sample, and it is assumed that finding specific information like the service years of instructors/trainers in different fields' analyzing data differently be difficult (Gay et al., 2009). The other reasons why simple random sampling technique was used by the researcher was that the samples size were large it becomes increasingly to represent the population and to avoid personal biasness that affect the result of the study.

To sum up, a combination of purposive, non-proportional stratified and simple random sampling techniques were used to select the samples.

Table 1: population and Sampling Frame

No	Category	Population	Sample Size	Percent
1	College leaders	19	14	73.7
2	Trainers	141	95	67.4
	Total	160	109	68.13

This sample size with population(160) was much greater than the sample size recommended by Gray, that is, for a population of 10,000, the recommended sample size is 370, based on 95 percent confidence level (Gray, 2004, p.218).

3.4 Instruments of Data Collection

The data gathering tools for this study were close-ended questionnaires and document analysis.

3.4.1 Questionnaires

Close-ended questionnaires were presented for college leaders and full-time trainers for they were less costly and less time-consuming than other measuring instruments. Additionally, demographic characteristics of the respondents were determined by the questionnaire that was developed by the researcher as a brief demographic survey instrument. Hence, the data on demographic characteristics tried to gain a single response to the variables of gender, year of experiences, level of educational qualification, and area of job responsibility from college leaders and trainers. Moreover, two types of standardized questionnaires were used in this research, namely; the Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to obtain quantitative information on leadership styles and trainers' job satisfaction respectively. Therefore, there are three questionnaires used in this study. They are: Self-designed Demographic Questionnaire, Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS).

3.4.1.1. Self-Designed Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire developed for this study by the researcher and was used to describe participants' demographics: gender, age, educational qualification, work experience, leadership experience and job level.

3.4.1.2 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X)

Prior to selecting the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) for this research, several alternative instruments such as Managerial Grid, Situational Leadership Questionnaire, and Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) were considered as possible measurements of leadership behaviors. Even if these instruments measure transformational, transactional leadership and laissez-faire behaviors, the subscales and items do not focus on a separation or differentiation of these behaviors. Instead, their prominence is on identifying the types of leadership behaviors that are most appropriate for the situation (Bass *et al.*, 2003; Avolio *et al.*, 2004). For these reasons, none of them was considered appropriate for this research. As a result, this study used the most recent MLQ version to describe leadership styles.

MLQ was originally developed by Bass (1985, 1995) and is applicable to organisations (Northouse, 2007; Tejada *et al.*, 2001). However, after the initial widespread use of the MLQ, results of different studies revealed that the earlier MLQ version might not always be consistent due to its psychometric properties. Therefore, there have been several revisions to strengthen its validity and reliability (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Northouse, 2007; Tejada *et al.*, 2001).

The most recent MLQ Form 5X-Short (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) which was formulated from the full Range Leadership Model consisting of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors with nine subscales (Bass *et al.*, 2003). Those include five transformational: Idealized influence (attributed); idealized influence (behavior); Inspirational motivation; Individualized consideration; Intellectual stimulation (originally four), three transactional ones: Contingent reward; Management by exception (active); Management by exception (passive), and non-transactional or laissez-faire subscales. The range of effective and ineffective leadership behaviours in the MLQ is typically much broader than in other leadership surveys.

The modified MLQ consists of 45 items -36 items represent nine leadership factors with the newer form reflecting item refinement. The three outcomes of leadership profile are:- extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. The MLQ places each item on a 5-point Likert type scale and measures a wider and more detailed range of style, giving the opportunity to identify a full range of leadership behaviors.

The MLQ Form 5X is self-scoring and used to measure the nine subscales in this study where the items were rated by using a 5-point Likert scale labeled as 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while,

2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently, if not always (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Stumpf, 2003).

For scoring, the MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. If an item is left blank, the total for that scale is divided by the number of items answered. Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items, and Satisfaction has two items.

a) Validity and Reliability of MLQ

The validity of the MLQ is consistent with MLQ 5X (rater version survey). The average inter correlation among the five transformational scales is .83, versus .71 for the five transformational scales with ratings of contingent reward leadership (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1995). This provides evidence supporting the scales of transformational leadership as comprising a higher order construct than transactional leadership of contingent reward. High correlation between transformational scales and contingent reward, a transactional scale, is expected because all are active, positive forms of leadership demonstrated consistently by leaders.

Reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor scale ranged from .74 to .94 (Bass and Avolio, 2004). Meta-analysis of research studies has determined the MLQ (Form 5X) to be a reliable instrument with acceptable Cronbach's alpha values above .70 for all scales. A common rule of thumb is that an alpha (α) of 0.60-0.70 indicates acceptable reliability (Wikipedia, 2011; Yellen & Cella, 2007; Yellen, Cella, Webster, Blendowski, & Kaplan, 1997). This is also supported by Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) who reported the acceptable reliability of the original MLQ Form 5X-Short (Cronbach alpha = 0.86) and the Thai MLQ version (Cronbach alpha = 0.88), and the acceptable construct validity of the instrument. These findings support the use of the MLQ (Form 5X) in this study to determine the leadership preference of the follower. Therefore, the modified MLQ Form 5X is self-scoring 27 items relevant ones in our country's context used to measure the nine sub scales (3 items for each) in this study and has given this questionnaire to respond to the desired data.

An alpha level 0.05 was used as the level of significance for this study. The statistical significance of the correlation coefficient can be found and should be 0.05 or higher if reliability is to be guaranteed (Cohen, Morrison and Monion, 2005).

3.4.1.3 The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainers was examined by using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) which comprises 36 items, with nine facet scale which is developed by Spector in 1985, to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet (aspect) is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A totaled rating scale format is used with six choices per item ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine job satisfaction facets are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance based rewards), Operating procedures (required rules and procedures), coworkers, nature of the work, and communication. According to Spector (2001), although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service (public) organizations, it is applicable to all organizations. The JSS is self-explanatory and is completed individually.

In order to compute the various scores, the individual items need to be totaled. The responses to the JSS items are numbered from 1 to 6. A respondent can therefore have a score from 1 to 6 for each item. Some of the items are scored positively and some are scored negatively. A positively worded item is one for which agreement indicates job satisfaction and negatively worded items and disagree with negatively worded items will have high scores representing satisfaction. Respondents who disagree with positively worded items and agree with negatively worded items will have low scores representing dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). In order to accurately score the responses, the negatively worded item responses need to be reversed. After the items have been reversed, the numbered responses for the appropriate items are added together. The total satisfaction score is the sum of all thirty-six items. Individual scores are computed by summing the appropriate items and the scores can range from 4 to 24 (Spector, 1997).

a) Validity and Reliability of JSS

With regard to the validity of the JSS, five of the subscales namely; pay promotion, supervision, coworkers and nature of the work correlate well with corresponding subscales of Smith, Kendall and Hulin’s Job Description Index (JDI). These correlations range from 0.61 to 0.80 for supervision (Spector, 1997). The JSS also correlates with a number of scales and variables that have been shown to correlate with other job satisfaction scales, including job characteristic as assessed by the Job Diagnostic Survey; age, organizational level, absenteeism, organizational commitment, leadership practices, intention to quit the job and turnover (Spector, 1985).

In Spector's (1997) study, a sample of 3067 individuals completed the JSS and the coefficient alphas ranged from 0.60 for the coworker subscale to 0.91 for the total scale. As Bryman and Cramer (1997), the accepted minimum standard for internal consistency is 0.80, thus implying that the coworker subscale is somewhat lower than what is expected. Secondly, the test-retest reflects the stability of the scale over time. The reliabilities ranged from 0.37 to 0.74. The relative stability of satisfaction was remarkable in that the time span was 18 months during which several major changes occurred (Spector, 1997). Therefore, taking the above into consideration the items and subscales that will be needed to measure in this study, the researcher selects the JSS as the most suitable and fitting measure of job satisfaction. Also the content of the scale is applicable for the study.

3.5. Procedures of Data Collection

After standard questionnaires on multifactor leadership questionnaires and job satisfaction survey were made ready, demographic survey questionnaire was developed in the medium of English language. Subsequently, the questionnaires were disseminated for the selected subjects. Lastly, the distributed questionnaires were collected for further analysis.

3.6. Methods of Data Analysis

The nature of this study is quantitative. According to Johnson and On wuegbuzie (2004) quantitative research has the following strengths: it testing and validating already constructed theories about how(and to lesser degree, why) phenomena occur, testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data are collected, useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be, it provide precise-quantitative numerical data, Data analysis relatively less time consuming (using statistical significance), the research results are relatively independent of the researcher(e.g. effect size, statistical significance), it may have higher credibility with many people in power (e.g. administrators, politicians, people who found programs), and useful for studying large number of people. Hence these above strengths help the study.

Data collected through different tools were analyzed and interpreted both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative data that were collected through questionnaires was coded tallied, tabulated, organized and treated using different statistical techniques for analysis and inferences. Statistical tools like frequency counts, average mean, weighted mean values, percentages, standard

deviation, t-test, Pearson's product moment correlation, one way ANOVA and linear regression analysis were employed depending on the research questions and the specific nature of the data collected to show the average agreements and disagreements of the respondents.

To carry out the descriptive and inferential statistics for both MLQ-5X and the JSS the researcher used SPSS version 20. The scores for each of the items of the MLQ-5X and the JSS were entered into excel spreadsheets (both for college leaders and trainers separately). These scores were divided into their appropriate categories according to their MLQ-5X and JSS classifications and then calculated.

The mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated to compare one set of scores to another. The variance was calculated to test for normal distribution of the scores of the two samples or to measure how far each scores of the two samples from the mean.

A t-test was undertaken to determine whether the two groups (college leaders and trainers) scores were significantly different or similar at a selected probability level (Davis, 2009). An alpha level of .05 was used as the level of significance for this study.

Pearson's product moment correlation was made to investigate the relationship between independent (IV) and dependent (DV) variables. The independent [transactional, transformational and laissez-faire] variable which includes 9 sub-variables: idealized influence (attributed/behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, contingent reward, management by exception (active/passive), and laissez-faire from Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X), and dependent [job satisfaction] variables which are 9 sub variables: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, coworkers, nature of the work, and communication from JSS model to be measured. The strength of correlation between the two variables (leadership styles and job satisfaction) and between their sub variables was dealt using person Correlation Coefficient. Person r Correlation Coefficient was the most appropriate measure when the variable to be correlated are expressed as either interval or ratio data was also the most suitable measure of correlation (Davis, 2009).

One-way ANOVA was used to identify statistically significant difference and similarities, and degree of agreement and disagreement both on leadership styles and demographic factors among the college trainers. The concept underlying one-way ANOVA was that the total variation or variance of scores can be divided into two sources: variances between groups and variance within groups (Davis, 2009). For ANOVA effect size statistics was used to indicate the magnitude of the

differences between groups. One of most commonly used effect size statistics is eta squared. Eta squared range from 0 to 1 with the following formula: SS_B/SS_T (Sum of squares between-groups is divided by total sum of squares (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2007). The interpretation of the eta squared value proposed by Cohen (1988) as the following: 0.01=small effect, 0.06=moderate effect and 0.14=large effect (Pallant, 2001, 2007), and then after, a linear regression analysis was conducted in order to indicate the effect of demographic factors and leadership styles on overall job satisfaction separately.

Figure IV: Effect Size Determinations for t-test Results

<u>Effect Size</u>	<u>Magnitude</u>
$d \geq 1.00$,	much larger than typical large or
$d = 0.80$	larger than typical
$d = 0.50$	medium or typical, and
$d < .02$	small or smaller than typical

Source: Cohen (1988)

More specifically, descriptive statistics was for job satisfaction survey as perceived by trainers as well as for leadership styles as perceived by trainers (raters) and college leader (self-raters) to show mean, standard deviation, and variance. Inferential statistics like: T-test for leadership styles of trainers (raters) and college leader (self-raters), Correlational analysis between leadership style (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and dependent variables (job satisfaction dimensions), analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Linear regression analysis for leadership styles and demographic factors were employed. Finally, a thematic analysis was made for information obtained through document analysis to enrich the quantitative data obtained.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

The researcher addressed ethical considerations of confidentiality and privacy. I used a rigorous and conscious effort at all times to sustain this promise. A guarantee was given to the Adama TVET College respondents that their names should not be revealed in the questionnaire and research report. In order to ensure the success of the research, leaders were linked to subordinates in such a manner that each subordinate's response remains anonymous apart from being linked to a particular leader. Moreover, participants received a verbal and written description of the study, and informed consent was obtained before the survey. Participation in the study was voluntary, and all participants' responses were confidential. Finally, a copy of the final report could be given to the organization if necessary.

CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Data

This chapter contains the presentation analysis and interpretation of data. The points dealt with in the chapter are the general characteristics of the sample population, means and standard deviations, the computed t-test for leadership styles of trainers (raters) and college leader (self-raters). Moreover, it includes Correlational analysis between leadership style (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and dependent variables (job satisfaction dimensions), analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Linear regression analysis for leadership styles and demographic information.

4.1 Analysis of the Characteristics of Participants

Table 2: Demographic Information of Participants (Gender)

Demographic Variables	Leaders' Profile (N=14)			Trainers Profile (N=78)	
	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	13	92.9	64	82.1
	Female	1	7.1	14	17.9
	Total	14	100.0	78	100.0

Table 2: deals with sex distribution of participants. Accordingly, (92.9 %, N= 13) were male and (7.1%, N=1) were female College leaders. On the other hand, (82.1%, N=64) male and (17.9%, N= 14) female trainers were involved during the study. The data shows that, female's participation either as college leaders or trainers was very low. Here it may be a great surprise to those who may happen to read this paper, because there is only single female leader in the colleges. The implication of the result is that the attention given to bring females to and as trainers was inadequate. Therefore, enormous efforts are expected from the TVET College to encourage females' participation in the areas.

Table 3: Demographic Information of Participants (Educational Qualification)

Demographic Variables	Leaders' Profile (N=14)			Trainers Profile (N=78)	
	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Educational qualifications	Diploma	-	-	24	30.8
	BA/BED/BSC	14	100.0	44	56.4
	MA/MSc	-	-	10	12.8
	Others	-	-	-	-
	Total	14	100.0	78	100.0

Table 3 depicts the educational qualifications of participants or respondents. Consequently, there were a total of 14 college leaders (self-raters) and 78 trainers (rates) who were involved in the study. As a result, educational qualifications of college leaders (100%, N=14) were BA/BED/BSC. Thus, all college leaders were BA/BED/BSC in educational qualifications. Concerning the educational qualifications of trainers, the data revealed that there were (30.8%, N=24) Diploma, (56.4 %, N=44) BA/BSC and (12.8 %, N=10) MA/MSc qualified trainers involved in the provision of information through questionnaires. From these data the majority (56.4 %, N=44) trainers and (100%, N= 14) College leaders had an academic qualification of BA/BSC. Generally, from the data it can be concluded that this study tried to cover respondents from different educational qualifications. Hence, they could address to the issues correctly.

Table 4: Demographic Information of Participants (Age group)

Demographic Variables	Categories	Leaders' Profile (N=14)		Trainers Profile (N=78)	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Age group	Under 26 years	1	7.1	20	25.6
	26 to 35 years	3	21.4	29	37.2
	36 to 45 years	5	35.7	13	16.7
	46 to 55 years	4	28.6	12	15.4
	56 years & above	1	7.1	4	5.1
	Total	14	100.0	78	100.0

Table 4 depicted that demographic information of participants (Age group). From the trainers' participants, the majority's age group was between 26 to 35 years (37.2%, N=29) followed by those Under 26 years old (25.6%, N=20), whereas most of the leaders falling in the range of 36 to 45 years of age (35.7%, N=5) which followed by those between 46 to 55 years, 26 to 35 years old (28.6%, N=4, and 21.4 %, N=3 respectively).

Table 5: Demographic Information of Participants (Work Experience)

Demographic Variables	Categories	Leaders' Profile (N=14)		Trainers Profile (N=78)	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Worked as trainers	Less than 5 years	2	14.2	25	32.1
	5-10 years	6	42.9	27	34.6
	Above 10 years	6	42.9	26	33.3
	Total	14	100.0	78	100.0
worked under current College leader	1- 2 years	-	-	17	21.8
	3-4 years	-	-	21	26.9
	5-6 years	-	-	17	21.8
	Above 6 years	-	-	23	29.5
	Total	-	-	78	100.0

Table 5 shows characteristics of participants by work experiences as trainers and under current College leader. Accordingly, college leaders and trainers were asked about their work experiences as trainers, As indicated in the table, the majority of college leaders were between 5-10 years and Above 10 years old (42.9%, N=6 each) and the rest (14.2%, N=2) of college leaders were Less than 5 years of experiences as trainers, whereas (34.6%, N=27) trainers were 5-10 years, (33.3%, N=26) were Above 10 years, and (32.1%, N=25) were Less than 5 years experiences as a trainers.

In addition to work experiences as trainers, trainers were also asked work experiences under current College leaders, as indicated in the same table 5 above, the majority of trainers were (29.5%, N=23) worked under current College leader Above 5 years, which followed by those 3-4 years (26.9%, N=21), and the rest 1- 2 years and 5-6 years (21.8 %, N=17 each) while the minimum requirement was one year.

It can be concluded that data for this study was collected from least experienced to more experienced participants as result it expected that they know leadership styles that observed in college in relation to trainers job satisfaction.

Table 6: Demographic Information of Participants by Leadership Experiences (N=14)

Experience as Leader (College Leader)	Categories	Frequency	Percent
Worked on current position as leader	1- 2 years	4	28.6
	3-4 years	5	35.7
	5-6 years	1	7.1
	Above 6 years	4	28.6
	Total	14	100
Total years of experience as leader	Less than 5 years	2	14.2
	5-10 years	6	42.9
	Above 10 years	6	42.9
	Total	14	100

Table 6 deals with leadership experiences of college leaders in current position and Total years of experience as leader. Accordingly, (28.6%, N=4) of college leaders have worked 1- 2 years in current position and the rest (35.7%, N=5). (7.1%, N=1), and (28.6%, N=4) of college leaders had experiences current position between (3-4, 5-6. and Above 6 years respectively).

Concerning total years of experience as leader, the majority of college leaders were between 5-10 years and Above 10 years old (42.9%, N=6 each) and the rest (14.2%, N=2) of college leaders had Less than 5 years of total years experiences as leader. Generally, there are only 28.9% leaders who

worked on current position as leader and 42.9% had total years of experience as leader. This shows that the majority of leaders novice for the position.

Table 7: Demographic Information of Participants by Job Level (N= 14)

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Job level	Level -A	17	21.8	21.8	21.8
	Level -B	36	46.2	46.2	67.9
	Level -C	25	32.1	32.1	100.0
	Total	78	100.0	100.0	

Table 7 depicts the job level of the respondents. Accordingly, the majority of the respondents were trainers, in which (21.8%, N=17) were job level-A, (46.2%, N=36) were job level-B and the rest of the respondents were (25%, N=32.1) were job level-C. It insures that the existence of full-time TVET trainers as participants with three different qualification levels (A-level=MA/instructors, B-level=first degree/teachers, C-level=Diploma/ others /teachers) who responsibly to give training for different types of occupation from level I-V and others those offer industrial extension Services and technology for small and micro enterprises being under training process owner and extension industry services process owner of Adama TVET college respectively. Generally, it shows that the data for this study was collected from respondents of different job level.

4.2 Analysis and Interpretation of Results Based on Basic questions

The results were interpreted by using the means and standard deviations of the job satisfaction dimensions, leadership styles dimensions, and then comparing the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the results of the t-test analysis between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles by trainers and college leaders (t-test of the Paired Samples) done. The results of correlation analysis, the analysis of variance and result of linear multiple regression for demographic factors and leadership styles are also discussed.

4.2.1 Descriptive Analysis

4.2.1.1 Descriptive Analysis of Job Satisfaction Dimensions

The nine trainer job satisfaction facets used in this study are: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent reward/ recognitions, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. In the interpretation of the job satisfaction dimensions the researcher used the absolute approach of Spector (2007). According to the absolute approach method of Spector (2007)

scores with a mean item response of 4 or more represents satisfaction whereas mean response of 3 or less represents dissatisfaction. Mean scores between 3 and 4 are ambivalence (Spector, 2007).

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics for Job satisfaction Survey as Perceived by Trainers Response (N=78)

Variable	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Overall Job satisfaction	3.4697	0.1559	1.4502	2.0421	-0.0293	-0.7732
Pay	3.0000	0.1000	1.5461	2.4020	0.2402	-0.9958
Promotion	3.3333	0.1697	1.4984	2.2553	0.147	-0.9075
Supervision	3.4584	0.1653	1.4598	2.134	-0.021	-0.785
Fringe- Benefits	3.2532	0.17009	1.5022	2.273	0.12	-0.8615
Recognitions	3.4391	0.16409	1.4492	2.100	-0.0055	-0.7498
Operating Conditions	3.6090	0.15602	1.3779	1.906	-0.302	-0.7275
Co-Workers	3.9295	0.15236	1.3456	1.816	-0.288	-0.436
Nature of the Work	3.625	0.16766	1.4807	2.208	-0.075	-0.9095
Communication	3.5801	0.15765	1.3923	1.285	-0.079	-0.586

Note: All items used a 6- point Likert Scale with (1= Disagree very much and 6= Agree very much)

Data are said to be normally distributed when skewness and kurtosis values are within the +2 to-2 range (Garson,2010).

Table 8 indicates the means, standard deviations, and variances scores of the job satisfaction dimensions. According to the data in table 8 the mean score for co-workers (3.93) was the highest in comparison to the other job satisfaction dimensions. The standard deviation was 1.35. It was therefore inferred that most of the trainers were satisfied with the co-workers of job satisfaction dimensions and the standard deviation also indicated that majority of the trainers perceived job satisfactions as being more positive with regard to their coworker relationship.

The mean score for the nature of the work dimension of job satisfaction was 3.63. This therefore meant that most individuals were satisfied with the type of work in which they were engaged. However the standard deviation (1.48) indicated that there were few individual who perceived job satisfaction as being less positive with regard to the nature of the work they engaged.

With regard to the operating conditions dimension the mean score and standard deviation were 3.61 and 1.38 respectively. This indicated that the trainers were satisfied with existing operating conditions. However the standard deviation indicated that some subordinates possibly perceived operating conditions differently. According to table 8 the mean score and standard deviation of

communication were 3.58 and 1.39 respectively. This therefore implied that most of the trainers were satisfied with the communication within the organization.

The mean score of supervision, contingent rewards and promotion were 3.46, 3.44, and 3.33 respectively. This indicated that most of the trainers fairly (moderately) satisfied with the Supervision, contingent rewards and promotion within the organization. However, the standard deviations 1.46, 1.45 and 1.50 of supervision, contingent rewards, and promotion within the organization indicated as less satisfying.

According to table 9 the mean scores for fringe- benefits and pay were 3.25 and 3.00 respectively which were the lowest mean scores compared to the other dimension of job satisfaction. This therefore indicated that many trainers were to some extent dissatisfied with the fringe benefits and pay within the organization. However the standard deviation 1.55 and 1.50 of pay and fringe benefits which are the highest standard deviation relatively to the other dimensions indicated that there were also trainers who perceived fringe benefits and pay of the organization as positively.

Generally, table 8 depicts that the overall job satisfaction for trainers were fairly (moderately) satisfied with mean score 3.47, the standard deviation 1.45 and standard error mean 0.16.

Job satisfaction can have a serious influence on employee turnover within an organisation (Bull, 2005). According to Bull (2005), employee turnover will be lower if the job satisfaction levels of employees are higher. Turnover on the other hand will be higher, if job satisfaction levels are lower. Seven studies pertaining to job satisfaction and turnover are quoted by Vroom (as cited in Spillane, 1973) and all show that there is a negative correlation between the two variables although the significance and magnitude of the relationships are considerably different. A study performed by Igbaria & Guimaraes (1993) yielded results which correlate with statements made by Bull (2005) and Vroom (as cited in Spillane, 1973) showing that there is a definite inverse relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. Another study performed by Spillane (1973) concluded that the reasons why employees stay with their organisations are primarily influenced by intrinsic factors of job satisfaction while the reasons for them leaving their organisations are influenced by extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. It is thus evident from the above mentioned literature extracts that the ability of an organisation to keep its employees satisfied in their job situation will affect their ability to maintain control over the rate of employee turnover within the organisation. But this study sees influence on job satisfaction by leadership style and demographic/biographic factors.

4.2.1. 2 Descriptive Analysis of Leadership Style

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Style as Perceived by College Trainers Response (N=78)

Variables	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Transformational Leadership	2.3906	0.1285	1.13458	-0.4489	-0.3016
Idealized Influence (attributed)	2.3333	0.1280	1.1306	-0.5477	-0.1893
Idealized Influence (behavior)	2.4744	0.1299	1.1469	-0.3787	-0.4363
Inspirational Motivation	2.4273	0.1270	1.1225	-0.530	-0.2223
Intellectual Stimulation	2.4445	0.1250	1.1035	-0.4493	-0.237
Individualized Consideration	2.2735	0.1324	1.1694	-0.3390	-0.423
Transactional Leadership	2.2592	0.1266	1.1186	-0.4178	-0.4821
Contingent Reward	2.3461	0.1314	1.1613	-0.4427	-0.5707
Management-by-Exception (active)	2.1325	0.1173	1.0361	-0.363	-0.363
Management-by-Exception (passive)	2.2991	0.1311	1.1584	-0.4477	-0.5127
Laissez-Faire	0.8846	0.1181	1.0428	1.1867	1.028

Note: All items used a 5- point Likert Scale with(0= Not at all and 4=strongly agree)

Table 9 indicates the means, standard error mean and standard deviation scores of leadership style. Accordingly the mean score of transformational leadership 2.39 was the highest mean score in comparison to other leadership style sub-variable. This therefore means that most of the trainers perceived the transformational leadership style as the highest. According to the data in table 10 the next leadership style which was perceived by the college trainers was transactional leadership style which scored mean of 2.26. The laissez-faire leadership style was the least preferred leadership style with mean score of 0.88. The standard deviation 1.04 of laissez faire leadership style was the lowest score from the others styles of leadership. This also indicated that there are some college full-time trainers which perceived very positively this laissez faire leadership style.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles as Perceived by Adama TVET College Leaders (N=14)

Variables	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Transformational Leadership	2.9381	0.2687	1.0054	-0.7894	0.2983
Idealized Influence (attributed)	2.5476	0.3677	1.3756	-0.9007	0.1827
Idealized Influence (behavior)	3.0238	0.269	1.0065	-0.6763	0.8045
Inspirational Motivation	3.0952	0.2106	0.7881	-0.6557	-0.7967
Intellectual Stimulation	3.2143	0.2008	0.7514	-0.6613	0.1893
Individualized Consideration	2.8095	0.2955	1.1056	-1.053	1.1117
Transactional Leadership	2.6031	0.3203	1.1984	-0.4692	-0.4207
Contingent Reward	3.1667	0.1866	0.6983	-0.171	-0.7157
Management-by-Exception (active)	2.5000	0.3462	1.2954	-0.949	0.5643
Management-by-Exception (passive)	2.1427	0.4280	1.6015	-0.2877	-1.1107
Laissez-Faire	0.9062	0.3384	1.2662	1.2303	0.499

Note: All items used a 5- point Likert Scale with(0= Not at all and 4=strongly agree)

Table 10 above indicates the means, standard error mean and standard deviations scores of the leadership style. Accordingly the mean score of transformational leadership style 2.94 was the highest mean score in comparison to other leadership styles. This therefore means that most of the leaders perceived the transformational leadership style. According to the data in table 11 the next leadership style which was perceived by the college leaders was transactional leadership style which scored mean score of 2.60. The laissez-faire leadership style was the least preferred leadership style with mean score of 0.91. The standard deviation 1.27 of laissez faire leadership style was the highest score from the others styles of leadership. This also indicated that there are some college leaders which perceived very negatively this laissez faire leadership style.

4.2.1.3 Comparisons between Trainer and Leader Responses on Leadership Styles based on Means, Standard Deviation& Standard Error Mean

The results of descriptive statistics for trainers and leaders response to Multifactor leadership Questionnaire(MLQ)are presented in table 11.T-test is used to compare the means of two samples(independent). In this case, the significant difference, between the two samples on the dimensions of the questionnaires, is determined and the result is presented as follows.

Table 11: Comparison for the MLQ (College Leaders and Trainers) Responses

Variables	Participants	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Transformational Leadership	Trainers	78	2.3906	1.13458	0.1285
	College leaders	14	2.9381	1.0054	0.2687
Idealized Influence (attributed)	Trainers	78	2.3333	1.1306	0.1280
	College leaders	14	2.5476	1.3756	0.3677
Idealized Influence (behavior)	Trainers	78	2.4744	1.1469	0.1299
	College leaders	14	3.0238	1.0065	0.2690
Inspirational Motivation	Trainers	78	2.4273	1.1225	0.1270
	College leaders	14	3.0952	0.7881	0.2106
Intellectual Stimulation	Trainers	78	2.4445	1.1035	0.1250
	College leaders	14	3.2143	0.7514	0.2008
Individualized Consideration	Trainers	78	2.2735	1.1694	0.1324
	College leaders	14	2.8095	1.1056	0.2955
Transactional Leadership	Trainers	78	2.2592	1.1186	0.1266
	College leaders	14	2.6031	1.1984	0.3203
Contingent Reward	Trainers	78	2.3461	1.3310	0.1314
	College leaders	14	3.1667	0.6983	0.1866
Management-by-Exception (active)	Trainers	78	2.1325	1.0361	0.1173
	College leaders		2.5000	1.2954	0.3462
Management-by-Exception (passive)	Trainers	78	2.2991	1.1584	0.1173
	College leaders	14	2.1427	1.6015	0.4280
Laissez-Faire	Trainers	78	0.8846	1.0428	0.1181
	College leaders	14	0.9062	1.2662	0.3384

Note: All items used a 5- point Likert Scale with(0= Not at all and 4=strongly agree)

Each subscale of leadership styles and each scale of job satisfaction has 3 items and 4 items, respectively.

According to the results shown in the Table 11, the mean score for trainers' responses on each of the transformational leadership subscales are ranged from 2.27 to 2.47 with the standard deviation values from 1.10 to 1.17 whereas for those of college leaders has mean scores ranged from 2.55 to 3.21 with standard deviation values from 0.75 to 1.38. If we consider the mean and standard deviation scores of the transformational leadership scales taken as a whole for both groups, trainers' group has 2.39 and 1.13 respectively whereas college leaders' group has 2.94 and 1.00 respectively.

On the other hand, the mean and standard deviation scores for each of transactional leadership subscales ranges from 2.13 to 2.35 mean and standard deviation were 1.04 to 1.33 for trainers' responses while it ranges from 2.14 to 3.17 mean and 0.70 to 1.60 standard deviation values for leaders' responses. When taken as a whole, the college leaders' responses on three of them the transactional leadership, transformational & laissez- faire leadership scale presents higher mean

with higher standard deviation of laissez- faire to that of trainers' response. But the standard deviation values of the college leaders' responses for transformational leadership scale are lower than to that of trainers'.

For some of the transformational leadership subscales such as inspirational motivation ($m=3.09$) and idealized influence (behavior) ($m=3.02$), leaders' responses indicate that as current study has slightly higher mean score to that of Bass & Avolio (1997) suggested one for the most effective leaders ($m \geq 3.0$) whilst the trainers' responses for all subscales has less than to the suggested benchmark. In the case of contingent reward, the mean scores for both groups are higher than the suggested mean score of 2.0 compared with trainers' mean score of 2.35 and with 3.17 mean score of college leaders. Similarly, the mean scores of both college trainers and leaders for management-by-exception (active) are found above the suggested ranges of 1.0 and 2.0. The mean scores of trainers' and leaders response for management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire are found within, and above the suggested ranges of 1.0 and 0.0 which for those of leaders and trainers laissez faire falls within the suggested range.

As the whole values of the mean implies for all leadership subscales with an exception of management-by-exception (passive), the college leaders' responses has higher mean scores than to those of trainers' responses. The values of standard deviation on all leadership subscales with an exception to Idealized Influence (attributed), management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) indicate higher standard deviation scores for trainers' responses than to the college leaders' responses.

The variations in both cases can be triggered to different reasons. In particular, the difference in mean values may be due to the difference in the size of the two samples or due to the considerable difference between perception of both groups about leadership styles or college leaders are considering themselves as practically exercising what is required in theoretical leadership behaviors without convincing their followers. Likewise, the differences in the values of the standard deviations show that there is more difference in variability for the scores of trainers' responses than to those of the college leaders. This is an indication of major differences between leadership behaviors which are being practiced and behaviors which are being perceived by the trainers.

When we consider the standard error mean, the results indicate that trainers' responses have smaller standard error mean than that of the leaders almost in all variables. The great difference in

the size of the two samples (trainers=78, leaders=14) could be considered as a possible reason. Another reason may be as the standard error depends on both the standard deviation of the samples and the sample size. Berenson *et al.* (2002) explain that as the size of the sample increases the standard error decreases. Thus, it is obvious that as the sample size increases, the higher the possibility will be that the samples mean is not too far from the population mean.

4.2.2 T-tests of the Paired Samples

The analysis results of the T-test for equality of mean scores are presented in the Table 12 below. This test measures whether the difference is significant or not between the mean scores of the two samples (trainers and college leaders) for Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

Confidence Interval of the Difference is 95% (i.e., $p \leq 0.05$).

Table 12: T-tests of the Paired Samples for the MLQ Comparison (College Leaders and Trainers) Responses

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	TF leadership for leader – TF Leadership for trainer	.19591	.49807	.35219	-4.27909	4.67091	.556	1	.5677
Pair 2	TA Leadership for leader -TA Leadership for trainer	.18115	.23016	.16275	-1.88678	2.24908	1.113	1	.466
Pair 3	LF Leadership for leader - LF Leadership for trainer	.07000	.05657	.04000	-.43825	.57825	1.750	1	.330

As indicated in table 12, a paired sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean score of the perceived leadership style between trainers and college leaders. Accordingly, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of trainers for transformational leadership ($m=2.39$ and $SD=1.13$) and the mean score of a college leaders for transformational leadership ($m=2.94$ and $SD=1.00$; $t=0.556$ and $p=0.5677$). This implies that both groups have almost similar perception towards the transformational leadership qualified of the college leaders.

According to the data in table 12, there were no statically significant differences between the mean scores of transactional and laissez-faire leadership score by trainers ($m=2.26$ and $SD=1.12$), ($m=0.88$ and $SD=1.04$) respectively, and scored by college leaders ($m=2.60$ and $SD=1.20$), and ($m=0.91$ and $SD=1.27$) which was $t=1.113$ and $p= .466$ for transactional, and $t=1.750$ and $p= .330$ for laissez-faire.

Thus indicates that the most equally perceived leadership styles by trainers and college leaders Adama TVET was transformational leadership style.

4.2.3 Correlation Analysis

This part of the analysis deal with the questions that asks if there is a significant relation between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) and trainers' job satisfaction. To employee the analysis leader's response is excluded because here the purpose is to determine trainers' perception to current organization leadership styles and their job satisfaction. The result of the correlation analysis of leadership styles and the nine dimensions of job satisfaction as well as the correlation of leadership styles with intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction are presented below.

Figure V: Correlation Strength Determination for Correlation Analysis

Correlation strength	Positive values	Negative values
Small	$r = 0.10$ to 0.29	$r = -0.10$ to -0.29
Medium	$r = 0.30$ to 0.49	$r = -0.30$ to -0.49
Large	$r = 0.50$ to 1.00	$r = -0.50$ to -1.00

Source: Cohen (1988)

The range of possible correlation coefficient values is form -1.00 to +1.00. A Pearson correlation value without a sign indicates that the relationship is positive, whereas, negative sign in front of the Pearson correlation coefficient indicates the relationship is negative. A positive relationship means when score increase (or decreases) in one variable, they increase (or decrease) in the other variable thus scores change in the same direction. A negative relationship means the scores change in the opposite direction.

4.2.3.1 Correlation between Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimension (Pay)

Table 13: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire Leadership Style and the Job satisfaction Dimension (Pay)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Pay
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	.162
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.157
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	19.538
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	.254
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.010
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.933
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	1.231
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.016
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	.050
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.662
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	6.308
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	.082
	N	78	78	78	78
Pay	Pearson Correlation	.162	.010	.050	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.157	.933	.662	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	19.538	1.231	6.308	162.615
	Covariance	.254	.016	.082	2.112
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As indicated in table 13 a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and job satisfaction dimension (pay). Accordingly it can be seen from table 13, there were a weak positive correlation between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style, on the job satisfaction dimension pay ($r=0.16$, 0.01 , and 0.05 respectively). The correlation was no statistically significant for transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction dimension pay (sig.2-tailed= 0.16 , 0.93 and 0.66).

Medley and Larochelle (1995) found that there were no significant correlation between pay and transactional and transformational leadership. This study also showed that, there was no significant correlation between pay and transactional and transformational leadership.

According to Spector (1997), the correlation between level of pay and job satisfaction is very small. Although pay level is not an important issue, research has shown that pay fairness can be

very important. Most employees are not concerned that people in other jobs earn more than they do, but rather that people in the same jobs earn more than them. Rice, Philips and McFarlin (1990) found that people are likely to compare themselves to one another and to be dissatisfied if their salary is lower than others in the same job. The importance lies in the pay policies and procedures that should be administered fairly even if this results in differential pay. The process of pay policies and procedures has a bigger impact on job satisfaction than the actual pay levels. Research has shown that pay is an important source of job satisfaction.

According to Schneider, Gunnarson and Wheeler, (1992), individuals' satisfaction with pay is also influenced by what they will be able to obtain such as standards of living as their salary increases.

4.2.3.2. Correlation between Leadership styles and Job satisfaction dimension (Promotion)

As it was indicated in table 14 a Pearson product moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the promotion dimension of job satisfaction. Accordingly, from table 14, it was clear that the correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction promotion weak negative ($r = -0.12$, sig. 2-tailed = 0.28 and 1.51% coefficients of determination). The correlation between transformational leadership and promotion was not statistically significant. But there was a weak positive correlation between transactional and laissez-faire leadership style and promotion ($r = 0.01$ and 0.10 respectively). It was therefore concluded that there is no statistically significant correlation between transactional and laissez-faire leadership style and promotion.

Clark (1996) found that the availability of opportunities for promotion had a positive effect on job satisfaction. Schneider et al (1992) indicated that supervisors can control opportunities on the job through the assignments they provide and the feedback they give to subordinates. Opportunities at work are mediated through supervisors in many ways. For example, supervisors provide feedback, assess employee's performance with ratings that may affect their future opportunities, and assign work that can influence the opportunities with which employees are presented. Kanter (as cited in Schneider et al. 1992) also found that career opportunity at all hierarchical levels accounted for the way people involved themselves in their work. Opportunities throughout an individual's tenure with an organization are reflected in an individual's satisfaction with promotion.

Table 14: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire Leadership Style and the Job satisfaction Dimension (Promotion)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire	
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.282
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-17.077
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.222
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.911
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	1.872
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.024
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	.095
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.407
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	13.718
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	.178
	N	78	78	78	78
Promotion	Pearson Correlation	-.123	.013	.095	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.282	.911	.407	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-17.077	1.872	13.718	213.795
	Covariance	-.222	.024	.178	2.777
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.2.3.3 Correlation between Leadership styles and Job satisfaction Dimension (Supervision)

As indicated in table 15 a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and the supervision dimension of job satisfaction. Accordingly, there was a weak positive correlation ($r=0.21$ and 4.37 % coefficients of determination) between transactional leadership style and job dimension supervision. The correlation for transactional leadership style and supervision was no significant.

There was a weak negatively correlation between transformational and laissez-faire leadership style and supervision ($r=-0.13$ and -0.09 respectively). The correlation for transformational and laissez-faire leadership style and supervision was no statistically significant (Sig.2-tailed= 0.26 and 0.42 respectively).

Table 15: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire leadership styles and Job satisfaction Dimension (Supervision)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Supervision
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.256
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-16.308
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.212
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.209
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.067
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	27.487
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.357
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	-.093
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.417
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	-12.128
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	-.158
	N	78	78	78	78
Supervision	Pearson Correlation	-.130	.209	-.093	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.067	.417	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-16.308	27.487	-12.128	174.718
	Covariance	-.212	.357	-.158	2.269
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

According to Spector (1997), supervisors are the biggest source of constraints seen by subordinates in terms of the organization. Supervisors play a vital role in subordinate job satisfaction. Employees are more likely to enjoy their jobs when they understand the direction of the company and are confident that senior leadership in the organization is able to meet objectives designed by strategy (O'Malley, 2000). According to Smith et al. (1994), supervisors' ability to demonstrate trust and confidence in employees' ability, to talk one-on-one and ability to show personal interest in others are strongly correlated to job satisfaction together with leadership style and leader's efforts to motivate subordinates.

According to Bassett (1994), small close-knit work groups exhibit greater satisfaction with socially sensitive, non-authoritarian supervisors, whereas larger groups whose supervisors are socially distant from workers are more satisfied with a formal task-oriented leadership style. Small work group with a limited supervisory span are likely to require less formal order and permit more

flexibility of response. On the other hand large work groups with a broader supervisory span may need formality and structure to get the job done effectively.

4.2.3.4. Correlation between Leadership styles and Job satisfaction (Fringe- Benefits)

Table 16: Correlation analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire leadership styles and Job satisfaction dimension (Fringe-Benefits)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Fringe - Benefit
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.217
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.057
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-30.538
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.397
Transactional Leadership	N	78	78	78	78
	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.193
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.091
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	28.603
Laissez-faire leadership	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.371
	N	78	78	78	78
	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	-.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.978
Fringe Benefit	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	-.474
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	-.006
	N	78	78	78	78
	Pearson Correlation	-.217	.193	-.003	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.057	.091	.978	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-30.538	28.603	-.474	221.449
	Covariance	-.397	.371	-.006	2.876
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As indicated in table 16, a Pearson product moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the link between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style and fringe-benefits dimension of job satisfaction. Accordingly, the result the findings indicated a weak positive correlation between transactional leadership style of leaders and the fringe benefits dimension of job satisfaction ($r=0.19$ and $\text{Sig.2-tailed}=0.09$). The correlation for transactional leadership style and fringe benefit was no significant.

Transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles showed a negative weak correlation with fringe benefits ($r=-0.217$ & -0.003 respectively) and the correlation was no statistically significant.

Fringe benefits play an important role in determining the job satisfaction of subordinates. Fringe benefits may take the form of rewards such as pay and other investments within the organization (Spector, 1997). According to O'Malley (2000), some organizations do not actively encourage the use of the fringe benefits that are offered, stating that this might lead to distractions from work performance. Without supportive management many employees will not take advantage of their organizations fringe benefits.

4.2.3.5 Correlation between Leadership styles and Job satisfaction Dimension (Contingent Rewards/ Recognitions)

Table 17: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimension (Recognitions)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Recognitions
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.207
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.070
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-25.077
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.326
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.635
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	-6.962
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	-.090
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.842
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	2.885
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	.037
	N	78	78	78	78
Recognitions	Pearson Correlation	-.207	-.055	.023	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.070	.635	.842	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-25.077	-6.962	2.885	163.962
	Covariance	-.326	-.090	.037	2.129
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

According to the results of table 17, there were a weak negative correlation between transformational and transactional laissez-faire leadership styles of leaders and the contingent rewards dimension of job satisfaction ($r=-0.21$ and -0.06 respectively). Their correlations were not

statically significant. But laissez-faire leaders scored weak positive insignificant correlation with recognitions ($r=0.02$ and $\text{Sig. 2-tailed}= 0.84$).

According to Locke and Latham (1990), rewards for performance fall in to two broad categories namely those that are self-administered and those that are administered by others. Self-administered rewards stem from appraisals, which individuals make of themselves in comparing their performance to their internal goals or standards. Rewards administered by others following performance can be divided into two sub-categories namely non-contingent (i.e. do not depend on performance) and contingent (given in proportion to performance). Employees, who can achieve success at work are rewarded equitably by the organization for high performance and receive equitable non contingent rewards will generally be satisfied with their job. Employees who feel unsuccessful whose rewards are inequitable or inadequate will feel dissatisfied with their jobs (Locke and Latham, 1990).

4.2.3.6. Correlation between Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimension (Operating Conditions)

From table 18 it is clear that on average the trainers with transformational leaders scored higher than the trainers with transactional and laissez-faire leaders. The study showed that negative correlation between transformational and laissez-faire leadership and operating conditions ($r = -0.15$ and -0.03 respectively). There was no statistically significant correlation between transformational and laissez-faire leadership and operating conditions.

There was a weak positive correlation between transactional leadership and operating conditions, but the median showed no statistically significant correlation ($r = 0.02$, $\text{Sig. 2-tailed} = 0.89$ and $\text{coefficient of determination} = 0.03\%$).

Medley and Larochelle (1995) also found a positive correlation between organizational policies and transformational leadership style. Therefore, this study also supported their findings.

Table 18: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-faire Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimension (Operating Conditions)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Operating Conditions
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.152
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.183
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-17.615
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.229
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.888
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	1.974
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.026
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	-.027
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.814
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	-3.256
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	-.042
	N	78	78	78	78
Operating Conditions	Pearson Correlation	-.152	.016	-.027	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.183	.888	.814	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-17.615	1.974	-3.256	148.872
	Covariance	-.229	.026	-.042	1.933
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.2.3.7 Correlation between Leadership styles and Job satisfaction dimension (Co-worker).

A Pearson product moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the link between leadership styles and the job satisfaction dimension co-worker. Accordingly, as indicated in table 19 there was a positive correlation between transformational leadership style and coworker dimension of job satisfaction ($r=0.05$, sig. 2-tailed =0.69 and coefficient of determination=0.21%). And statistically no significant correlation between transformational leadership style and coworker dimension.

There was a weak negative correlation between transactional leadership and co-worker, however, the correlation was statistically not significant ($r=-0.021$, sig. 2-tailed =0.86). According to the result of table 19 indicated, there was also a weak negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and coworker dimension of job satisfaction. The correlation was no statistically significant.

According to Schneider *et al.* (1992), people seek friendly, warm and cooperative relationships with others not only for what they produce in an immediate sense, but also for the social support they provide. Coworker relationships usually exist for networking purposes. Networks are established at work not necessarily for what they provide but rather for what they have the potential to produce.

Table 19: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire leadership styles and Job satisfaction Dimension (Co-workers)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Co-workers
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.687
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	5.385
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	.070
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	-.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.857
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	-2.526
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	-.033
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	-.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.528
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	-8.756
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	-.114
	N	78	78	78	78
Co-workers	Pearson Correlation	.046	-.021	-.073	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.687	.857	.528	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	5.385	-2.526	-8.756	150.372
	Covariance	.070	-.033	-.114	1.953
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.2.3.8 Correlation analysis of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimension (Nature of the work)

Table 20: Correlation analysis of transformational, transactional and Laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction dimension (Nature of the work)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Nature of the work
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.472
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	8.769
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	.114
Transactional Leadership	N	78	78	78	78
	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.798
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	3.282
Laissez-faire leadership	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.043
	N	78	78	78	78
	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.591
Nature of the work	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	6.821
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	.089
	N	78	78	78	78
	Pearson Correlation	.083	.029	.062	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.472	.798	.591	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	8.769	3.282	6.821	125.487
	Covariance	.114	.043	.089	1.630
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 20 indicated that there was a positive correlation between transformational and nature of the work dimension of job satisfaction ($r=0.08$, sig. 2-tailed $=0.47$). Clark (1996) found that managerial responsibilities were positively correlated with the work itself implying that the nature of the work has an impact of job satisfaction.

According to the results of table 20, there were a weak positive correlation between transactional and laissez-faire leadership style and nature of the work ($r=0.03$, 0.06) but the correlation was statistically not significant at alpha 0.05 level.

4.2.3.9 Correlation Analysis of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction dimension (Communication)

Table 21: Correlation Analysis of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction Dimension (Communication)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Communication
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.995
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-.077
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.001
	N	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	.156
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.171
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	18.038
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	.234
	N	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.886
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	1.885
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	.024
	N	78	78	78	78
Communication	Pearson Correlation	-.001	.156	.017	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.995	.171	.886	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-.077	18.038	1.885	133.962
	Covariance	-.001	.234	.024	1.740
	N	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As indicated in table 21 a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between leadership styles and communication. Accordingly, the finding showed that there was a negative statistically non-significant correlation between transformational leadership style and communication dimension of job satisfaction ($r=-0.001$ and $\text{sig.2-tailed}=0.9$ coefficients of determination $=0\%$). However, there was a weak positive correlation between transactional and laissez-faire leadership style and communication dimension of job satisfaction. Klauss and Bass (as cited in Bass, 1981) found strong positive links between communication effectiveness of supervisors, such as careful transmission, two-way communication, attentive listening and trust worthiness and increased satisfaction and effectiveness of the work group. Bass (1981) found that increased efficiency, reduced grievances and absenteeism associated with employees' ratings of the

communication effectiveness of their supervisors. Such communication effectiveness included supervisors who were attentive easy to talk to receptive to ideas and suggestions and showed their subordinates how to improve performance. Medley and Larochelle (1995), found that there is a correlation between communication and transformational leadership styles of leaders or managers.

4.2.3.10 Correlation analysis of leadership style and job satisfaction (Intrinsic and Extrinsic)

A Pearson product-moment correlation was also conducted to evaluate the relationship between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction. Accordingly, the data indicated in table 22 there was a statistically non-significant negative correlation between transformational leadership style and intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction ($r = -0.207$, $p = .070$ and $r = -0.001$, $p = .995$ respectively).

The data revealed that as there was a weak negative correlation between transactional and intrinsic and but positive extrinsic job satisfaction, but the correlations were not significant. According to the finding revealed there was also a positive statistically no significant correlation between laissez-faire leadership and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction ($r = 0.023$ and 0.017 respectively).

Transformational leadership has been linked to an array of outcomes follower job satisfaction and satisfaction with a leader (Hatter & Bass, 1988); Koh et al, (1995); Lowe & Kroeck, 1998) employee commitment to the organization (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). Bass (1998) also indicate that the relationship between transformational leadership and personal outcomes such as job satisfaction and commitment is well established. Because transformational leaders inspire their followers to go above and beyond their own self-interests for the sake of the organization leaders are able to bring a deeper insight and appreciation of input received from each member. Followers on the other hand are focused and look for new approaches to do their jobs. This challenge given to followers motivates them to become more involved in their tasks which result in an increase in the degree of satisfaction with their work and commitment to the organization. Graham & Messner (1998) providing a conceptual linkage between transformational leadership and organizational behavior suggests that transformational leadership leads to organizational citizenship behavior through the process of member empowerment.

Table 22: Correlation Analysis of Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction (Intrinsic and Extrinsic)

		Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	-.253*	-.131	-.207	-.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.253	.070	.995
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	89.846	-23.923	-12.231	-25.077	-.077
	Covariance	1.167	-.311	-.159	-.326	-.001
	N	78	78	78	78	78
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.253*	1	.198	-.055	.156
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.082	.635	.171
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-23.923	99.295	19.449	-6.962	18.038
	Covariance	-.311	1.290	.253	-.090	.234
	N	78	78	78	78	78
Laissez-faire leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.131	.198	1	.023	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	.082		.842	.886
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-12.231	19.449	96.987	2.885	1.885
	Covariance	-.159	.253	1.260	.037	.024
	N	78	78	78	78	78
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.207	-.055	.023	1	-.115
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.070	.635	.842		.316
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-25.077	-6.962	2.885	163.962	-17.038
	Covariance	-.326	-.090	.037	2.129	-.221
	N	78	78	78	78	78
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.001	.156	.017	-.115	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.995	.171	.886	.316	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-.077	18.038	1.885	-17.038	133.962
	Covariance	-.001	.234	.024	-.221	1.740
	N	78	78	78	78	78

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.2.4 Analysis of Variances (ANOVA)

4.2.4.1 ANOVA of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

4.2.4.1.1 ANOVA of Transformational Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

Table 23: ANOVA of Transformational Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pay	Between Groups	12.447	4	3.112	1.513	.207
	Within Groups	150.169	73	2.057		
	Total	162.615	77			
Promotion	Between Groups	5.834	4	1.458	.512	.727
	Within Groups	207.961	73	2.849		
	Total	213.795	77			
Supervision	Between Groups	8.328	4	2.082	.913	.461
	Within Groups	166.390	73	2.279		
	Total	174.718	77			
Fringe Benefits	Between Groups	26.829	4	6.707	2.516	.049*
	Within Groups	194.620	73	2.666		
	Total	221.449	77			
Recognitions	Between Groups	7.696	4	1.924	.899	.469
	Within Groups	156.265	73	2.141		
	Total	163.962	77			
Operating Conditions	Between Groups	6.509	4	1.627	.834	.508
	Within Groups	142.363	73	1.950		
	Total	148.872	77			
Co-workers	Between Groups	6.897	4	1.724	.877	.482
	Within Groups	143.475	73	1.965		
	Total	150.372	77			
Nature of work	Between Groups	4.847	4	1.212	.733	.572
	Within Groups	120.640	73	1.653		
	Total	125.487	77			
Communication	Between Groups	5.455	4	1.364	.775	.545
	Within Groups	128.506	73	1.760		
	Total	133.962	77			

As indicate in table 23 a one way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the impact of transformational leadership style on the dimension of job satisfaction of trainers at Adama TVET College. Accordingly, results in table 23 showed that except for the fringe benefits dimension of job satisfaction ($F(4, 73) = 2.516, p < 0.05$), there were no statistically significant differences in mean scores across the groups of participants for the rest dimensions of job satisfaction according perception of trainers. In addition 7.7 % of variance was accounted by the transformational leadership on the pay dimension of job satisfaction, 4.8%, 4.7%, 4.6%, 4.4% and 4.1% variances were accounted on the supervision, contingent reward, coworkers, Operating Conditions and

communication dimensions of job satisfaction, 3.9% and 2.7% variances were accounted in the nature of work and promotion dimensions of job satisfaction respectively.

This implied that most trainers of transformational leaders had almost equal view on the rest dimensions of the job satisfaction regarding their satisfaction and the level of their satisfaction differs on Fringe Benefits dimensions of the job satisfaction. So the above result showed that transformational leadership a have a significantly impact on fringe benefit.

4.2.4.1.2 ANOVA of Transactional Leadership Styles and Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

Table 24: ANOVA of Transactional Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pay	Between Groups	2.081	4	.520	.237	.917
	Within Groups	160.534	73	2.199		
	Total	162.615	77			
Promotion	Between Groups	2.505	4	.626	.216	.929
	Within Groups	211.290	73	2.894		
	Total	213.795	77			
Supervision	Between Groups	12.788	4	3.197	1.441	.229
	Within Groups	161.930	73	2.218		
	Total	174.718	77			
Fringe Benefits	Between Groups	10.169	4	2.542	.878	.481
	Within Groups	211.280	73	2.894		
	Total	221.449	77			
Recognitions	Between Groups	5.132	4	1.283	.590	.671
	Within Groups	158.830	73	2.176		
	Total	163.962	77			
Operating Conditions	Between Groups	8.891	4	2.223	1.159	.336
	Within Groups	139.981	73	1.918		
	Total	148.872	77			
Co-workers	Between Groups	4.852	4	1.213	.608	.658
	Within Groups	145.520	73	1.993		
	Total	150.372	77			
Nature of work	Between Groups	1.917	4	.479	.283	.888
	Within Groups	123.570	73	1.693		
	Total	125.487	77			
Communication	Between Groups	4.228	4	1.057	.595	.668
	Within Groups	129.733	73	1.777		
	Total	133.962	77			

As indicated in table 24 a one-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the impact of transactional leadership style on the dimensions of job satisfaction. Accordingly, in all dimensions of the job satisfaction there were no statistically significant differences in mean scores across the groups of participants. The magnitude of the differences were small (Eta squared=0.46, .007, .06, 0.03, 0.03,

0.03, 0.02, 0.02 and 0.01, for fringe benefits, supervision, operating conditions, co-workers , communication, contingent reward, nature of the work, pay and promotion respectively.

4.2.4.1.3 ANOVA of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and Dimensions of Job satisfaction

As it was depicted in table 25 a one-way ANOVA was also conducted to evaluate the impact of laissez-faire leadership style on the dimensions of job satisfaction. Accordingly, except the fringe benefits ($F(4, 73) = 2.938, p < 0.05$), there were no statistically significant differences in mean scores across the groups of participants in the rest dimensions of job satisfaction. Only one dimension of job satisfaction (fringe benefits) was significant with laissez-faire leadership. The magnitude of the differences were small ($\eta^2 =$ less than 0.2 for all dimensions of job satisfaction). This implied that except for Fringe Benefits the view of subordinates of laissez-faire leaders was almost similar regarding the levels of their job satisfaction in all dimensions of job satisfaction.

Table 25: ANOVA of Laissez-faire Leadership Style and Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pay	Between Groups	3.601	4	.900	.413	.799
	Within Groups	159.015	73	2.178		
	Total	162.615	77			
Promotion	Between Groups	11.819	4	2.955	1.068	.379
	Within Groups	201.975	73	2.767		
	Total	213.795	77			
Supervision	Between Groups	16.831	4	4.208	1.945	.112
	Within Groups	157.887	73	2.163		
	Total	174.718	77			
Fringe Benefits	Between Groups	30.704	4	7.676	2.938	.026*
	Within Groups	190.745	73	2.613		
	Total	221.449	77			
Recognitions	Between Groups	7.890	4	1.973	.923	.456
	Within Groups	156.071	73	2.138		
	Total	163.962	77			
Operating Conditions	Between Groups	6.319	4	1.580	.809	.523
	Within Groups	142.552	73	1.953		
	Total	148.872	77			
Co-workers	Between Groups	8.994	4	2.248	1.161	.335
	Within Groups	141.378	73	1.937		
	Total	150.372	77			
Nature of work	Between Groups	10.390	4	2.597	1.647	.172
	Within Groups	115.097	73	1.577		
	Total	125.487	77			
Communication	Between Groups	8.132	4	2.033	1.179	.327
	Within Groups	125.830	73	1.724		
	Total	133.962	77			

4.2.4.2 ANOVA of Trainer Demographic Factors and Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

4.2.4.2.1 ANOVA: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Trainers Sex

Table 26 illustrates the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainers' job satisfaction and trainer sex. Male and female were used in this section. ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainers' perceptions of job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction) and trainers' sex with ($F(1, 76) = 1.808$, $p = 0.183$, $F(1, 76) = .007$, $p = .932$, and $F(1, 76) = 1.852$, $p = 0.178$) respectively.

Table 26: Analysis of Variance: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Trainer Sex

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	3.810	1	3.810	1.808	.183
	Within Groups	160.152	76	2.107		
	Total	163.962	77			
Extrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	.013	1	.013	.007	.932
	Within Groups	133.949	76	1.762		
	Total	133.962	77			
Overall job satisfaction	Between Groups	3.577	1	3.577	1.852	.178
	Within Groups	146.795	76	1.932		
	Total	150.372	77			

4.2.4.2.2 ANOVA: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Trainer Trainers Age

Table 27: Analysis of Variance: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Trainer Age

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	8.053	4	2.013	.943	.444
	Within Groups	155.909	73	2.136		
	Total	163.962	77			
Extrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	6.937	4	1.734	.997	.415
	Within Groups	127.024	73	1.740		
	Total	133.962	77			
Overall job satisfaction	Between Groups	10.142	4	2.536	1.320	.271
	Within Groups	140.229	73	1.921		
	Total	150.372	77			

Table 27 illustrates the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainer job satisfaction and trainer age. The age groupings by years (group1= < 26, group 2= 26 to 35, group 3= 36 to 45, group 4= 46 to 55, and group 5= 56 years & above) were used in this section.

ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainer perceptions of job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, Overall job satisfaction) and trainer age group.

4.2.4.2.3 ANOVA: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Trainer Educational Qualification

Table 28 below shows the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainer's job satisfaction and trainer educational qualification (Diploma, Bachelor's degree, and Master's degree). ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainer perceptions of trainer job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction) and trainer educational qualification as presented in Table 28.

Table 28: Analysis of Variance: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Educational Qualification

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	5.862	2	2.931	1.390	.255
	Within Groups	158.100	75	2.108		
	Total	163.962	77			
Extrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	1.926	2	.963	.547	.581
	Within Groups	132.036	75	1.760		
	Total	133.962	77			
Overall job satisfaction	Between Groups	1.585	2	.793	.400	.672
	Within Groups	148.786	75	1.984		
	Total	150.372	77			

4.2.4.2.4 ANOVA: Trainer Job Satisfaction and Trainer work experience as trainer

Table 29: Analysis of Variance: Trainers Job Satisfaction and Trainer Work Experience as Trainer

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	2.202	2	1.101	.510	.602
	Within Groups	161.760	75	2.157		
	Total	163.962	77			
Extrinsic job satisfaction	Between Groups	4.374	2	2.187	1.266	.288
	Within Groups	129.588	75	1.728		
	Total	133.962	77			
Overall job satisfaction	Between Groups	2.553	2	1.277	.648	.526
	Within Groups	147.818	75	1.971		
	Total	150.372	77			

Table 29 shows the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainer job satisfaction and years of teaching experience. Work experience as trainers grouped into (age< 5, 5 to10, and Above 10 years). ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences

between trainer perceptions of trainer job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction) and Trainer work experience as trainer.

4.2.5 Linear Regression Analysis

A Linear regression analysis was conducted in order to indicate the effect of demographic factors and leadership styles on overall job satisfaction separately.

4.2.5.1 Linear Regression Analysis of Leadership Styles and Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

A Linear regression model was conducted in order to indicate the effect of leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style) as independent variables on overall job satisfaction as shown in table 30.

Table 30: Linear Regressions for Impact of Leadership Styles on Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	4.184	.658		6.358	.000	2.872	5.495
1 Transformational leadership	.049	.156	.038	.316	.753	-.261	.359
Transactional leadership	.003	.150	.002	.020	.984	-.295	.301
Laissez- Faire Leadership	-.085	.148	-.068	-.573	.568	-.379	.210

a. Dependent Variable: Overall job satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.082 ^a	.007	-.034	1.42076	.007	.165	3	74	.920

a. Predictors: (Constant), Laissez- Faire Leadership , Transformational leadership, Transactional leadership

Table 30 above, linear regression analysis was calculated using each leadership styles as predictors and total job satisfaction as the dependent variable. Accordingly, from table 30, it can be seen that the domain of transformational leadership emerged as the weak positive predictor and transactional leadership as the second positive predictor of the overall job satisfaction. Thus, if transformational leadership style increases by one unit, overall job satisfaction will increase by .049 units. This

study is consistent with Walumbwa *et al.* (2004) and Ejimofor (2007) study in which the result has demonstrated a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction

Additionally, Transactional leadership style has more effect on trainer overall job satisfaction than laissez faire style, if transactional leadership style increases by one unit, overall job satisfaction will increase by 0.003 units. Further, this study agree with Wells and Peacchy (2011) study in which these two leadership styles (transformational and transactional) can be said to be positively related to job satisfaction (Wells and Peachey, 2011). On the other hand, if laissez faire leadership decreases by one unit, the overall job satisfaction increased by 0.085 units and the study is consistent with Erkutlu and Chafra (2006) and inconsistent with Robbins et al. (2010).

Thus implies that transformational and transactional have positive relation with overall job satisfaction. On the other hand the laissez faire leadership has negative relationship with dependent variable that is overall job satisfaction. Thus above, mean that mostly the transformational leadership style has the highest impact on job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainers.

From the table 30 the t value of Transformational leadership style ($t_{\text{calculated}} = 0.316$ less than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = 0.753$) it implies that to accept the null hypothesis 2, Transactional leadership style ($t_{\text{calculated}} = 0.020$ less than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = 0.984$), it implies that accept the null hypothesis 3 and laissez faire leadership style ($t_{\text{calculated}} = -0.573$ greater than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = 0.568$) it implies that the existence of evidence to reject null hypothesis 3.

From the above table 30 of model summary R^2 showed that the leadership styles have moderate effect on the overall job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainer because the value of R^2 is 0.07.

The findings of this study shows that there is a positive relationship between transformational & transactional leadership style and trainer job satisfaction, but the laissez faire leadership has negative relationship with job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainers.

The transformational and transactional leadership model has a number of implications for education despite the limited studies in educational settings (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Leithwood et al, 1999). The transformational/transactional approach according to Bass and Avolio (1997) builds trust, respect and a wish on the part of followers to work collectively toward the same desired goals. This therefore allows the transformational leader to operate effectively within the available context and also change the leadership orientation if necessary to make it more receptive

to his followers. Transformational leadership behaviors were positively related with higher performance greater organizational commitment and higher job satisfaction among employees (Avolio and Bass (1988) ;Bass, Avolio and Goodheim (1987); Nguni et al, 2006).

Leaders were also able to articulate a vision that is consistent with the goals and mission of the institution and draw followers along to achieve this goal. In so doing followers are also developed through the individualized support. Hence agreeing with Barnett et al,(2001) transformational leadership is more facilitative of educational change, organizational improvement effectiveness and aid in satisfaction of followers/ trainers.

Transformational leaders do more with followers and colleagues than transactional leaders do (Avolioet al.1991). Instead of a simple exchange and agreement, transformational leaders provide a vision and a sense of mission; inspire pride and gain respect and trust through charisma (Bass et al., 1990).

Laissez-faire leadership is a passive kind of leadership style. There is no relationship exchange between the leader and the followers. It represents a non-transactional kind of leadership style in which necessary decisions are not made, actions are delayed, leadership responsibilities ignored, and authority unused. A leader displaying this form of non-leadership is perceived as not caring at all about others issues (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

4.2.5.2 Linear Regressions for Demographic factors and Overall Job satisfaction (OJS)

Table 31: Linear Regression Analysis between Demographic Factors and Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	4.317	.500		8.627	.000	3.320	5.315
Sex	-.625	.412	-.173	-1.515	.134	-1.447	.197
Age	.193	.209	.162	.922	.360	-.224	.609
Educational Qualification	.356	.333	.163	1.069	.288	-.307	1.019
Work experience as a trainers	-.530	.328	-.309	-1.618	.110	-1.183	.123

Dependent Variable: Overall job satisfaction(*OJS*)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.246 ^a	.060	.009	1.39116	.060	1.175	4	73	.329

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience as a trainer , Sex, Education , Age

From the table 31 the age and educational qualification demographic factors are a weak positive predictor with (B =0.193 and 0.356respectively), while Sex and work experience as a trainers with (B=-0.625 & -0.530 respectively) are negative predictor of the Overall job satisfaction.

The educational qualification is weak positive predictor as first(B =0.356) which consistent Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009) study which found a negative relationship between educational level and job satisfaction but inconsistent with the study of Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) which indicated that education has a negative impact on job satisfaction.

Besides agealso shows as the second weak positive predictor (B =0.193) of the Overall job satisfaction which not supports Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) study, in which age was one of the factors found to impact negatively on job satisfaction, in the sense that job satisfaction decreased with age (Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999).

On the other hand, Sex and work experience as a trainers are negative predictor of the Overall job satisfaction with (B=-0.625 & -0.530 respectively). The sex and work experience as a trainer a negative relationship with dependent variable that is overall job satisfaction of trainers. Regarding work experience the study consistent with Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009) study who indicated that teaching experience and job satisfaction are negatively related - an increase in teaching experience was followed by a decrease in job satisfaction.

From the table 31 the t value of Age (t calculated= 0.922 greater than t tabulated= 0.360), t value of Educational Qualification (t calculated= 1.069 greater than t tabulated= .288), t value of Sex (t calculated= /-1.515/ greater than t tabulated=0 .134), t value of Work experience as a trainers (t calculated= /-1.618/ greater than t tabulated=0.110), show that the evidence to reject the null hypothesis or accept the alternative hypothesis.

From the above table 31 of model summary R² showed that the demographic factors have moderate effect on the overall job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainer because the value of R² is 0.06. Thus implies that TVET college trainers' job satisfaction is affected not only by leadership style but also demographic factors matter.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter deals with the summary of the major findings, conclusions and recommendations.

5.1 Summary of Major Findings

The general objective of this study was to assess the relationship between Leadership styles and full-time Trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State. The reason why the researcher was aiming to determine the above-mentioned objective was to ascertain whether or not incorrect usage of leadership styles could be directly linked to the current rate of staff turnover experienced within Adama TVET College in Adama City Administration of Oromia Regional State. In addition to this, whether or not some demographic facts are associated with job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainers' also examined as specific objective as perceived by trainers' aspects.

Research Questions and Its Hypotheses:

Research Question 1: Which leadership style (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire) is dominant among College leaders in Adama TVET College?

Research Question 2: What is the extent of the relationship between transformational leadership style such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, and job satisfaction variables in Adama TVET College?

In analyzing this question, the following hypothesis was generated:

H2₀: There is no significance relationship between the facets of transformational leadership style [idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, recognition, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

H2_a: There is a significance relationship between the facets of transformational leadership style [idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion,

supervision, fringe benefits, recognition, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

Research Question 3: What is the extent of the relationship between transactional leadership style such as contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive) and job satisfaction variables in Adama TVET College?

Regarding with this question, the following hypothesis was developed for testing:

H3₀: There is no significance relationship between the facets of transactional leadership style [contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive)] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

H3_a: There is a significance relationship between the facets of transactional leadership style [contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive)] and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

Research Question 4: What is the extent of the relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction variables in Adama TVET College?

In addressing the problem, the question was transformed to the following hypothesis:

H4₀: There is no significance relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

H4_a: There is a significance relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication.

Research Question 5: what are the demographic facts that are associated with Adama TVET College trainers' job satisfaction?

Consistent with this question of the study, the following hypothesis was developed for testing:

H5₀: There is no significance relationship between demographic aspects such as gender, age, work experience and educational background and job satisfaction (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall) job satisfaction.

H5_a: There is a significance relationship between demographic aspects such as gender, age, work experience and educational background] and job satisfaction (extrinsic, intrinsic and overall) job satisfaction.

In order to address these basic questions and hypothesis; questionnaire, interview and document analysis were employed to gather information. 14 MLQ-5X self-rater, 95 MLQ-5X rater and job satisfaction (JSS) Paired with demographic questionnaires were distributed for Adama TVET college leaders and trainers respectively. All the questionnaires distributed (self rater 100% and rater 79.6%) were properly filed and returned which was as general 84.4% response rate. At last the study came up with the following major findings.

5.1.1 Characteristics of the Participants

Male (92.9%, N=13) and female (7.1%, N=1) TVET college leaders and (82.1%, N=64) male and (17.9%, N=14) female trainers have been involved as respondents during the study. The data shows that, female's participation either as college leaders or trainers was very low. Therefore, enormous efforts are expected from the TVET College to encourage females' participation in the areas. Educational qualification of all TVET college leaders were BA/BEd/BSC, i.e. 14(100%). Among trainers, (30.8%, N=24) Diploma, (56.4 %, N=44) BA//BEd/BSC and (12.8 %, N=10) MA/MSc. When the majority of trainers were (29.5%, N=23) worked under current College leader Above 6 years, only (28.6%, N=4) of college leaders had experiences from 1-2 years worked on current position. Regarding age distribution when most of the leaders falling in the range of 36 to 45 years of age (35.7%, N=5), the majority's of trainers age group was between 26 to 35 years (37.2%, N=29). While (85.8%, N=12) of the TVET college leaders had between (5-10) years and above 10 years experience (42.9%, N=6 each), 2(14.2) of the trainers had less than 5 years of experience as trainers. From the total trainer respondents, majority (46%, N=36) of them were Level-A in their job level.

5.1.2 Descriptive Analysis of Job Satisfaction

Descriptive statistics of the job satisfaction revealed the average mean score 3.47 as perceived by trainers. According to the finding, most of the trainers were more satisfied with the coworker (mean=3.92) and followed by the nature of the work and operating conditions of the job satisfaction dimensions with mean 3.62, and 3.61 respectively. The trainers also moderately

satisfied with the communication, supervision, contingent rewards, fringe benefits, and promotion of the job satisfaction dimensions. The data also revealed that most trainers were to some extent least satisfied with the pay mean 3.00 within the organization.

5.1.3 Summary of Major Findings related to Research Question 1

Research Question 1 focuses on determining the dominant leadership style (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire) among College leaders in Adama TVET College as perceived by Adama TVET college trainers and leaders. To address research question 1 means, standard deviation and t-test analysis were employed.

5.1.3.1 Comparison for the MLQ (College Leaders and Trainers) Responses based on Means, Standard Deviation & Standard Error Mean

According to the descriptive statistics of leadership styles as perceived by the TVET college leaders, the mean score for transformational leadership (2.94) was the highest in comparison to transactional (2.60) and laissez-faire (0.90) leadership. Similarly, as perceived by the TVET college trainer, the mean score for transformational leadership (2.39) was the highest in comparison to transactional (2.26) and laissez-faire (0.62) leadership. This indicated that the highest perceived leadership style (both by trainer and college leaders) at Adama TVET College was transformational leadership, second transformational leadership style, and the last one is laissez-faire leaders. This therefore meant that transformational leadership style was the most perceived leadership style by the trainers and college leaders of Adama TVET College.

5.1.3.2 T-test of Paired Samples

According to the result of T-test of Paired samples test, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean score of trainer and leaders for transformational leadership with ($t=0.556$ and $p=0.5677$), for transactional leadership with ($t=1.113$ and $p=0.466$), and for laissez faire leadership with ($t=1.750$ and $p=0.330$). Thus have the implication that both groups have almost similar perception towards the leadership styles qualified of the college leaders.

5.1.4 Summary of Major Findings Related to Research Question 2-4

Research Questions 2-4 focuses on determining whether or not there are statistically significance differences, the type and extent (the direction and strength) of the relationship between leadership

styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style) and job satisfaction sub-variables as measures in terms of pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, recognition, operating procedure, co-worker, nature of the work, and communication as perception of trainer in Adama TVET College.

In order to address statistically significance differences, strength and direction, and how well the independent variable predict the dependent variable for research Questions 2-4 based on response as perceived by trainers: Pearson product moment Correlation Analysis, Analysis of Variances(ANOVA), and Linear Regression analysis were employed and major findings are presented as follows.

5.1. 4. 1 Correlation Analysis between Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

A Person product moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and job satisfaction dimensions. Accordingly, there was a positive but no statistically significant correlation between transformational leadership style and pay, coworkers, and nature of the work dimensions of job satisfaction. The correlation between transformational leadership style and promotion, contingent reward, fringe benefits, operating conditions, and communication was negative but no statistically significant.

According to the findings of the study, there was a positive but no statistically significant correlation between transactional leadership style and pay, promotion, supervision, fringe-benefits, operating conditions, and nature of the work and communication of the job satisfaction dimensions. On the other hand, there was a negative, but no statistically significant correlation between transactional leadership style and contingent reward and coworker dimension of job satisfaction.

The results of study also revealed that, there was a negative statistically insignificant correlation between laissez fair leadership style and supervision, fringe benefits, operating conditions, and coworker dimensions of job satisfaction. But, there was a positive, but no statistically significant correlation between laissez faire leadership style and pay, promotion, contingent reward, nature of the work and communication dimensions of job satisfaction.

A Pearson product moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the link between leadership styles and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Accordingly, there was a statistically in

significant negative correlation between transformational leadership, and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. There was a positive and negative but no statistically significant correlation between transactional leadership and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction respectively. The finding also revealed that, there was a positive no statistically significant correlation between laissez faire leadership, and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

5.1. 4.2 ANOVA of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

A one way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the statistically significance difference of transformational leadership style on the dimension of job satisfaction of trainers at Adama TVET College. Accordingly, results in table 23 showed that except for the fringe benefits dimension of job satisfaction ($F(4, 73) = 2.516, p < 0.05$), there were no statistically significant differences in mean scores across the groups of participants for the rest dimensions of job satisfaction according to perception of trainers. Only fringe benefits dimensions of job satisfaction is significant. This implied that most trainers of transformational leaders had almost equal view on the rest dimensions of the job satisfaction regarding their satisfaction and the level of their satisfaction differs on Fringe Benefits dimensions of the job satisfaction. So the above result showed that transformational leadership has a significant impact on fringe benefit.

There were no statistically significant differences in mean scores of all dimensions of job satisfaction across the groups of participants under transactional leaders.

For trainers under laissez faire leaders, the fringe benefits dimension of job satisfaction ($F(4, 73) = 2.938, p = 0.026$) was statistically significant differences in mean scores across the groups of participants, but in the rest dimensions of the job satisfaction there were no statistically significant differences in mean scores across the groups of participants. This implied that except for fringe benefits the view of subordinates of laissez-faire leaders was almost similar regarding the levels of their job satisfaction in all dimensions of job satisfaction.

5.1.4.3 Linear Regression Analysis Leadership Styles and Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

A Linear regression analysis was also calculated using each leadership style as predictors and total job satisfaction as the dependent variable. Result shows that, both transformational and transactional leadership styles have positive relation with overall job satisfaction, while laissez faire leadership related negatively with overall job satisfaction. This therefore implied that

subordinates of the transformational and transactional leaders were more satisfied with their jobs than subordinates of laissez-faire leaders.

According to the findings, the domain of transformational leadership emerged as the weak positive predictor (the highest) and transactional leadership as the second predictor of the overall job satisfaction. Thus if transformational leadership style increases by one unit, overall job satisfaction will increase by .049 unit.

Additionally, transactional leadership style has more effect on trainer over all job satisfaction than laissez faire leadership style, if transformational leadership style increases by one unit, overall job satisfaction will increase by 0.003 units. On the other hand, if laissez faire leadership decreases by one unit, the overall job satisfaction increased by 0.085 units. Thus mean that mostly the transformational leadership style has an impact on job satisfaction of Adama TVET College trainers`.

From the table 30, the t value of transformational leadership style ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0.316$ less than $t_{\text{tabulated}}= 0.753$) as this result the null hypothesis two (H_{2_0}) accepted, t value of transactional leadership style ($t_{\text{calculated}}= 0.020$ less than $t_{\text{tabulated}}= .984$) hence the null hypothesis three (H_{3_0}) accepted, t value of laissez faire leadership style ($t_{\text{calculated}}=-0.573/$ greater than $t_{\text{tabulated}}= 0.568$), as thus the decision is null hypothesis four (H_{4_0}) rejected.

Bass developed the full range leadership model based on his belief that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are not ends on a single continuum but rather are leadership patterns that all leaders possess and use in differing amounts. For exceptional performance, transformational leadership behaviors need to augment transactional leadership behaviors (Bass and Avolio, 1993). Therefore, according to Bass, the best performance is the result of using both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors with subordinates.

5.1.5 Summary of Major Findings related to Research Question 5

Research Question 5 focuses on determining whether or not there are differences in trainer perception of trainer job satisfaction based on demographic information (i.e., sex, age, educational level, and years of working experience). Since the researcher wanted to compare four different group means to see if there were statistically significant differences between the means, analysis of variance (ANOVA) Was employed (Slavin, 2007). In this study, trainer's job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction) was compared to trainers' sex, age, educational level, and

years of working experience in order to determine if significant differences evident. In order to examine differences by trainer sex categorized in to (male and female), age five groups were established based on the distribution of age variables. Trainers age were divided into five groups: Group 1 (ages Under 26 years); Group 2 (ages 26 to 35 years); Group 3 (ages 36 to 45 years); Group 4 (ages 46 to 55 years) and, Group 5(ages 56 years & above). trainers education level(Diploma, BA/BEd/BSC and MA/MSc) and work experience as trainers into (age< 5, 5 to10, and Above 10 years). In addition to this a linear regression was also conducted in order to indicate the influence of demographic factors on overall job satisfaction.

5.1.5.1ANOVA of trainer Demographic factors and Job Satisfaction

The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainers' job satisfaction and trainer sex. Male and female were used in this section. ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainers' perceptions of job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction) and trainers' sex.

The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainer job satisfaction and trainer age. The age groupings by years (group1= < 26, group 2= 26 to 35, group3= 36 to 45, group 4= 46 to 55, and group 5= 56 years & above) were used in this section. ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainer perceptions of job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, Overall job satisfaction) and trainer age groups.

The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainer's job satisfaction and trainer educational qualification (Diploma, Bachelor's degree, and Master's degree). ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainer perceptions of trainer job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction) and trainer educational qualification.

The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing with respect to trainer job satisfaction and years of working experience as trainers. Work experience as trainers grouped into (age< 5, 5 to10, and Above 10 years). ANOVA testing revealed no statistically significant differences between trainer perceptions of trainer job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, or overall job satisfaction) and Trainer work experience as trainer with ($F(2, 75) = 0.510, p = 0.602$, $F(2, 75) = 1.266, p = 0.288$, and $F(2, 75) = 0.648, p = 0.526$) respectively.

Thus above ANOVA results implies that the existence of similar view across the groups of sex, age, educational qualification and work experience as trainer on the issues as perceived by trainers.

5.1.5.2 Linear Regression Analysis of Demographic Factors and Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

Concerning demographic factors, there was a positive no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors (Educational Qualification and Age) and overall job satisfaction but negative no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors (Sex and Work experience as a trainers) and overall job satisfaction.

According to the findings, the Educational Qualification and Age demographic factors are a weak positive predictor with ($B = .356$, and $.193$ respectively) while, work experience as a trainers and sex are negative predictor of the Overall job satisfaction.

As the first Educational Qualification is a weak positive predictor ($B = 0.356$) and age is the second weak positive predictor ($B = .193$) of the Overall job satisfaction. On the other hand the Sex and Work experience as a trainers has a negative relationship ($B = -0.625$ and -0.530 respectively) with dependent variable that is overall job satisfaction trainers.

From the table 31 the t value of Age ($t_{\text{calculated}} = .922$ greater than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = 0.360$), t value of Educational Qualification ($t_{\text{calculated}} = 1.069$ greater than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = .288$), t value of Sex ($t_{\text{calculated}} = -1.515$ greater than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = .134$), and t value of Work experience as a trainers ($t_{\text{calculated}} = -1.618$ greater than $t_{\text{tabulated}} = 0.110$). The decision is null hypothesis five (H_{5o}) rejected or not supported. Thus above ANOVA results implies that the existence of similar view across the groups of sex, age, educational qualification and work experience as trainer on the issues as perceived by trainers.

5.2 Conclusions

In this study, job satisfaction of trainers, the correlation and influence of leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) on various aspects of dimensions of subordinates (trainers) job satisfaction and ANOVA of demographic factors were investigated and determined.

According the study the following conclusions reached regarding the overall job satisfaction for trainers was moderate; most of the trainers were more satisfied with the coworker dimension than other dimensions of job satisfaction. Regarding transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership and particular dimensions of subordinates' (trainers) job satisfaction:

The results show that each leadership style will relate the trainer job satisfaction factors differently. All the results from the hypotheses-except for the promotion, contingent reward, fringe benefits, operating conditions, and communication dimension of job satisfaction result indicate that a transformational leadership style shows positive relation with the rest job satisfaction factors. Similarly, except for the contingent reward and coworker there was a positive but no statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership style and the all dimensions of job satisfaction. On the other hand, however, laissez-faire leadership except for the pay, promotion, contingent reward, nature of the work and communication dimensions of job satisfaction it shows negatively relationship with all job satisfaction variables and no statistically significant.

The results show that each leadership styles will impact the trainer job satisfaction factors differently. Both transformational and transactional leadership show positive impact on overall job satisfaction while laissez-faire revealed negatively influences.

According to the findings, there was also a positive no statistically significant correlation between demographic factors (Educational Qualification and Age) and overall job satisfaction but negative no statistically significant correlation between demographic factors (Sex and Work experience as a trainers) and overall job satisfaction.

In conclusion, this survey shows that, the ideal leadership style at Adama TVET College Leaders was a mix of transactional and transformational, transformational leadership style was dominant. The overall job satisfaction for trainers was moderate. Both leadership style and demographic factors impact the trainers overall job satisfaction. Therefore, the current rate of trainer turnover experienced within Adama TVET College is not only due to incorrect usage of leadership styles but also demographic factors matter.

5.3 Recommendations

In light of the major finding of the study and the conclusion drawn, the following recommendations are forwarded in order to strengthen the strengthen the positive aspects of college leaders of Adama TVET College with regard to the leadership styles they exercised and to minimize the shortcoming they exhibited.

Taking into account the findings of this study special attention is suggested that to be given by Adama TVET College leaders to motivators such as promotion, contingent reward and nature of the work as well as other dimensions of subordinates' job satisfaction such as: pay, fringe benefits,

supervision, operating conditions, and communication in order to improve job satisfaction among the Adama TVET College trainer. The college will need to consider whether the leadership trainings that have been introduced in the organization are having an impact on the border change process that has been embarked on. More specifically, there is need to evaluate the intervention in terms of sustainability, costs and adding value to the bottom line.

The dominant is transformational leadership style, in order for the Adama TVET College to continue with the “full range development” program, the following actions are recommended:

1. The values and culture of the organization will determine the types of leadership styles to be instilled in the organization. The message may be that of shared vision, which needs to be of transformational leadership, the Adama TVET College wants to emphasis.
2. Even if, there was no statistically significant correlation between transformational leadership style and trainer job satisfaction was positive, the study also revealed that the strength of the correlation was small (weak). In case ANOVA of transformational leadership, only Fringe Benefits dimensions of job satisfaction is significant this implied that most trainers of transformational leaders had almost equal view on their satisfaction of the rest of job satisfaction dimensions. Therefore, an in depth project plan or action plan will need to be designed in terms of the needs of the organization pertaining to leadership training and development. Transformational leadership workshops need to be planned and conducted regularly. Effective training in transformational leadership needs to be based on substantive theory of transformational leadership and specific action plans, in order to achieve the necessarily leadership behaviors.

It is recommended that a key element in implementing a leadership intervention is the use of a training program designed to extend beyond the actual training session. This would then mean collecting subordinated rating of leaders’ leadership styles prior to each leader-training session. These ratings should and would then be used in the training session as feedback to the leaders on the current use of transformational leadership style. This type of training would result on the development of specific action plans for enhancing individual transformational leadership behaviors, this emphasizing the issue of personal feedback and goal setting.

3. Continuous feedback on leadership behaviors, performance evaluation and reward strategy should be enhanced to include transformational leadership behaviors displayed or practiced by college leader. The focus is supposed to be on small behavioral changes and the implementation of those changes that can be sustained over time. Based on subordinate perceptions individuals will be seen

as exhibiting more transformational leadership within few months as result of implementing these goals.

4. The leaders of the Adama TVET College suggested to enhancing their knowledge about leadership styles. This would help them understand how their leading style influences their employees. They should select the style best suited to the organizational goals and trainers' needs and desired. To ensure higher trainer performance and retention, they should act as ethical, behavioral and working as role models and be accepted as such.
5. It is also advisable for TVET college leader to conduct regular meeting s with their respective trainer for a better understanding of the difficulties, unhappiness, or complaints that may arise from time to time during their employment with the college. Such interviews and meetings can be structured on an individual or group basis depending on the needs of the parties concerned. This will enhance mutual understanding between parties and lead to better level of job satisfaction.
6. Further studies could involve a longitudinal study to indicate the differences in leadership style over time. In addition, further research need to conduct cross cultural research to explore the impact of national culture on the relationship between leadership style and trainers' job satisfaction in order to replicate this study at different cultures and generalise the findings. Finally, further research could use a qualitative approach or mixed approach in order to analyse all the issues related to both concepts leadership styles and job satisfaction by considering demographic factors also.
7. To succeed in today's fact changing educational environment, it is recommended that Adama TVET college leaders suggested that to adopt a transformational leadership style but use the mix of transformational and transactional leadership styles by avoiding laissez-faire leadership ones and spend time instead coaching, paying attention to employees' desires, abilities and needs, help them develop their talent, and provide a supportive environment to enhance trainers' job satisfaction consistently and efficiently; which will in turn generate higher quality performance on the trainers' part and could minimize the prevailed attrition.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: PERMISSION TO MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (MLQ)

On Fri, Feb 27, 2015 at 4:48 AM,
KebedeBultuma <kebede.b51@gmail.com> wrote:

Date: February 27, 2015

To: Mr. Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Dear: Mr. Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

My name is KebedeBultuma. I am a second year M.A student at Adama Science and Technology University, Department of Educational Planning and Management. My ID number is GSR/6436/06. I am writing to request your permission to send me and to use the “Multifactor leadership questionnaire” as one of my survey instrument for my Master’s Degree dissertation. The title of my proposed research is “The relationship of leadership styles and trainers’ job satisfaction at Adama TVET College”. So I would appreciate if you could kindly give me permission to use the multifactor leadership questionnaire (leader and rater form) and scoring guide (from 5x-short). If there is additional information you require, please contact me via email kebede.b51@gmail.com, phone “+251911254302”. My Advisor is Abdu Abagibe (Dr.) at Adama Science and Technology University email: abduabagibe2005@gmail.com “Phone”+25191659738. Thank you for your kind assistance on my research.

With best regards

KebedeBultuma

Adama Science and Technology University (M.A. student)

Mind Garden <info@mindgarden.com>

Feb 27

to me

Hello KebedeBultuma,

Thank you for contacting Mind Garden.

As you may imagine, we receive numerous requests for additional discounts (and free products), as the vast majority of our customers are in the academic environment. However in fairness to our authors -- who work for years and sometimes decades to establish valid and reliable instruments -- we do not offer student discounts.

In order to obtain permission to administer the MLQ, you need to order "License to Reproduce" or "Online Survey" for the intended number of administrations. The MLQ licenses are available for purchase [here](#).

Best,

Katherine
Mind Garden, Inc.



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አዳማ- ኢትዮጵያ - Adama,Ethiopia

Date 15 ሚያዝያ 2007
 Ref 3/4/201/4/10570/07

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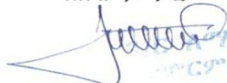
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Appendix B: Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS

Paul E. Spector

The job satisfaction survey, JSS is a 36 item, nine facet scales to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine facets are pay, promotion, supervision, Fringe Benefits, contingent rewards (performance based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service organizations, it is applicable to all organizations. The norms provided on this website include a wide range of organization types in both private and public sector.

For more information about the development and psychometric properties of the JSS, consult the following sources:

Spector, P. E(1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job satisfaction survey. *American Journal of community Psychology*, 13,693-713.

Spector, P E. 1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

The JSS is provided free for noncommercial education and research purposes.

Job satisfaction survey, Copyright Paul E. Spector, 1994, all rights reserved.

October 8, 2001

Appendix C: LETTER TO THE ADAMA TVET COLLEGE, REQUESTING FOR COOPERATION TO DO RESEARCH

TO: Adama TVET College

Date: March 10, 2015
Ref No: CD / 01 / 07 / 2015

Lamma Dadi (Dr)
Coordinator of Continuing
and Summer Education

Subject: Request for Cooperation

Mr. Kebede Bultuma (GSR/6436/06) is a post graduate student in the Department of Educational Planning & Management at Adama Science & Technology University.

He is currently conducting his research work as partial fulfillment for his study. The title of his proposed research is "The relationship of leadership styles and trainers' job satisfaction at Adama TVET College".

Thus, we sincerely request your cooperation to share him your rich experiences, provide him the necessary information, and other relevant services.

With regards,



C.C

Mr. Kebebed Bulutma

Appendix D: PERMISSION TO SURVEY TVET COLLEGES

Date: May 25, 2015

Dear Adama TVET College Dean:

My name is Kebede Bultuma and I am a post graduate student in the Department of Educational Planning & Management at Adama science & Technology University. My proposed research topic is “The relationship of leadership styles and trainers’ job satisfaction at Adama TVET College”. You and your college have been identified as meeting that description. To collect my data I am asking permission to survey your college leaders and full-time college trainers at your college. Please note that all the information collected will serve no other purpose than that of academic research and all names will be kept confidential. The estimated time to complete the questionnaire is about 10-15 minutes. The respondents can fill survey out anytime over four-five days time period.

I wanted the Dean of the college to be aware of the research study I am conducting and provide permission for me to solicit survey responses from college. I am happy to provide the results of this research study to your college, as I feel the information is beneficial to a college. If you are willing to allow me, please simply e-mail me at kebede.b51@gmail.com with your confirmation. I appreciate your consideration, and I hope you will allow me to conduct this research in your institution. Here attached requesting for cooperation letter.

Thank you,

Kebede Bultuma

Appendix E: Questionnaire to be filled by College Leaders (Self- Rater)

Adama Science and Technology University

School of Education Science and Technology Teachers Education

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Questionnaire to be filled by College leaders (TVET dean, Vice deans, process owners, Sector heads, and Department heads)

Dear respondent:

This questionnaire is designed to solicit the relevant information for the research carried out for partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Master of Art Degree in Educational Leadership on “The relationship between leadership styles and trainers’ job satisfaction in Adama TVET College of Oromia Regional State”. The study is conducted for academic purpose and your responses will be kept confidential. The soundness and the validity of the findings highly depend on your kind and genuine responses. Therefore, I kindly request you to fill the questionnaire carefully and return to me as much as possible within four days.

I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation in advance for your kind cooperation in spending your time to fill the questionnaire.

General Instruction

- 1. No need of writing your name.**
- 2. Please answer each of the three parts of the questionnaire as per the instruction given under it.**
- 3. If you require further clarification or details, please contact me with either of the following address.**

Phone: 0911254302

Email: kebede.b51@gmail.com

Part I. Information about demographic data

In this part it is about your demographic information. Please put a tick (✓) mark in the box “☐ ” and write it precisely on the spaces provided for your answer.

1. Name of the department, process owner, Sector or etc. you work in the College

2. Sex : A. Male ☐ Female ☐

3. Age : A. under 25 years ☐ B. 26-35 years ☐ C. 36-45 years ☐

- D. 46-55 years ☐ E. 56 years & above ☐

4. Educational qualification:

- A. Diploma ☐ B. BA /BEd/ BSC ☐

- C. MA/MSc ☐ D. If any, please specify _____

5. Field of specialization _____

6. Total Years of service in college as trainers _____

7. Years of service in college as a leader _____

8. Total years of experiences in your current position _____

9. Organizational position _____

Part II. Leader Opinion Survey-Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire self form (MLQ)

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet.

Forty five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals. Please circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it by using the following rating scale: 0= Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2= Sometimes, 3= fairly often, and 4= frequently, if not always.

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Nº	Items	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4

Inclusion of this instrument is limited to five samples due to the copy right issue.

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Appendix F: Questionnaire to be filled by College Trainers (Rater)

Adama Science and Technology University

School of Education Science and Technology Teachers Education

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Questionnaire to be filled by Full-Time Trainers

Dear respondent:

This questionnaire is designed to solicit the relevant information for the research carried out for partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Master of Art Degree in Educational Leadership on “The relationship between leadership styles and trainers’ job satisfaction in Adama TVET College of Oromia Regional State”. The study is conducted for academic purpose and your responses will be kept confidential. The soundness and the validity of the findings highly depend on your kind and genuine responses. Therefore, I kindly request you to fill the questionnaire carefully and return to me as much as possible within four days.

I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation in advance for your kind cooperation in spending your time to fill the questionnaire.

General Instruction

- 1. No need of writing your name**
- 2. Please answer each of the three parts of the questionnaire as per the instruction given under it.**
- 3. If you require further clarification or details, please contact me with either of the following address.**

Phone: 0911254302

Email: kebede.b51@gmail.com

Part I. Information about demographic data (trainers)

In this part it is about your demographic information. Please put a tick (✓) mark in the box “☐ ” and write it precisely on the spaces provided for your answer.

4. Name of the department you work in the College _____

5. Sex : A. Male ☐ B. Female ☐

6. Age : A. under 25 years ☐ B. 26-35 years ☐ C. 36-45 years ☐
D. 46-55 years ☐ E. 56 years & above ☐

7. Your present educational qualification:

A. Diploma ☐ B. BA/BEd/ BSC ☐

C. MA/MSc ☐ D. If any, please specify _____

5. Your field of specialization _____

6. Total years of service with your current college leader:

A. 1-2 years ☐ B. 3-4 years ☐

C. 5-6 years ☐ D. Above 6 years ☐

7. Total Years of service in college as trainers: _____ Years

8. Your job level: A. Level A ☐ Level B ☐ C. Level C ☐

Part II. Trainer Opinion Survey-Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire rater form (MLQ)

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of your current college leader as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person (your college leader) you are describing. Please circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it by using the following rating scale: 0= Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2= Sometimes, 3= fairly often, and 4= frequently, if not always.

N o	© 1995 Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. All Rights Reserve d. Published by Mind Garden, Inc., www.mindgarden.com ITEMS	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
	1 Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
	2 Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
	3 Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
	4 Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
	5 Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4

Inclusion of this instrument is limited to five samples due to the copy right issue.

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Part III. Trainer Opinion Survey-JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY (JSS)

This section consists of 36 items used to describe your level of satisfaction in your job. The six point scales of the alternative represent form a score of one being the lowest possible score to a score of six being the highest possible score for positive statements of satisfaction and a score of one being the highest possible score to a score of six being the lowest possible score for negative statements of dissatisfaction from the list provided.

Please indicate your level of satisfaction by circling the one number for each question for the alternative given using the following rating scale: 1=Disagree very much, 2= Disagree moderately, 3= Disagree slightly, 4= Agree slightly, 5= Agree moderately, and 6= Agree very much.

N ^o	Items	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization(College)	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises in salaries are too few and far between	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My leader/supervisor is unfair to me	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits/incentives we receive are as good as most other organizations offer	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work	1	2	3	4	5	6

18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I fell unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My leader/supervisor shows too little interest in the feeling's of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit/incentive package we have is equitable	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor/leader	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paper work	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained	1	2	3	4	5	6

===== Thank you Once Again!! =====

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Appendix G: Operationalization of Leadership Styles

Transformational Style Operationalization

Idealized Influence (attributed): instills pride and builds trust.

Idealized Influence (behavior): emphasizes collective sense of mission, and talks about values and beliefs.

Inspirational Motivation: expresses enthusiasm, optimism, and confidence.

Intellectual Stimulation: encourages problem solving, critical thinking, and creativity.

Individualized Consideration: develops, coaches, and teaches.

Transactional style Operationalization

Contingent Reward: recognizes accomplishments and clarifies expectations.

Management-by-Exception (active): takes immediate action to correct problems and highlights mistakes or errors.

Management-by-Exception (passive): waits for problems to become chronic or serious before correcting.

Laissez-Faire style Operationalization

Laissez-Faire: acts non-involved, displays indifference, overlooks achievements, and ignore problems.

Appendix H: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Scoring Key

Description	Leadership Factors	Raw Factors	Number		
	Transformational	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	9	14	17
	Transformational	Idealized Influence (Behaviors)	6	18	25
	Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	8	12	27
	Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	2	7	23
	Transformational	Individualized Consideration	13	15	22
Constructive transaction	Transactional	Contingent Reward	1	10	26
Corrective transaction	Transactional	Management by Exception (Active)	4	19	20
Corrective transaction	Transactional	Management by Exception (Passive)	3	11	16
	Non-Transactional	Laissez-Faire	5	21	24

Appendix I: Operationalization of Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Operationalization

Pay: amount and fairness or equity of salary

Promotion: opportunities and fairness of promotions

Supervision: fairness and competence at managerial tasks by one's supervisor

Benefits: insurance, vacation, and other fringe benefits

Contingent rewards: sense of respect, recognition, and appreciation

Operating procedures: policies, procedures, rules, perceived red tape

Coworkers: perceived competence and pleasantness of one's colleagues

Nature of work: enjoyment of the actual tasks themselves

Communication: sharing of information within the organization.

Appendix J: Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSS) Scoring Key

Job Satisfaction	Raw Factors	Numbers			
	<i>Pay</i>	1	10	19	28
	<i>Promotion</i>	2	11	20	29
	<i>Supervision</i>	3	12	21	30
	<i>Benefits</i>	4	13	22	31
	<i>Contingent rewards</i>	5	14	23	32
	<i>Operating procedures</i>	6	15	24	33
	<i>Coworkers</i>	7	16	25	34
	<i>Nature of work</i>	8	17	26	35
	<i>Communication</i>	9	18	27	36

Appendix K: Table of codebook participants' profiles

Variable	SPSS Variable Name	Coding Instruction	Scale
Identification number	ID	Number assigned to each questionnaire of participant	Scale
Gender	Sex	0= Male 1 = Female	Nominal
Age	Age	Age in years: 1 =< 26 years 2 = 26 to 35 years 3 = 36 to 45 years 4 = 46 to 55 years 5 =>56 years	Scale
Educational qualifications	Edu	1 = Diploma 2 = BA/BED/BSC 3 = MA/MSc 4 = if Others	Scale
Number of years Worked as trainers	NYWET	Work experience as trainers in years: 1 = < 5 years 2 = 5-10 years 3 = > 10 years	Scale
worked under current College leader	WEUCL	1= 1- 2 years 2= 3-4 years 3= 5-6 years 4= >6 years	Scale
Worked on current position as leader	WECL	1=1- 2 years 2=3-4 years 3=5-6 years 4= >6 years	Scale
Total years of experience as leader	TNYWEL	1 = < 5 years 2 = 5-10 years 3 = > 10 years	Scale
Job level	Job level	1 = Level -A 2 = Level -B 3 = Level -C	Ordinal

Appendix L: Table of codebook of leader ship styles

Variable	SPSS Variable Name	Coding Instruction	Scale
Contingent reward	CR01	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Intellectual stimulation	IS02	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(passive)	MBEP03	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(active)	MBEA04	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Laissez-faire leadership	LF05	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(behavior)	IIB06	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Laissez-faire leadership	LF07	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal

Intellectual stimulation	IS08	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Inspirational motivation	IM09	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(attributed)	IIA10	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Contingent reward	CR11	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(passive)	MBEP12	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Inspirational motivation	IM13	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(behavior)	IIB14	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Individual consideration	IC15	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal

Contingent reward	CR16	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(passive)	MBEP17	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(attributed)	IIA18	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Individual consideration	IC19	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(passive)	MBEP20	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(attributed)	IIA21	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(active)	MBEA22	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(behavior)	IIB23	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal

Management-by-exception(active)	MBEA24	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Idealized influence(attributed)	IIA25	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Inspirational motivation	IM26	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal
Management-by-exception(active)	MBEA27	0 = Not at all 1 = Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always	Ordinal

Appendix M: Table of Codebook of Trainers Job Satisfaction

Variable	SPSS VariableName	Coding Instruction	Scale
Pay	Pay01	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Promotion	Pro02r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Supervision	Sup03	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Fringe benefits	FB04r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Contingent rewards	CR05	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Operating conditions	OC06r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Co-workers	Cow07	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately	Ordinal

		6 = Agree very much	
Nature of work	Now08r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Communication	Com09	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Pay	Pay10r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Promotion	Pro11	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Supervision	Sup12r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Fringe benefits	FB13	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Contingent rewards	CR14r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Operating conditions	OC15	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly	Ordinal

		4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	
Co-workers	Cow16r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Nature of work	Now17	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Communication	Com18r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Pay	Pay19r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Promotion	Pro20	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Supervision	Sup21r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Fringe benefits	FB22	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Contingent rewards	CR23r	1 = Disagree very much	Ordinal

		2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	
Operating conditions	OC24r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Co-workers	Cow25	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Communication	Com26r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Nature of work	Now27	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Pay	Pay28	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Fringe benefits	FB29r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Supervision	Sup30	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately	Ordinal

		6 = Agree very much	
Operating conditions	OC31r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Contingent rewards	CR32r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Promotion	Pro33	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Co-workers	Cow34r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Nature of work	Now35	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal
Communication	Com36r	1 = Disagree very much 2 = Disagree moderately 3 = Disagree slightly 4 = Agree slightly 5 = Agree moderately 6 = Agree very much	Ordinal

Appendix N: Verification of the Study Organizations Cooperation

Verification of the Study Organizations Cooperation

April, 2015

Names of the Adama TVET College representatives those allowed me to collect primary data for this study verifies their cooperation in the following manner.

No.	Organizational Position	Name of authorized representative	Contact information		signature
			Email	Telephone	
1	Adama TVET College Dean	1. Fekadu Haile	fekadu.haile@adama.gov.et	0911 7542 7542	[Signature]
2	Adama TVET College Vice Dean	1. Tadesse Gutema	tadesse.gutema@adama.gov.et	0911 83812	[Signature]
3	Adama TVET College process owners	1. Denabek Alebu	-	0911 80553	[Signature]
		2. Mogaw Eumes	-	0911 053072	[Signature]
4	Adama TVET College Sector heads	1. G. S. Seye Dejen	-	0910 411400	[Signature]
		2. Mihrete Tadesse	-	0911 929106	[Signature]
5	Adama TVET College Department heads	1. Rexit Alemayehu	-	0910 184890	[Signature]
		2. Hirpa Madessa	-	0910 422036	[Signature]
		3. Wami Kumbi	-	0913 894512	[Signature]
		4. Hailu Tiki	-	0912 00 8031	[Signature]
6	Adama TVET College Full time Trainers	1. Gnetachew Gesta	-	0986 00 416	[Signature]
		2. Chernet Engida	-	0911 907990	[Signature]
		3. Kalle Kumbi	-	0910 912104	[Signature]